

Kjersti Mordal Moen

"Shaking or stirring"?

A case-study of physical education teacher education in Norway

DISSERTATION FROM THE NORWEGIAN SCHOOL OF SPORT SCIENCES • 2011

ISBN nr 978-82-502-0470-6

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Finally, this long journey of doctoral work is over, and first of all I would like to thank the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences (NIH) for giving me this PhD scholarship. However, there are also many individuals that deserve thanks for enabling me to complete this PhD.

First of all I would like to thank Professor and Head of Department for Physical Education (SKP) at NIH, Gunn Engelsrud, for always being understanding and supportive, and not least, for adapting my working conditions in a way that made it possible for me to cross the finishing line. I have also appreciated Gunn's ability to constrain me (and other colleagues' at SKP) to reflect on pedagogy, research, and the study programmes offered at SKP.

Further, I am in great gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Ken Green, who, after "finding" me in Elverum, made me return to my doctoral work. I admire his engagement, and especially his ability to make me believe in the relevance of the research project, and myself as a researcher. Further, his commitment to the role as supervisor, and the effort he has put into reading and discussing my work has been especially educative on me, and has encouraged me to, in Ken's word: "KRO". Even though I at times (especially in the final stage of the PhD), found Chester and Elverum to be at a long distance, I think we have managed to find a good balance of the need for face-to-face communication, and the realization that e-mail and "snail-mail" also were productive ways to communicate in a supervisor-student-relationship. I also want to thank Ken's partner, Professor Miranda Thurston, for always being supportive and encouraging.

Further, all my colleagues at SKP deserves thanks for inspiring discussions, when I (occasionally, but far too little) spent time at NIH. A special thanks to my fellow PhD students at SKP and Per for both educative discussions alongside sharing "stipendiat frustration" at the "stipendiat-forum".

The participants in this study do also deserve particular thanks. This entire study is based on their willingness to participate in interviews. A special thanks to the leadership at Nord University College (UC) (pseudonym), who gave me the possibility to do to the case-study at their institution.

I also want to thank Dr. Eivind Skille for reading and commenting on the final drafts of the thesis, and for all the inspiring lunches loaded with research-talk, and not least, good friendship with the whole Skille family.

To all my friends, close and far away, for always being by my side and encouraging me in all stages in the process. First and foremost, Trine, for acting as my eminent personal scientific assistant in the finishing stage of this PhD, but above all, for being a close and admired friend. To Liv, my good friend and colleague PhD student, for always reminding me that writing a PhD is supposed to be a learning process. Siri, for helping out whenever I needed computer assistance, and above all, when I needed to talk about other issues than research. To Linda, for her support, especially in the final stage in the working process. To Karin and Christina and their families, for long-time friendship, and for opening their homes when I needed a bed in Oslo. And all the others (you know who you are); thank you for supporting me and, above all, for being my friends!

Finally, I would like to thank my family; my parents and parents in law for being helpful when the “army” needed Ingar, and I needed help with the children. Last, but not least, the most important persons in my life; my husband Ingar and our two lovely children Jacob and Josefine, this journey would never be completed without you by my side. Ingar, your support and patience throughout the whole process has been remarkable; you are my best friend - I love you. Jacob and Josefine, thanks for bringing joy and happiness into my life, your presence have helped me forget work and pressure. Now, I look forward to spend more time with you, hence I am happy to answer Jacob’s (frequently asked) question: “have you completed the book mummy” with a big “YES!”

Elverum, August, 10th 2011

Kjersti Mordal Moen

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to research physical education teacher educators' (PETEs) (and to a lesser extent physical education [PE] students') perspectives on the nature and purposes of physical education teacher education (PETE). Questions to be answered were: How do PETEs (and PE students) view the purposes of PETE, that is to say what are their philosophies and ideologies regarding PE and PETE? How do PETEs view the nature of PETE in practice, in other words, how do they view their roles and identities as PETEs? How do the PETEs experience working as PETEs, and how do PE students view being PE students? Finally, the study set out to examine how PETEs at Nord UC implement the kind of PETE the institution was supposed to offer the students?

By taking a grounded theory approach towards theory, the study has also set out to examine the most prominent theories concepts and assumptions of the various theories in previous PETE (and to a lesser extent PE) research. The most commonly adopted theoretical positions in earlier PETE research are critical theory, socialization theory and behaviourist theory, together with gender and feminist theory and social constructivist theory, and more recently some authors have used figurational theory. The grounded theory approach towards theorizing in this study have made it possible to discuss the validity of the existing concepts in terms of whether, and to what extent, they have made sense of the findings of this empirical study of PETE at Nord UC retaining, modifying and/or jettisoning the sensitizing concepts accordingly on the basis of the findings.

To get insight into *how* PETEs (and to a lesser extent PE students) viewed the nature and purposes of PE and PETE, and *why* this seemed to be so, a qualitative approach and a case-study design was considered relevant. Nord UC was chosen as a case on the basis that, as well as being one of the largest providers of PETE in Norway, the breadth of its PETE provision made it reasonably representative of the 15 institutions charged with PETE in Norway (in 2008/2009), hence Nord UC is presented as a *typical* case (Bryman, 2008; Yin, 2009) and it is reason to suggest that findings from this study can be tentatively transferable to the context outside Nord UC.

Findings from this study show that PETEs' (and PE students), as all people, develop and live in contexts. The contexts the PETEs (and PE students) were a part of amounted to various networks or figurations of interdependent people on personal, local and national levels. All-in-all the study has identified that these various contexts constrained and therefore shaped the PETEs' (and PE students) views, beliefs and behaviours towards the appreciation of the PETE to train PE students to teach sports using conventional teaching styles. More specifically, the PETEs' (and PE students) ideologies (philosophies) and practices tended to reflect their socialization in different places at different times and

their socialization manifested itself in their habituses (as sportsmen/women and PE teachers). These habituses, or predispositions, continued to be shaped by the various networks the PETEs had been and continued to be a part of and the interdependencies these networks involved. Especially prominent were some of the networks at the local level, such as PE students, mentor teachers and colleagues, and on the national level; the health proponents and national sport associations. In other words, a noteworthy finding was that the PETEs interdependencies at the local (and national) level which conjoined with the PETEs habituses (as sportsmen, sportswomen and PE teachers), in particular, had significant consequences (power) for the nature and purposes of PETE at Nord UC.

According to the policy documents the various routes for becoming a PE teacher in Norway are grounded on (UFD, 2003a, b, c), and [an] overarching aim of PETE is to educate reflective PE teachers. However, findings from this study seem to confirm earlier research (see, for example, Capel, 2005; Dowling, 2011; Evans, Davies & Penney, 1996; Larsson, 2009; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Velija, Capel, Katene & Hayes, 2008) that PETE neither shakes nor stirs newly-emerging PE teachers' relatively conservative views and practices in relation to PE, let alone, education more generally. A common view among critical theorists is that this need challenging, and that PETE and PETEs are in position to do so. This study suggests, however, that in order to understand why PETE appears neither to shake nor stir the (conservative) ideologies and practices of future PE teachers (and thus fails to educate reflective PE teachers), we need to go beyond the PE student themselves and, for that matter, PETE, because the explanations for social phenomena, in this case PETE at Nord UC, are seldom mono-causal, it is contextual. Critical theorists has [have] over several decades focused on praxis (change) not only to PE (and PE teachers) and PETE (and PETEs), but also to those academics studying PE and PETE, in this case sociologists. It is important to recognize, however, that critical theorists themselves only occasionally acknowledge (and, for that matter, recognize) their own partiality and tacit assumptions and, therefore, lack of detachment in their studies. At the same time, critical theorists often fail to acknowledge just how significant context is in order to understand, in this case, PETEs' views and practices.

The prominence of this case-study of PETE at Nord UC has been to identify the networks PETEs (and PE students) are and have been a part of and the interdependencies (power relations) these networks involved and how this influenced the education provided at Nord UC. All-in-all this have given new insight and understandings on why PE students are "neither shaken nor stirred by training" (Evans, et al., 1996, p. 169).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS..... | i |
| ABSTRACT..... | iii |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS..... | v |
| ABBREVIATIONS..... | x |
| CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION..... | 1 |
| WHY RESEARCH PETE IN NORWAY..... | 1 |
| Previous research on PETE..... | 1 |
| History of PETE and routes to become a PE teacher in Norway..... | 4 |
| AIM OF STUDY..... | 5 |
| OUTLINE OF THESIS..... | 7 |
| CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES..... | 8 |
| TAKING A GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH TOWARDS THEORY..... | 9 |
| PROMINENT THEORIES USED IN RESEARCH ON PETE..... | 10 |
| CRITICAL THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH..... | 12 |
| Domain assumptions and concepts in critical theory..... | 14 |
| Summary and review of critical theory..... | 38 |
| GENDER AND FEMINIST THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH..... | 41 |
| Domain concepts and assumptions in gender and feminist theory..... | 42 |
| Summary and review of gender and feminist theory..... | 45 |
| SOCIALIZATION THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH..... | 46 |
| Domain assumptions and concepts in socialization theory..... | 47 |
| Summary and review of socialization theory..... | 60 |
| BEHAVIOURIST THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH..... | 63 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Domain assumptions and concepts in behaviourist theory..... | 64 |
| Summary and review of behaviourist theory..... | 64 |
| FIGURATIONAL THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH | 65 |
| Domain concepts and assumptions in figurational theory..... | 66 |
| Summary and review of figurational theory..... | 71 |
| PROMINENT CONCEPTS AND ASSUMPTIONS IN NORWEGIAN RESEARCH ON PE AND PETE | 73 |
| Norwegian research on PE | 74 |
| Norwegian research on PETE..... | 79 |
| Summary and review of theoretical approaches in Norwegian research on PE and PETE..... | 88 |
| SENSITIZING CONCEPTS USED IN THIS SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY ON PETE IN NORWAY..... | 89 |
| Summary and review of sensitizing concepts..... | 94 |
| CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND METHODS | 95 |
| METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS..... | 95 |
| Ontological and epistemological considerations | 95 |
| RESEARCH STRATEGY | 101 |
| Research questions | 101 |
| Quantitative and qualitative approaches to research | 102 |
| Research design: Case-study | 105 |
| The judgment criteria for of the case-study at Nord UC | 106 |
| METHODS..... | 115 |
| Interviews | 116 |
| Questionnaire..... | 127 |
| DATA ANALYSES AND INTERPRETATIONS | 127 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Grounded theory | 127 |
| Steps in grounded theory analysis | 128 |
| Analyzing the pilot interviews..... | 131 |
| CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS | 133 |
| THE PURPOSES OF PE ACCORDING TO THE PETEs | 133 |
| Intrinsic benefits of PE | 134 |
| Extrinsic benefits of PE | 134 |
| PE students’ philosophies of PE..... | 137 |
| THE PURPOSES OF PETE ACCORDING TO PETEs | 138 |
| Pedagogy in PETE..... | 139 |
| The five competency aims..... | 145 |
| PETE IN PRACTICE..... | 154 |
| PETEs and teaching..... | 155 |
| PETEs and research..... | 163 |
| PETEs and administration | 166 |
| School practice in PETE..... | 167 |
| PETEs’ perceptions of PE students | 178 |
| PETEs’ perceptions on workload | 186 |
| PETEs’ perceptions of “meeting places”..... | 192 |
| PETEs’ perceptions of change in PETE | 195 |
| PETEs’ perceptions of the status of PETE | 198 |
| PETEs and the “best job in the world” | 200 |
| CONTEXTUALIZING PETE AT NORD UNIVERSITY COLLEGE..... | 201 |
| The PETEs | 202 |
| The institution..... | 204 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Policy documents: The National and Local curricula in PETE..... | 207 |
| Mentor programmes to guide the PETEs | 217 |
| The Quality Reform (2003) | 220 |
| The Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education (NOKUT) | 220 |
| Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway | 221 |
| PETEs knowledge of PE and PETE beyond Norway..... | 222 |
| CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION..... | 225 |
| IDEOLOGIES IN PETE | 226 |
| The ideology of hedonism | 227 |
| The ideology of performativity..... | 228 |
| The ideologies of health and individualism..... | 238 |
| The ideology of mesomorphism..... | 241 |
| Summary: Ideologies in PETE | 241 |
| MAKING SENSE OF PETEs’ IDEOLOGIES | 243 |
| PETEs: The personal dimension..... | 243 |
| PETEs: The local dimension | 254 |
| PETEs: The national dimension | 285 |
| Summary: Making sense of PETEs’ ideologies | 290 |
| MAKING SENSE OF REFLEXIVITY | 293 |
| PETEs’ reflexivity | 294 |
| PETEs’ reflection levels and the consequences for PETE | 299 |
| Summary: Making sense of PETEs’ reflection levels..... | 305 |
| CHAPTER 6: CONCLUDING REMARKS | 308 |
| MAIN FINDINGS FROM THE CASE-STUDY OF PETE..... | 309 |
| PETE neither shakes nor stirs..... | 309 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Characteristics of PETE in Norway..... | 312 |
| PE and PE teachers | 315 |
| THEORETICAL ATTEMPTS TO MAKE SENSE OF PETE..... | 316 |
| THE CASE-STUDY APPROACH..... | 319 |
| FURTHER RESEARCH..... | 319 |
| REFERENCES | 321 |
| APPENDIX | |

ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------|---|
| CPD | Continuing professional development |
| KD | Kunnskapsdepartementet (Name on Ministry from 2006 until present) in English: Ministry of Education and Research (Regjeringen, 2011b). |
| NIF | Norwegian Confederation of Sports |
| NOKUT | Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education |
| NSD | Norwegian Social Science Data Services |
| NSF | Norwegian National Ski Association |
| PBL | Problem-based-learning |
| PE | Physical education |
| PETE | Physical education teacher education |
| PETEs' | Physical education teacher educators |
| UFD | Undervisnings- og forskningsdepartementet (Name on Ministry from 2002 -2005) in English: Ministry of Education and Research (Regjeringen, 2011b). |

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This thesis aims to explore the nature and purposes of physical education teacher education (PETE) in Norway from the perspective of the physical education teacher educators (PETEs) (and, to a lesser extent, PE students). While there is abundant research on the experiences of PE students¹ (see, for example, Larsson, 2009; McCullick, Metzler, Cicek, Jackson & Vickers, 2008; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; O'Bryant, O'Sullivan & Raudensky, 2000; Tsangaridou, 2008) and the context of PETE (see, for example, Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Kirk, 2006; Kirk & Macdonald, 2001; Lawson, 1993; Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1991), the perspectives of those charged with delivering PETE remains relatively under researched. In order to contextualize the study, the introduction briefly considers previous research on PETE (and to a lesser extent PE), before considering the history of, and routes to becoming a PE teacher in Norway. The last section provides an outline of the thesis.

WHY RESEARCH PETE IN NORWAY

Previous research on PETE

PETE is not new research territory. Indeed, it but has been studied over the last 20 to 30 years (see, for example, Curtner-Smith, 2007; Eldar, 1990; Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Flintoff, 1993; Gore, 1990; Kahan, 2002; Larsson, 2009; Lawson, 1986; McCullick, 2001; McCullick et al., 2008; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005; Stroot & Williamson, 1993; Veliija, Capel, Katene & Hayes, 2008) from a variety of perspectives (for example, socialization, pedagogy and gender) as well as a range of theoretical positions. The most prominent theoretical perspectives used in PETE research have tended to be critical theory (see, for example, Curtner-Smith, 2007; Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005), feminist theory (Flintoff, 1993), socialization theory (see, for example, Lawson, 1986; McCullick,

¹ PE students do in this thesis refer to those educating themselves towards becoming PE teachers.

2001; McCullick et al., 2008), behaviourist theory (see, for example, Eldar, 1990; Kahan, 2002) as well, more recently, a figurational theory approach (Velija et al., 2008).

In the Norwegian context, PE in general and PETE more specifically remain a relatively neglected and unexplored research area. Indeed, very little research beyond hovedfag² and master level is available (Jonksås, 2010). In the case of PE in Norway thirteen peer-reviewed articles and five PhD theses (Augestad 2003; Bagøien & Halvari, 2005; Bagøien, Halvari & Nesheim, 2010; Jakobsen, 2010; Midthaugen, 2011; Nordaker, 2009; Næss, 1996, 1998, 2001, 2002; Ommundsen, 1994, 2001a, b, c, 2003, 2004a, 2006; Ommundsen & Kvalø, 2007) were identified. In the field of PETE the amount of research is even smaller, with only four peer reviewed articles available (Dowling, 2006, 2008, 2011; Kårhus, 2010). It is noteworthy that the dominant perspective in the Norwegian PETE research, similar to findings in international research on PETE, was a critical theory approach, incorporating a gender perspective (see, for example, Dowling, 2006, 2008).

A common critique within PETE research generally, and to a lesser extent research on Norwegian PETE, is, that PETE programmes tend to focus on technical issues (see, for example, Curtner-Smith, 2007; Dowling, 2006; Kårhus, 2004b; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005; Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1990). Previous research on how PE teachers become PE teachers, in other words, research on the socialization of PE teachers has addressed themes such as childhood and sporting experience, recruitment to the role as PE teachers (acculturation), the formal education and training of PE teachers (professional socialization), questions related to the actual role of being a PE teacher (occupational socialization) as well as how all of this influence the “philosophies”³ and ideologies of PE teachers (see, for example, Annerstedt, 1991; Armour & Jones, 1998; Green, 2003; Næss, 1998; Stroot & Williamson, 1993; Templin

² Hovedfag is the earlier used academic title of what is now labeled master level.

³ The word “philosophies” in this study refers to the PETEs’ ideas and ways of viewing PE and PETE, rather than philosophy as an academic term.

& Schempp, 1989). A common finding in this research is that professional socialization (in other words, PETE) seems to have little impact on the PE students' already established beliefs on their future roles as PE teachers (Capel, 2005; Curter-Smith, 2001; Evans, Davies & Penney, 1996; Larsson, 2009; Placek, Dodds, Doolittle, Portman, Ratliffe & Pinkham, 1995; Velija et al., 2008). In other words, PE student philosophies or practices in PE seem "neither shaken nor stirred by training" (Evans et al., 1996, p. 169). Some authors, especially those committed to a critical theory strand within the research field of PETE, claim this is because PETE have lacked focus on what they refer to as moral, political and theoretical issues in the education (Curtner-Smith, 2007; Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 2009; Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Gore, 1990, 1993; Hickey, 2001; Kirk, 2006, 2010; Kirk & Macdonald, 2001; Kårhus, 2004b; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Pascual, 2006; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005; Tinning, 1991, 2000, 2002). More specifically, PETE does not confront issues related to such things as a commitment to multi-culturalism (Fernández-Balboa, 1997) and gender equity (Dowling, 2006; Kårhus, 2004a).

So despite the fact that some strands within PETE (especially critical theorist) have been committed to educate PE teachers able to reflect on a theoretical, moral and political level, little evidence has been presented that any of these changes were making teacher education more effective in socializing students into the profession otherwise than earlier (Curtner-Smith, 2007; Gore, 1990, 1993; Hickey, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Metzler & Tjeerdsma, 1998). It is interesting to note, nevertheless, that the same research which claims PETE has failed to educate reflective PE teachers, seems to have put little focus on questioning *why* PETE continues to educate teachers who view the "physical education-as-sport-techniques" (Kirk, 2010, p. 41) rather than as a broader, more enlightening process.

In this regard, it is possible to claim that research on the socialization of PETEs, in other words, research on the socialization of those educating PE teachers and working in

PETE, is an underdeveloped research area both internationally and nationally. Research of this kind may, among other things, offer insight not only into *what* PETEs do in their everyday life and practices in PETE in Norway, but also *why* they do it.

History of PETE and routes to become a PE teacher in Norway

PE has been an obligatory subject in Norwegian schools since 1936, and today PE is the third largest subject in Norwegian school in grades 1-10, in terms of teaching hours (Udir, 2011). The education of PE teachers in Norway began in 1870⁴ when the first specialized civil and military PE teachers were trained at the Gymnastikse Centraleskole for Legemsøvelse og Vaabenbruk (Augestad, 2003), (nowadays known as The Norwegian School of Sport Sciences) .

At the time this study was undertaken, 15 universities or university colleges in Norway provided one or several of the three different routes to become a PE teacher. The most common route, and provided by 10 of the universities, was to take 30 or 60 credits PE as part of a general teacher education (see Appendix A, Table 2). This route had the National curriculum for general teacher education (UFD, 2003a) as a foundation. After completing teacher education (four years), the students were qualified for teaching PE in primary and secondary school. A second way of becoming a PE teacher in Norway was to take a Bachelor's degree in PE and sports, a three year full time study on PE, which provided you to be titled “subject teacher in PE”, and students undertaking this education were qualified for working as PE teachers from first year in primary school to teaching in high school. This route was based on the National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b). Six universities in Norway offered this route at the time this study was undertaken (see Appendix A, Table 2). The third way was, after having taken a bachelor in for example sports, physical activity and health, “friluftsliv”⁵ or fitness, to

⁴ Only half a decade after the first general teacher education in Norway was established in the city of Tromsø in 1826 as “Trondenes Seminarium” (Brekke, 2000).

⁵ “Friluftsliv” is the Norwegian term for “outdoor life”.

take one year (60 credits) practical and didactical education on top, and like the Bachelor's degree in PE and sports, be titled subject teacher in PE. This route was based on the National curriculum for practical and didactical education" (UFD, 2003c). After graduation students were qualified for teaching PE in primary school (except grades 1-4), secondary school and high school. At the time this study was undertaken, 8 universities in Norway provided practical and didactical education as a route to becoming a PE teacher (see Appendix A, Table 2).

AIM OF STUDY

In the light of the fact that pupils in Norwegian schools spend a considerable amount of time in PE lessons, together with the fact that there is little research on PETE in Norway, there is evidently a need for further study of PETE in a Norwegian context.

The evidence that PETE seems to reinforce PE teachers who focus on technical skills and competencies, together with the realization that the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) in PETE in Norway emphasizes the moral, theoretical and political aspects of the role of becoming a PE teacher, as well as technical skills, begs the question of how the intentions in the National curricula corresponds with the real world of PETE in Norway. By focusing on the teacher educators, this study aims to gain an insight into the world of PETE in Norway, and more specifically, what the PETEs teach their students and why they do it the way they do.

Thus, the aim of this study is to explore Norwegian PETEs' (and to a lesser extent PE students') views on PE and PETE (in other words, its purposes), as well as how PETEs (and PE students) describe PETE in practice (its nature). More specifically, the study will ask questions such as; what are the PETEs' (and PE students') philosophies and ideologies on PE and PETE? What do they teach in PETE? How do they teach their

subjects? Why do they teach what they do in the way they do it, and how do the PE students experience this? How does their teaching correspond to the National curricula? How do PETEs view their roles in PETE? What is it that influences their perception of their professional role/identity? How do they place themselves as a part of an education system, and how does this influence their perception of their role? What implications does their view on their role have for the education of PE teachers?

More broadly, and in sociological terms, the study sets out to examine and map the dynamics of the social relationships involved in PETE and their effects on PETE itself.

The task of sociological research is to *make these blind, uncontrolled processes more accessible to human understanding* by explaining them, and to enable people to orientate themselves within the interwoven social web – which though created by their own needs and actions, is still opaque to them – and so better to control it' (Elias, 1978, pp. 153-154; emphasis in original).

In this regard, it is to be hoped that a study of PETE might improve our understanding of PETE, and hence to minimize the extent to which PETE is at the mercy of the dynamics of social relations. By taking a grounded theory approach towards theory, this study sets out to examine the most prominent theories and concepts in PE and PETE research as a basis for determining whether, and to what extent, they make sense of the findings from empirical study of PETE at Nord UC⁶.

⁶ Nord University College is a pseudonym for the university college where this study was undertaken.

OUTLINE OF THESIS

The thesis consists of five chapters in additions to this Introduction. Chapter 2 – “Theoretical Perspectives” - takes a grounded theory approach towards theories used in earlier research in PETE (and to a lesser extent PE). In other words, the chapter introduces the main theoretical perspectives employed in previous sociological research on PETE and, to a lesser extent, PE itself. The chapter explores these theories by examining their domain assumption and key concepts. Furthermore, the chapter draws attention to the concepts and assumptions most used in Norwegian PE and PETE research, and discuss how successful these have been in illuminating PETE in Norway. Finally, the chapter identifies the concepts that hold out the promise of providing the most adequate explanations of PETE as a basis for examining the data generated in this study of PETE at Nord UC.

Chapter 3 – “Methodology and Methods” – covers methodological considerations, the research strategy, research questions and the actual methods used in the study, as well as describing how they were analyzed. Chapter 4 – “Findings” – reveals the results from study. The structure of the chapter is based on a framework of key themes and sub-themes presented in a format linking theme to theme sequentially. Chapter 5 – “Discussion” – utilizes the concepts from the various studies theorizing PETE (and PE) as discussed in Chapter 4, that appear most relevant in making sociological sense of the findings from this study. Chapter 6 – “Concluding Remarks” – offers a summary of the main findings of the study and the significance of the study for our understanding of PETE in Norway more generally.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

This chapter introduces the main theoretical perspectives employed in sociological research on PETE and, for that matter, PE itself. The variety of approaches to theorizing, notwithstanding that several theoretical perspectives appear more prominent than others, particularly critical theory and, to a lesser extent, socialization theory and behaviourist theory. The main perspectives (for example critical theory, feminist theory) are introduced in order of their prominence in the literature. The chapter will explore the domain assumptions and concepts of each of the theories. By “domain assumption” is meant the “taken for granted assumption, which may be claimed as self-evidently true” (Roberts, 2009, p. 11).

Each theoretical outline begins with a brief overview of the perspective. This is followed by a more detailed summary of the main domain assumptions and key concepts of the theory, before concluding with a short summary and review. Furthermore, the chapter draws attention to the concepts most used in Norwegian PE and PETE research and discusses how successful these have been in illuminating PETE in Norway. Finally, the chapter identifies those concepts that seem to provide the most adequate explanations of PETE as a basis for examining the data generated in this study.

The reason for including research on PE as well as PETE in the theory chapter, is three-folded: first, because part of this study is related to how PETEs and PE students view PE, it is necessary to refer to knowledge about PE; second, because on some issues in the study there is little relevant research on PETE, it is necessary to consider relevant PE research on the issue; third, by extension, there is reason to believe that research on PE and PE teachers may be applicable on PETE and PETEs as well.

TAKING A GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH TOWARDS THEORY

Grounded theory is an approach to research developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), “who believed that sociology had become less successful in developing new theories than in testing existing ones” (Roberts, 2009, p. 115). Grounded theory is a general methodology for developing theory where concepts are formulated on the basis of initial observations and then developed into theories through the constant comparison of critical cases. In other words, theory is said to develop as a consequence of what is otherwise referred to as the two-way process between data and theoretical concepts that result in an emerging and plausible theoretical explanation of the data (van Krieken, 1998).

In this study grounded theory is used at two stages: theorizing and data analysis. In the case of the latter, the procedure for analyzing data is dealt with in Chapter 3 - Methodology and Methods. In the case of the former, theorizing, the decision to adopt grounded theory in the first instance was a result of a desire to orientate myself theoretically while, at the same time, avoiding the risk of committing myself irrevocably to a particular theoretical perspective before having conducted the research project. This inclination was reinforced by the impression that some of the existing, highly theoretical research on PETE was insufficiently detached (and, therefore, sociological), insofar as it tended towards subjectivity and involvement, advocating particular (ideological) conceptions of what PE and PETE should look like and aim towards.

This inclination was reinforced by the fact that PETE is not virgin research territory. Earlier theories and research within the field need to be taken into consideration. Adopting a grounded theory approach to the study of PETE in Norway allows the researcher to test out those concepts already in existence in PETE research, without having them dictate the theoretical perspective of the study. These theoretical concepts, borrowed from existing research on PETE (and to a lesser extent PE), have served as what various sociologists have typically referred to as “sensitizing concepts” (Blumer,

1954, cited in Bowen, 2006, p. 2), concepts that make the researcher sensitive to the existence (or otherwise) of particular processes in the empirical data. In conventional grounded theory sensitizing concepts are formulated on the basis of initial observations or analyses of empirical evidence (before being developed into a theoretical framework). In this study I have chosen to use those concepts that appeared most popular (and deemed most useful in analytical terms by authors) in the existing research on PETE and to a lesser extent PE as my initial sensitizing concepts, thus, theoretical starting point. I have discussed the validity of these existing concepts in terms of whether, and to what extent, they make sense of my findings, retaining, modifying and/or jettisoning the sensitizing concepts accordingly.

PROMINENT THEORIES USED IN RESEARCH ON PETE

The task of reviewing literature on PETE was made easier by the existence of Tinning's (2006) quite thorough overview. While the present chapter inevitably covers some of the same ground as Tinning (ibid), it differs in several key respects. The following chapter will, for example, say more about recent theoretical development in PETE research, namely figurational sociology. It also provides more coverage of gender and feminist approaches, besides placing more emphasis on the ideological prominence of critical theory. Finally, and most importantly, this chapter highlights those aspects of the various theories that have proved popular in research in Norwegian (PE and) PETE. The review of (PE and) PETE literature in this chapter is mostly from the late 1990s (besides some significant earlier research).

Studies of PETE over the last 20 to 30 years have used a wide range of different theoretical positions and, in the process, a variety of concepts. When searching in databases like "ERIC" and journals like; *Sport, Education and Society*, *European Physical Education Review*, *Quest*, and *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education* it becomes apparent that the dominant approaches within PETE research, in the sense of

being the most commonly adopted theoretical positions as well as the most influential ones on later research, are *critical theory* (see, for example, Bain, 1990; Camacho & Fernández-Balboa, 2006; Curtner-Smith, 2007; Dewar, 1990; Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 2009; Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Gore, 1990; Hickey, 2001; Kirk, 1986, 2006; Kirk & Macdonald, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Pascual, 2006; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005; Tinning, 1991, 2000, 2002), *socialization theory* (see, for example, Annerstedt, 1991; Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Dodds, 2005; McCullick, 2001; Rønning, 1996; Rønning & Hansen, 1993; Stroot & Williamson, 1993; Templin & Schempp, 1989; Williamson, 1993), and *behaviourist theory* (see, for example, Eldar, 1990; Kahan, 2002; Sharpe, So, Mavi & Brown, 2002; Siedentop, 1983, cited in Tinning, 2006; Ward & Barret, 2002). In addition some researchers have taken *gender* or *feminist theory* approaches (Benn, 2002; Dowling, 2006, 2008; Flintoff, 1993, 2009; Gore, 1993; Penney, 2002; Wright, 2002). More recently *social constructivist* (Dowling, 2006, 2008), *cultural sociological* (Larsson, 2009) and *figurational approaches* (Velija et al., 2008; Keay, 2009) have been utilized by several authors.

The extent, to which theoretical perspectives are either explicitly or implicitly identified in the research, whether they exist at all, varies. Some studies and researchers appear keen to “flag up” their theoretical perspective, while in other cases theoretical positions are only recognizable in the underlying assumptions. For example, some empirical studies appear less likely to label themselves with a particular theory or be informed by a particular theoretical perspective. Tsangaridou (2008), for example, in her study on PE students’ beliefs and practices, notes that “The study’s conceptual framework was informed by research on teachers’ beliefs and research on primary teachers teaching physical education” (p. 133), in other words, the research was not informed by a specific theoretical standpoint. In addition, some authors (see, for example, Annerstedt, 1991, 2008; Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Dowling, 2006; 2008; Næss, 1998) appeared to have adopted different theoretical perspectives at different times and for different studies.

CRITICAL THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH

Over the course of the last 20 to 25 years critical theory approaches⁷ have become increasingly popular in the sociology of PE and PETE to the extent that it is the most prominent (not to say dominant) perspective within the field (see, for example, Bain, 1990; Camacho & Fernández-Balboa, 2006; Curtner-Smith, 2007; Dewar, 1990; Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 2009; Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Gore, 1990; Hickey, 2001; Kirk, 1986, 2006; Kirk & Macdonald, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Pascual, 2006; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005; Tinning 1991, 2000, 2002). Critical sociology has its origins in the work of the Frankfurt School and Jürgen Habermas in particular. The main aim of critical sociology for proponents is to be “uniquely enlightening and emancipatory, enabling people collectively to take charge of their lives, circumstances and destinies” (Roberts, 2009, p. 52). Critical theorists claim to reject the instrumental (means-ends) rationality associated with capitalism as uncritical; in other words, as simply accepting as positive and beneficial development that need critiquing. Fundamental to critical theory was, and remains, not only the desire to critique existing practice (in PETE, for example), but also to change existing practice for what they see as something better. Tinning (2002) is an example of the many critical theorists who make his theoretical attachment evident at the outset:

I am happy to place myself within the critically pedagogy “big tent”. As a long time advocate of critical pedagogy and a socially critical school, I have argued that issues related to gender equity, equality of opportunity, catering for diversity, and challenging unjust practices such as motor elitism should be an integral part of physical education (p. 224, emphasis in original).

Given that the aim for critical theorists is not only to describe and understand existing practice, but also to change it, it is interesting to observe that some authors do not label

⁷ Critical theory (like some other theories such as Marxist and feminist theories) is an umbrella term which incorporates a number of variants that share many assumptions, but also differ in some particularities.

themselves as critical theorists. Rather, they tend to talk in terms of *change* as something they hope for as a consequence of their research. In other words, some theoretical perspectives that are not identified explicitly as belonging in the critical theory “stable”, have at least one foot, so to speak, into this tradition to the extent that they advocate change on the basis that the existing state of affairs is unacceptable, not least, because it represents a false consciousness on the part of practitioners. Critical theorists are, in other words, critical of existing practices and seek to change PE and PETE in a particular direction. While not labelling herself as a critical theorist, Dowling’s (2006, 2008, 2011) work, for example, looks at how teacher educators develop their professional identities and how PETEs’ emotions can be “a potential means for enhancing our teacher education practice” (Dowling, 2008, p. 263). This approach shares with critical theory a belief in the need for theoretically-informed practice - praxis - and, thus, change (in a particular direction) within PETE. In this regard, Dowling’s (2006, 2008, 2011) work seems to belong in the “big tent” (Tinning, 2002) of critical theory approaches to PETE, as well as being, in the author’s terms, *social constructivist* in nature, although the two are, of course compatible, because critical theorists assume social constructivism. The same can be said about the work of Larsson (2009), who describes her work as a *cultural sociological study* using Bourdieu’s concepts in her analysis. Besides wanting to describe and understand sports and health education in Sweden, the author observes that:

When I started this research I had an ambition that the results of the study could give answers on how the Sport and Healthy Study ought to be composed in order to educate competent sport teachers in the ways that the steering documents said ... But to change an education is more difficult than I first thought (p. 301 [my translation]).

In other words, the author took the desirability of *change* to sport and health education in Sweden as a starting point. However, as other researchers within the critical theory tradition (see, for example, Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999), Larsson (2009) have acknowledged it is difficult to change practice through research. Hence, she concluded that “hopefully the results from this study can facilitate for

continuing discussions about what subject knowledge and subject didactics a teacher within sport and health needs” (p. 301 [my translation]).⁸

Domain assumptions and concepts in critical theory

Within critical theory praxis, social constructivism, culture, power, ideology and hegemony appear as the key sensitizing concepts. In the following section I will explore each of these and their significance for critical theory research on PETE (and PE).

Praxis

Critical theory differs from other social constructivist theories in relation to the role of research. Nowadays, all sociological perspectives share an assumption that social practices (such as PE and PETE) are constructed through human beliefs and interaction. Critical theorists tend, however, to adopt an extreme constructivist position, one which is consistent with the neo Marxist roots of the tradition; that is to say, that beliefs and practices of people tend to reflect the hegemony of particular, dominant ideologies that do not imagine an alternative to current beliefs and practices. Critical theorists go one step further, however. Their mission is to change the world through empowerment by enlightening practitioners about the hidden assumptions in dominant discourses surrounding practices such as PE and, for that matter, teacher education. Scholars like Fitzclarence and Tinning (1990), Lawson (1993), McKay, Gore and Kirk (1990) and Tinning (1991) have, from the early 1990s, advocated for PE to address social inequality and foster social justice. This commitment to reflexivity and empowerment leads critical theorists to advocate praxis, “a Marxist term for theoretically informed action that is capable of changing the world” (Roberts, 2009, p. 212). In this regard, critical theory shares with social constructionism a desire to make sense of social knowledge as a

⁸ I have mentioned social constructivist theory (which also include postmodern perspectives) (Dowling, 2006, 2008, 2011) and cultural sociological perspective (Larson, 2009) as theoretical perspectives found in PETE research, but I find it more accurate to place this research within the critical theory tradition than treating them as separate theories.

precursor to de-constructing, for example teachers' beliefs, before putting them back together (re-construction) in a different, more empowering, ways. De-construction is based on the assumption that "there can be no single, correct reading of any text" because all texts are ambivalent, and can be "deconstructed" in a variety of ways by different readers, with "each deconstruction having an equal claim to validity" (Roberts, 2009, p. 58). Dowling's research (2006, 2008, 2011), for example, explores the social construction of knowledge by de-constructing teachers' beliefs before re-constructing them in terms of critical theory. In this vein, the de-construction of teachers' beliefs, makes critical theorists point to a new role for PETEs in the reconstruction of, for example, gender equality. Thus, research grounded in social constructivism and conducted in the spirit of critical theory endeavors' to de-construct (PE teachers' and teacher educators) current beliefs and practices as a precursor to re-constructing them in a more enlightened manner, that addresses social inequality and fosters social justice, hence; the centrality of the idea of praxis to critical theory research.

Social constructivism

The belief that we live in a "socially constructed reality" (Berger & Luckmann, 1967) is central to sociological perspectives on the social world. In this regard, social constructivists believe that social institutions, such as education, are constructed through peoples' beliefs and actions. According to constructivists, PETEs, for example, learn how to act as PETEs, and, in doing so, collectively create what it means to be a PE teacher educator learned from other people in the context of school PE (such as PE teachers) and other PETEs. In other words, people (such as PETEs) are both a part of the world they inhabit while at the same time they construct or create the world they inhabit in their day-to-day interactions with their colleagues, the students and so forth. PETE is, therefore, a construction of the PETE culture PETEs are a part of.

Critical theory is a particular example of social constructivist theories because it is distinct in claiming that some social constructions (especially class, race, gender and

ethnicity) are of greater significance than others. In order to understand the power structures of these constructions, critical theorists take a macro perspective on their analysis. In other words, it focuses at the wider political, historical and economic circumstances or structures in society and how these influence individual thought and behaviour (Darder, Baltodano & Torres, 2003; McLaren, 1989) and discursive practice, by which is meant the particular, ideologically loaded ways in which people communicate with each other, more generally.

Culture

From the perspective that people (such as PETEs) are both a part of the world and at the same time construct (create) the *culture* they are a part of, it is interesting to take a closer look at how critical theorists interpret the concept of culture. In sociology in general, *culture* is defined in terms of the way of life of a particular group of people: “that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief and morals, law custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as member of society” (Roberts, 2009, p. 54). In critical theory, the social construction of culture is related to questions of power, such as; how and why some constructions of reality (of PE, for example) are constructed and given legitimacy and approval in the dominant culture, while other ways of thinking and doing are not legitimized, how knowledge is produced, how some types of knowledge (for example the pre-eminence of competitive sports in PE) are used to reinforce dominant ideologies, and how knowledge underpins unjust power relations between certain groups in society (for example according to pupils ability to perform competitive sports) (McLaren, 1989)? For critical theorists, culturally produced knowledge is a central component of power.

Power

Power is widely seen as a, or even *the*, primary concept within sociology (Roberts, 2009). Power is nevertheless difficult to define precisely because it can take many different

forms. In order to understand how critical theorists view power, Roberts' (ibid) definition of power may be helpful. Roberts (ibid) says one way to define power is: “the ability to prevail despite the resistance or unwillingness of others” (p. 212). This is a view of power where power is “achieved via the control of resources (money) or the ability to control other people” (Roberts, 2009, p. 212). Power may be accepted as justifiable by those without the power, and the power becomes authority (in other words, legitimate) or may be coercive (imposed by the use of threat). But, power can also be subtle, operating through ideological domination, a condition called hegemony (Roberts, 2009). Hegemony is defined as the: “domination by ideology to such an extent that no alternative to the present is believed to be possible or can even be imagined” (Roberts, 2009, p. 120). It is the latter hegemonical sense of the term power that pre-occupies critical theorists who view hegemony (the dominance of a particular ideology or view of the world) as the way in which power is legitimized in PE and PETE (Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006). Viewing hegemonic ideologies as a significant form of power underlines the significance of the concepts of ideology and discourse to critical theory.

Ideology, discourse and policy

According to Roberts (2009), ideology is a concept that has both a general meaning and a more specific (Marxist) meaning: “The general meaning is any coherent set of ideas that justifies a situation, action, event or set of policies” (Roberts, 2009, p. 129) (such as the “Sport-for-all” movement). The more specific Marxist meaning of the concept refers to ideas as ideological “if they are untrue and justify exploitative economic, political and social practices” (Roberts, 2009, p. 129). Critical theorists share the stronger (Marxist) interpretation of the concept of ideology insofar as they suggest that the conventional beliefs and practices in PE offer a partial, distorted and unduly positive (functionalistic) view of the subject. Whereas for Marxists, PE is in reality used to justify inequality (in relation to less sporty, less able youngsters and particular gender and ethnic groups, for example). For critical theorists (see, for example, Fernández-Balboa, 1995, Gore, 1990; Kirk, 2010; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005; Tinning, 1991, 2010) PE in its conventional form needs challenging, more specifically, PE “should

address social inequality and foster social justice” (Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005, p. 244).

For sociologists and critical theorists in particular, ideologies tend to be implicit rather than explicit. In other words, ideologies in PETE will not necessarily be spoken out loud, but are more likely to be found implicitly in the PETEs’ statements and behaviours. For critical theorists, as well as all sociologists, this will often be the case because the PETEs themselves are insufficiently aware of their own ideological biases. Discourse is a concept that is closely linked to ideology (Roberts, 2009). Put another way, the implicit character of ideology, as well as the dominance of particular (hegemonic) ideologies, can be explained through the concept of discourse. Foucault introduced the term *discourse* as a: “a way of talking and thinking: not any specific instance of speech or thought, but the discursive frameworks within which these are formulated” (Roberts, 2009, p. 63). In this sense, discourse refers to the many and varied ways in which people and groups of people communicate more-or-less consciously (and usually sub-consciously, and, therefore implicitly) their (ideological) beliefs about something or other (the purposes of PE, for example). Such beliefs and practices are inevitably drawn from the available discourses, not only in settings such as PETE, but in a society more generally. They are, in effect, “the bedrock of social reality” (Roberts, 2009, p. 63). It is, for example, only within a health discourse that PE can be conceived of as a suitable setting for and solution for the supposed health/obesity crisis. In this manner, particular (ideological) ways of talking about phenomena (such as PE and PETE) provide the discursive framework within which PETEs are socialized.

When some groups give legitimacy via their advocacy or support, for example, to certain interests or meanings (that, for example, PE is good and has a positive effect on pupils’ health), and these interests and meanings are taken-for-granted and become dominant, they are referred to as hegemonic ideologies (Apple, 2004). Such hegemonic ideologies are viewed by critical theorists as a form of power. Central to any given sociological

perspective is to understand the function these hegemonic ideologies have for particular groups and how particular discursive frameworks are produced by (and in the interest of) particular groups, such as established PETEs, government departments responsible for national curricula and proponents for particular ideologies of PE. For critical theorists, however, it is also important to shed light on how hegemony can be challenged through critique and resistant and social action. This desire to challenge occurs when critical theory differs from other sociological theories or perspectives (Darder et al., 2003). Thus, for critical theorists, the aim of research is to throw light on the manner in which dominant ideologies remain dominant, in the belief that you thereby make those involved in the day-to-day practice (for example PE students or PE teachers) aware of these hegemonic ideologies. This they believe will enlighten practitioners, who may then reflect critically upon and change existing custom and practice. In this regard, Sparkes (1989) and Tinning (1991) have identified four dominant ideologies in PE: individualism, healthism, mesomorphism and technocratic rationality, and these are dealt with in the following sections.

The ideologies of liberal individualism and healthism

Liberal individualism is said, by critical theorists, to be the most dominant ideology in society, as well as in PE (Sparkes, 1989; Tinning, 1990). The values and taken-for-granted assumptions within this discourse are grounded in a belief in the fundamentally meritocratic nature of society, where each individual is in control of his/her own success. In this vein, if young people succeed at school, in sports or at work it is because they have the right abilities and have worked hard. According to critical theorists, this attitude towards the individual is problematic because it does not consider that different people have different access and power to control their own life situations because of their class, sex, gender, ethnicity and education levels (Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Kirk, 2010; Tinning, 1990, 2010).

In PE the ideology of healthism is closely connected to the ideology of liberal individualism. Health, in these terms, is understood not only as the responsibility of the individual, but also as largely reducible to lifestyle and especially levels of physical activity. According to critical theorists, this kind of view does not consider the relationship between the individuals and their structural contexts. In other words, it does not consider that different people have differential access to resources and thus differential degrees of power over their own life situations (Evans, 2004; Evans & Davies, 2004a, b; Tinning, 1991). In this regard, according to critical theorists, liberal individual discourses fail to sufficiently acknowledge the significance of such structural factors as class, ethnicity, sex and disability for individual health-related lifestyles.

Against this backdrop it is noteworthy that the health benefit of PE appears as an uncritically accepted (taken-for-granted) assumption (Waddington, 2000). Indeed, Telama, Nupponen and Pieròn (2005) described health promotion to be “the main goal of physical education in many countries” (p. 115). In a study of Australian PE teachers in the late 1980s, George and Kirk (1988) found that PE teachers tended not only to be “anti-intellectual”, but also to celebrate “physicality” and not question the presumed health benefits of sports and PE. Similarly, Green (2003) found that PE teachers viewed their most important role as to encourage an active healthy lifestyle among pupils alongside facilitating enjoyable PE. In Annerstedt’s (2008) review of PE, Scandinavian syllabi’s, health and achieving a healthy lifestyle was emphasized as an important aim of PE alongside focusing on physical activity.

In relation to PETE, Velija et al. (2008) found that, not only did the PE student in their study answer “promoting healthy lifestyles” (p. 393) to the question “what is physical education?”, the PETEs in a similarly vein claimed they had an important job in society related to health care; namely, to educate PE teacher who can be “health experts” in school, which echoes earlier research (see, for example, Evans & Davies, 2004a; Larsson, 2009; Tinning & Glasby, 2002). In a recent study on Swedish PETE, Larsson (2009)

found that the PETEs viewed it as important to increase the students' understanding of health in PE first and foremost in terms of physical health. While the PETEs in the Larsson (2009) study found it easy to link physical health to PE, they reported the psychological and social aspects of health as far more difficult to incorporate in the education of future PE teachers. Indeed, the PETEs also commented that the concepts of health (including physical, psychological and social health) were difficult to relate to sports. In other words, the findings in Larsson's (ibid) study may, from the perspective of critical theory, be explained by the PETEs' (discursive) views on what health was really about (the physical); hence they found it difficult to include psycho-social elements of health into the education.

McKenzie and Kahan (2004) claim that health has been a primary concern of physical education in the United States throughout its 150-year history and, as such, a main focus within PETE as well. They note, however, that in relation to health, "the focus of physical education has been on fitness and personal health, not on physical activity and public health" (McKenzie & Kahan, 2004, p. 301). In other words, the increasing focus on health within PE actually refers to the close connection that is assumed, by PE teachers and PETEs, to exist between physical activity and health. Put, this way: good health is viewed by many PE teachers and PETEs as an individual matter resolving around physical activity and, as such, one that individuals are personal responsible for. According to critical theorists the health focus in PE seems to rely on the taken-for-granted belief that health related activities in PE is one way for society to try to overcome these problems and to improve health care in society. Nonetheless, Evans (2004) claims PE teachers who have this individualistic health ideological point of view will have problems legitimating PE as a subject in school, because as he points out, PE alone cannot save children's health.

All-in-all, a good deal of research confirms that PE students, PE teachers and PETEs think physical health is an important part of PE and, as a consequence, the role of PETE

is to educate PE teachers to place particular emphasis on the physical health dimension of PE (Annerstedt, 2008; Evans & Davies, 2004a; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; McKenzie, 2007; McKenzie & Kahan, 2004; Tinning & Glasby, 2002; Velija et al., 2008). While Evans (2004) claims PE teachers cannot compensate for poor health among children through PE, McKenzie (2007) argues that schools are in position to be the most cost-effective public resource to combat inactivity, and PE teachers are positioned to be the strongest advocates of a healthy, active lifestyle. Placing such a responsibility on PE teachers, however, will, according to McKenzie (2007), impact upon PETE, because the PE teachers (and by extension, the PETEs) have to learn skills that are not typically stressed in PETE programmes today, including material that focuses on children's behavioural and psychological responses to exercise, as well as interacting with community settings where physical activity is promoted. What McKenzie (2007) refers to as knowledge about children's behavioural and psychological responses to exercise seems to neatly illustrate the existence of a health discourse in PE, and the potentially hegemonic character of ideologies of health within the subject.

The technocratic rationality ideology

According to Tinning (1990), the technocratic rationality ideology has its origins in Western bureaucratic cultures, which focus on effectiveness and aims and where facts and research are seen as value-free technical processes. Tinning (1990) claims there are many similarities between such bureaucratic cultures and PE:

Technological advances in society at large are reflected in physical education by the viewpoint of man as a machine. In technocratic physical education, productivity and efficiency are measured in terms of physical performance in which case the human body may assume paramount importance (Charles, 1979, p. 277, cited in Tinning, 1990, p. 17).

According to critical theorists, PE cultures with a technocratic rational ideology are built on a one-dimensional understanding of the body, sports and what is considered “good teaching”, and the political and moral aspects of these questions are notable by their absence (Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; McKay, Gore & Kirk, 1990). Much of the research literature claims that PE (Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 1997; Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Kirk, 1992, 2010; Lawson, 1993; McKay et al., 1990; Næss, 1998; Rossi, 1996; Rossi & Cassidy, 1999; Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1997, 2002) and PETE (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Camacho & Fernández-Balboa, 2006; Curtner-Smith, 2007; Dowling, 2006; Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 1997; Hatleset, 2003; Larsson, 2009; Lawson, 1993; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa 2005; Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1991) are influenced by a technocratic rational ideology and, in the spirit of critical theory, needs to be challenged.

Norwegian (Dowling, 2006; Hatleset, 2003; Lundemo, 2009; Møller-Hansen, 2004), as well as international empirical research on PETE (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Curtner-Smith, 2007; Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Gore, 1990; Larsson, 2009; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005), reveals that PETE and PETEs appear to favour professional knowledge of a technical-rational kind; in other words, PETEs focus on *what* (activities) and *how* (to perform them), rather than considering questions related to *why* (in the sense of *why* focus on these particular activities such as sports and not others, as well as *why* use particular preferred teaching methods).

A technocratic rationality ideology in PE is identified both in connection to sports and teaching styles. The assumed intrinsic and extrinsic values of sports have historically been a dominant ideology within PE (Houlihan, 1991; Kirk, 2010). Green’s (2003) study, for example, found that sports tended to be a particularly prominent ideological theme in PE teachers’ philosophies, where the emphasis was upon competitive sports and frequently team-games and the acquisition of skills necessary to the performance of sports. Similar to Green (2003), in a study on teacher education in Cyprus, Tsangaridou

(2008) found that the PE students thought that the central aim of PE was to develop children's psychomotoric skills, in the sense of developing knowledge and skills in different sporting activities. The same was found in the study of Velija et al. (2008) on PE students in teacher education in UK. In the case of Norway, Dowling (2006) found that PETEs valued highly the need for PE students to learn sporting skills to be able to perform their roles as PE teachers. Similarly, Møller-Hansen (2004) found that "the good PE teacher" was described by Norwegian PETEs to be a person who was able to perform and demonstrate sporting activities. In another Norwegian study (Lundemo, 2009), newly-qualified PE teachers looked back at their one-year PETE as a year dominated by learning skills in sporting activities and dance. This was similar to Hatleset's (2003) findings when interviewing four Norwegian PE students. Larsson's (2009) study also confirmed such findings in the sense that the PE students in Sweden felt strongly that learning different sporting activities and skills was the most important part of their education, similar to the PETEs in the same study who emphasized learning different sporting activities as an important part of PETE. Larsson (2009) also found that alongside learning sporting activities, a significant part of PETE was given over developing students' ability to teach sports, in other words their didactical competence. The tendency to focus on sporting skills was confirmed by Annerstedt's (2008) review of investigating meanings attached to PE in Scandinavia through the analysis of syllabi and research texts on the subject. He found that sporting activities such as ball-games, gymnastics, fitness training and track and field dominated the subject.

Dowling (2006) found that the PETEs viewed pedagogy (the science or art of teaching) as similar to subject didactics (teaching and organizational skills), and that the PETEs had little interest in pedagogy or pedagogical discussions about PE or PETE, a finding corresponding with earlier research on PE (Kirk & Tinning, 1990; Rossi & Cassidy, 1999; Templin & Schempp, 1989) and PETE (Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Kirk, 1986; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005). Viewing technical knowledge related to teaching practice as the most important competence to achieve in PETE, corresponds to findings in studies on PE teachers who view PE as a practical subject based upon *doing*

sport (mastering skills) and physical activity (Green, 2003; McNamee, 2005; Siedentop, 2002).

In contrast to the empirical research on PETE, which claims the pre-eminence of a technical-rational ideology in PE and PETE, a recent study on PETEs (Velija et al., 2008) found that university teachers' ideologies of PE were grounded on philosophical or academic ideas about what PE is, or ought to be. In other words, "the university tutors tended to move beyond their own experiences or thoughts about PE towards what is, arguably, a more academic description of what PE is/ought to be" (Velija et al., 2008, p. 395). In contrast, school-based mentors in the study considered PE to be similar to the way the PE students described PE, and as such, drawing heavily on their own experience of PE which corresponded with findings from earlier studies on PE and PETE (see, for example, Annerstedt, 1991; Dowling, 2006; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; Lawson, 1983a, b; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998). Similar to findings about general teacher education in Norway (Terum & Heggen, 2010), Velija et al. (2008) found that the students did not enter teacher training courses completely new to teaching, but had "already developed their own ideologies about teaching from school, friends, family and the media" (p. 401).

Reporting from an action research project where critical pedagogy was implemented into PETE in order to help the students develop a "social critical perspective" (Macdonald & Brooker, 1999, p. 51) on PE, Macdonald and Brooker (1999) found that after the course the students still emphasized technical knowledge of the subject. In another study implementing critically-oriented teaching into pre-service classroom teachers' training, Curtner-Smith (2007) found that the teachers perceived pedagogy in technical and practical ways. An interesting finding in this research was that the researcher actually said:

I [the researcher] found that once PTCs started ..., it was not only them who became more pragmatic, I also became much more concerned about their management and discipline, particularly during the earliest lessons, and, at times, this must have led to a de-emphasis of the critical perspective (p. 54).

In other words, the researcher whose aim was to implement critical pedagogy, felt constrained to be pragmatic in his own teaching, that is to say, to focus upon the logistical and practical aspects of the PE lesson, rather than the critical pedagogical approach that was its supposed focus. In a similar vein, a study by Ruiz and Fernández-Balboa (2005) found that out of 17 PETEs who claimed to practice critical pedagogy, very few actually applied critical transformative methods to their teaching. Rather, the majority of the PETEs in the study followed more conventional (or traditional) methodologies with a focus on technical reflection on teaching.

The ideology of mesomorphism

Another prominent ideology among physical educationalists, according to critical theorists, is the ideology of mesomorphism (Næss, 2002; Tinning, 1990; Tinning & Glasby, 2002). This ideology, it is said, contains a taken-for-granted assumption that the slim and well-trained body is desirable and advantageous. Critical theorists claim this ideology has to be challenged because PE teachers' identity is so closely linked to their body and physical performance that this becomes problematic (for pupils and teachers alike) when the body does not match the ideal type because of, for example, injuries in an accident or aging (Næss, 2002). Tinning and Glasby (2002) claims that many of the problems regarding such views of the body (mesomorphism) and health within PE has to do with the dominance of a technical rationality ideology that is heavily rooted in the PE culture; an ideology that, in broad terms, views "man as a machine". Næss (1996, 2002) has, for example, found that Norwegian PE teachers have a strong physical identity and that they experience it as problematic when their bodies suddenly, after being injured, no longer function in the way they used to. Not being able to perform sports they did when

younger, impacts significantly on how they view themselves as PE teachers, as well as their self-identity more generally. In a study on Danish PE teachers in upper secondary school, Christensen (2001) found that PE teachers viewed their ability to perform (and demonstrate) sports as important skills for a PE teacher to have. In order to “stay fit” and avoid physical deterioration, the majority of the PE teachers were physically active during their leisure time. Christensen (ibid) observed that increasing age led to changes in how they experienced their professional abilities as PE teachers, which in turn led to fundamental changes in the way they performed their teaching role. In other words, they adapted their teaching methods to the changes their bodies did undergo as a consequence of aging.

In a study of PETEs' views on which characteristics they thought participants in PETE needed, McCullick (2001) found that the second most important characteristic the PETEs mentioned was that they thought PE students needed to be physically fit, by which they meant “that one looks healthy and can perform various tasks” (p. 41). The PETEs experienced this as a necessary characteristic, because they took the view that PE teachers are supposed to be role models in schools. In another study McCullick et al. (2008) found that the PE students experienced PETEs as skilled performers because they witnessed many of them demonstrating skills; in other words, the PETEs were experienced as role models for the PE students in terms of being physically fit and able to perform sporting skills.

All-in-all, for critical theorists, the unintended consequences of the pre-eminence of an ideology of mesomorphism among physical educationalists (for teachers as well as pupils), is another justification for promoting a critical pedagogy and developing teachers' predispositions towards reflexivity.

Policy

The prominence of these identified ideologies (and discourses) in PE and PETE are according to critical theorists found within policy documents in education (Dodds, 2006; Lawson, 2007). Critical theorists claim that policy is a complex, ongoing process, in which there are struggles over values, interests and definitions, reflecting fundamental conceptions of how society, individuals, schools and knowledge are and ought to be (Penney & Evans, 2005). Because policies are unavoidably value-laden, in the sense that policies are constructed by people or groups of people who process different ideological positions, they express differences in interest among the “competing” groups (Green, 2008a). Critical theorists claim that traditional thinking, the discourses and ideologies of PE, have been dominated by bureaucratic perspectives (that is to say working cultures where bureaucracy is the dominant organizational form) which have to be challenged (Lawson, 2007). Critical theorists argue that there is a need to reveal the gap between policy and practice and between policy makers and practitioners, and they claim this can be done by investigating policy as a socially constructed process where the analysis points to connections rather than distinctions between policies and practice. To follow this line of thoughts, when analyzing policy in PE and PETE one has to look upon not only how past policy on education has helped frame and form contemporary PE and PETE, but also how institutional, local, national and global circumstances, either alone or together, intersect in this process (Penney & Evans, 2005). Researching what knowledge PETE focus on when education PE teachers in Norway, Kårhus (2010) for example found that the increasing competition among institutions to recruit and retain students heavily influenced what kind of education they offered. Kårhus (ibid) put it this way: “the content in PETE seems legitimated by the local institutions’ strategic moves in the market to recruit students and secure their institutions’ economic growth” (p. 228).

For critical theorists (and, for that matter, all sociologists), a central issue in policy is power, and, more precisely, where power is located in the policy process. According to critical theorists questions have to be asked regarding who is involved in the construction of education policy and defining policy agendas, who has the most power, what values

are being pursued and in whose interest, and what underpins the dominance of particular voices and discourses. Critical theorists claim answering such questions will enable researchers and practitioners to critically explore the form, content and focus of attention in contemporary PE and PETE, while at the same time, establishing what and whose interests are being served by the ongoing reproduction of established knowledge in PE and in education more broadly (Penney & Evans, 2005).

Despite this, research has shown that PE teachers (Green, 2003) and PETEs (Dowling, 2008) are not very interested in policy. In the Norwegian context a study by Dowling (2008) on PETEs, for example, found that PETEs' relationship to policy was distant, or what Dowling labeled as "collective skepticism" (p. 259) towards policy in general, including both the Quality Reform (2003) and the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), as PETE. This appears to be part of the explanation for what Penney and Evans (2005) refer to as "slippage" in the implementation of policy, in other words, the differences between what teachers practice in classrooms and the goals or principles outlined in particular policies or legislation.

Researching policy documents in Norwegian PETE, Kårhus (2010) found that content knowledge in PETE was produced and reproduced among competing interests in the field of sport sciences and physical activity. He argued that discourses about essential knowledge of quality physical education, teaching and learning, or PE teacher profession was more or less absent. In other words, the already mentioned leading ideologies and discourses in PE and PETE were prominent in policy documents in Norwegian PETE as well, despite the various critiques of ideologically-oriented policy in PE internationally.

Having dealt with the concepts of ideology (as well as related concepts) and those ideologies that critical theorists view as the most prominent ideologies within PE and PETE, as well as discussed findings from relevant research, the next key concept to

consider is what critical theorists refers to be the hegemony of ideologies of liberal individualism, technocratic rationality and mesomorphism: reflexivity.

Reflexivity

During the last 20 years, especially among critical and post-modern theorists, “reflective practice” and the desirability of developing “reflective practitioners” in PE, has emerged as a substantial topic in teacher education research (Capel, 2005; Kirk, 2010; Tinning, 2006). Within these theoretical circles it is a commonplace assumption that teachers cannot be prepared for all situations they might experience when becoming PE teachers, hence the need to educate them into becoming reflective practitioners (Tsangaridou & Siedentop, 1995). But despite the commonplace view of reflective practice as important, the uses of the concept vary. For this reason, many authors have tried to clarify the interpretation and use of reflexivity because as Tsangaridou and Siedentop (1995) point out; “reflective teaching has different meanings, different approaches towards implementation and little consensus on what ought to be the object of reflection” (p. 213). Tinning (2006) claims van Manen’s (1977) distinction between technical, practical and critical forms of reflection covers the main forms of reflection found in PETE programmes. These overlap with Williams’ (1993) summary in which she claims that reflexivity among PE teachers and PETEs can be explored in three broad terms, from a weak to a strong sense.

The weakest sense of the term and the most commonly used among PE teachers, is reflection “as a utilitarian mechanism for improving the execution of teaching skills” (Williams, 1993, p. 137). This is an instrumental form of reflection in the sense that the intention is to help teachers replicate practices that both experience and empirical research have suggested are effective (Capel, 2005; Williams, 1993). The next level of reflection found between the weak sense and the strong sense of reflection, is “reflection as a form of deliberation among competing views on teaching” (Williams, 1993, p. 138), while a strong sense of reflection includes reflecting on theoretical, moral and ethical

issues (Williams, 1993). In this regard, Tinning (1991), observes that both the weak and the medium reflection level of reflection tended to be practiced among teachers who preferred performance pedagogy (Tinning, 1991), and as already indicated, a performance pedagogy is viewed by many to be the dominant form of pedagogy in PE and PETE (Bain, 1990; Dowling, 2006; Gore, 1990, 1993; Hatleset, 2003; Kårhus, 2004b; Macdonald & Tinning, 1995; McKay et al., 1990; Næss, 1998; Rossi & Cassidy, 1999; Tinning, 1990, 1991). Performance pedagogy is based on a discourse that foregrounds utility or usefulness and is concerned with the problems of how to teach physical education effectively. In other words it focuses on the technical aspects of teaching, what Tinning (1990, 1991) has described as “technocratic rationality”. Hence, pedagogy is often viewed similar to didactics (Tinning, 2010), where the main focus is on teaching methods and amounts to “teaching tips”.

The language that constitutes the discourse of performance pedagogy is in keeping with the technocratic rationality ideology (effectiveness, fidelity, facts, objectivity, truth, science) (Siedentop, 1983a; cited in Tinning, 2010). For the many physical educationalists that are said to express performance pedagogies in their beliefs and practices, the value positions represented by such terms are considered to be unproblematic. In other words, questions related to *how* and *what* decide the facts, *objectivity* and *truth* are not considered. Hence, Tinning (1991, 2010) claim that teachers using performance pedagogy are unable to step back from their daily practice to reflect on the social, moral and political nature of their work, in the strongest sense. Although several studies have suggested that, in practice, far from reflecting at the weak to medium level of reflexivity, for the most part, there is a good reason to doubt whether physical educationalists do, in fact, reflect at the medium level, that is to say, about teaching styles.

Mosston and Ashworth (2002) claim it is possible to distinguish one teaching style from another by particular teacher actions and decisions, particular student actions and

decisions and the nature of the relationship. Teaching styles in PE can be categorized from a teacher-centred style (direct or informal instruction style) at one end of the continuum, to more student-centred teaching styles at the other (ibid). The teacher-centred style is viewed to be the most effective in PE because it helps teachers control and manage the classroom (Byra, 2006; Curtner-Smith, Todorovich, McCaughtry & Lacon, 2001) and facilitate the teaching of physical and sporting skills (Byra, 2006; Salvara, Jess, Abbott & Bognár, 2006).

In a study of the instructional methods of PETEs in PETE in USA, Bulger and Housner (2007) found that “teacher-directed instruction was favoured by a number of panel members for its effectiveness, efficiency, and flexibility in delivering content to large groups of students” (p. 75). In this regard, Byra (2006) observes that the efficiency aspect of the teacher-centred instructional styles is why this teaching style “continue to the most commonly observed approaches to teaching in physical education classes in the 2000s” (Byra, 2006, p. 450). The traditional teacher-centred style continues to dominate the practice of PE teachers despite the fact that PE curricula have emphasized pupil-centred and model-based teaching approaches in sport education (Kirk, 2005; Morgan, Kingston & Sproule, 2005). In fact, reproduction styles are much more commonly used and viewed more positively than the production styles, regardless of country (Cothran, Kulinna, Banville, Choi, Amade-Escot, MacPhail, Macdonald, Richard, Saramento & Krik, 2005). Peer teaching, cooperative learning and discovery teaching are examples of student-centred teaching approaches with an aim to improve the social and/or cognitive development of PE or PETE. Even though Bulger and Housner (2007) claim that their study supports “the continued use of teacher-directed forms of instruction in exercise science courses” (p. 75) they, like several authors (Bain, 1990; Dowling, 2006; Gore, 1990, 1993; Hatleset, 2003; Kårhus, 2004b; Macdonald & Tinning, 1995; McKay et al., 1990; Næss, 1998; Rossi & Cassidy, 1999; Tinning, 1990, 1991), draw attention to the critique saying that traditional instructional approaches may tend to reinforce students as passive receivers of pre-defined knowledge which do not engage sufficiently in critically

and reflective thinking about teaching physical education; in other words, the strongest sense of reflection (Williams, 1993).

The strongest sense of reflexivity is “the reconstruction of oneself as a teacher, with an expectation that teachers will become more aware of the cultural milieu in which they operate” (Williams, 1993, p. 140). In this sense teachers would review and reconstruct their taken-for-granted assumptions about themselves as teachers, their teaching, PE and, for that matter, education itself. As such, reflections on a strong level is closely attached to critical and post-modern pedagogical approaches (Tinning, 1991), or what Tinning (2010) refers to as pedagogy and knowledge (re-) production. This contrasts markedly with the performance pedagogy (or pedagogy as the science of teaching [Tinning, 2010]). While performance pedagogy focuses on “how to teach”, the primary concern for PETEs adopting critical pedagogy (and a strong sense of reflexivity) is on the ethical, moral and political issues related to PE and PETE and teaching in general. This is because critical pedagogues deny the notion of a value-free education. Schools and teacher education programmes are considered sites for cultural production and reproduction. In other words, educational programme like PE, reproduce social inequalities of gender, ethnicity, social class and disability (Kirk, 2010). Thus, what they refer to as most problematic are the power relations that mediate the production and reproduction of PETE. Critical pedagogues locate themselves in opposition to positivistic, technical and unreflective conceptions of teaching. They are especially critical of the focus on efficiency within performance pedagogy because, they claim it ignores the problem of the overarching goals of the education and gives teachers little ability to reflect on *what* and *why* they ought to teach (Tinning, 1991, 2010).

Critically oriented research on PETE worldwide (Curtner-Smith, 2007; Fernández-Balboa, 1997; Gore, 1990; Hickey, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005), similar to Scandinavian studies on PETEs in Sweden (Annerstedt, 1991; Larsson, 2009) and in Norway in particular (Dowling, 2006;

Hagelund, 2006; Møller-Hansen, 2004), highlight the tendency for PETEs to reflect on *what* and *how* to teach rather than on the more social and moral aspects of teaching. Some studies (Azzarito & Ennis, 2003; Curtner-Smith, 2007; Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Gore, 1990; Hickey, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005) have tried to implement critical pedagogy into PE and PETE, and the main conclusion seems to be that while the intentions were good, the “positive” experiences varied, as will be elaborated in the following section.

As early as the mid-1980s, Gore (1990) implemented a critical pedagogy approach on a PETE course in Australia with the aim to “facilitate reflexivity among participants through shared experiences of the teaching act” (p. 115). Gore found that several of the students viewed reflection as almost irrelevant to the task of teaching. The majority of the students in the study reflected at what, in Williams' (1993) terms, would be considered a medium level, while only a few were what Gore (ibid) referred to as “committed” and reflective students who focused on the process of learning and reflecting. In a similar vein, Fernández-Balboa (1995) implemented critical pedagogy into his own teaching in the university classroom and highlighted experiences from the project as barriers on three levels: the external (the university level), the internal (the institution level and academic traditions) and the personal. He points to the personal barrier as the most crucial, and most difficult in the attempt to practice critical pedagogy in the classroom, because “there are neither guidelines nor signposts to help me connect theory to practice” (Fernández-Balboa, 1995, p. 110). In Macdonald and Brooker's (1999) study on implementing a critical pedagogy course for students in PETE, they found that the students continued to reflect on a technical level rather than “thoughtful reflection” (p. 59) related to the issues the critical course had highlighted.

Similarly, from a study implementing critically- oriented teaching on an undergraduate PETE programme and exploring how two students experienced being engaged in social-critical discourses in their education, Hickey (2001) concluded that there were limited

grounds for optimism in the potential for critical pedagogy to guide PETE in practical ways. In this vein, Ruiz and Fernández-Balboa (2005) found that very few of the 17 PETEs they interviewed who claimed to practice critical pedagogy, actually did so. In other words, even if the PETEs claimed to reflect upon their practices in the stronger more critical sense of reflection, they appeared not doing so. In fact, more than half of the PETEs did not understand what critical pedagogy really was about, and the teaching methods they applied were not in line with the intentions of critical pedagogy. The study confirmed that the PETEs were not self-reflective towards their teaching. For his part Curtner-Smith (2007) examined a critically oriented six week methods course and a 9 week field experience of one class of 24 pre-service classroom teachers (PCTs) in a PETE programme. The study revealed that after the course and field experience the PCTs reflected “at a technical and practical level and achieved many of the goals at which conventional methods courses are aimed” (p. 35), while not many actually reflected at a critical level, and only “a few had flirted with critical issues” (p. 52). Hence, it is worth observing that this research reveals that even those who one might reasonably expect to reflect on PE and education in the stronger sense (the advocates for critical pedagogy), appear pre-occupied with preparing their students for the *what* and *how* in teaching rather than *why*.

Considering that teaching styles are by definition related to reflexivity, in the sense that some teaching styles include students as reflexive practitioners, while others do not, the reported research reveals that teaching styles and levels of reflexivity among the PETEs and PE students tend to be at the student-centred end of the continuum. Hence, reflection remains at a weak or, occasionally, medium level. Inclusive teaching styles and a strong level of reflection (Williams, 1993) seem very difficult, if not virtually impossible, implementing in PE and PETE (Byra, 2006). There appear, nevertheless, to be grounds for optimism for supporters of critical pedagogies. Azzarito and Ennis (2003), for example, found in their study of how PE teachers’ social constructivist strategies encourage students’ construction of knowledge and meaning that “the teachers’ strategies created a learning environment in which students actively constructed knowledge and

meanings by making connections to their peers and by connecting physical education to their lives, their communities, and the real world” (p. 179). In other words, and similar to Tsangaridou’s (2008) findings, the study revealed that PE students could use both teacher-mediated and student-mediated teaching strategies. This shows that, despite the tradition within PE and PETE to emphasize traditional instruction teaching styles, some authors have successfully implemented more social, moral, and student-centred teaching strategies into PE and PETE.

One response to the critical pedagogies, and to the seemingly shortcoming of critical theory, has been the development of what Tinning (1991) refers to as postmodern pedagogies, or more recently, pedagogy and knowledge (re-) production (Tinning, 2010). Postmodern pedagogy rejects the notion of a grand narrative and rejects the claim that truth can be found through the application of rational thought or enlightenment. Rather, postmodern pedagogy “recognizes multiple readings or interpretations of a text and values eclecticism rather than one method” (Tinning, 1991, p. 11). Postmodern pedagogy claims to recognize the nature of the postmodern conditions, and is a response to the considered failure of critical pedagogy to live up to its own claims.

The common concern of postmodern pedagogical approaches (such as auto-ethnography, life history and bio-pedagogy) is that they use “narrative techniques to encourage personal analysis, critical understanding, and where warranted, pedagogical change” (Armour, 2006, p. 467). Tinning (1991) claims there are few examples of postmodern pedagogy in the PE and PETE literature. In recent years, however, research using “storying” (Armour, 2006, p. 467) to help teachers (or pupils) to learn has become more common in PE research. Sparkes is one author that has contributed largely in this area of PE by using life-history approach and narratives in his research (see, for example, Sparkes, 2002, Sparkes & Templin, 1992). In Norway, Næss (1996, 1998, 2001) has also used life-history approaches in research PE.

With regard to PETE research, Gore (1990) has contributed to postmodern pedagogy by deconstructing and revisiting her own teaching as a teacher educator through the lenses of postmodern discourses. More recently, Fernández-Balboa (2009) has contributed to postmodern pedagogy in his article “Bio-pedagogical self-reflection in PETE: reawakening the ethical conscience and purpose in pedagogy and research”. Fernández-Balboa’s (2009) main concern is to highlight what he sees as the need for PETEs to “incorporate our *self* back into our writing and teaching in PETE in order to enhance our ethical consciousness as the basis of our work” (p. 147, emphasis in original). In Norway, Hatleset (2003) have used a postmodern pedagogical approach on a study on how PE students experienced PETE. All-in-all, it seems like post-modern pedagogy has received limited attention as a pedagogical approach in PETE and in PETE research. That said, what is often referred to as postmodern pedagogies seem, in practice, to be variants of critical pedagogy.

Despite the large amount of critical theory research applied to PETE, authors with critical theory or critical pedagogy perspectives within the field have been criticized, even among critical theorists themselves. Questions have been raised “about the actual influence of critical pedagogy in the classroom practice, but also about the (very) possibility of using critical pedagogy in the classroom” (Tinning, 2002, p. 227). Gore (1993) has identified two strands within critical theory, one favoured by Henry Giroux and Peter McLaren and the other by Paulo Freire and Ira Shor. The work by Giroux and McLaren on critical pedagogy is “more directly related to their academic study of education and social theory” (Gore, 1993, p. 34), wherein they considered their work more as a social vision for teachers than guidelines for instructional practices. On the other side, Freire and Shor “have been able to construct a strand of critical pedagogy which offers concrete suggestions and examples taken from their own pedagogical practice, and which is intended to help other educators” (Gore, 1993, p. 40). Even though Gore (1993) identifies both a social vision and practical guidelines within critical pedagogy, she claims that radical pedagogies (critical pedagogy and feminist pedagogy), for example, do not address pedagogy at all, except in abstract ways. She claims that most writers of critical

pedagogy ignore the process of knowledge production in either their own arguments or the classrooms. Gore (1993) claims that critical pedagogy lacks reflexivity and lacks a sense of history which de-contextualizes its focus. Furthermore, “it seems that radical pedagogies remain marginalized within the broader educational community” (Gore, 1993, p. 12). In an attempt to understand why this marginalization existed, she found some of the limitations within the discourses of radical pedagogies themselves; in other words that the pedagogies continue to be social visions rather than practical pedagogies to be implemented in the classroom. Put another way, these pedagogical approaches do not address pedagogy at all, except in abstract ways, because most writers of critical pedagogy ignored the process of knowledge production in either their own arguments or the classrooms (Gore, 1993).

Taken together this section on reflexivity, including pedagogies and teaching styles, it has demonstrated that PETEs as well as PE teachers appear to teach and reflect on technical and practical levels rather than on a critical or strong level of reflection (van Manen, 1977; Williams, 1993), let alone, adopt critical or postmodern pedagogies into their teaching, which has been a consistent finding since Evans and Davies' (1986) observation almost three decades ago.

Summary and review of critical theory

In critical theory social constructivism, power, ideology, hegemony, reflexivity and praxis are prominent concepts. Critical theorists take a view that hegemonic ideologies of PE and PETE (its nature and purposes, suitable and appropriate to PETE) become and remain dominant because relatively powerful people (for example existing PETEs and or PE teachers) propagate a preferred view of the project. For critical theorists, the aim is to throw light on the manner in which dominant ideologies remain dominant in the belief that in making those involved in day-to-day practice (PE students, PETEs and PE teachers) aware of the hegemonic ideologies, and by enlightening the practitioners, one

will make them able to reflect (at a strong, critical level) upon and change custom practice. Most critical theory informed research on PETE (and PE) is non-empirical, and the few studies actually implementing critical theory into PETE have had limited success.

In this vein, it seems that theorizing itself within the critical theory approach (to PETE, for example) tends not to be based upon empirical findings as such, but constitutes theorizing on an abstract level (see, for example, Camacho & Fernández-Balboa, 2006; Fernández-Balboa, 2009; Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Hickey, 2001; Kirk, 1992, 2006, 2010; Kirk & Macdonald, 2001; McKay, et al., 1990; Metzler, 2009; Pascual, 2006; Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1991, 2000, 2002, 2010). In other words, the debates are grounded on different (ideological) ideas rather than on empirical studies. The majority of the critical theory based research PETE (and PE) is non-empirical (in other words, ideas about ideas) and seems to rely more on the critical theories “political vision”, in line with Giroux and McLaren, rather than implementing critical pedagogy into the classroom more in line with the intentions of Freire and Shor (Gore, 1993). Nevertheless, there are some small scale studies which claim to have (partly) successfully implemented critical pedagogy in the university PE classroom (Curtner-Smith, 2007; Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Gore, 1990; Hickey, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005;). Nevertheless, without exception all such studies claim, alongside with Gore (1993), that implementing critical pedagogy in the field of schooling is very difficult, if not impossible. By implication, this suggests that critical theory does not engage sufficiently in the reality of PETE or PE.

As a response to such criticisms, Tinning (2002) called for a “modest pedagogy” that could take “seriously the problematization of knowledge and schooling”, yet avoid “some of the pitfalls of Enlightenment thinking and the neglect of student subjectivity” (p. 224). Tinning (*ibid*) does not see this modest pedagogy as a solution to the criticism to critical pedagogy, but rather as a realistic appraisal of what can be achieved in the name of pedagogy that works for the social re-constructivist education project. In other words,

Tinning (ibid) is not willing to “give up” the commitment to critical theory (even though critical theory based empirical research show that implying the ideologies of critical theory into PETE or PE seems impossible). Tinning’s (ibid) call for a modest pedagogy seems more like an attempt to find a way around the shortcomings of a criticism towards critical pedagogy than actually trying to “create” a “new modest pedagogy”. It seems that Tinning (ibid) is not “defining” a new pedagogy, but rather an “orienting way of thinking” about pedagogy. As such this social re-constructivist education project seems to have its ideological foundations rooted in critical theory, modified to “recognize the limit of rationality as a catalyst for change” (Tinning, 2002, p. 236). As such, Tinning’s (2002) call for a modest pedagogy may be seen as a way to meet the critique of the concept (or mission) of praxis. In other words, the aim to change PETE into something better has been widely criticized, and Tinning (ibid) has tried to meet such criticisms.

An aspect in this critique towards praxis (or theoretically informed change) is that critical theory based research seems to be more ideologically than sociologically driven research (Green, 2008b). Thus, though several of the critically oriented authors endeavours to be, as they put it, “humble” and appear to acknowledge that their way of “thinking” or “acting” may not be the right way to think or act, their work seems to be more about ideologically driven political projects rather than sociologically oriented research projects. Although some, such as Macdonald and Brooker (1999), comment “Who are we to render their needs as trivial?” (p. 57), there can be no doubt what these critical theory informed researchers consider to be the “right” way of thinking and acting in PE and PETE. Although they are criticizing PE and PETE as based on ideological directions of which they do not approve, they themselves seem to be quite ideological in terms of trying to convince the world *what* and *how* to “think” and “do” PE.

GENDER AND FEMINIST THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH

Feminist theory is often seen as a form of critical theory, sharing many of the latter's assumptions. In PETE (and PE) research many authors have taken a gender and/or feminist approach (see, for example, Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008; Flintoff, 1993, 2009; Harris & Penney, 2002; Kårhus, 2004a; Penney, 2002; Teksum, 2006; Wright, 2002).

Feminism is, according to Roberts (2009), “a body of theory and social movement dedicated to ending the (alleged) oppression of women and their subordination to men” (p. 96). Within sociology the most established variants of feminism are: liberal feminism (that seeks equal rights guaranteed by law), Marxist feminism (that “regards the oppression of women as a sub-set of the more general oppression of the working class” [Roberts, 2009, p. 97]) and a radical (or social) feminism, “whose opponents are men and patriarchy” (Roberts, 2009, p. 97). More recently, post-structuralist theory has also influenced feminist theory. Inspired by the work of Foucault, post-structuralist feminism takes as a starting point that discourses and language oppresses women (Nilges, 2006). It is important to note that these different forms of feminist theory tends to represent stages in its development, and, as such, draw upon each other rather than replace earlier forms and stages (Flintoff & Scraton, 2006).

Similar to critical theory, a central theme in all feminist approaches is the focus on inequality and power, and the shift within gender and feminist theory has been from focusing on differences between girls and boys (liberal feminism), to more complex theories of gender (for example Marxist feminism, radical/social feminism, and poststructuralist feminism). Each stage within feminism has focused on questions of inequality and power, and a main focus within all feminist traditions is praxis (Flintoff, 2009), defined (as in critical theory) as theoretically informed action in practice: As Flintoff and Scraton (2006) says; “Feminist praxis seeks to understand inequality and

disadvantage and contribute to political and social change” (p. 768). In this regard, all stages and forms of feminist theory are closely connected to, and can even be viewed as dimensions of critical theory.

Domain concepts and assumptions in gender and feminist theory

It is generally accepted, nowadays, that feminist analyses of PE and PETE have contributed to better understandings of the questions surrounding difference, bodies, empowerment, identity and equality, as well as broadened our understanding of young people’s different involvement and engagement in PE and sports (Flintoff, 2009). Roberts (2009) points out that in sociology in general, feminist theory has challenged the mainstream sociological theories, research methods and knowledge, and has led to the development of new concepts or rather new understandings of existing concepts. Flintoff and Scraton (2006) consider the key concepts within gender and feminist theory to be the sex/gender distinction, gender power relations, and difference, identity and embodiment. In the following section I will explore these concepts and their significance for feminist theory research on PETE (and to some extent, PE).

The sex-gender distinction

From the 1970s, the term “sex” was used to draw a biological distinction between males and females, while the term “gender” was used to refer to everything “learned” that is socially constructed and culturally transmitted (Roberts, 2009). Flintoff and Scraton (2006) observe that this separation of the biological (sex) from the social (gender) “opened up possibilities for the critical examination” (p. 768) of not only girls’ PE, but PE generally, on the assumption that PE, as a social process, is socially constructed. Sex-role theory was utilized to identify the socially constructed character of, in the first instance, girls’ gendered behaviours, by focusing on how girls and boys were socialized into specific roles and how girls and boys learned gender appropriate behaviours, attitudes and roles. Through sex-role theory, PE was identified as one of the most sex-

differentiated subjects in school. PE remains the most sex-differentiated and stereotyped subject on the school curriculum, particularly at secondary level, when measured in terms of organization, content and delivery. Although PE purports to be a single subject, it contains, in practice, two distinct sexes (or, rather, gender) sub-cultures. Sex-role theory asked questions about why “some differences are taken as significant and impact on girls’ PE provision” (Flintoff & Scraton, 2006, p. 768), and this was the starting point for the early liberal feminist theoretical analyses.

Gender power relations

According to Flintoff and Scraton (2006), the liberal-feminist stage of feminist theory, overlooked a critical understanding of power relations. Subsequently, feminist analysis moved from focusing on sex differences to looking at gender relations in terms of power relations. In this regard, radical feminism explains inequalities and oppression as maintained systematically through male power, and specifically patriarchy (Flintoff & Scraton, 2006). Socialist-feminism incorporates a class dimension to radical feminism and views patriarchy and power as located within the capitalist system, with the result that the interrelationship between class and gender is central to understanding women’s disadvantage and exploitation, as with critical theory more generally. The concepts of ideology and hegemony are said to be central to understandings of power relations (Flintoff & Scraton, 2006). In this regard the conceptualization of power within radical and socialist feminism is similar to that of critical theory.

In this vein, several authors have identified PE as a subject that sustains a hegemonic masculinity at the same time as reproducing it (see, for example, Fleming, 1991; Light & Kirk, 2000; Parker, 1996, cited in Flintoff & Scraton, 2006). The same is said to be true in research on PETE, namely that the PETEs have traditional views on gender and sex-roles according to the subject, and that, in their day-to-day practices, PETEs (and PETE in general) reinforce a masculine understanding of PE which in turn impacts upon PETE (Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008; Flintoff, 1993; Kårhus, 2004a; Teksum, 2006; Wright,

2002). It does so, for example, by preferring teacher-centred teaching styles which favour boys (Capel, 2005; Evans et al., 1996), and by focusing on traditional sports, rather than non-traditional sports often favoured by girls (Capel, 2005). Dowling (2006), for example, observed that Norwegian PETEs did not conceive it as important to address gender issues in education. Indeed, they perceived gender as a biological given. Flintoff's (1993) work, together with that of Sparkes, Partington and Brown (2007), revealed a sporting sub-culture which prioritized doing (sports) over thinking or reflection, in boys PE, which was prominent in teacher education contexts as well.

Difference, identity and embodiment

A more recent "stage" within feminist theory is related to difference, identity and embodiment. Within this stage post-structuralists such as Foucault (1980, 1984, cited in Flintoff & Scraton, 2006), can be seen to have been influential, particularly in the way in which Foucault challenged the structuralist definition of power (top down and repressive) (Flintoff & Scraton, 2006). In Foucault's view, power is everywhere (Roberts, 2009) and often takes effect indirectly and subconsciously through the particular ways of thinking and speaking about something that are commonplace within, in this case, PE and PETE sub-cultures. In line with critical theory, such unconscious structures are referred to as discourses. Flintoff and Scraton (2006) add that: "it is through discourse meanings and people are made and importantly through which power relations are maintained and changed" (p. 770); in other words, this post-structuralist stand sees "gender power as much more contested and fluid, and not possessed by one group [such as males] to be used in relations of domination over others" (Flintoff, 2009, pp. 10-11).

In a similar vein, recent feminist research on PETE has focused on the production of knowledge/power, language, identities, subjectivities and the body (Dowling, 2006, 2008; Flintoff & Scraton, 2006). A study by Flintoff and Scraton (2001) on how dominant discourses in PE contributed to young people's embodied meanings found, for example, that contexts outside school were often where young women found empowering

experiences, rather than in school PE. While Dowling (2006, 2008) found that PETEs' identity projects could be classified as technical rather than moral and democratic projects, she also identified how "gender talk" evoked strong, often negative emotional responses among PETEs.

Summary and review of gender and feminist theory

While gender theory has focused on the sex/gender distinction (sex-role theory and liberal feminism), radical and social feminism has a focus on "gender power relations", while poststructuralist feminist theories focus on "difference, identity and embodiment". In keeping with critical theory more generally, feminisms' main aim within all forms of gender and feminist theory is praxis (or theoretically informed change). In other words, the main aim for feminists is that research should lead to change in current practice regarding gender differences and unequal power relations (even though feminist themselves say they have failed to achieve this). I have argued that gender and feminist theory is part of, or intersects with, critical theory and thus more detailed explanations of the underlying concepts and understandings can be found in the earlier section on critical theory.

The early sex-role feminist theory is criticized for having a functionalist conception of gender that favoured attention on individuals and paid insufficient attention to issues of power and control (Hall, 1996, cited in Flintoff & Scraton, 2006). By contrast, in radical and social feminism, gender power relations have been the main focus, and power is viewed as ideological hegemonic action (similar to critical theory). The last phase, post-structuralism, is said to have made great "contributions to theorizing difference and to the deconstruction of binaries such as boys/girls; masculinity/femininity" (Flintoff & Scraton, 2006, p. 770). Nonetheless, this phase have been criticized for underplaying "the significance of material and structural inequalities and has shifted the debates to a focus

on individuals at the expense of social context” (Scraton, 1994, cited in Flintoff & Scraton, 2006, p. 770).

A main criticism towards feminist research in general, a criticism addressed by feminist researchers as well, is the difficulty to establish just how feminist thought has produced positive change in PE (and PETE). Flintoff (2009) argues that this has to do with the increasing gap between theory and practice which is prominent within feminism (and, I would add, critical theory). In other words, Flintoff (2009) points to the fact that feminist theories of PE and PETE have not managed to change the world of PE and PETE through empowerment in the manner they anticipated.

SOCIALIZATION THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH

The avowed aim of socialization theory, in relation to PE and PETE, is to develop understandings of how “particular attitudes and practices become part and parcel of PE teachers’ [and PETEs] personalities or habituses – their ‘second nature’” (Green, 2008a, p. 208). Research on PETEs’ socialization was especially popular in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Annerstedt, 1991; Graber, 1989; Lawson, 1986, 1988; Lawson & Stroot, 1993; Rønning, 1996; Rønning & Hansen, 1993; Schempp, 1989; Stroot & Williamson, 1993). Some authors have, nevertheless, more recently retained a socialization perspective in their research (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Armour & Yelling, 2004; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Dodds, 2005; Green, 2003; McCullick, 2001; O’Bryant et al., 2000). Once again, it may be worth observing that research on socialization overlaps and intersects with some of the domain assumptions of other theoretical perspectives, such as critical theory. Indeed, many of these perspectives rely upon the socialization literature to underpin their broader theorizing.

Domain assumptions and concepts in socialization theory

Socialization “refers to the processes through which people are taught (directly or indirectly, explicitly or implicitly, intentionally or unintentionally) and internalize the values, beliefs, expectations, knowledge, skills, habits and practices prevalent in their groups and societies” (Green, 2010, p. 167). The socialization concept have, however, been criticized in two broad terms, first that the concept is static rather than take a process-oriented view on socialization. Second, it has been criticized for being too deterministic, that is to say, failing to acknowledge that people are being socialized at the same time as being active contributors in the socialization process. The latter view, that the person both influences the society at the same time as being influenced by the society is common among PE and PETE researchers (see, for example, Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; Lawson & Stroot, 1993; Næss, 1998; Stroot & Williamson, 1993; Templin & Schempp, 1989), because as Stroot and Williamson (1993) puts it; “Today’s teacher programmes, roles, schools, universities and social structures shape us, even as we try to shape them” (p. 337).

Lawson (1986; 1988), among others (Green, 2003; Næss, 1998; Templin & Schempp, 1989), has identified different forms of socialization of both PE teachers and PETEs, depending on where and when the socialization take place. Lawson uses *occupational socialization* as an umbrella concept “to include all the kinds of socialization that initially influence individuals to enter the field of physical education and later are responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers” (Lawson, 1986, p. 107). Lawson (1986) points to five kinds of socialization which may impact differentially on occupational socialization: societal socialization, sport socialization, professional socialization, organizational socialization and bureaucratic socialization. Templin and Schempp (1989) divided occupational socialization into three phases: recruitment into the profession education, formal education, and organizational socialization in one’s first job. This neatly overlaps with Green’s (2008a) suggestions that Lawson’s (1986) five types of socialization broadly can be reduced to three: *acculturation* (in essence, childhood and

adolescent sporting and PE experiences and the predispositions these are said to engender), *professional socialization* (in other words, the teacher-training process, or formal education), and *occupational socialization* (attitudes and behaviours learned “on-the-job” in the company and the networks the PE teachers or PETEs are a part of) (Green, 2008a). In the following section, these three phases are used as basis for discussing PETEs’ socialization.

Acculturation

Acculturation is the process whereby one group acquires the culture of another (Roberts, 2009). During this process the group that is being acculturated can, by degrees, begin to lose its original identity as it comes to identify more strongly with the new “host” culture. In the case of acculturation of PE teachers or PETEs, however, the concept of acculturation needs to be used in a slightly different way, because rather than losing their original identity their original sporting and performance identities tend to be reinforced and only altered relatively slightly (Dowling, 2006; Green, 2003; Næss, 1998).

Central to the understanding of the socialization process of becoming a PE teacher educator and especially in relation to the process of acculturation, is the concept of *habitus*, a term commonly associated with both Pierre Bourdieu (1977) and Norbert Elias (1978). Roberts (2009) defines habitus, as: “the metaphorical dwelling in which we live ... within our minds” (p. 20). Habitus is initially formed during primary and secondary socialization and is comprised of durable perceptions, understandings and predispositions to action. It is important to note, however, that while a person’s habitus can change, it inevitably does so by building on existing predispositions (Roberts, 2009). While Bourdieu applied habitus first and foremost to individuals, Elias emphasized the need to view peoples as interdependent with each other and “that one can only become an individual human being within a web of social relations” (van Krieken, 1998, p. 55). Thus, Elias viewed the individual habitus to develop within networks of shared social

habitus within the same social class or group (van Krieken, 1998), such as, in the present case, other PETEs.

Much existing research on the topic of socialization and habitus reveals how PE teachers and PETEs' biographies and their emotional attachment to and "love of sports" tend to develop in them particular orientations towards PE, including a desire to teach (pass on) their love of sports to children (Christensen, 2001; Dowling, 2006; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; McCullick, 2001; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998; O'Bryant et al., 2000). Another common influence for entering the PE profession and, thus, dimension of acculturation is the positive influence earlier PE teachers had during PE teachers' young school lives. Reviewing research on PE teachers beliefs, Tsangaridou (2006), for example, found that PE teachers viewed their experiences in sports during schooling as influencing "their understanding of what it means to be a physical education teacher" (ibid, p. 492). Besides PE teachers, sport coaches also appear to be influential role models for some PE teachers (Dowling, 2006; Evans & Williams, 1989; O'Bryant et al., 2000). Lawson (1983a) uses the term "subjective warrant", which Green (2008a) describes as "a person's perception of the requirements of and benefits of work in a given profession weighed against self-assessments of aspiration and competence" (p. 213) to explore that the tendency for PE teachers (and, by extension, PETEs) to identify both with a coaching orientation as well as a teaching orientation. Tsangaridou (2006) explores the tensions that many PE teachers seem to feel in their two roles as coaches and teachers. Green (2003), however, argues that in fact PE teachers tend not to clearly distinguish between these roles, either in theory or practice.

What seems evident in various studies is that both male and female PE students have been attracted to careers in large measure PE, because it gives them an opportunity to continue their association with sports (Dowling, 2006; Evans & Williams, 1989; Green, 2003, 2008a; Næss, 1998). It seems that positive early childhood experiences of PE and sports constitute an anticipatory phase of socialization (Dewar & Lawson, 1984;

O'Bryant et al., 2000) which, in part, socializes future teachers into particular values and beliefs (Chen & Ennis, 1996) regarding the nature and purposes of PE (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006; Green, 2008a; Placek et al., 1995). Hence, it seems as if PE teachers' early experiences can have a long-lasting impact on their habituses and subsequently on school PE programmes (Placek et al., 1995), especially in the form of a sport-orientated ideology (Green, 2003). In other words, it seems as if the acculturation phase of socialization heavily influences PE teachers and PETEs in their roles as teachers in school and university.

Professional socialization

It is widely recognized that both PE teachers' and PETEs' habituses are strongly connected to the love of sports and physical activity, and that this is their primary reason for choosing their occupation (Christensen, 2001; Dowling, 2006; Green, 2003, 2008; Larsson, 2009; McCullick, 2001; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998; O'Bryant et al., 2000). However, when a person decides to become a PE teacher, they are required to undertake professional socialization, or put another way, formal education. But besides involving formal education, professional socialization also involves informal processes. In the following section I will consider professional socialization of PE students before exploring the professional socialization of PETEs.

Professional socialization of PE students

Research on PE students' show that their sporting interests is one main reason for entering PETE (Larsson, 2009; O'Bryant et al., 2000). A study by Larsson (2009) found that PE students expected PETE to be a place they would experience and learn different sporting activities, and that PETE was going to involve fun and playing sports as much as developing knowledge useful for their future occupations as PE teachers. This is similar to Lundemo's (2009) findings among first year PE teachers looking back at PETE, and to what Hatleset (2003) found among PE students in Norway. Similarly, McCullick et al.

(2008) found that PE students experienced PETEs as skilled sporting performers during their professional socialization (PETE), in the sense that many of the PETEs were keen to (and good at) demonstrating sporting skills. In McCullick's (2001) study of practicing teachers' perspectives on the characteristics needed among PE students, they thought that the PE students ought to have a love of physical activity (in the sense of mastering different sporting activities) and be able to demonstrate different sports, be physically fit (in the sense of looking healthy because, as future PE teachers they saw themselves as role models for youngsters), and finally have the ability to be flexible and creative which means being open to different views on subject matters and different types of pupils. These findings corresponded with O'Bryant et al.'s (2000) study on socialization into PETE.

Velija et al. (2008) found that PE students appeared to draw on their own experiences of PE and as such had "already developed their own ideologies about teaching from school, friends, family and the media" (Velija et al., 2008, p. 401) when they entered teacher education. Velija et al. (2008) also found that the PE students valued university practical sessions and school-based experiences higher than university-based theory sessions. Indeed, university-based theory sessions were viewed as of little relevance to the actual practice of teaching, because the PE students thought the school offered a more realistic setting to develop the skills required to be a good teacher (Velija et al., 2008), similar to findings among students in general teacher education in Norway (Smeby, 2010a). This is in line with McCullick (2001), who found that PE teachers viewed PETEs with previous experience (as PE teachers) to be the experienced PETEs, because they really knew what they were talking about.

Velija et al. (2008) also observed that the students experienced university tutors and mentor teachers as having different views on PE. While the university tutors had an academic or philosophical notion of what PE ought to be, the school-based mentors' views of PE were more in line with the PE students' own descriptions. Hence, some of

the student sought a better connection between school and university. This tendency was also highlighted by Bulger, Mohr, Carson and Wiegand (2001), who noted how PE students experienced difficulty in making meaningful connections between their theoretical coursework and its practical applications in their future profession of teaching PE.

In general, research which considered questions on the professional socialization of PE students, demonstrated that PETE appeared to have little impact on PE students' already established beliefs regarding their future role as PE teachers (Capel, 2005; Curter-Smith, 2001; Evans et al., 1996; Larsson, 2009; Placek et al., 1995; Velija et al., 2008). Similarly, Velija et al. (2008) found that the PETE courses did not challenge PE students' perception of what PE is or ought to be about. The same tendency was found in a study by Curtner-Smith (2001) on a first year physical education teacher programme, namely that teacher education tended to confirm rather than challenge PE students' beliefs about PE. Placek et al. (1995) also found that PETE appeared to have little impact on the largely established beliefs of PE teachers and only limited impact on their practice. In a similar vein, Burden, Hodge, O'Bryant and Harrison (2004), for example, identified various studies which claimed PETE programmes did not prepare PE teachers to work in culturally diverse schools, and as a consequence novice PE teachers experience subsequently a shock because "their perceived reality differs from what they encounter or differ from their own cultural norm" (Stroot & Whipple, 2003; Williams & Williamson, 1995, cited in Burden et al., 2004, p.177).

All-in-all, a wide variety of studies over the last two decades have demonstrated that professional socialization tends neither to shake nor stir PE students' beliefs about PE and PE teaching (Evans et al., 1996). Indeed, teacher education often seems to confirm and reinforce rather than challenge their beliefs and practices (Capel, 2005; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Larsson, 2009; Placek et al., 1995). Stroot and Ko (2006) claim teacher education tends to be "washed out" soon after the teachers starts to teach in that "real

world”, because newly-qualified teachers are confronted by a variety of practical constraints such as orthodox PE-department practice, staffing problems, available resources and more-or-less “friendly” and compliant pupils.

Professional socialization of PETEs

While there are formal requirements for becoming a qualified PE teacher in Norway, there is no formal pathway to becoming a PE teacher educator other than the basic requirements for possessing a Master-degree or a PhD (Dowling, 2006; Møller-Hansen, 2004), neither of which need be in any way based upon pedagogy, PE or teaching per se. Some PETEs may have PETE or general teacher education as a part of their initial qualification or professional experiences, but there are no formal expectations for this when hired as a PE teacher educator at a Norwegian university. Consequently, PETEs in Norway tend to have little or no formal professional accreditation or socialization into their roles as teacher educators. What can be said is that PETEs with a PhD have formal professional socialization into that aspect of their role that involves research. Thus, possessing a PhD can be located under the heading “continuing professional development” (CPD), which in broad terms is defined as “all types of professional learning undertaken by teachers beyond the initial point of training” (Craft, 1996, p. 6, cited in Armour & Yelling, 2004, p. 96). More generally, CPD can be both formal and informal. In informal terms, CPD is viewed as the way teachers develop knowledge from those around them (Stroot & Ko, 2006) whilst on-the-job. In other words, informal CPD may be referred to as a form of occupational socialization.

In formal terms CPD tends to be viewed by many teachers as going on a course in order to get immediate and practical benefits (Armour & Yelling, 2007). Betchel and O’Sullivan (2006) comment that many PE teachers in the US did not experience CPD as important to their development or practice. PE teachers engaging in CPD tend to focus on three things: traditional content knowledge (for example, improving sporting expertise via governing body awards), new content knowledge (in order to deliver examinations in

PE) and career development (such as preparing for future Head of Department roles) (Green, 2008a). In other words, they tend to view CPD in terms of practical inputs rather than as part of their own personal and professional development as teachers. Dowling (2006) found in a study on Norwegian PETEs that informal rather than formal factors were important sources for CPD among the PETEs. Teaching tips from colleagues, feedback from students, reality TV and sport associations were factors they tended to view as their informal CPD. In other words, their CPD was neither related to formal courses nor their own ontological and epistemological reflection, it tended to be a mix of leisure-time input and occupational socialization.

Occupational socialization

Occupational socialization is defined by Lawson (1986) as “the process by which physical educationalists learn the knowledge, values, and skills required by the work organization” (p. 108). In other words, this refers to attitudes and behaviours learnt on-the-job together with PE teachers or PETEs’ colleagues (Green, 2008a; Templin & Schempp, 1989). It amounts very often to informal socialization. In this vein, research on PE teaching in primary and secondary school shows that teachers define their roles through prior experience, in relation to the context in which they teach and through interaction with relevant and significant others. PE teachers seem to prefer to hold on to roles with which they are comfortable, and make few changes. Consequently, they tend to retain a traditional approach to PE regardless of changes in the curriculum (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Green, 1998, 2003). According to Green (2000), PE teachers simply do PE; and their doing appears to interact with their predispositions towards the role, influencing their thoughts on the subject.

Thus, when new teachers start working within a PE department (culture), the new teachers brings in new “blood” at the same time as they adjust to the existing department culture, in other words, “there is, inevitably, a degree of change alongside continuity” (Green, 2008a, p. 215). Several studies show that workplace occupational socialization

on-the-job has an important impact on the practice of the newcomers (Capel, 2005; Lawson, 1983a, 1983b; Stroot & Ko, 2006). Keay (2006), for example, demonstrates that PE departments tend to be important role models for newly-qualified PE teachers. All told, it seems that constraints on practice play a greater part than theory (and professional socialization) in determining what teachers do and how they do it (Green, 2008a). This realization led Keay (2006) to comment that PE department and the individuals within the departments needs to be aware of how they influence newly-qualified PE teachers and what kinds of knowledge they (consciously and subconsciously) influence new PE teachers with.

Research from the early 1970s (Lortie, 1975), through to the 1990s (Curtner-Smith, 1997; Schempp, Sparkes & Templin, 1993) to more recently (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Wright, 2001), shows that PE teachers display a tendency to experience heavy working loads as a part of their everyday teaching lives over time. Both Lortie (1975) and Smyth (1995) found that beginning PE teachers performed the same teaching task as experienced PE teachers, while two beginning teachers in Curtner-Smith's (1997) study described their time schedules as "murderous" (p. 84). These findings corresponds with what teachers in Schempp et al.'s (1993) study described in terms of finding the "weight from their responsibilities heavy, and at times crushing" (p. 458).

The same tendency has been found outside US. PE teachers in Singapore (Wright, 2001) reported to have full time schedules, and one of the teachers described himself as: "worn out... You totally have no life, no social life. It is like you are married to the school" (p. 220). Similar, researching PETE in USA, Williamson (1993) found that beginning PETEs experienced large demands in terms of teaching and research. While Stidder's review (unpublished) of PETE research in peer-reviewed PE and sport pedagogy journals between 1998 to 2008, found only two papers, Hopper (2001) and McBride (1996), discussing the possible tension between heavy teaching commitments and research among PETE staff. Stidder (unpublished) highlighted the shortage on research of how

PETEs experience their workload in terms of teaching, research and administration. All-in-all, these findings indicate how everyday experiences (occupational socialization) influences PE teachers and PETEs in their day-to-day practices.

Besides research revealing PE teachers' and PETEs' experiences of heavy working loads as part of their everyday lives, another common experience among these groups is isolation. Stroot and Ko (2006) reports that PE teachers experience physical, social, psychological and professional isolation. Isolation was described as commonplace among PE teachers because there often was only one PE teacher teaching PE in some schools (Solomon, Worthy & Carter, 1993), or the PE buildings were located far away from the central school buildings, and hence the PE teachers were physically isolated from the rest of the staff (Williams & Williamson, 1995, cited in Stroot & Ko, 2006). A consequence of such geographical, organizational or social isolation was that PE teachers were not able to participate in natural discussions with colleagues at the school (Curtner-Smith, 2001). Napper-Owen and Phillips (1995), for example, reported that PE teachers missed the opportunity to discuss PE concerns with peers.

Isolation has also been identified as the tension between beginning PE teachers and veteran teachers. Williams and Williamson (1998, cited in Stroot & Ko, 2006), for example, found that beginning teachers' ideas and proposals were met with skepticism by older colleagues. This tendency for veteran teachers to possess established beliefs, traditions and perceptions that the newcomers have to accept or modify their action towards, has also been identified by Schempp et al. (1993). Besides the veteran teachers heavily influencing the beginning teachers' everyday life, research has identified that because of the structure of the school setting, most of the PE teachers' time was spent together with children or young adults (Kurtz, 1983; Ryan, 1979, cited in Stroot & Ko, 2006) and, as a consequence of this, feedback from the students heavily influences the PE teachers' beliefs and values of PE (Schempp et al., 1993).

Mentoring as part of professional and occupational socialization

One part of teachers' socialization (both professional and occupational) typically consists of having a mentor teacher as a part of so-called school practice. According to Behets and Vergauwen (2006) the concept of mentoring is vague. They observe that "different roles, models, styles and functions have been ascribed to mentors" with the result "that there is no standard definition of mentoring" (p. 415). This said, it is a common understanding that mentors are often "established teachers who ... are taken to embody 'good practice'" (Green, 2008a, p. 211, emphasis in original), and that mentoring involves the guidance on both content and teaching, as well as on the broader more philosophical dimensions of PE (Green, 2008a). The research on mentoring in PE refers to both formal and informal mentoring (Ayers & Griffin, 2005; Napper-Owen & Phillips, 1995; Smyth, 1995; Stroot & Williamson, 1993). Informal mentoring is viewed as having colleagues who provide useful help and advice (for example sharing teaching ideas and exploring these together) (Ayers & Griffin, 2005). Studies by Napper-Owen and Phillips (1995) and Smyth (1995) found that PE teachers experiencing informal mentoring established productive communication with their mentors that provided them with emotional support and professional guidance aimed at improving their teaching performance. Another typically informal (but occasionally formal) form of mentoring in PE is peer teaching where a PE teacher, at the same time as being a co-teacher, is also a mentor for the teaching colleague (Jenkins & Veal, 2002). In peer teaching, the role of the mentor in the post-lesson discussion is to encourage the peer teacher to reflect, rather than tell him/her what to do. All these mentor roles are commensurate with the weak sense of reflection. In other words, they are examples of the ways in which the practically oriented and pragmatic sense of reflexivity dominates PE teachers informal (and even formal) CPD.

The ostensible aim within formal mentoring is to guide and develop teachers as professional, both on teaching content and teaching styles and on broader philosophical dimensions of PE and PETE (Ayers & Griffin, 2005; Behets & Vergauwen, 2006; Stroot & Ko, 2006). In formal mentoring we find different approaches: traditional mentoring, for example, emphasizes teaching performance and the actual teaching practice, while

reflective mentoring focuses on “reflection on teaching or thinking about and learning from teaching” (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006, p. 416). Traditional mentoring is described as a form of behaviourism whereby data is collected on observable teaching behaviours and feedback is given in post-lesson conferences (Coulon & Byra, 1997; Kahan, 2002).

A reflective and more dynamic approach to mentoring, as described by Furlong and Maynard (1995, cited in Behets & Vergauwen, 2006), consists of four phases and different supervisory functions: first, mentor teachers model good behaviours; in the second phase the mentor acts as a coach which stimulates the teacher to reflect; in the third phase the mentor teacher acts as a “critical friend”, while the fourth phase focuses on the political, social and moral dimension of teaching. In this phase the teachers and the mentor teachers are viewed as partners that reflect on their practical professional knowledge. The differences among these two mentoring approaches are that while the behavioural approach focuses on direct teaching behaviours, the reflective approach stresses the development of pedagogical knowledge. The traditional (behavioural) approach is the most commonly used mentoring approach in PETE (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006), which once again show the prevalence of a weaker sense of reflexivity in mentoring.

Looking into research dealing with mentoring of PE students in school practice, Booth (1993) found that despite the fact that mentoring is supposed to consist of both peer assistance and peer review, the mentor teachers in school practice viewed themselves as having a practical role guiding the PE students on three main aspects of PE, namely: the content of lessons, the management and delivery of lessons and more general reflection on their teaching, in other words, traditional mentoring (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006). Coleman and Mitchell (2000) found, unsurprisingly, that mentor teachers in school practice were very influential on the PE students’ attitudes and that the teaching method of PE students closely reflected the methods the mentor teacher employed rather than the methods used and/or recommended in the PETE programme. Velija et al.’s (2008) study,

similar to Coleman and Mitchell (2000), found that PE students in school practice often adopted the teaching style preferred by the teachers observing them, and the reason for doing so was that they wanted to “fit into” the department and to pass the course. Hence, it seems that mentor teachers in school practice typically have more impact on the PE students’ behaviours and attitudes than their training programmes at the host university (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006). Thus, mentor teachers play a more significant part in the socialization of students than their university teachers. This tendency may well be reinforced by the fact that school-based mentor teachers believe there to be a gap between the academic (university) ideas about PE and the teaching of PE in school (Velija et al., 2008). This all shows the significance of occupational socialization over professional socialization.

In terms of mentoring as a part of PETEs’ everyday life, there is little available research. In one of the few studies Dodds (2005) notes that mentoring is viewed as both informal and formal aspects of the socialization process of PETEs. Dodds (ibid) notes that the PETEs experienced more informal than formal mentoring, but that young PETEs “enjoyed greater availability of formal mentor programs” (Dodds, 2005, p. 364). For their part, Ayers and Griffin (2005) described mentoring in PE and PETE as “mentoring as a mosaic” (p. 368) including informal and formal situations. They claimed that much mentoring is invisible work that many professionals engage in willingly. Informal mentoring in PETE, they suggested, consisted of an “old boys” network, including colleagues who seek relationships with colleagues based on interests and need. Stroot and Ko (2006) also reported positive benefits on PE teachers receiving mentoring; for example, not feeling isolated, feeling able to improve their teaching for the first year of teaching (Napper-Owen & Phillips, 1995) and developing their pedagogical content knowledge (Jenkins & Veal, 2002).

Despite the reported research indicating positive personal and institutional benefits from informal and formal mentoring in PE and PETE, few PE teachers seem to have

experienced having a mentor during their first year of teaching (Stroot & Ko, 2006), in other words, beyond their formal teacher education programme.

Roles

A prominent concept in socialization theory is *roles*. Role is a concept that takes a variety of forms. Role refers to “the patterns of behaviour and expectations associated with a position” (Roberts, 2009, p. 240). Roles can be specific to a situation (for example occupational roles), or to general roles carried out through domains of life (such as the roles of a man and woman). That said it may be the case that some people experience their occupational roles as diffuse even though they are specific to a situation. For example, where the same person has roles where collective expectations clash with each other, and thus create a situation of role conflict, such as students who, despite performing the role of students for both PETEs and mentor teachers, may experience differing expectations from each of these and, thus, experience role conflict. Similarly, a PE teacher educator may experience the PE students to have particular expectations of PETE to those stated in government policy documents (on teacher education, for instance) or proposed by academics, such as critical theorists.

Roles may also be *ascribed* or *achieved*, for example, being male is ascribed, but being a PE student or a PE teacher educator is achieved. Such achieved roles, as a part of the occupational socialization (on-the-job) inevitably tend to impact upon (PETEs’) habituses and, as such, occupational socialization as a part of the PETEs acculturation process.

Summary and review of socialization theory

Socialization theory seems first and foremost to have contributed to identifying different phases in the socialization process of PE teachers and PETEs; from early childhood (sporting and PE experience), through professional socialization (education, including

CPD) and lastly occupational socialization on-the-job. The acculturation phase seems of great importance for PE teachers and PETEs, as their habituses are heavily formed during this stage, and their sporting and coaching habituses seems to have stronger impact on how PE teachers and PETEs view PE and PETE than, for example, the impact of formal education (professional socialization). This is why Evans et al. (1996) says teacher education neither shakes nor stirs PE students' outlook. During occupational socialization, PE teachers and PETEs' habituses are reinforced, challenged or constrained by the university (or school) context. But it seems that their habituses tend to be more reinforced than challenged or constrained by on-the-job experiences. Even though some authors argue that PE teachers and PETEs' professional identities are fragmented, reviewing the literature, it seems that PE teachers and PETEs' professional identities are quite stable as sporting and coaching identities, regardless of experiences during professional and occupational socialization.

Socialization theory research has moved from a functionalistic view on socialization (which views the individual as a "passive receiver" of social influence) to a more dialectical view on socialization, in the sense that people (PETEs in the present case) are viewed as active contributors to their socialization (Dowling, 2006; Lawson & Stroot, 1993; Næss, 1998; Stroot & Williamson, 1993; Templin & Schempp, 1989). In other words, that PE teachers and PETEs internalize and develop their personalities (or habituses) within a culture at the same time as developing the culture they are a part of (Green, 2008a). Although socialization theory is often incorporated into critical theory perspective research, it differs in several respects. Socialization theory research does not, for example, emphasize praxis, or rather, the aim of using research as a resource for changing current practice. Nor does socialization theory tend to address (or emphasize) power or power relations in order to understand the socialization process of PETEs (or PE teacher), to the extent such as other theoretical perspectives (such as for example critical theory, feminism or figurational sociology) do when dealing with socialization per se.

What seems to be prominent in much PE and PETE socialization theory informed research is the connection between the different phases in the socialization process and the development of PE teachers and PETEs' professional identities. Identity "refers to an individual's sense of self and also how the person is identified by others" (Roberts, 2009, p. 127). Identity is, in other words, a subjective and personal experience of how people view themselves, as well how they perceive themselves as viewed by others. In sociology, identity is seen as something that depends very much on context, thus it is accepted that to some extent identities has always been situation specific (Roberts, 2009). In modern life, in contrast to simpler societies where identities were viewed as stable, it is argued that identities now are more fragmented, because people interact and are interdependent with a variety of people in a variety of settings and places. Thus, much research demonstrate that teachers' identities are not stable, but influenced by personal and institutional aspects and society and experiences, both in the past and the present (Bain, 1997; Dowling, 2006; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; Henkel, 2000; Keay, 2006; Kogan, 2000; Rossi & Cassidy, 1999; Sachs, 2001; Tinning, 2000). In other words, PE and PETEs professional identities are influenced through all phases in the socialization process and, as such, because all knowledge is social, PE teachers' and PETEs knowledge of their job is acquired from other people both casually and informally (for example through playing sport or peer teachers), as well as deliberately and formally (through education, CPD or mentoring). That is why, for example, PE teachers' identities as sport coaches can influence their professional identities as PE teachers (Green, 1998; Næss, 1998; Tsangaridou, 2006).

What is evident, however, when reviewing the literature, is that PE teachers and PETEs' professional identities seem to be characterized more by continuity than change. In other words, habituses (and in particular their emotional attachment to sports and coaching) appear far more influential on how they view (and teach) PE and PETE (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Christensen, 2001; Dowling, 2006, 2008; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998; O'Bryant et al., 2000) than, for example, their professional socialization. Indeed, the professional socialization actually seems to

confirm PE teachers' and PETEs' already established sporting and coaching habituses (Capel, 2005; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Dowling, 2006; Evans et al., 1996; Larsson, 2009; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Placek et al., 1995). Similarly, the claim that occupational socialization, the experiences and constrains on-the-job, have a long lasting impact on the PE teachers' and PETEs' professional identities, is in fact, more accurately described as PE teachers' and PETEs' sporting and coaching habituses being reinforced through their on-the-job experiences (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Curtner-Smith, 1999; Dowling, 2006; Green, 1998, 2003; Larsson, 2009; Møller-Hansen, 2004), rather than challenged and developed. Put more simply, PE teachers' and PETEs' (self-)identity (described as a desired self – how I would like to be – and a presented self – how I try to appear to others [Roberts, 2009]), is closely linked to their predispositions (habitus) as sport persons. Hence, it seems reasonable to argue that PE teachers' and PETEs' identities are closely linked to their predispositions (habitus) as sport persons, is the way they view themselves and try to appear to others (their identity). In other words, their identities seem to be more stable rather than fragmented.

BEHAVIOURIST THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH

Roberts (2009) define behaviourist theory as “a movement in psychology which advocates restricting research and basing theories exclusively on what can be observed, namely behaviour”, he points out, “can include verbal behaviour, but in practice behaviourist’s prefer to work with a pure stimulus-response model” (Roberts, 2009, p. 14).

In PE, Siedentop (2002) has been a particular advocate for a behaviourist theory and his work has provided practical guides towards the application of behavioural analysis in PE contexts. It seems significant, nevertheless, that behaviourist research on PETE was at its height in the 1980s and the early 1990s (see, for example, Eldar, 1990; Rolider, Siedentop & van Houten, 1984; Sharpe, Spies, Newman & Spickelmier-Vallin, 1996), while only a

handful of studies have adopted this approach since 2000 (Kahan, 2002; Sharp et al., 2002; Ward & Barrett, 2002).

Domain assumptions and concepts in behaviourist theory

The two main aims of research based on a behaviour theory approach appear to be the “measurement of behaviour” and “demonstrating effects”. Reviewing studies with a behaviourist approach on PETE research, Eldars’ (1990) study on the effects of a self-management programme on pre-service teachers’ performance was designed as a field study where teachers’ verbal behaviour in the classroom was audio-taped and coded. The study found that using information sources such as peers, cooperating teachers and supervisors was an essential component of the self-management programme. The author concluded that self-management and self-direction programmes should be a major goal of teacher education and that teachers should be in control of their own professional development. The study claimed to demonstrate the effects that measurements of behaviour could have in a self-management programmes in teacher education.

More recently, Kahan’s (2002) study on “The effect on the bug-in-the-ear device on intra-lesson communication between a student teacher and a cooperating teacher” (p. 86), found that both students and the co-operating teachers experienced the audio-cue as a discrete and immediate communication tool that helped the student in the teaching situation.

Summary and review of behaviourist theory

Ward and Barrett (2002) claim that behaviour analyses have added new understandings and outcomes to the empirical knowledge-base on procedures in education. They also claim that teachers incorporate behavioural practices in their everyday teaching,

especially related to *how* to teach (the effects of teaching and measurement of behaviour) and to some extent *what* to teach. In other words, behavioural practices which in reality mean a technical orientation towards teaching and content influence the education of PE teachers, which neatly explains the close relationship between behaviourism and technocratic rationality.

Behaviour analysis has been heavily criticized. Criticism has first and foremost been based on the observation that behaviour analysis is derived from animal research and thus has little generalization to humans. However, Ward and Barrett (2002) state that behaviour analysis has “also been conducted with human beings in educational, clinical, sports, business, and social settings that have demonstrated the effectiveness, generality, and acceptability of behaviour analysis” (p. 244). There is, nevertheless, some doubt that behavioural analysis has, in practice, influenced the field and knowledge-base of PE and PETE over the latest 30 to 40 years. Either way, Roberts (2009) note that behaviourism has had little influence in sociology in general, and is not a productive theoretical starting point in a sociological study. That said, in PE and PETE research there is reason to believe that the main principles of behaviourism (measurement of behaviour and demonstrating effects) may be found in PETE and in PETEs day-to-day philosophies and practices. However, behaviourist theory, in general, has had little impact in sociology.

FIGURATIONAL THEORY APPROACHES IN PETE RESEARCH

Although figurational theory has become increasingly commonplace in the sociology of sports over the last quarter of a century, it was only applied to PE research a decade or so ago (Green, 1998, 2000, 2002, 2003; Green, Smith & Roberts, 2005). Nonetheless, the steady subsequent growth of figurational studies on PE teachers (Keay, 2009,) as well as on PETEs (Velija et al., 2008) makes it worthy of consideration.

Domain concepts and assumptions in figural theory

Figural theory emphasizes the need to locate people (in this case, PE teachers and PETEs) as parts of various networks or figurations. A central aim within figural sociology is to identify the interdependent nature and consequent power relation of those forming particular networks. Figural sociology views power as a central dimension of interdependencies, wherein power is understood in terms of complex power balances and power ratios. In other words, power is an inevitable aspect of all human relationships and exists within all figurations (de Swaan, 2001; Elias, 1978; van Krieken, 1998). In PETE research, figural theorists have, among other things, observed how power is an aspect of peoples' relationships, and specifically, their dependence on those other people (Green, 2003; Keay, 2009; Velija et al., 2008). So, for example, PE students, because they are more-or-less dependent on different people (and groups) at different times and in different places (for example university tutors and mentor teachers) will feel more or less at the mercy of these groups. Thus, particular people and groups (for example mentor teachers) will be experienced as more powerful to the students, depending on the situation and degree of dependency (Velija et al., 2008). Taken together, the key concepts in figural sociology are figurations (or networks) and interdependency as well as the related concepts of power and habitus, which will be elaborated further.

Figurations, interdependency and power

Figurations are the networks or "webs" of social relations (Elias, 1978) of which people are inevitably a part. In other words, people (in this case, PETEs and PE students) are inevitably related to a large number of other individuals, groups and processes, past and present, which may be recognized or unrecognized and which amount to "a structure of mutually oriented and (inter-)dependent people" (Elias, 1978, p. 261). At the local level, teachers are likely to have complex professional figurations, in other words, they are likely to be involved in a web of relationships which will influence their professional life and development. This web of relationships is a process that has been formed from early

childhood and school experience (acculturation), in sport training, during education (professional socialization), and on-the-job experiences (occupational socialization). In other words, the webs of relationships have formed a framework not only for the person's habitus, but also their socialization. Green (2003), for example, revealed how the socialization of PE teachers reflects the various networks (for example sporting and professional networks) they are a part of at different times in their lives and the nature of their dependencies upon (more or less) significant others. Green's (ibid) findings were subsequently confirmed by the studies by Keay (2009) and Velija et al. (2008).

Interdependency is central in figural theory because it is a useful way to conceptualize relationships within the networks (figurations) people are part of. Focusing on interdependencies enables the researcher to conceptualize the relationships between various people (such as PETEs, students, and mentor teachers) in particular networks (in this case PETE at a local level), as well as between the various people or groups of people involved in the extended network at the wider national level (for example government, in the form of National curricula and subject associations and national sports associations). In this regard, it is worthy to note that in the modern world figurations have tended to grow and become more complex, as seems to be the case within PE (and PETE) as well, when for example governments and researchers become increasingly interested in the subject (Green, 2003).

Power is a central dimension of interdependencies, and the many kinds of webs of interdependency of which people are a part, are characterized by many different sorts of balances of power (de Swaan, 2001; Elias, 1978; van Krieken, 1998). Nonetheless, as Roberts (2009) points out, power is understood somewhat differently within different theoretical positions. While some theoretical traditions view power, for example, as something closely connected with having (the ability) to perform various forms of power over other people or groups (from a Weberian tradition), others view power as something that operates primarily through ideological domination (Roberts, 2009) (as described

within the critical and feminist theory traditions). In contrast to these, figurationalists view power as an inevitable aspect of all human relations. Hence, power is viewed as a structural characteristic of networks which is “neither good nor bad”, indeed, “it may be both” (Elias, 1978, p. 93). In other words, power is an aspect of relationships between people and, more specifically, the extent to which a person or group depends upon another person or group which then is in *position of power*. There is always a certain *balance of power* within a network, because “certain individuals are dependent on someone, who is in turn dependent on them (and on others)” (de Swaan, 2001, p. 35). This means that “figurations are always organized around the dynamic operation of power” (van Krieken, 1998, p. 57) involving struggles between interdependent, and more-or-less powerful, groups within the PETE figuration that attempt to advocate and/or impose their own (ideological) views of PE and PETE.

To capture the reality of day-to-day power relations and interdependencies within communities, Elias has developed a model for social relations revolving around the concept of relations between “established” and “outsider” groups (van Krieken, 1998, p. 147). In contrast to Marxists who relate power to class positions and relations and view power in zero-sum terms, the established and outsider relation refers to *uneven power balance* between outsider and established groups, where the latter group is the powerful, and a shared history of the established group forms a strong collective “we” identity within the group (van Krieken, 1998, p. 150).

Taking a figurational sociological perspective, Green (2003) found that PE teachers in England were part of complex and, at times, overlapping networks in their personal, local and national figurations, which influenced their philosophies and ideologies on PE. At the local level, Green (ibid) found, similar to studies on the socialization of PE teachers (see, for example, Dewar & Lawson, 1984; O’Byrant et al., 2000; Næss, 1998), that PE teachers’ attachment to sports was influential for their entrance into PE teaching, and heavily impacted their philosophies and ideologies on PE. On the other hand, Green

(ibid) found that teacher education (in other words PETE) seemed to have little impact on their already established philosophies and practices. The same was found in two other studies adopting a figurational theoretical approach; Keay (2009) studying newly educated PE teachers (Keay, 2009) and Velija et al. (2008) studying PE students at three different universities in England. On the local level, Green (2003) identified PE teachers as part of networks with senior colleagues, pupils, parents, together with what he describes as “inheritance of tradition” (p. 128), in other words, custom practice of PE at the school influencing PE teachers’ views and practices.

Further, Green (ibid) reveals what seemed to influence PE teachers on a national level, namely, the National curriculum for PE, the Office for standards in education and the sport lobby. All-in-all, Green (ibid) found that while the day-to-day working relationships (on a local level) were powerful in impacting PE teachers’ working lives, the relations on a national level was also powerful in influencing their views and practices. Green (ibid) found that context influenced PE teachers’ practice more than theoretical considerations, and that it was, in fact, possible to say that PE teachers adapted or actually altered their philosophies in terms with the constraints in their practice. In relation to the concept of power, Green (2003), for example, found that PE teachers used health as an argument “to achieve greater power in relation to other professional groupings both within and without education” (p. 152). Further, he observed that shifts in the power relations of the PE teachers’ local and national figurations influenced their philosophies and practices, more specifically, that PE teachers’ ideologies had moved from “the pre-eminence of a health-related ideology before shifting back in the direction of the more enduring ideology of sports” (p. 153).

Velija et al.’s (2008) figurational study on PETE found that PE students experienced being involved in two “mutually exclusive figurations: the school and the university” (p. 403). The PE students seemed to accept the pre-eminence of the views and practices of the school-based mentors, because they viewed the practical on-the-job-knowledge as

most important. This suggests that in the interdependent relationships students had with both the university (PETEs) and school (mentor teachers), school and mentor teachers were viewed as more powerful (impact more) on students' beliefs about PE than PETE and PETEs. In other words, in PETE more generally and school practice more specifically, the PE students seemed more dependent upon the mentor teachers, than upon the PETEs, and thus they were more powerful players in the PETE figuration at particular times. This observation from Velija et al. (2008) underpins how studies taking a figural perspective, underline findings from socialization studies regarding the pre-eminence of occupational socialization rather than professional socialization.

Habitus

As in socialization theory, Bourdieu's interpretation of habitus corresponds in many ways with the figural theory conceptualization of the term as "the durable and generalized disposition that suffuses a person's action throughout an entire domain of life or, in the extreme instance, throughout all life – in which the term comes to mean the whole manner, turn, cast, or mold of the personality" (van Krieken, 1998, p. 47). In other words, a persons' (self-) identity described as "a desired self (how I would like to be), and a presented self (how I try to appear to other) (Roberts, 2009, p. 251), is closely linked to the persons' predispositions (habitus).

Even though a persons' habitus develops most during childhood and youth (ibid), habitus, (and identity) continues to develop throughout the life-course, because the formation of habitus is connected to changes in the surrounding social relations (ibid), and thus, context. But even though habitus forms and develops as an aspect of social interdependencies, and tends to be affected by changes in social structures, it is noticeable that habitus is likely to change more slowly than the surroundings' social relation: "Hence, it is frequently the case that people's outlook in life [such as PETEs' views on the nature and purposes of their subject] remains to a greater or lesser extent tied to "yesterday's social reality" (van Krieken, 1998, p. 91). In other words, PETEs'

emotional attachment to sports is likely to remain as a deep-seated and persistent facet of their habituses, and therefore, is likely to have a greater impact on *what* and *how* they teach their students in PETE than, for example, the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c).

In figural theory, and similar to the way Bourdieu conceptualizes the term (Bourdieu, 1977), a distinction is drawn between individual habitus and social or group habitus, in which social habitus refers to the characteristics shared by a group (van Krieken, 1998). But figuralists seem to emphasize the social habitus more than Bourdieu (1977), because as van Krieken (1998) says; “the dynamics of figurations are also dependent on the formation of a shared social habitus” (p. 59). Thus, group habituses (among, for example, PETEs) tend to have a significant influence on the way people (such as PETEs) view themselves and try to appear to others, in other words their self-identity (Roberts, 2009).

Green (2002), for example, found that although PE teachers could not be described as a homogenous group, they tended to share similarities in their individual and group habituses heavily shaped by their sporting (and PE) experiences in younger life (acculturation). That said, the same study demonstrated how PE teachers, tended to be related to a wide range of other people or networks of interdependencies (such as teachers, parents, pupils, coaches, government, and media), which influenced their philosophies and practices (and habituses). In other words, the individual habitus of PE teachers were shaped and challenged by the networks (figurations) they were a part of, similar to what Keay’s (2009) study found on newly-qualified PE teachers.

Summary and review of figural theory

Elias (1978) describes people as inevitably and always part of figurations or networks. Thus, people, such as PETEs, are related to a large number of other individuals, groups,

processes, past and present, which may be both recognized and unrecognized. Hence, for figurationalists' it is important to identify people as interdependent within different figurations. While socialization theory emphasizes different stages and/or phases in the socialization process (for example acculturation, professional socialization, occupational socialization), figurational sociology emphasizes the various networks and related interdependencies, for example, PETEs are a part of at differing stages in their education and careers, and how this influences the socialization process. In other words, while socialization theory tends not to place so much emphasis on the interdependent nature (power relations) of the different figurations of which people (such as for example PE teachers and PETEs) are a part and how this impacts upon their socialization, this tends to be a primary focus in figurational theory. Figurational approaches also tend to foreground the concept of habitus closely linked to the interdependent nature of human existence, hence, the importance of appreciating the dynamic relationships between socialization and habitus as far as PETEs are concerned.

For figurational theorists the emphasis on interdependency is important to their understanding of power. As described earlier, critical theorists view power as the structures between society and the individual, and as such take a macro perspective considering wider political, historical and economic circumstances or structures in society and how these influences individuals' behaviour and thoughts (similar to a Marxist view, and shared with functionalism; this represents an assumption that structures of societies [structuralism] determine or influences individual and group behaviour) (Darder et al., 2003; McLaren, 1989). Figurational sociologists, on the other hand, prefer to talk about people as being part of networks which make them interdependent people. For figurationalists the "structure" is in reality the various networks (or figurations) of which people are a part of, it is, in other words, no more or less than peoples' interdependencies. Put another way, where critical theorists take as a starting point that power is operating through ideological domination, and as a consequence some groups have power over others (in other words, some groups control others with their power), figurational theorists' view power as a structural characteristic

which is always present between people and is reciprocal. To identify and understand power and power relations (that can be experienced as control, authority or coercive), figurationalists emphasize the needs to focus on the interdependent nature of human relations within particular networks.

So, when critical theorists claim power is related to the ideological domination of the view of particular groups (for example in PE; athletic white males), their definition of ideology favour the more exploitative interpretation of ideologies as “fictional”, in other words, in the more Marxist end of the ideological continuum (van Krieken, 1998). Figurationalists, on the other hand, view all thinking as ideological; in other words, a blend of “fact” and “fiction”, put another way, “an amalgam of realistic observations and collective fantasies” (Elias, cited in Mennell & Goudsblom, 1998, p. 227, cited in Green, 2003, p. 31).

PROMINENT CONCEPTS AND ASSUMPTIONS IN NORWEGIAN RESEARCH ON PE AND PETE

The main aim in this section is to summarize the theories and concepts that have tended to find prominence in Norwegian research on PETE and, to a lesser extent, PE, as well as the assumptions underpinning them. In the process, this section will consider if and how Norwegian research has helped test out the theories and concepts explored above.

Similar to Jonksås’ (2010) observation based on her review of Norwegian PE and PETE research from 1978 to 2010, I have already noted that most Norwegian PE and PETE research has been undertaken at hovedfag and master level. Jonksås (2010) found three PhDs (all on PE) and 11 articles in peer-reviewed international journals in the field of PE and PETE in Norway, while I have, as mentioned, identified a few more.

This following brief overview will focus attention on four identified PhD-theses⁹ and peer-reviewed articles on PE. In relation to the PETE research, it will utilize peer-reviewed articles, book chapters and relevant research on a master and hovedfag level. There will, necessarily, be some repetition in this section from research reported under the previous reported main theories used in PE and PETE research. However, this study, and the following section have an intention to cover previous research on PETE and, to a lesser extent, PE, more fully.

Norwegian research on PE

Næss is one of a handful researchers' that has researched PE in Norway in some detail (see Næss, 1996, 1998, 2001, 2002). In her PhD-thesis "Tales of Norwegian PE Teachers: A Life history approach" (Næss, 1998), PE teachers' careers and socialization are studied by using a life-history approach. Næss (ibid) does not explicitly use socialization theory, but criticizes the traditional models of studying careers and argues that a life-history perspective is productive to studying PE teacher careers. Life history is defined by Atkinson as "the story a person chooses to tell about the life he or she has lived, told as completely and honestly as possible. What is remembered of it, and what the teller wants to know of it, usually as a result of a guided interview by another" (Atkinson, 1998, p. 8 cited in Plummer, 2001, p. 19). Næss argues that a life-history approach enables the researcher to focus upon how actors view their own socialization and, in doing so, gain an insight into a person's identity and sense of self. This enables the researcher to locate individual experience within a socio-historical context. Life-history amount to what advocates view as an attempt, perhaps, of a more productive way of making sense of socialization than the conventional studies of socialization.

⁹ One PhD thesis in PE was recently published in Norway (Midthaugen, 2011), but at a time too late to fully consider it into this study.

In another article (Næss, 2001) based on data from a former study (Næss, 1998), Næss used an interview with a single female PE teacher to reconstruct three different stories in order to illustrate teacher socialization as a problematic rather than automatic process. In other words, “conventional” conceptualizations of socialization viewed as uni-directional and automatic are contestable. In this regard, Næss points out that teacher socialization is one among many competing forms of adult socialization, including for example life as PE teachers’ leisure and family lives. The author stated intentions to “reveal the dialectics of individual experience within wider socioeconomic and political structures” (Næss, 2001, p. 45), which points to the critical theory perspective underpinning Næss’ work.

In two further studies, one based on an interview with a single male PE teacher in Norway (Næss, 1996), and the other (Næss, 2002) based on in-depth interviews with nine PE teachers regarding experiences of bodies that do not function the way they used to, Næss draws attention to PE teachers who used to have a strong physical identity, but suddenly, after being injured (heart attack, knee operation, and so forth) felt their positive identities as PE teachers to be undermined. In the research Næss (2002) uses Bourdieu’s theory of social reproduction and positions, bodily or physical capital as a part of a person’s cultural capital when discussing and explaining physical identities in PE. This work represents an extension of Næss’ interest in how social roles (such as those of PE teachers and PETEs) are perpetuated over time via forms of socialization that perpetuate existing inequalities (based, for example, on class, gender, and ability) and sustain inequalities and inequities.

Næss’ (1996, 1998, 2001) use of life-history represent a way of capturing new insight of the lives and careers of PE teachers, and can be seen as developing particular aspects of existing theories such as socialization theory, critical theory and feminist theory. Nevertheless, the focus on body/bodies highlighted in Næss (1996, 2002) is new in the Norwegian context in relation to PE. Thus, it may be especially useful to take human

bodies into consideration within PE and PETE research, given that PE is a subject where the body and bodily action and experience appears crucial.

In his PhD study on Norwegian PE in the period of 1889 to 1969, Augestad (2003) used historical documents, school curricula, and photos. In theoretical terms, the study was grounded in what Foucault calls genealogy, in order to view gymnastics as a point of crystallization for various discourses and, thus, ideologies. The focus of the study was to “look at the role of the school in constructing the concept of the body in modern times, and how changes in body images are founded in changed forms of practices and materials” (Augestad, 2003, p. 3). The study revealed how knowledge about the body was transformed in this period from activities being heavily informed by the army and army skills, to how medical sciences influenced the knowledge about the body which in the next stage provided the premises for gender differences in PE in terms of what were deemed suitable activities for boys and girls. All-in-all, Augestad’s (ibid) study provided a historical overview of PE in Norway in the period of 1889 to 1960 in terms of knowledge production in PE. Inspired by the work of Foucault, discourse is a central concept in Augestad’s study. Thus, the research can be seen to be broadly in the spirit of critical theory.

In a PhD-thesis Nordaker (2009) studied policy documents such as National curricula alongside dance articles in dance journals in order to reveal what arguments were used to legitimate dance in primary and secondary school in Norway. The documents were analyzed “from a descriptive, analytical and non-normative perspective” (ibid, p. 303), focusing on the legitimacy and content of dance as an educational discipline in Norwegian school, as well as the status of dance. Gender was used as an analytical concept. Nordaker (ibid) found that first and foremost was dance legitimized as a suitable activity for pupils to develop general pedagogical aims as well as personal development. Among other things, the study claimed to confirm applicability of a gender perspective.

In a recent PhD study on Norwegian PE teachers' job satisfaction in secondary school, Jakobsen (2010) does not claim to have used a specific theory, but rather refers to a myriad of theories used in earlier research on PE, utilizing different theories to discuss different parts of the data. This amounts to an eclectic approach to theorizing. Because of the complexity of the theory chapter in Jakobsen's (2010) thesis, it is not possible to reproduce and discuss the relevance of all the theories in relation to the present study. It is noteworthy, however, that the thesis has added to our understanding of PE in Norway in terms of how PE teachers view their everyday lives. The PE teacher, for example, mentioned poor equipment and dated gyms as influencing their every-day lives in negative terms. Besides this, they also mentioned pupils having very different skill levels, pupils not participating in class, and few available courses for PE teachers to attend, to negatively influence their working lives. On the other hand, they did not perceive PE as having low status, nor did they experience isolation from other teachers in school, or the physical hard work of being a PE teacher or even feeling too old to teach PE, as problematic.

Taking a qualitative textual analysis perspective, Annerstedt (2008) analyzed syllabi's and research texts on PE in Scandinavia over the last 10 years (including Norway). The study revealed that school systems in general and PE in particular in Scandinavian countries were very similar. The author claimed that it "seems possible to talk about a Scandinavian model for physical education, characterized by a broad content area, where pupils choose from a kind of 'smorgasbord' of physical activities" (Annerstedt, 2008, p. 303). Annerstedt's (ibid) study provides a useful comparative overview of PE in Scandinavia, and the qualitative textual analysis used in his study overlaps, to some extent the grounded theory approach towards theory adopted in this study. However, Annerstedt's study (ibid) did not focus on what theoretical perspectives the various Scandinavian PE research had adopted.

Another recent article by Lyngstad (2008) discusses how the work of Merleau-Ponty (phenomenology) and Molander (1996, cited in Lyngstad, 2008) can develop new insights into the understanding of PE didactics. The author places didactical knowledge within a phenomenological tradition and claims research on didactical knowledge is important because it has to do with the foundation of the didactical decisions. Furthermore, he claims that the work of Merleau-Ponty, focusing on embodied knowledge, and Molander's, focusing on didactical action, can be useful in developing research on PE didactics. According to Roberts (2009), phenomenology focuses on people's perception on their situations. Although phenomenology does not have an especially strong profile in research on PE and PETE (to anything like the extent that the aforementioned theories do), because there is only one such study on Norwegian PE, it is, nevertheless, worth reporting because it represents a sociological and philosophical tradition (phenomenology) that draws attention to the need to recognize and understand the ways in which people are "actively involved in creating the social world in which they live" (Roberts, 2009, p. 200). Indeed, it was ideas such as this that led Berger and Luckmann (1967) to argue that "reality" is a social construction. It is clear that there are links between the work of phenomenologists, therefore social constructivists, as well as the embodied experiences that have been the focus of life-histories in Norway.

Further, several Norwegian studies have tended to take a motivational perspective on researching PE (Bagøien & Halvari, 2005; Bagøien, Halvari & Nesheim, 2010; Ommundsen, 2001a, b, c, 2003, 2004a, b, 2006; Ommundsen & Kvalø, 2007). For the most part these studies have focused on motivation and motivational climate among pupils in PE and, therefore, have limited applicability to the present study.

Norwegian research on PETE

Considering the relatively long history of PETE in Norway¹⁰, the amount of research on Norwegian PETE appears relatively small. Besides a few hovedfag theses from the 1980s and 1990s (see, for example, Eri, 1994; Pedersen, 1981), Rønning and Hansen (1993) were the first to study PETE in Norway. Nonetheless, the number and range of studies has increased in the intervening period.

When reviewing Norwegian PETE research, it was noticeable that different studies could be broadly placed under existing theoretical headings; hence the following section is organized around the theoretical approaches previously identified.

Socialization theory

Much Norwegian research on PETE is related to socialization theory. Rønning and Hansen (1993) used a socialization theory approach and referred to earlier research on socialization into teaching (see, for example, Handal & Lauvås, 1983; Jordell, 1986) and PE teaching (see, for example, Annerstedt, 1991; Dewar, 1989; Lawson, 1988; Schempp, 1989), to study how PE teachers viewed their previous education in relation to their jobs as teachers. Via a questionnaire of 296 PE teachers, they found that the majority of the PE teachers were satisfied with the practical and methodological aspects of PETE, but that their knowledge of adapted teaching and grading had tended to develop in relation to everyday life in school. The study showed that PE teachers' occupational socialization (Lawson, 1988) seemed to impact on their philosophies and practices as PE teachers, while the professional socialization (PETE) had limited impact in preparing the PE teachers for their future jobs in school.

¹⁰ The first PE teachers in Norway were educated by Centralforeningen for Udbredelse af Legemsøvelser og Vaabenbruk in the late 1880s (Augestad, 2003).

In another study, Rønning (1996) reported findings from PE students at a PETE institution in Norway based on interviews with six PE students studying PE as a part of their general teacher education. The aim of the study was to obtain knowledge on what the PE students perceived as their aims as future PE teachers. Unsurprisingly, the study found that physical activity, in the sense of making pupils active in contrast to ordinary classroom teaching, was a central aim. None of the students mentioned subject knowledge (in other words that PE also consists of theoretical knowledge) as something to apply into their role as future PE teachers. Furthermore, none of the students had changed their views on the aim of what PE was supposed to be about during their time as PE students. To the question “what will influence you in your choice of activities”, three of the respondents answered that the National curriculum would influence their choice of activities, but they also said that they could easily choose not to do activities mentioned in the curriculum if they were not motivated to do them.

Møller-Hansen's (2004) hovedfag thesis was based on in-depth interviews with two PETEs at two different teacher education institutions in Norway. The main research questions for the study were: “Which theories on practice are the foundations of PETEs in teacher education?” and “Is there a common technical culture among the PETEs in teacher education?” Møller-Hansen (ibid) did not commit himself to an explicit theoretical perspective in his analysis, but referred to relevant research within the field of PETE that captured themes such as socialization, teaching cultures, ideologies in PE and reflexivity. On reflexivity he referred to the “action-reflection-model” by Handal and Lauvås (1983), which overlaps the technical, practical and critical forms of reflection (van Manen, 1977) and how Williams (1993) described reflection from a weak to a strong level. What is interesting about the study by Møller-Hansen (2004) is that it seems to be the first research project in Norway focusing on PETEs. Even though the study only involved two PETEs, it was noteworthy that the findings confirmed much of the earlier international research on the field. Møller-Hansen (ibid), for example, found that the PETEs expressed low levels of reflection and that their reflections tended to be connected

to questions regarding practical concerns as “what is the right method to use”. Nonetheless, one of the two informants did appear to be relatively reflexive about her teaching, in the stronger sense. Møller-Hansen (ibid) found there to be a general lack of interest in pedagogical knowledge among the PETEs.

Furthermore, the study revealed that the PETEs did not experience a common culture, but that a technocratic rational ideology was heavily rooted in the PETE culture. Even though it is difficult to capture the theoretical foundation of Møller-Hansen’s (ibid) study, the theoretical concepts described in the thesis (socialization, culture, ideology and reflection) echo the concepts previously mentioned in the theory chapter. In other words, the study by Møller-Hansen (ibid) confirms rather than challenges or adds new perspectives or concepts to existing theories.

Similar to Møller-Hansen (ibid), Hagelund’s (2006) hovedfag thesis (2006) on “Supervision in school practice in physical education teacher education” (my translation) employed an action-reflection-model (Handal & Lauvås, 1983) as basis for the research. Based on interviewing four mentor teachers, observing supervision in school practice, and reading evaluation reports from PE students and mentor teachers following school practice, Hagelund (ibid) found an absence of PE related supervision during school practice. The main focus in supervision sessions tended to be discussing (reflecting) practical issues on teaching; in other words, reflection at a lower action level (Handal & Lauvås, 1983). Reflection on a theoretical and practice level, let alone reflection on an ethical level (in other words, the stronger sense of reflection) (ibid), were notable by its absence in the supervision in school practice. As with Møller-Hansen’s (2004) study, Hagelund’s (2006) research adds nothing new to existing theoretical perspectives in PE and PETE.

Critical theory

The limited amount of research on Norwegian PETE research has used theoretical approaches which can broadly be considered within the “big tent” (Tinning, 2002) of critical theory. For example, a commonly used theoretical perspective in Norwegian PETE research is gender and feminist theory. In her work on PETE in Norway, Dowling (2004, 2006, 2008), for example, focused on gender equality in PETE, and more specifically, “the emotional geographies of gender relations in PETE” (Dowling, 2008, p. 247).

In 2004, Dowling reported preliminary analysis from a pilot study of a larger project called “teacher education and gender”. The study was based on a single in-depth interview with a male PE teacher educator. The interview was analyzed within what the author refers to as a critical–interpretive paradigm, and the author labelled herself a social constructivist. The data were presented in a poetic transcription, within which, the author claimed, PETEs constructed a learning environment in the gym where gender was ignored, males were legitimated as superior to females and certain types of masculinity were held to have greater status than others. Dowling (ibid) claimed that the PE teacher educator viewed gender as unproblematic. The author compared Alfred (the PE teacher educator she interviewed) with PETEs around the world and noted:

Alfred’s PE lessons resembles those of his international colleagues and is a place where the dualisms of Enlightenment thought about gender seem to be upheld, where women are associated with the body/nature/emotions and the private sphere, compared to men who are associated with the mind/culture/reason and the public arena (p. 207).

Another study by Dowling (2006) was based upon social constructivist theories of professionalism and gender, and consisted of interviews with four PETEs from three different universities in Norway. This study provided indications that love of sports,

hence strong sporting habituses, impacted heavily upon why PETEs entered the profession and that the PETEs' identities were closely linked to a performance identity and a desire to pass on a love of sports to youngsters. PETEs' professional knowledge was said to be based on knowing *what* and *how*, rather than reflecting on *why* PE students should do different things (Dowling, 2006). The PETEs in the study appeared not to be very interested in pedagogical theory, and rather focused on PE didactics. Similarly, gender issues were not viewed as an important part of the education by the PETEs.

In another study based on in-depth interviews with seven PETEs at three different universities in Norway, Dowling (2008) endeavored to "illustrate how teacher educators' viewpoints and understanding of gender relations are inevitably linked to socially constructed webs of emotions, as much as to intellectual rationales" (p. 247). The data were discussed "using the lenses of gender equal opportunities and equity to examine the degree to which identities reflects "managerial' or 'democratic' professional projects" (Dowling, 2008, p. 247, emphasis in original). The PETEs appeared mostly satisfied with the way gender relations were organized in PETE. The traditional forms of viewing femininity and masculinity were accepted as normative, and gender was "viewed as a marginalized concept within the discipline of PETE" (Dowling, 2008, p. 260).

In a recent case-study of Norwegian PE students' emerging professional identities, based on two group interviews with 12 PE students at two PETE institutions in Norway, Dowling (2011) used a postmodern perspective on PE teachers' professionalism to draw attention to how PE students' narratives appeared "to be locked into 'modernist' or 'classical' ideas about good PE practice" (Dowling, 2011, p. 201, emphasis in original). The author argued that these ideas were inappropriate because PE teachers will inevitably meet socially diverse pupils in school and work in collaborative teacher groups. Dowling (2011) claims that PETE need to consider alternative ways to educate PE teachers than conventional bio-behavioural approaches. She suggests that using stories and narratives in pedagogy in PETE will help the students to critically, cognitively, and emotionally

develop an understanding of the relationship between their performance (sporting) identities and the identities as future PE teachers.

The studies by Dowling (2004, 2006, 2008, 2011) provide some of the very few reported empirical studies on Norwegian PETE and PETEs. The theoretical perspectives Dowling has utilized, social constructivist theory and gender (Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008), as well as more recently, postmodern perspectives (Dowling, 2011), can be broadly located within the critical theory tradition.

Teksum's (2006) master thesis on gender and status equality in teacher education in PE and friluftsliv was part of a larger research project together with Dowling (Dowling, 2006, 2008) and Kårhus (2004a). The research was based on in-depth interviews with one male and one female PE teacher educator at two different teacher education institutions in Norway. The analysis was based on Handal and Lauvås (1990) practice theory (practice triangle) which views teachers' actions (practice theory) as a consequence of earlier and present experiences, values and moral principles, and a social constructive perspective on gender. Teksum's (2006) research found that the PETEs tended to view gender in traditional terms; for example, viewing men as superior to women according to physical strength, and, consequently, the PETEs did not adapt the education to equalize the opportunities for both men and women. The PETEs did not seem to reflect on questions regarding *why* they related to gender issues the way they did. Teksum (ibid) argued that a technocratic rationality was central in teacher education in her study, in other words that subject knowledge was more central than focusing on "the whole person", which served to confirm the earlier findings of Dowling (2004).

Kårhus (2004a, b) has used the work of Basil Bernstein as a theoretical framework for his research. In one article Kårhus (2004a) carried out a discourse analysis on gender discourses in teacher education and PETE in Norway. He used Bernstein's (1996)

regulation rules in order to identify a connection between educational political views, PE traditions at the universities, and the content in the local subject and pedagogical practices. In this vein, Bernstein's concepts were used as tools to critically analyze PETE as a social construction.

Among other things, Kårhus (2004a, b) pointed to a shortage of critical reflection among PETEs and in PETE in general and argued that critical reflection was needed in order to challenge the "tacit knowledge" implicit in PETE and PE. It is noteworthy to comment that Kårhus pointed to a shortage of reflection among PETEs without having empirical evidence to support his argument. He referred to two empirically based Norwegian studies (Næss, 1998, 2002) on PE teachers as evidence to support his argument that PETEs failed to reflect and that PETE simply continued to reproduce conventional knowledge, culture and pedagogy. In effect, Kårhus used empirical research on PE and PE teachers, rather than on PETE or PETEs as a basis for his claims. The gender perspective of the article was, once again, typical of a broader critical theory perspective. Elsewhere, Kårhus (2004b) discusses, in theoretical terms, which skills and knowledge PETEs emphasizes when educating PE students and which discourses inform the PETEs' professional self. Similar to his earlier article (Kårhus, 2004a), Kårhus (2004b) claims that Bernstein's regulation rules (1996) are useful tools for performing a critical-analytical evaluation of PETE as a social construction.

In a recent article Kårhus (2010) has discussed what he refers to as "the awareness and logic of the marketplace act in the social construction of PETE curricula and content" (p. 227), by examining higher education policy documents, PETE curricula, the university colleges' information texts on their websites, institutional education policy texts, and programme guides at four universities in Norway providing PETE. Once again, the material was analyzed using Bernstein's concepts of regulative and instructional discourse, and Kårhus (ibid) claims to show how content knowledge in PETE is produced and reproduced among competing interests in the field of sports sciences and physical

activity. He argues that “There is remarkably little evidence of discourses about essential knowledge for quality physical education (PE) teaching and learning, or PE teacher professionalism” (p. 228).

When considering the work of Kårhus (2004a, b, 2010), it seems that although the author has introduced the work of Bernstein as a “new” theoretical perspective in researching Norwegian PETE, Bernstein’s concepts have many similarities with critical theory and gender and feminist approaches. Either way, while Bernstein’s work attracted considerable attention in British Sociology in 1960s and 1970s, the long term impact has been limited not least because the relationships between speech, thinking, and social class as outlined by Bernstein is disputed, and “the evidence from empirical research has never been wholly consistent with Bernstein’s theories” (Roberts, 2009, p.16). Roberts’ (2009) observations together with the fact that Bernstein’s theory has not received much exposure in international PETE research recently (Kirk & Macdonald, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999), plus the fact that the work of Kårhus (2004a, b, 2010) has tended to use Bernstein’s concepts for theoretical reflection on PETE rather than to interpret empirical data, and finally, that it is possible to place the work of Bernstein within the big tent of a critical theory approach (which is elaborated earlier), suggest the specific use of Bernstein in the present study may be limited.

In a hovedfag thesis, Hatleset (2003) interviewed four PE students taking PE as part of their general teacher education. Using postmodern theories with special emphasis on how language is used in PE and how this influences the pedagogical discourses in PE, Hatleset (ibid) analyzed the interviews in line with the critical theory tradition of Gore (1990) and Tinning (1990). He concluded that the dominant pedagogical discourses in PETE were performing sporting skills and sport biology, and noted that the PE students were satisfied with the education emphasizing sport performance. He also observed that PETEs first and foremost used teacher-centred teaching styles in order to help the students to perform the various sports. Similar to the other resorted studies in this sub-section (Dowling, 2004,

2006, 2008, 2011; Kårhus, 2004a, b, 2010; Teksum, 2006), the study by Hatleset (2003) adopted a theoretical perspective within the critical theory tradition.

Theory about practice and socio-cultural learning theory

In a recent master's thesis, Lundemo (2009) interviewed four former PE students, now teaching PE in school, looking back on their one-year study in PE as a part of general teacher education. The aim of the study was to gain insight into how they experienced teacher education in terms of its usefulness for their roles as PE teachers in schools. Lundemo (2009) summarized the main findings from the study as four points. First, that learning of professional skills is created by students, university teachers and practice teachers in a relational learning community. Second, in order to create good learning processes for the students, it was necessary to have a good professional dialogue between students, university teachers and practice teachers. Third, it was emphasized that it was important to include dialogues on issues of teaching methods in all parts of the programme, both in theoretical and practical lessons. The fourth, an main finding, was that professional knowledge learned during PETE had to be viewed as preliminary knowledge, "because learning of professional knowledge takes a new turn when the graduates start their professional careers" (Lundemo, 2009, p. 6).

Lundemo's (2009) study is theoretically inspired by socio-cultural-learning theory where learning is described as a relational term (Dysthe, 2001; Kvernbekk, 2005, cited in Lundemo, 2009). In order to study learning processes, the researcher analyzed two social contexts that the PE students were a part of, namely the university and school practice. In other words, this theoretical approach identifies two networks PE students were a part of and which were claimed to influence their development of professional knowledge. Hence, it is possible to identify similarities between the theoretical approach in this study and figurational sociology, in terms of identifying networks the PE students were part of. That said, while Lundemo (2009) seems to have decided which two dimensions best explains how newly-educated PE teachers view the relevance of their teacher education, a

figurational theory approach would aim to identify all the networks PE students were, and for that matter, had been part of, and how these influenced their professional development. Hence, it seems that the theoretical approach adopted by Lundemo (2009) may not add anything in theoretical terms to what has already been discussed, and may, indeed, be subsumed within figurational theory.

Evaluation theory

Hansen and Rønning (2002) have evaluated a research project with the aim of implementing “problem-based-learning” (PBL) as a method in PETE. The study is an action research project with the aim of doing external evaluation (of the study programme) and internal evaluation (of the students) regarding aims, process and result of the implementation of PBL into PETE. The study found that using PBL was especially productive in achieving the student ability (or competence) to be action oriented: meaning the ability to analyze problems, take initiative, and seek knowledge. Besides, using PBL was claimed to enhance the students’ subject competence; that is to say, their ability to reflect and to fulfill the intentions in the National curriculum for primary and secondary school. This kind of research is in line with what critical theorists observe as the pre-occupation of physical educationalists with the technical aspects of performance.

Summary and review of theoretical approaches in Norwegian research on PE and PETE

In theoretical terms, PETE research in Norway has been more-or-less a derivative of theoretical developments in the sociology of education, PE and PETE more generally. Much of the research applied by various authors to Norwegian PE and PETE research has followed in the footsteps of international researchers and reflected theoretical and empirical concerns in similar advanced industrial countries in recent decades. Two areas of sociological theory that might be considered relatively new theoretical approaches to Norwegian PE and PETE are Næss’ (2002) use of the “sociology of the body” and

Lyngstad's (2008) use of phenomenology. As far as the present study is concerned, however, these approaches may be of little explanatory value.

An obvious observation in Norwegian research on PETE, and especially peer-reviewed research, is that it has tended to be dominated by critical theory including social constructivist theory and gender theory (Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2011; Hatleset, 2003; Kårhus, 2004a, b, 2010; Teksum, 2006). As such, much of the prominent research on PETE in Norway has advocated what might be called an agenda for change, from something considered inherently problematic towards a re-constructed PETE revolving around, among other things, principles of equity and inclusion. Another observation on Norwegian PETE research is the overall emphasis on gender issues (Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008; Kårhus, 2004a; Teksum, 2006). In other words, while critical theory seems to have been the most dominant theoretical perspective in Norwegian PETE research, it seems that gender has been the most popular research topic.

SENSITIZING CONCEPTS USED IN THIS SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY ON PETE IN NORWAY

This study takes a grounded theory approach at two stages; first by identifying the most prominent theories and concepts used in previous PETE (and PE) research and, second, by utilizing these concepts in the empirical study. The latter phase is what grounded theorists refer to as "theoretical coding" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 63) in the analysis of the data which provides the bridge between the two stages. In this regards, the data analysis involves a two-way process; that is to say, constant movement between existing analytical concepts and concepts emerging from the empirical study. Having explored the most prominent theories in PETE (and to a lesser extent PE) research, and identified the most useful concepts therein, the remainder of this chapter identifies what appear, in relation to the grounded theory approach towards theorizing and analysis adopted in this study, to be the most useful and productive sensitizing concepts in the sociological study

of PETE in Norway. It is worth pointing out at this stage that the relevance of these concepts (according to the phase of theoretical coding in grounded theory) will be discussed in relation to the empirical data in Chapter 5: Discussion.

It is also worth noting that some concepts are prominent in several of the theories, such as *power* (found in critical theory, feminist theory and figurational sociology), *habitus* (used in Bourdieu, socialization theory and figurational theory), and *culture* (used in critical theory and figurational theory). Other concepts tend to be associated with specific theories in particular, such as *praxis* (found in critical theory and feminist theory), *acculturation*, *professional socialization*, *occupational socialization*, *continuing professional development* and *roles* (identified within socialization theory), *gender* (identified within feminist theory), *behaviours* and *effects* (behavioural theory), while *figurations* and *interdependencies* are concepts found in figurational theory. *Reflexivity* is a concept typical of several theoretical traditions, but while relatively commonplace in sociology generally; it tends to have particular meanings in different theoretical traditions.

In the following section I will discuss what I take to be the concepts and their significance as relevant sensitizing concepts in this sociological study on PETE in Norway. The concepts are presented in the same order they were dealt with in the theory chapter.

Even though *power* is a key concept in sociology, the way it is defined and understood varies within different theoretical positions. In general terms, power is defined as: “the ability to prevail despite the resistance or unwillingness of others” (Roberts, 2009, p. 212). The big issues regarding power among sociologists are the various kinds of power, their socio-genesis and the ways in which they are manifested. The most popular view among those researching PE and PETE (especially critical theorists) has been that power

is manifested through ideological domination, a condition called hegemony. Many researchers in PE and PETE have followed Bourdieu's lead in using the concept of capital (cultural, social, physical, symbolic, among others), seeing power divided in the same way as different forms of capital are divided in society. Bourdieu emphasizes symbolic capital as the ability for people to have power to define and confer legitimacy in different settings, such as PETE. The focus here tends to be on how different groups in society have the legitimacy to define things (such as appropriate content for PETE programmes) (Bourdieu, 1991). Critical theorists, view power as structural, that is to say, as part of the institutional structures of capitalist societies, manifesting itself through ideological domination (hegemonic). As a consequence, some groups have power over others; in other words, some groups effectively control others through the domination of particular and preferred ideologies. In contrast to this top-down view of power, is figurationalists who also view power as a structural characteristic; they conceptualize it as a fact of all human relationships. In other words, power is related to functional *interdependencies* between people. Thus, in order to understand power and power relations, figurationalists aim to identify the different networks of interdependencies and the nature (the power relations) of the different interdependencies.

This also suggests that figurationalists differ from critical theorists in their interpretation of the concept of *ideology*. Critical theorists seems to share a Marxist view, that "ideas are ideological if they are untrue and justify exploitative, political and social practices" (Roberts, 2009, p. 129), while figurationalists take a more general and inclusive conception of ideology as "any coherent set of ideas that justifies a situation, action, event or set of policies" (Roberts, 2009, p. 129), which inevitably consist of "an amalgam of realistic observations and collective fantasies" (Elias; cited in Mennell & Goudsblom, 1998, p. 227, cited in Green, 2003, p. 31). Existing research on PETE, despite using different theoretical interpretations, agree on at least one thing, the centrality of power and ideology to understanding PE and PETE. Hence, because power and ideology seem to have been relevant explanatory concepts in earlier studies on PE and PETE, they will be used in this research to explain PETE in Norway as well.

Reflexivity is also a well-established concept in present-day sociology (Roberts, 2009). Earlier research on PE and PETE has emphasized the seemingly different levels of reflexivity among teachers as well as elaborating how PE teachers and PETEs reflect during their training and work. Because reflexivity seems to be a relevant explanatory concept in earlier studies on PE and PETE, there are grounds for thinking that reflexivity may have a great deal of potential in explaining PETE in Norway as well.

The concepts of *sex and gender*, especially prominent in gender and feminist theory, have contributed to a better understanding of complex questions regarding difference, bodies, empowerment, identity and equality in PE and PETE, and at the same time broadened our understanding of young people's engagement in sports and PE. Because sex and gender seem to be relevant explanatory concepts in earlier studies on PE and PETE, there is reason to consider these concepts to be relevant for explaining PETE in Norway as well, even though this study does not have an explicit gender focus.

Earlier research has identified that PE teacher and PETEs are socialized through different phases and stages, namely; *acculturation, professional and occupational socialization*, and that the various stages have an impact on the development of PE teachers and PETEs as professionals. Because socialization theory and the concepts within this theoretical tradition seem to have been relevant and explanatory concepts in earlier studies on PE and PETE, there are grounds for thinking they may be productive in explaining PETE in Norway as well.

Habitus is a concept discussed specifically within socialization theory, critical theory and figurational theory. Earlier research show that PE teachers and PETEs seems to have strong sporting and coaching habituses which influences their everyday philosophies and practices as teachers. Besides previous research on PE and PETE identifying that PE teachers and PETEs have strong individual habituses, studies have also identified shared social or group habituses among PE teachers and PETEs. In other words, earlier research

shows that habitus, both individual and social, have been relevant explanatory concepts, and may also prove helpful in explaining PETE in Norway.

Alongside habitus, *role* has been a particular and productive concept in studies of socialization. The main contribution of this concept as an analytical tool has been to enable to identify distinctions between specific and more diffuse roles, and the effects of achieved or ascribed roles. Thus, it is worth considering role as a relevant sensitizing concept in the research on PETE in Norway.

Pretty much all sociological theories take-for-granted that beliefs and practices are socially constructed starting, as they do, from the ontological position that the “nature” of human existences is social; in other words, people are social beings who only exist in social patterns or *networks*. Where sociological theories differ, is in just how significant their networks are for people’s beliefs and practices and the nature of their relationships within those networks. For “structuralists” (for example marxists and functionalists) the wider social structure (or network of society at large) determines (or, at least, strongly influences) people’s beliefs and practices. For “agency” theorists (such as symbolic interactionists and phenomenologist) people have more room for negotiation and freedom to believe and do what they choose. For figurationalists neither of this is strictly true, because they take the view that the structure-agency dichotomy offers a false distinction between two (inaccurate) polar opposites. As Elias argues: “we are social to our very core, and only exist in and through our relations with others, developing a social constructed ‘habitus’ or ‘second nature’” (cited in van Krieken, 1998, p. 6). In other words, figurational theorists emphasize the need to locate people as part of various networks, and the structure is people’s *interdependencies* with others in various networks at the personal, local and national/global levels.

Much of the more prominent theoretical approaches to PETE appears (implicitly and explicitly) to emphasize the significance of wider social structures (and class and gender,

in particular) for PETE and PETEs. While all of the prominent theoretical approaches to PETE have drawn attention to the significance of social structure and context, none have focused as explicitly on context in the shape of the networks PETEs are (and have been) involved in. Recent studies adopting a figurational sociological view have identified PE teachers (Green, 2003; Keay, 2009) and PE students and PETEs (Velija et al., 2008) as part of many different networks, past and present, and on different levels (personal, local, national and global), and have examined the way in which the nature of such networks influence their day-to-day philosophies and actions. Considered that network and interdependencies (power relations) have been productive sensitizing concepts in some previous studies on PE and PETE, it is worth considering these as sensitizing concepts in this study on PETE as well.

Summary and review of sensitizing concepts

Based on the summarized literature on PETE (and to a lesser extent PE), the concepts that have shown useful as explanatory concepts and appeared to be of relevance in this study on PETE in Norway, can be categorized in two sections. First the concepts that have been useful as explanatory concepts in many earlier studies on PETE and PE, namely; power, ideology, habitus, socialization, reflexivity, sex – gender and role. Second, the concepts that do not have the same amount of research behind them (in the case of PE and PETE), but appear to be promising sensitizing concepts for this study, namely networks and interdependencies.

Before utilizing these concepts in relation to the findings in this study, time has come to consider the methodological aspects of the research, together with the methods that have been used to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Before outlining the actual methods utilized in this study, it is necessary to rehearse some of the fundamental methodological issues related to reality and knowledge in research and in social science research in particular.

Ontological and epistemological considerations

The term ontology refers to the study of reality, and ontological questions are raised according to “whether social entities can and should be considered objective entities that have a reality external to social actors, or whether they can and should be considered social constructions built up from the perceptions and actions of social actors” (Bryman, 2008, p.18), which therefore, develop and change over time and from place to place (Bryman 2008; Denzin & Lincoln 2005).

In the world of PE the socially constructed and processual character of the subject is illustrated in the changing nature of the reality of PE in Norway. In the latter years of the 19th century PE was, for example, characterized by a strong connection to the army, and the teaching of army skills for young boys preparing for military service (Augestad, 2003). Today, in the early years of the twenty-first century, army skills are no longer central to the practice of PE in Norway. Nowadays, health-related issues and acquiring sporting skills are deemed the central aspects of PE, not only in Norway (Næss, 1998; Ommundsen, 2005), but around the world (Evans & Davies, 2004a; Green, 2003; Laker, 2003; Tinning & Glasby, 2002). These examples indicate that the nature of PE develops over time in relation to wider social developments and processes. In ontological terms, it is, therefore, socially constructed.

In principle, the aim of a PhD study is to develop original knowledge about a subject or issue. In my case, this has involved an attempt to gain insight into the world of PETE in Norway. This involved addressing fundamental ontological and epistemological issues in the social sciences. The term epistemology refers to the study of knowledge and, more specifically, what constitutes knowledge. This is particularly problematic, not to say contentious, when considering the nature of knowledge in the social world, not least because there are different ways of knowing and understanding the social world (Bryman 2008). In his influential critique of the scientific paradigm, Kuhn (1962) pointed to the “hidden” assumptions involved in the research process regarding, for example, the nature of reality, what constitutes “truth” and strategies for seeking truth and judging evidence.

To study the social world and particular aspects of it, such as PETE in Norway, a central epistemological question is whether it can and should be studied according to the same principles and procedures to that those of the natural sciences. Those who take the view that it is indeed possible to identify social “facts”, and establish relation of “cause” and “effect”, are often referred to as “positivists”. Those who take the view that what we claim to know varies according to our perspective (such as pupils, PE teachers or academics) are typically labelled “interpretivists”. Thus, questions regarding the nature of knowledge (epistemology) are inextricably linked with the nature of (social) being (ontology). In other words, it is when researchers contemplate ontological issues that they are confronted by the debate about objectivity and subjectivity. In other words, whether or not it is possible to generate *objective* representations of the world and, in particular, the social world, or whether all depictions of the social world are inevitably coloured by the perceptions of the researcher and, thus, are inevitably *subjective* and ideological (Bryman, 2008). In considering these different traditions of studying human knowledge, and the seemingly intractable dichotomy expressed in the terms objective and subjective knowledge, Elias took the view that while it might be impossible to produce “non-ideological knowledge of human society” (van Krieken, 1998, p. 73), it may be productive to view social knowledge as more or less adequate; what he refers to as “object-adequacy” (p. 71).

To hold out the promise of a more adequate conception of knowledge than the more conventional dichotomy of objectivity and subjectivity, where things are either factual or arbitrary and personal, conceptualizing thinking in terms of degrees of involvement and detachment (Murphy et al., 2000; cited in Green, 2003) may be useful, because:

One cannot make any sense of knowledge or the process of thinking if one attempts to do so on the basis of a presumption of rationality alone, or even primarily ... The thinker also needs to be inclined towards applying reasons in a sufficiently detached manner if reasoning is to serve the end of attaining object-adequate knowledge (Green, 2003, p. 157).

Hence, the aim as a researcher was to find an appropriate blend of involvement and detachment in the research process in order to achieve object-adequacy (Elias, 1978). Put another way, the aim of this research was to achieve the best available explanation of the available evidence (Roberts, 2009) on PETE in Norway. Elias has been criticized for his lack of attention to the criteria selected to judge object-adequacy, and in this vein, van Krieken (1998) responded to this critique by arguing that the best measure of any theoretical analysis is its practical adequacy, that is, the extent to which it enables the analyst to make sense of (and occasionally and to a limited extent predict) a social phenomenon. In the following section I will consider issues related to the involvement-detachment debate in this research on PETE at Nord UC.

Considering issues on involvement-detachment in the study at Nord UC

In this case-study of PETE in Norway, the social nature of the human existence and its consequences for the (social) nature of knowledge are illustrated by the role of the researcher. My former background as a PE teacher educator for more than 10 years begs questions of how I could ensure that I would not be too involved in the research questions in ways that would make my research too value-laden, and thus too subjective and

insufficiently “objective”. In order to confront this issue, I will utilize the concept of *involvement-detachment* (van Krieken, 1998). It has been argued that it is expected “that social scientists should be value-free and objective in their research” because “values reflect either the personal beliefs or the feelings of a researcher” (Bryman, 2008, p. 24). However, this view is shared by few social scientists nowadays. Now it is more common to take the view that it is unfeasible for researchers to keep their values totally in check (Bryman, 2008). It needs to be acknowledged, however, that within different paradigms in social sciences there are different beliefs about how large role values (axiology) should play in social science enquiries. Within post-positivism they claim inquiries inevitably involve values, but that the values can and should be controlled. Pragmatists claim that values inevitably play a large role when interpreting the results, while constructivists claim that inquiry is always value-bound (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Nowadays, most sociologists would agree with the post-positivist argument regarding the inevitability of values encroaching on all social research. The remaining debate is the extent to which values should and can be kept in check.

In this study I started from the premise that to understand why people think and act as they do, one needs to appreciate that thought and behaviours tend to reflect the impact of emotion as well as reason. Indeed, people’s passions frequently impact more substantially on their thoughts and behaviours than abstract reasoning and reflection. This, in simple terms, is what is meant by ideology. I, as a researcher, were, in other words, constantly moving between my subjective experience of the world, being involved and at the same time trying to be sufficiently detached from it, to achieve a more objective-adequate perspective of the research topic (van Krieken, 1998). In other words, as a social scientist I had to acknowledge that my research could not be value-free, but at the same time, in my role as a researcher, I tried to recognize my values to prevent them distorting my analyses (Bryman, 2008). In this way I tried to understand the world of PETE, rather than be judgmental and critical towards it. Green (2008b) claims that much research on PE and PETE tends to be too value-laden or involved. In other words, PE research, as

Dunning (1999, p. 12, cited in Green, 2008b, p. 18, emphasis in original) says, too often lack:

The degree of *detachment* necessary for fruitful analysis' because it tends to be driven by 'ideological' rather than scientific concerns'; that is to say, it is motivated by an underlying desire to 'prove' the worth of PE rather than merely investigate PE as it is, for what it is.

In other words, PE researchers tend not to manage to strike an appropriate balance between involvement and detachment in the research process. All-in-all, social scientists' need to recognize and acknowledge that research cannot be value-free but at the same time strive for an appropriate blend of involvement and detachment. In an effort to find an appropriate blend of involvement and detachment, it has, for example, been beneficial to the research that I was not practicing as a PE teacher educator at the same time as researching PETE.

Critical theory based work, in particular, provides examples of research on PETE which appear, albeit to different degrees, to be partly driven by ideological concerns according to what PETE ought to be about. Consequently, they are too involved. The following quotation from Macdonald and Brooker (1999) on their research on PETE students illustrates this: "we continued to be disappointed with the extent that technical knowledge dominated the subject matter" (ibid, p. 57). The word *disappointed* gives an impression of the authors' ideological viewpoint according to what knowledge they consider to be "good" or "bad" in PETE education. This comment from Fernández-Balboa in his paper on implementing critical pedagogy in the university classroom provides a further illustration of ideological involvement: "This paper stems from my commitment to create a better society, a society that values difference and diversity, defends human rights, and cares about and protect the natural environment" (Fernández-Balboa, 1995, p. 47).

I am aware that my (former) involvement as a PE teacher educator both could have positive and negative consequences for this research and that, in the process; I needed to establish a blend of involvement and detachment. My prior PETE experiences could, for example, be disadvantageous to the research project if I allowed any preconceptions I might have had regarding such things as the nature and purposes of PE and the significance or otherwise of PETE in the preparation of PE teachers, to colour not only my interview questions, but also my verbal and non-verbal communications with the interviewees as well as my analyses of the interview data. Hence, during the interviews I tried to be open-minded towards my informants and what they said, and I tried to put my own beliefs, thoughts and values aside; in other words, to remain relatively detached. For example, in the interview with Knut, on my question “what are the main aims of PE in school?” he answered:

It has to do with pupils developing skills in different sports, get more knowledge about physical training and physical activity, so that they develop good habits to be able to do physical training on their own so that they are able to take care of their own health.

Although this statement did not correspond with my own ideological stance on the aims and purposes of PE, I did not reveal my thoughts in the interview situation and I am confident that Knut did not form any impression of my thoughts on this issue. Similarly, throughout all the interviews I tried to ensure that my responses facilitated the discussion, but did not reveal my own personal viewpoints.

On the other hand, my previous background (in sociological terms, my involvement) as a former PE teacher educator was beneficial where my knowledge of PE, PETE, teacher education, and Nord UC enabled me to gain insight into the personal, local and national contexts of which the interviewees were talking. For example, during many of the interviews my familiarity with the contexts enabled what felt like peer-to-peer conversations to develop. My former background as a PE teacher educator appeared to

make many of my informants more relaxed and trusting. Another aspect of my previous involvement in the PETE context was that it made me better placed to interpret and understand the professional language the informants used and the contexts they described. On the other hand, of course, there may have been instances where my familiarity to the informants made them concerned about revealing information about someone they knew.

RESEARCH STRATEGY

Before discussing the two main approaches to social research, quantitative and qualitative, and the research design chosen for this study, as well as Nord UC as a case-study, this section first considers the research questions for the study.

Research questions

The aim of this study was to get insight into the world of PETE in Norway, by focusing on the PETEs and to a lesser extent the PE students. The main research questions were: “How do physical education teacher educators view PETE in Norway and what, if any, implications does this have for the education of PE students at the institution?” Put differently, the aim of the study was to explore Norwegian PETEs’ views on PE and PETE, in other words, its purposes, as well as how PETE was in practice (its nature). I have broken down the main research questions into smaller and more precise research questions which are:

1.0 How do PETEs (and PE students) view the purposes of PETE?

1.1 What are their philosophies and ideologies regarding PE and PETE?

2.0 How do PETEs (and PE students) view the nature of PETE in practice?

2.1 How do PETEs view their roles and identities as PETEs?

2.2 a) How do PETEs experience working as PETEs?

2.2 b) How do PE students experience being PE students?

2.3 How do PETEs implement the kind of teacher education the institutions is supposed to offer the students?

Reflecting on the methodological issues, it was apparent that the research questions could best be answered by using largely qualitative approaches via a case-study of one (quite typical) PETE institution in Norway, involving one-to-one interviews with those performing the role of PETEs in that institution and group interviews with those at the receiving end of the education, namely the PE students. In addition, there was a quantitative dimension in the form of facts and figures regarding the number of employees, including PETEs, ages, and sexes alongside information of the different study programmes at institutions offering PETE in Norway in 2008/2009, which helped contextualize and validate the study externally (Kleven, 2008). In the following I will discuss the research design and research methods chosen for this study.

Quantitative and qualitative approaches to research

When discussing the generation of social knowledge in the social sciences it is customary to consider quantitative and qualitative approaches as “useful means of classifying different methods of social research” (Bryman, 2008, p. 21), not least because they provide “a helpful umbrella for a range of issues concerned with the practice of social research” (Bryman, 2008, p. 21). These two approaches, or research strategies, differ in their connection to the role of theory, ontological and epistemological considerations. Even though it is useful to contrast the two research strategies, it is necessary, however, to avoid “hammering a wedge between them too deeply” (Bryman, 2008, p. 22). In other words and as, for example, Kleven (2008) argues: “the concept of validity in quantitative

methodology is based upon an ontological and epistemological position shared by many qualitative methodologists” (p. 220).

A quantitative research strategy emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data and entails a deductive approach to the relationship between theory and research, insofar as it views the purpose of theory to generate hypotheses that can be tested and hence allow explanations of laws to be assessed (Bryman, 2008). The epistemological orientation is incorporated from the practices and norms of natural science, in particular positivism, with a preoccupation on measurement, causality and generalization. In ontological terms, quantitative research views social reality as an external objective reality (Bryman, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005), and structured interviews and self-completion questionnaire, are the most common methods used in quantitative form social survey research (Bryman, 2008).

In this study several quantitative measures were useful. For example, in 2008-2009 there were 15 institutions providing PE in higher education in Norway. Six institutions provided bachelor in PE and sports and 10 institutions gave 30 and/or 60 credits PE as part of general teacher education. There were approximately 212 lecturers teaching in sports and PE at the different institutions in Norway; 140 male and 71 female teacher educators, and 144 of them were involved in teaching PE. We also know that approximately 971 students studied PE in the years 2008-2009 (see Appendix A, Table 1 & 2). Furthermore, we know that 30 and 60 credits PE as part of general teacher education, bachelor in PE and sports and practical and didactical education in PE were grounded on National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c).

This study attempted to explore how PETEs (and to a lesser extent PE students) viewed the nature and purposes of PE and PETE, and the professional roles and identities of the PETEs. Although there were aspects of this study that were to be measured and treated as

facts, such as numbers of institutions providing PE, numbers of staff and students, and measurable facts in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) and Local curricula¹¹ at Nord UC, the major part of the study, namely the PETEs' (and PE students') views on the nature and purposes of PE and PETE and how the PETEs viewed their professional roles and identities, and how the PE students experienced being PE students, relies upon interpretation of their perceptions of PETE. For this reason, a qualitative approach was seen as the most relevant research strategy for this study, because, in contrast to quantitative research, qualitative research is concerned with the search for meanings (Bryman, 2008). In explanatory terms, qualitative research is concerned with generating (new) insights and hypotheses and above all "identifying processes that account for how variables are related to one another" (Roberts, 2009, p. 222), rather than generating descriptive data and statistical relationships.

The most commonly used methods in qualitative research are: participant observation, semi-structured and un-structured interviews, and analysis of documents. Thus, qualitative research strategies emphasize an inductive approach to the relationship between theory and research (Bryman, 2008). In qualitative research it is considered more useful to conceive of individuals as interpreting their social world; in other words, the view of social reality (ontology) is that it is developing and socially constructed (Bryman, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) put it this way: "qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (p. 3). In order to make sense of PETE, in other words, trying to understand what PETEs (and PE students) thought and meant, at the same time, how their thinking and meanings influenced PETE, as well as the other way around, a case-study was chosen as the research design for this study.

¹¹ The Local curricula are not in the reference list because it would then be possible to identify where this study was conducted.

Research design: Case-study

According to Bryman (2008), research design is “a structure that guides the execution of a research method and the analysis of the subsequent data” (p. 30). Bryman (2008) indicates five different types of research design; “experimental design; cross-sectional or survey design; longitudinal design; case study design; and comparative design” (p. 35). In this study I have chosen case-study design for the following reasons. A case-study is when “the case is the object of interest in its own right, and the researcher aims to provide an in-depth elucidation of it” (Bryman, 2008, p. 54). Yin (2009) suggests that although case-studies are a commonly used method in sociology, they are also one of the most challenging social science research methods.

While research questions focusing on *what* favour survey or archival methods, “in contrast “how” and “why” questions are more *explanatory* and likely to lead to the use of case studies, histories, and experiments as the preferred research methods” (Yin, 2009, p. 9, emphasis in original). In other words, when the aim of the study was to study *how* PETEs (and to a lesser extent PE students) viewed the nature and purposes of PE and PETE, and *why* this seemed to be so, it was more beneficial to choose a method that was capable of providing answers to these questions. Hence, a case-study design was considered relevant for this study. But, there were, however, different kinds of case-studies to consider.

Yin (2009) observes that there are five justifications for the use of a single case-study: (i) when the case represents a *critical case* in testing a well-known theory; (ii) when the case represents an *extreme or unique case*, for example doing a case-study on PETE with a rare physical conditions; (iii) a *revelatory case*, in other words doing case-study on a phenomenon previously inaccessible to social science inquiry (such as for example an elite sport organization); (iv) a *longitudinal case-study* studying the same single case at two or more different points of time (for example PE curricula); and (v) what Yin (*ibid*)

refers to as a *representative or typical case* where “the object is to capture the circumstances and conditions of an everyday or commonplace situation” (p. 48). The most common forms of case-studies, and also most relevant for this study on PETE, were representative or typical cases (Bryman, 2008). While for Yin (2009) these two are the same, it was useful to distinguish between the two. To classify a case as representative, Bryman (2008) claims the case has to share all the same characteristics in order to be able to generalize. In this study, I claim (see Appendix A, Table 1 & 2) Nord UC could not, strictly speaking, be defined as a representative case because it did not share *all* the characteristics of other higher education providers of PETE in Norway. Nevertheless, because it shared many, if not quite all, of the characteristics of PETE at other institutions, PETE at Nord UC was best described as a *typical case*. These arguments will be elaborated further in the section on external validity - transferability.

One question, and criticism, very common in the case-study debate, is how a single case can be representative so that it might yield findings that can be applied more generally to other cases (Yin, 2009). Exponents of case-study research argue that it is not the purpose of this kind of research design to generalize to other cases or the population beyond the case (Bryman, 2008). With this in mind, it is worth looking more closely at the criteria for claiming Nord UC as a typical case, where I, among other things, will argue that because Nord UC is classified as a typical case, findings from this study may shed light on issues relevant for other institutions in Norway offering PETE as well.

The judgment criteria for of the case-study at Nord UC

There are different views among different writers on how qualitative research can be evaluated (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Kleven, 2008; Mason, 2005; Yin, 2009). Traditionally, the concepts of validity and reliability have been commonplace in the process of evaluating research, but these concepts have, especially among qualitative researchers, been considered inappropriate for evaluating qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln,

1994). Guba and Lincoln (1994) introduced the concept “trustworthiness”, which includes credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability to replace the more positivist criteria of internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity. However, as argued by several authors (Mason, 2005; Kleven, 2008; Yin, 2009), the traditional concepts of validity of reliability is maybe not so different from the supposedly new concepts of Guba and Lincoln (1994).

Yin (2009) argues that here are four tests commonly used to establish the quality of empirical social research, namely: construct validity; internal validity; external validity and reliability, while the first three overlap with Kleven’s (2008) considerations regarding construct validity, internal validity, external validity, he also adds a fourth; statistical validity. Ying (2009) argues that construct validity in a case-study is especially challenging. Construct validity refers to validity of inference from indicators to constructs, in other words, “from what we have seen, to what we call what we have seen” (Kleven, 2008, p. 223). Kleven (2008) argues, most research “draws inference from observed indicators or abstract constructs” (p. 223), hence, construct validity is relevant to case-studies. Furthermore, Kleven (ibid) argues, “If inferences are drawn about what has influenced human action, internal validity is relevant. And as soon as any inferences are drawn about other persons or situations than those studied, external validity is relevant” (p. 223). How these different types of validity may be applied to qualitative research and make qualitative research “reliable”, will be discussed later in this section.

The concept of reliability (Mason, 2005; Yin, 2009) is, on the face of it, not applicable to qualitative research in its commonly understood form. Nevertheless, it has to be considered in the sense that all researchers (also qualitative) have to think carefully about their methods (Mason, 2005). In other words, it seemed as if construct validity, internal validity, external validity and reliability (Kleven, 2008; Mason, 2005; Yin, 2009) were all worth considering when researching PETE at Nord UC and I will, in the following do so.

I will also discuss how the types of validity were connected to the concepts credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1994).

Before discussing the different forms of validity and reliability, the connections between these concepts and Guba and Lincoln's (1994) concepts of trustworthiness and the relevance to the actual study at Nord UC, it is necessary to make a distinction between validity and validation. While validity is viewed as a property of inference, hence the relevance of different types of validity depends upon what kinds of inference are drawn in the research. The chosen method of validation is, on the other hand, dependent on the kind of data available (Kleven, 2008).

Construct validity

In terms of construct validity, this study on PETE at Nord UC has drawn inference from observed comments of the PETEs and PE students to abstract constructs in the sociological theory in order to test the plausibility of the available explanatory constructs. The question is, of course, if the constructs of theoretical interest were successfully operationalized in the research. Even if this appears an almost impossible task (Kleven, 2008; Yin, 2009), as Kleven (2008) puts it: "we have to face the impossible task and do our very best, making use of some observable indicators as representatives of the construct". In this study I have, for example, throughout the analysis and the discussion used numerically defined indicators like "none", ("very few") "few", "some", "equal amount", "many" (or "the majority"), "virtually all" and "all" to indicate how many of the PETEs and PE students actually said what I referred to, which helps validate the numerical grounds of which the inferences in the study were drawn¹².

¹² To be specific; none indicate 0 PETEs, few indicate 1-3, some indicate 4-6, equal amount indicate 7-8, many (or the majority) indicate 9-11, virtually all indicate 12-14, and all indicate 15 PETEs.

Internal validity - credibility

Internal validity, in terms of drawing inferences about what has influenced human action (Kleven, 2008; Yin, 2009), was closely linked to the concept of credibility (Bryman, 2008; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The establishment of the credibility of findings refers both to research being carried out according to good practice and to submitting the findings to those who were studied, to confirm that the researcher has understood their social world. In other words, if there can be several possible accounts of an aspect of a social reality, it is the “credibility of the account that the researcher arrives at that is going to determine the acceptability to others” (Bryman, 2008, p. 377). The credibility, or internal validity, may be confirmed by using respondent validation or triangulation. In the study of PETEs at Nord UC, the internal validity (Kleven, 2008; Yin, 2009) or credibility (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) were considered by triangulating the answers of the PETEs with those of the PE students, and vice-versa, together with triangulating some answers (those of relevance) from the PETEs with those of the Study Leader and the Institute Leader.

External validity – transferability

External validity refers to “validity of inference from the context of the study to a wider context or to other contexts” (Kleven, 2008, p. 229). External validity is, in other words, closely related to the terms transferability (Bryman, 2008; Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and generalizability (Mason, 2005). Considering this case-study of PETE at Nord UC, the benefit of a typical case-study is that it enables you to generalize. One weakness, however, is that it is extremely difficult to find good or perfect matches between the case being studied and other cases in the field. Thus, the weakness of using a typical case is that you cannot generalize to all other institutions. Strength, on the other hand, is that it enables the researcher to generate insights that may prove beneficial in understanding other institutions where they share similar characteristics. In other words, in this typical case-study of Nord UC, one could not generalize from Nord UC to all other PETE institutions in Norway. However, because Nord UC possesses many of the characteristics

of other institutions in the field, the findings from the study from Nord UC may inform understandings of those other institutions in Norway. As Roberts (2009) say:

A case-study, a detailed examination of a single case, can be used in order to throw light on a more widespread process”, in this case PETE at Nord UC, in order “to gain insights into processes, meanings and motivations which then enable us to better understand or explain more widespread instances, or to develop hypotheses which can then be interrogated in larger scale enquiries (p. 28).

In order to externally validate the choice of Nord UC as a quite typical case, the next section presents the different possible routes to becoming a PE teacher in Norway, as well as an overview of information on higher education institutions in Norway offering PETE. Considering these findings, I will argue that the study on PETE at Nord UC may be classified as quite typical and, as such, findings from this study may shed light on PETE at other institutions in Norway.

Different routes to becoming a PE teacher in Norway

At the time this study was undertaken there were several routes to becoming qualified as a PE teacher in Norway. Common to all was that they were grounded in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). One way to become a PE teacher was to take 30 or 60 credits PE as a part of general teacher education¹³. These routes enabled graduates to

¹³ When this study was undertaken, general teacher education in Norway was a four-year programme of study, where the first two years were taken up with compulsory subjects (pedagogy, Norwegian, mathematics, religion, didactics and school practice (UFD, 2003a). In years three and four of the general teacher education route, students could choose the direction in terms of their specialist subject. This was when the students could choose PE as a part of their teacher education by taking 30 credits PE or 60 credits of PE (in year 3 or 4). The 30 and 60 credits PE have to follow the National curriculum for general teacher education (UFD, 2003a) and, therefore, have to be quite similar in content no matter what institution provides the programme. There are, nevertheless, some differences (for example, in the ways the programme is delivered and the content) between institutions because of the claim in the National curriculum that each institution has to interpret the National curriculum and develop a Local curriculum in terms with the Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway, paragraph 46-2 (UFD, 2003a).

teach PE in primary and elementary school (ages 6 to 15), but did not permit them to use the title Subject Teacher in PE. They were generalist teachers with PE as one specialist subject. Over half of the institutions offering PETE in Norway had either 30 or 60 credits of PE, or both, as a part of their study-portfolio. Nord UC was one of the institutions offering 30 credits PE. Approximately 373 students studied 30 or 60 credits PE in 2008 and 2009 in Norway, of which 5.36% were educated at Nord UC (See Appendix A, Table 2).

An alternative way of becoming a PE teacher in Norway was to take a bachelor in PE and sports, a three-year course studying PE full-time. The bachelor in PE and sports was grounded on the National curriculum of physical education and sports (UFD, 2003b). A graduate with a Bachelor's degree in PE and sports also acquired the title Subject Teacher in PE and was qualified to teach PE in primary, secondary and upper-secondary school as well as at the "folkehøgskole"¹⁴. There were six institutions offering a Bachelor's degree in PE and sports in Norway in 2008-2009, and Nord UC was one of these. Indeed, Nord UC had a long history in Norway of offering this degree. Approximately 460 students took a bachelor in PE and sports 2008-2009 in Norway, of which 26.1% were educated at Nord UC (see Appendix A, Table 2).

The third route to graduate as a PE teacher in Norway, was to take a bachelor in, for example, sports, friluftsliv (outdoor life) or fitness and then complete a one-year (60 credits) practical and didactical education qualification on top. The practical and didactical education study was, similar to the other routes into PE teaching, grounded on a National curriculum for general teacher education (UFD, 2003c). After completing sports, health, friluftsliv or fitness studies together with practical and didactical

¹⁴ Folkehøgskole, or "Folk high schools" are one-year boarding schools offering a variety of exciting non-traditional and non-academic subjects, as well as academic subjects. The idea of folk high schools is learning for life, an opportunity to grow both individually, socially, and academically in small learning communities. All students live on campus in close contact with staff and their fellow students. One important part of the folk high school experience is to form a community, in and out of class. The students are normally between 18-25 years old (Folkehøgskole, 2011).

education, the students were qualified as subject teachers in PE and could teach PE in primary, secondary and upper-secondary schools in Norway (but not in folkehøgskole). In contrast to the bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b), a three-year procedure, it took students four years to become a subject teacher in PE via the practical and didactical education route. There were eight institutions in Norway offering practical and didactical education in PE in 2008-2009 and approximately 138 students studied practical and didactical education in that period, of which approximately 14,5 % studied at Nord UC (see Appendix A, Table 2).

Summarizing justifications for using Nord UC as a case-study

The following section summarizes key data from table 1 and 2 (see Appendix A) in order to demonstrate the suitability of Nord UC as a useful example of an institution offering PETE in Norway. The number of employed staff at the various institutions ranged from 5 to 28 with an average of 12.4. While seven institutions had less than 10 employees, six institutions had between 10 and 19 employees and four (including Nord UC) had 20 or more teachers teaching in the PE and sports. Nord UC was, therefore, among the institutions with the largest amount of PE teacher educator staff. This is beneficial to the study, because it represents a breadth of different people in age, experience and background within PETE. On the other hand, it might limit the extent to compare issues which might be common at institutions which have small PE sections (for example, institutions; A, E, H, L and P).

All the institutions in Norway had in 2008-2009 a larger number of male than female PETEs, except institution F and P, which had more females than males. At two institutions there were only male PETEs (A and K). However, at six of the institutions there were almost as many males as females. Nord UC was one of these. In terms of sex, Nord UC was typical insofar as the majority of the teacher educators were male, yet the numbers of males and females were nearly the same, as with many of the other institutions.

The PETEs' ages ranged from 20 to 70 years. The age range followed a normal distribution (Bryman, 2008) with approximately 10 percent at either end of the continuum, between 20-30 and 60-70 years. The majority, 80 percent, of teacher educators in Norway were between 30-60 years of age. Approximately 26 percent were between 30-40 years, 29 percent between 40-50 years and 26 percent between 50- 60 years. Nord UC had a similar range and spread of ages to the national profile. At Nord UC one person was less than 30 years (approximately 4 percent of Nord UC staff), eight were between 30-40 years (approximately 33 percent), seven were between 40-50 years (approximately 29 percent), seven were 50-60 years (approximately 29 percent) and one was over 60 (approximately 4 percent). In terms of the age, therefore, Nord UC is quite typical of PETE institutions in Norway.

According to study programmes, in 2008-2009, Nord UC provided three of the four possible routes to becoming a PE teacher in Norway. The only programme Nord UC did not offer was 60 credits PE as part of general teacher education. Combined with the information on number of students engaged in different PE education programmes in Norway 2008-2009, this illustrates how typical Nord UC was as a higher education institution offering PETE in Norway. Given that 23 students was the average number among the eight institutions offering 30 credits PE in 2008-2009, Nord UC was a little below the average, having 20 students. But as commented in the footnote in Appendix A, the information about amount of students taking 30 credits PE as a part of general teacher education did not correspond with the real number of students, which were 14. That said, Nord UC had one of the largest groups of students taking the bachelor in PE and sports programme (see Appendix A, Table 2). Although the table cannot indicate how many of the PE students would actually go on to teach PE in the future, it does, nevertheless, indicate that Nord UC was quite typical for institutions offering PETE in Norway.

In 2008-2009, Nord UC had the exact average number of students (20) of all institutions in Norway on the practical and didactical education programme. But as commented in the

footnote in Appendix A, the information about amount of practical and didactical education students at Nord UC did not correspond with the real number of students, which were only 7. So while table 2 (see Appendix A) indicates that Nord UC had quite many practical and didactical education students compared to some of the other institutions, the reality was that they indeed had the fewest practical and didactical education students in 2008-2009 in Norway (this of course, assumes that the numbers provided by the other institutions were in fact correct).

Taken together, this section on external validity or transferability of the case-study suggests that PETE provided at Nord UC was quite typical of the national picture considering the information about amount of staff, sex of staff, age of staff, programme portfolio, and the number of students at Nord UC compared to the national PETE context in Norway. Even though Nord UC did differ slightly from the larger picture at some points, the main impression is that Nord UC was quite typical of the various institutions offering PETE in Norway. This external validation of the study implied the possibility to tentatively transfer the findings to the context outside Nord UC.

Reliability – confirmability and dependability

The last issue to be considered in terms of the criteria of qualitative research is reliability (Ying, 2009), which is closely connected to what Guba and Lincoln (1994) refers to as dependability and confirmability. Considering confirmability, which parallels objectivity, this implies, for example, that researchers have to carefully consider that their personal values or theoretical viewpoints do not distort the research. But even though it is a common view that social research cannot be completely or even largely objective (Bryman, 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; van Krieken, 1998), there are reasons for trying to be as objective as possible, what van Krieken (1998) refers to as object-adequacy, or being as detached or as possible. To avoid accusations of research being too value-laden (either by personal values or theoretical viewpoints), Yin (2009) points out that qualitative researchers ought to make as many steps in the research as transparent as

possible and “to conduct research as if someone were always looking over your shoulder” (p. 45). In this vein, I have thoroughly described the research process in order to let the reader into the conduct of the study. Having in mind that someone (in this case, the persons I interviewed or other peer researchers) was “looking over my shoulder” was made easier because of the fact that some of the PETEs participating in this study are very likely to read the thesis. On the other hand, it was worth noting that being true to my informants does not necessarily mean that my analyses will coincide with how the informants view themselves (or the situations).

Questions related to dependability implies that tapes, interview transcripts, field notes, selection of research participants are kept at all phases in the research process thus enabling the researcher to go back and check (Bryman, 2008). Procedurally, the project was submitted and subsequently gained approval from the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) (see Appendix B) which allowed me to interview PETEs, PE students and the Institute Leader. The written interviews, the files and the tapes from the interviews were all locked up in a safe during the research process and, according to directions from NSD, explicit and implicit individual level data will be deleted or re-coded and tapes from the interviews be destroyed when the research has come to an end.

METHODS

Having dealt with methodological considerations, the research strategy (including research questions, research approaches, research design and judgment criteria, both in broad terms and in relation to the case-study on PETE at Nord UC), the following section will consider the actual methods used in the case-study at Nord UC. Bryman (2008) refers to research methods as “simply a technique for collecting data” (p. 31). Nevertheless, the chosen techniques need to generate valid and reliable data. In this study I have chosen interviews and a short questionnaire as my research methods. The following section explains how these methods have been applied, and experiences of the

process. Furthermore, considerations regarding sampling are discussed as and when appropriate, together with considerations of the validity and reliability of the different methods used.

Interviews

Interviewing is probably the most commonly used method in qualitative research (Bryman, 2008; Mason, 2005), including case-study research (Yin, 2009). Bryman (2008) distinguishes between three kinds of interviews: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. The structured interview, also called a standardized interview, is a typical form of interview used in survey research and is often classified as a quantitative interview. When it comes to semi-structured and unstructured interviews, researchers sometimes employ the term “qualitative interviews” to encapsulate these two types (Bryman, 2008; Mason, 2005). Nevertheless, they differ in some important ways. An unstructured interview is very open in the sense that the interviewer asks few questions allowing the interviewee to develop, and responds only to topics she/he wants to follow-up. An unstructured interview often seems much like a conversation. In a semi-structured interview the researcher has a list of questions or topics he/she wants to cover during the interview, in other words, an interview guide or schedule. Thus, the interview is a guided conversation (Yin, 2009) with both the researcher and the interviewee having a degree of freedom to go beyond the interview guide during the interview. The main aim for the interviewer, however, is to cover the questions in the interview guide. Both in unstructured and semi-structured interviews the interview process is flexible (Bryman, 2008; Mason, 2005; Yin, 2009).

In this study I used semi-structured interviews in order to answer my research questions. The advantages of using semi-structured interviews are several: first, they enable the researcher to generate data on particular issues by ensuring that the interview is structured around several key questions (see Appendix C, Appendix D). Second, being

partially or semi-structured allows the interviewer to follow up any lines of enquiry that may arise from responses to the initial questions. It also allows the respondent space to develop in detail any comments they might want to make, and this, in turn, may generate interesting data. The disadvantages of semi-structured interviews are that if the interviewer were to get too locked into the interview guide, she/he might miss important information from the informants by, for example, forgetting to ask follow-up questions or allow the informant to talk about what is on his or her mind in terms of the topic. The challenge as a researcher using semi-structured interviews is to strike a balance between sticking to the interview guide and allowing the informants to talk about what interests them (Bryman, 2008).

In the next section, I will first consider how PETEs for the pilot study were sampled alongside experiences from the pilot interviews, before looking more closely at how the PETEs for the main study were selected, and at the experiences from these one-to-one interviews. Lastly, this section considers group interviews, sampling of PE students for the group interviews and experiences from these. Before relaying questions regarding sampling and sample population to this specific study, it is worth noting that a *sample frame* refers to the total list (or population) of all those who could be sampled to a study on PETE (for example all PETEs in Norway, or all PE students), while *sample* refers to “the segment of the population that is selected for investigation” (Bryman, 2008, p. 168), in other words, those persons actually chosen to participate in the study.

Within qualitative research when interviews are the main method, the most recommended sampling method to use is purposive sampling, where the “researchers samples on the basis of wanting to interview people who are relevant to the research questions” (Bryman, 2008, p. 458). In contrast to purposive sampling is probability sampling, which refers to “a sample that has been selected using random selection so that each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected” (Bryman, 2008, p. 168). In the following sections I will consider the sampling methods used in this study, and why.

Pilot interviews

It is always desirable to ensure that the research instrument functions well, and one way to ensure this is to undertake a pilot study (Bryman, 2008; Mason, 2005; Yin, 2009). More specifically, a pilot study helps prepare and develop the interview guide, as well as helps the interviewer gain experience as a researcher.

Before the actual case-study took place at Nord UC, six pilot interviews were carried out. The sampling for the pilot interviews were done on the basis of purposive sampling (Bryman, 2008). In other words, I contacted PETEs I knew and that I knew would be able to answer the questions in the interview guide. I contacted PETEs with different experience levels as PETEs, various ages and both sexes. In other words, I tried to sample a group for the pilot interviews quite similar to the group of PETEs at Nord UC. I also found it convenient to add PETEs to the pilot interviews that had experience from the actual institution where the case-study itself would take place, to ensure that all the questions were relevant for the local context (Nord UC). On the other hand, however, I wanted PETEs for the pilot study working at other institutions to ensure that the questions also were experienced as relevant to the broader Norwegian PETE context.

Two of the interviews were done with people that had relation to Nord UC, one interview with a female former PE teacher educator at Nord UC in her mid-20s, and the other with a male Associate professor in the mid-30s who did not teach PE at Nord the years 2008-2009, when this study was undertaken. Four of the pilot interviews were with PETEs working at another PETE institution in Norway, which I have given the pseudonym South UC. Out of these four, three were female PETEs with various degrees of experience as PETEs and ages varying from the mid-40s, mid-50s to the early 60s. The male PE teacher educator interviewed at this institution was in his late 40s with some experience from PETE. Similar to the PETEs at Nord UC, the majority of all six PETEs in the pilot study had a Master's degree in sports, while two held a PhD.

Experiences from the pilot interviews

The pilot interviews were important for the main study in several ways. First, I experienced during the pilot interviews the need for having two tape-recorders with offset starting points to cover the possibility of breakdown. Second, the pilot interviews provided useful indication regarding how the informants understood the questions and the order of the questions in the interview situation. This feedback came in the form of a feeling for the logical order of the questions from the way the interviewees reacted, but also explicitly through the informants giving me feedback after the interview according to how they experienced the questions. Listening to the pilot interviews afterwards and reading the interview transcripts, provided further evidence with which to assess the logic of the research questions. Third, the pilot interviews informed me about the relevance of the questions, both among PETEs with previous experience at Nord UC, but also for the PETEs outside the local context of Nord UC. Finally, the informants' feedback on how they experienced me as an interviewer and listening to the tapes of the pilot interviews gave insight into how I acted as an interviewer. Consequently, I tried to be conscious of this feedback when conducting the interviews in the main study.

One-to-one interviews

The research questions in this study required data on how the PETEs viewed and experienced PE and PETE. In order to select PETEs for the one-to-one interviews, rather than, for example, sampling research participants on a random basis (for example, a cluster of the employees at the Sport Institute at Nord UC), it was necessary to identify the employees at the Nord UC that were directly involved in PETE as teachers on one (or several) of the PE study programmes provided. A list of names of those teaching on PETE study programmes in 2008-2009 was obtained, and due to the relatively small amount of PETEs at the Sport Institute at Nord UC actually, involved in PETE (16), and the fact that this study was to be handled as a single case, it was necessary to contact all 16 PETEs to participate in the study. In September/October 2008 all 16 PETEs received

an information letter¹⁵ (see Appendix E) asking if they would be prepared to participate in the study. On October 11th 2008, I provided oral information about the research project in a meeting at the Sport Institute at Nord UC. In responding to the information letter, 15 out of the 16 PETEs agreed to participate in the study. Only one (female) PE teacher educator declined to participate¹⁶. Thus, the final sample in the study was 6 female and 9 male PETEs at Nord UC.

In the final stage of the study I also arranged to interview the Institute Leader at the Sport Institute at Nord UC 15th of April 2011, in order to obtain his views on the issues in the main study while, at the same time, offering him the opportunity to comment upon some of the findings from the main study thereby enabling a fuller picture of PETE at Nord UC. The interview with the Institute Leader was based on the same interview guide as the PETEs (see Appendix C), supplemented with several questions related to findings from the main study (see Appendix D).

Before starting each interview, the informants signed a consent form (see Appendix F) indicating that they were free to withdraw from the project at any time and that all personal information and other information that might identify them or their institution, was anonymized.¹⁷

Experiences from the one-to-one interviews of the PETEs

Reflecting upon the conducted interviews, it was apparent that all 16 of the interviews (which include the interview with the Institute Leader) generated data on the particular issues and key questions for the study. It was apparent that some of the PETEs had a lot

¹⁵ Confirmed by NSD.

¹⁶ Her reasons for not wanting to take part was that she had just recently returned from a leave working outside Nord UC, the other reason she gave was that she only taught a small course (20 hours) in one study programme in PETE in 2008-2009.

¹⁷ Hence, the PETEs, Institute Leader, the University College and cities are all given fictive names in this thesis.

on their minds and talked freely, without me having to ask many questions as we went along, while others were waiting for the questions to be asked and then answered relatively briefly. A consequence of having some more-or-less talkative informants was that the length of the interviews varied. Seven interviews lasted 95 minutes, three lasted 80 minutes, another three 70 minutes while three lasted 65 minutes. Despite the various lengths of the interviews, all 15 PETEs, together with the interview with the Institute Leader, appeared satisfied that they were given sufficient time to answer the questions in the interview guide as thoroughly as they wanted. I also experienced one-and-a-half-hours to be the “limit” of how long both I as an interviewer (and the interviewees) was able to stay focused on the interview.

The construct validity of the research has been reassured by all the PETEs in the study (including the PE students and the Institute Leader) answering the same questions. This has enabled me to put observable indicators as representatives of the construct I have been outlining in the analysis. In other words, I have been able to say none, few or some (etc.) when referring findings from the study.

Furthermore, the interviews with the PETEs enabled me to compare and contrast the voices of PETEs with the PE students, and the Institute Leader, which have improved the internal validity of the research project (Kleven, 2008; Yin, 2009).

Questions regarding reliability, dependability and confirmability on the research have already been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Group interviews

There is often a perception that interviews involve one interviewer and one interviewee, in other words, a one-to-one interaction. But there are interview methods that involve

more than one interviewee, namely the focus group techniques and the group interview which are now widely accepted as social research methods (Morgan, 2002). According to Bryman (2008) and Parker and Tritter (2006) there are distinctions between a group interview and focus group interview. While focus group interviews consider a particular topic and explore it in depth, a group interview has a wider perspective. Secondly, in focus group interviews the researcher is interested in the group interactions and how members of the group respond to each other, whereas this tends not to be a prime concern in group interviews. Nonetheless, as Bryman (2008, p. 473) points out: “the distinction between the focus group method and the group interview is by no means clear-cut, and the two are frequently employed interchangeably”. Although Bryman (2008) claims there is no clear-cut distinction between the two, I will argue that in this study I have used what Parker and Tritter (2006) refers to as group interviews rather than focus group interviews, because the intention of the interviews was to gain insight into what the PE students thought about the aims and purposes of PE and PETE, as well as their experiences of being PE students at Nord UC. Using group interviews enabled me to ensure that I got answers from the PE students to the main questions in the study, but also allowed the exploration of any other relevant issues to arise. In other words, I did not only focus on one particular topic which is more common in focus group interviews (Parker & Tritter, 2006), nor was I specifically interested in the group dynamics or interactions within the group during the interviews. Although, the members of the groups were used to triangulate individual group member views, in this regards there was perhaps more crossover than originally thought. Similar to the one-to-one interviews, the group interviews were also semi-structured interviews based on key themes (see Appendix G).

When choosing to use group interviews as a research method, there are several questions that need to be resolved: for example, questions regarding how one constructs a group, how large the groups should be and how many groups one needs (Bryman, 2008; Morgan, 1998). I will now consider these questions regarding the sample and sample population of PE students for the group interviews in relation to this recent study.

Sampling of PE students for group interviews

In terms of the question of selecting or composing groups, Bryman (2008) says that “anyone for whom the topic is relevant can logically be an appropriate participant” (p. 481). In other words, with the intentions in this study to do group interviews of PE students, all PE students could potentially participate in the groups. As such, this way of thinking is closely related to what was previously described as purposive sampling (Bryman, 2008), which is a sampling strategy common when composing (focus) groups (Morgan, 1998). Hence, and, similar to the PETEs, I had an oral presentation of the research project for students on all five PETE study programmes at Nord UC¹⁸.

In contrast to the purposive sampling of the PETEs, however, I used both purposive sampling and probability sampling of PE students for the group interviews. The purposive sampling was used in the group interviews with the 30 study point students and the practical and didactical education students, because both of these groups were quite small (14 and 7). Hence, I found it convenient to ask all the students to participate in the group interviews. This leads to the next questions to consider when conducting groups, namely how large the groups should be (Bryman, 2008; Morgan, 1998). Morgan (1998) suggests that, for several reasons, an optimum group size ought to be 6 to 10 members. On the assumption that some participants are inevitably likely to drop out, there would still be sufficient left to make the group interview viable. Second, if all of the participants did in fact attend the interviews, the group would not be so unwieldy as to make it difficult to manage and to enable all members to contribute to the discussion. Having quite large groups also enables the researcher to hear numerous suggestions from different interviewees. With these considerations in mind, I decided that 10 students in each group would be an optimal size enabling me to handle the interview situation and the amount of data it produced, as well as the “drop-out” problem.

¹⁸ The groups were informed during November and December 2008. The number of students present varied.

In relation to the bachelor in PE and sports degree, all three years amounts to approximately 120 students (circa 40 students on each year), this was too many to consider for a group interview. Thus, I had to draw a sample out of the sample population (all the bachelor students in PE), in other words, I had to use probability sampling to conduct the groups from the bachelor in PE and sports programme. Simple random sample is the most basic form of probability sampling, and refers to that “each unit of the population has an equal probability of inclusion in the sample” (Bryman, 2008, p. 171). The practicalities of randomly picking the students from the bachelor in PE and sports programme were as follows: firstly, I obtained a list of names of all PE students from the different years in the bachelor in PE and sports programme¹⁹. The students’ sex was used as stratifying criteria to ensure “that the result sample will be distributed in the same way as the population” (Bryman, 2008, p. 173). In other words, to ensure that both boys and girls (similar to the population of boys and girls in the society) were represented in the group interviews, I put the names of the students in one “girl” bowl and one “boy” bowl to select from. In practice, the names of the students of each year of the three-years course were put in separate boxes and then divided into boys and girls for each year, before lastly, the names of five boys and five girls from each year were drawn. In the end this gave me three randomly sampled groups of students with five men and five women in each group I could ask to participate in the group interviews.

The final question to be asked when using group interviews is how many groups are necessary (Morgan, 1998)? Because this research project focused upon PETE in Norway and that Nord UC hosted (at the time of the study) three out of the four types of study programme in PE teaching (including all three routes to becoming a PE teacher in Norway), it appeared necessary to interview students on each of the programmes Nord UC provided. Similarly, because the bachelor in PE and sports provided almost half of the total number of qualified teachers in Norway (and it is the biggest programme at Nord UC) (see Appendix A, Table 2), it was equally necessary to interview more students from

¹⁹ These name lists were given to me by three different PETEs teaching in the different years in the bachelor programme.

this particular programme. Consequently, one group from each of the three years in the bachelor in PE and sports was interviewed. This resulted in a total of five groups of PE students at Nord UC, which is in line with what Morgan (1998) suggests is the right amount of groups.

After sampling the students chosen to participate in the group interviews, they received a personal letter²⁰ (see Appendix H) containing information that they had been chosen to participate in the group interview alongside more detailed information about the project, the scheduled interview and their rights as interviewees. In total, 51 students (27 girls and 24 boys) were chosen to participate and 41 actually attended the interviews (25 female and 16 male PE students). The following section explores some of the experiences from these five group interviews.

Experiences from the group interviews of the PE students

Before I began each of the group interviews I wrote down the name of everyone in the group in the order they were sitting around the table, thus enabling me to remember and use their names during the interviews. At the same time I tried to have eye contact with the ones who were talking and I was aware of saying “yes” and “nodding my head” in order to make them feel I was listening to what they were saying. I also tried to summarize interview at intervals, to reassure myself and them that I had understood them correctly. If one person in the group made a comment, and no one else followed up, I asked the whole group questions such as “is this something anyone else agrees on, or not”, in order to get a broader picture of the extent to which individual comments could be generalized in the group. Furthermore, if some in the group were very silent, I asked him/her direct questions, by using their names, in order to bring them back into the conversation. I experienced this as helpful, because after having been asked one question, several of the silent students started to take part in the interview without me “pushing” them.

²⁰ Approved by NSD

The first group interview was with the PE students taking 30 credits PE as a part of their general teacher education. As argued earlier, the whole group (14 students) was asked to participate in the interview, so I considered dividing them into two groups, but decided to keep them together in one group for logistical reasons, that is, to find time on the students' timetable for one interview. On the day of the interview all 14 students, 10 girls and 4 boys attended.

The second group interview was with the second-year bachelor PE students. Five out of the 10 sampled students attended the interview; hence I got a feeling of what Morgan (1998) refers to as the drop-out problem. The third group interview was with the first-year bachelor PE students. Eight out of ten students participated, three boys and five girls. Thus, drop-outs were not such a big problem (*ibid*). The fourth group interview was with the third-year bachelor PE students. Seven students attended; three boys and four girls. In other words, similar to the previous group, there was a small drop out problem (*ibid*). The fifth group interview was with students taking practical and didactical education in PE. The whole group of seven students attended; five boys and two girls. This was the only group where there was majority of boys.

All-in-all, the data generated in the group interviews informed the research in ways that enabled me to ensure the construct validity of the research, because all groups answered all the questions in the interview guide, which enabled me to use observable indicators as representative of the construct. Furthermore, the five group interviews have informed the research in ways that have enabled me to compare and contrast the voices of PE students with the PETEs and this has improved the internal validity of the research (Kleven, 2008; Yin, 2009).

Questionnaire

Before the one-to-one interviews with the PETEs took place, I asked the PETEs to answer a short questionnaire (see Appendix I) in order to obtain background information on each of them. Collecting this information beforehand enabled me to be prepared for each interview. Secondly, and considering the relatively long length of the interviews, collecting this data beforehand turned out to be a good way to “save” time that would, otherwise, have been added to the interviews. Thirdly, the questionnaire was a good way to stay in contact with the PETEs and to remind them about the interview that would soon take place.

DATA ANALYSES AND INTERPRETATIONS

Having outlined methodological considerations, the research strategy and the actual research methods applied in this study, the next section outlines how the data was analyzed and interpreted. More specifically, this section considers why and how a grounded theory approach was utilized in the process of analyzing the data material and the experiences of the process.

Grounded theory

Grounded theory methods were developed from the work of the two sociologists Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in the early 1960s. Glaser and Strauss’ main goal was the possibility of offering systematic strategies for qualitative research. In particular, they proposed that systematic qualitative analysis had its own logic and could generate theory. A grounded theory approach includes, among other things, simultaneous involvement in data collection and analysis and constructing codes and categories from the data rather than hypotheses, thus advancing theory development at each step of the data collection and analysis. The benefits of engaging in these practices are said to be helping the

researcher to control their research process and to increase the analytic power of their work (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

In the process of this study I have found it useful to conduct the research in the spirit of a grounded theory approach: first, in the way I have dealt with extant theory (elaborated in Chapter 2: Theoretical Perspectives), and, second, by using a grounded theory approach towards analyzing the data, which will be elaborated upon in the following section.

Steps in grounded theory analysis

In the grounded theory approach towards analyzing the data generated by the study, I found the protocol suggested for this kind of analyses by Kathy Charmaz (2006) particularly useful. In this strategy there are several issues that have to be considered. The first consideration Charmaz (ibid) claims need to be borne in mind when starting grounded theory analysis is to start coding as soon as possible after conducting and transcribing the data. Hence, after conducting and transcribing the interviews, I started to read through the interview transcripts without taking any notes. Then, after reading each interview I wrote down some general comments²¹. The next step was to read the interviews again, and at this point I started to do what Charmaz (2006) labels *initial coding*. Initial coding is the first step in which fragments of data through words, lines, segments and incidents are studied. At this stage I remained open to any conceptual and/or theoretical possibility my data might suggest, and I tried to stick close to the data.

I also tried to move quickly through the data as Charmaz (2006) suggests. I did not do word-by-word coding, rather, I did a mix of line-by-line coding, naming every line in the

²¹ Together with these comments after reading the transcripts I had also, after each interview was conducted, immediately written down some comments on my main impressions of how I had experienced the interview. For example how I experienced the atmosphere during the interview and my thought on how the interviewee responded to the main issues of the interview.

written data and breaking the data up into component parts and properties, together with what Charmaz (2006) refers to as coding incident-to-incident. In other words, doing line-by-line coding together with coding incident-to-incident, helped me identify implicit concerns as well as explicit statements (Charmaz, 2006), comparing incident to incident. After doing initial coding of all the interviews, I wrote down all the codes and started to systematically categorize them into themes. At this point I had a document of 25 pages with initial codes categorized in themes. For example, I had a theme labelled “research”, and the initial codes within research were as follows: “important to do own research”, “teaching eats research time”, “important to involve students in research”, “don’t like to go in depth in theory and do only that”, “research is done in leisure time and holidays”, “want to develop as a researcher”, and “stimulating to be part of a research project”.

After identifying and systematizing the initial codes, I started to review them and select what seemed to be the most fruitful initial codes. This is the next step in the grounded theory analyzing process and is referred to as *focused coding*. Focused codes are more directed, selective and conceptual than initial codes, because they explain larger segments of the data (Charmaz, 2006). The process of conducting the focused codes had several phases. After refining the initial codes into focused codes, I realized I had to go through the codes several times in order to decide which codes were really analytical in the sense that they seemed to me to be the most adequate interpretations of the points being made by various respondents without losing or distorting the original expressions and intentions of the informants. At the end of the process of elaborating the focused codes, I had a 10-page document of focused codes and I started the process of doing focused coding of all the interviews. The initial codes from the theme research were, for example, refined into the following focused codes: “research important”, “research not important”, “research topics”, “teaching and research”. Both the initial and focused coding was done by hand.

The focused code document was the foundation which provided “premises” for the “storyline” in my data analysis. That said, during the process of conducting the focused codes, I came up with two alternative ways of developing the storyline of my data: one based on *themes* and the other based more on the *findings*. I ended up with sticking to the storyline based on *themes*, which I felt gave more opportunities for changing the order of the themes in the process of writing the analysis. In the final draft this resulted in a structure to the chapter based on a framework of key themes and sub-themes presented in a format linking theme to theme sequentially.

In the writing process I tended to use both the initial and focused code document side-by-side, because, on several occasions, I felt the need to go back to the document of initial codes in order to remind myself and confirm what I really was referring to or thinking of in relation to the focused codes (which, by their very nature, are much more “general” than the initial codes). In the writing process, I really felt the initial codes put more “flesh to the bones” and gave me a better understanding of the whole picture. Charmaz (2006) highlights this as a critical aspect of grounded theory analyses, namely, that the different stages in the coding process take you further away from the original data, which in the next step can distort the analysis. I found this to be the case and, therefore, it was very helpful to have both the initial coding document by my side at the same time as I used the focused code document as basis for my storyline.

Further, of course, the interviews were being thoroughly read and re-read alongside the process of writing the analysis, besides listened to tapes. Altogether, using the initial coding document, the focused coding document, and the interview transcripts together with listening to the tapes, gave me confidence that I had given the data a thorough treatment. In other words, I had throughout the analyzing process tried to see the “big picture” alongside all the small components that had occurred in the coding process.

After initial and focus coding, the next step in the coding process of grounded theory is referred to as theoretical coding (Charmaz, 2006). Theoretical codes “specify possible relationships between categories you have developed in your focused coding” (ibid, p. 63). Thus, at this stage, the analytical story moves in a theoretical direction. While Glaser (1978, cited in Charmaz, 2006) presents a series of “theoretical coding families” (p. 63), he does not offer any set of criteria with which to define a theoretical coding family. Some coding families refer to recognizable analytical terms other draw more on sociological concepts. Even though many coding families are identified Charmaz (2006), observes that several conceptual families are absent in Glaser’s list, like, for example, agency/action, power, networks and narratives.

The theoretical coding utilized when analyzing data in this study appeared closely linked to the discussion of theories and theoretical concepts used in recent research on PETE (and to a lesser extent PE) referred to in Chapter 2: Theoretical Perspectives. In other words, theoretical coding was not first and foremost connected to Glaser’s theoretical coding families’ but, rather, to the earlier identified sensitizing concepts in previous PETE (and PE) research. Hence, I will describe the theoretical coding process performed in this study as two-fold: first I identified and discussed which concepts had been most prominent and useful in previous PETE research. Then I used the identified sensitizing concepts as a way to make me, the researcher, sensitive to the existence (or otherwise) of particular processes in the empirical data of the study at Nord UC. Hence, in relation to Glaser’s identified “theoretical coding families” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 63), I imposed what Charmaz (2006) refers to as “absent” (p. 66) concepts from sociology.

Analyzing the pilot interviews

I found it beneficial to the study to also analyze the pilot interviews. After contacting the ones participating in the pilot study, four of the six allowed me to use their interviews²².

²² As the PETEs, the PE students and the Institute Leader in the main study, these four signed a declaration form (see Appendix F).

When analyzing the pilot interviews, I used the focused codes that had emerged from the interviews in the main study (I did not do initial coding as I did on the interviews in the main study). In other words, I compared and contrasted the findings from the main study to the findings from the pilot interviews. However, quotations from the pilot study are rarely used, and only when the PETEs in the pilot study expressed a certain point particularly clearly (and more precisely than the PETEs in the main study).

The next chapter details findings from the study of PETE at Nord UC.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

This chapter summarizes the findings from the study of PETEs' (and, to a lesser extent, PE students') views on the nature and purposes of PETE. The structure of the chapter is based on a framework of key themes and sub-themes presented in a format linking theme to theme sequentially. First I will draw attention to the PETEs' (and PE students') views on the purpose of PE as a school subject before exploring their views on PETE itself. Then follows a section capturing PETE in practice in terms of the different roles the PETEs have and how they experience these roles, together with how the PE students experienced being students at Nord UC; in other words, the nature of PETE. Lastly, this chapter contextualizes PETE at Nord UC.

In the spirit of the discussion around construct validity in Chapter 3: Methodology and Methods, I have used different terms to delineate the findings from the PETEs participating in the study, that is to say (and for repetition) that none refers to the number 0, (very few or) few is between 1-3, some refers to 4-6, equal amounts refers to 7-8, many (or the majority) refers to 9-11, virtually all refers to 12-14, while all refers to 15.²³

THE PURPOSES OF PE ACCORDING TO THE PETEs

In response to an initial question regarding their views on the aims and purposes of the subject they, as PETEs, were preparing PE students to teach (that is to say school PE), it became clear that the PETEs' philosophies of school PE could be broadly categorized under two distinct, but often interrelated, headings: namely, the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits of PE for young people. By intrinsic is meant the value of engaging with PE (and

²³ When referring to the group interview of the students, I have not used terms referring to specific figures as with the PETEs, rather I have used terms such as few, some and many, just to give an impression in the case that the quotations from the students represent a general view among few, some or many of the students, or rather just views of a few.

its constituent activities) for its own sake, while extrinsic benefits focus on using PE as a vehicle to achieve other goals (such as health promotion).

This section will first examine the PETEs views' on the intrinsic and extrinsic benefits of PE, before exploring the two. In order to gain insight into what the PETEs have passed on to their students, the last part of this section looks into the PE students' views on the aims and purposes of PE.

Intrinsic benefits of PE

Virtually all of the PETEs began by talking about what might be termed the intrinsic benefits of PE and, in particular, what they perceived to be the importance of enjoyment and fun in PE and the activities that PE typically consists of. This was illustrated by the following comment from Elisabeth: "In PE the aim is to make young people enjoy being physically active, and to introduce them to different sports and ball games so that they get to know different activities". Some PETEs also focused on the notion that what constitutes "fun" depends upon the individual: "PE teachers have to present various activities, because someone thinks this is fun, someone like to run, others like to play team games" (Ida). In this regard, the views of the PETEs corresponded more or less exactly with the findings on PE teachers' views of PE (Green, 2003), and PE students (Larsson, 2009; Rønning, 1996). The majority of the PETEs took the view that because young people were likely to have a variety of sporting tastes and gain pleasure from differing activities they should be introduced to a variety of activities in PE.

Extrinsic benefits of PE

While virtually all of the PETEs responded to the opening question by talking about the intrinsic benefits of PE (in terms of enjoyment and sports as a valued cultural practice in

its own right), many soon began to talk of the extrinsic benefits or, in other words, of PE as a vehicle for other supposed benefits.

The most commonly cited extrinsic benefit by virtually all the PETEs and often incidental benefit of PE, was, similar to findings among PE teachers (Green, 2003), health promotion: “through various activities they are going to get the opportunity to be active in physical activity for the rest of their lives. And hopefully this will contribute to taking care of at least the physical part of the health” (Tom). Besides a health focus on PE, some of the PETEs also mentioned a variety of social skills as important aspects of PE – such as personal and social development: “I think of PE as self-formation, in an educational perspective, that it has impact on confidence, it has impact on your personality” (Linda). Some respondents talked about PE not only as an important but also as an exceptional subject through which pupils might learn team work: “That one maybe gets some social aspects through PE which you don’t get in other subjects, because the setting is special and that you have to master things together with others” (Ida). In viewing PE as a potentially quite special, even unique, vehicle for a range of individual and social educational benefits, PETEs’ views chimed, once again, with those of PE teachers themselves (Green, 2003).

Some of the PETEs also spoke of the importance of motor development and mastering sport skills as an important part of children’s development through school PE: “So through the offers provided by the schools it is the aim of PE first and foremost to secure a minimum of physical development, and motor skills and maybe also mentally in some occasions” (Fredrik). Here again, the PETEs implicitly linked the intrinsic merits of PE to other additional extrinsic benefits.

Interdependencies between intrinsic and extrinsic benefits of PE

A few of the PETEs appeared to implicitly link the intrinsic benefit of pleasure to extrinsic benefits of cultural gains. In other words, a few PETEs viewed PE as a means of introducing youngsters to sports and physical activity as a significant aspect of Norwegian culture, or what philosophers refer to as sports as a valued cultural practice (Arnold, 1980). Linda put it this way:

I think of PE as a way to learn how to be part of the culture we have, that we live in a movement culture. It is important to be able to participate in games and physical play in leisure time and in school. To be active in sports means a lot in our culture ... It is an important part of PE to learn pupil activities so that they can participate on such arenas.

As well as viewing fun and enjoyment of those activities that make up the familiar PE curriculum in Norway as worthwhile in themselves, virtually all of the PETEs highlighted what they saw as the significant part that creating enjoyment and fun in PE could play in terms of encouraging lifelong commitment to sports and physical activity. In other words, any intrinsic pleasure gained in PE while young could lead to a lifetime of pleasure through sports and physical activity. Thus Kari, for example, commented:

I think an important aim is to create movement joy or interest and motivation to be active. So I think the role of a PE teacher is not only to activate children when they are in school, but to create joy according to movement which the children take with them later in life.

It was noteworthy that many of the PETEs viewed the supposed intrinsic and extrinsic benefits of PE as interrelated and, indeed, interdependent. Like PE teachers, the majority of the PETEs believed that PE is a subject in which the primary purpose is to create the basis for good health both on an individual level and in society. To enable this, PE has to be enjoyable and facilitate various activities. Similar to findings among PE teachers

(Green, 2003), the PETEs in this study seemed to view the intrinsic pleasures to be gained from PE as suitable means of encouraging ongoing (or lifelong) participation in sports and, consequently, promoting health – especially where and when youngsters were introduced to the intrinsic pleasures of a variety of activities: “First of all I think that active children is important for public health. To obtain this, we must try to motivate children to like physical activities” (Martin). Similarly, many of the PETEs viewed the presentation of a variety of activities within PE as a means for youngsters to learn to master a range of different physical and sporting skills, and, as a consequence, to broaden their sporting repertoires, making them more likely to engage in lifelong sport activities:

You can't motivate children for sports by saying that they have to engage in sports to prevent cardio diseases when they are 40 ... I think if you have a variety of activities, many may want to perform a sport activity later in life, instead of just playing football and engage in ball games. It is better to have a wide spectrum of activities, so that more children can find something they like. (Martin)

PE students' philosophies of PE

Having explained PETEs' views of the purpose of PE (and noting the similarities with PE teachers), it is interesting to compare these with those they were training to teach the subject, that is the PE students. First of all, however, it is worth exploring the views of the PETEs regarding what they expected the students' philosophies of PE to be.

When asking them about the PE students' philosophies, many PETEs referred to their own response. Fredrik, for example, commented: “I hope they (the students) give the same answer as me. But, if they will do so – I don't know”. By and large, Fredrik was correct, as the tendency to view PE as both having intrinsic (enjoyment) and extrinsic benefits (health, lifelong participation, motor development, and social development) was common answers from the PE students. What was somewhat different, however, was that

although the PETEs emphasized enjoyment as the most important aspect of PE, the majority took the view that health would be the aspect the students would focus heavily on: “I guess they will focus on the health aspect” (Thomas). Some of the PETEs anticipated that students on different levels (according to whether they were first, second or third-year PE students) would provide different views about aims of PE corresponding to their supposed cognitive and professional development through the PETE programme: “It depends which year students you talk to. I don’t think they are very conscious the first year, but I do think many of them will answer as I did, about focusing on good physical and psychological health” (Elisabeth). It was noteworthy, however, that contrary to some of the PETEs’ expectations regarding developments in the students’ views, there was no substantial identifiable differences in the PE students’ philosophies between first and third-year bachelor in PE and sports students.

The PETEs were, nevertheless, right in anticipating that the PE students, in general, would answer the same as the PETEs themselves according to the aims and purposes of PE, namely that enjoyment and health should be the main focus for the subject. But what was interesting, was that while the majority of PETEs started off by arguing that enjoyment was *the* primary (intrinsic) aim of PE, the students generally argued that health is the most important aim of PE: “I think about health and to have fun” (female student, second-year), “to prevent lifestyle disease, overweight and such” (female student, second-year). In short, while both groups regarded the intrinsic pleasures in sports and the extrinsic benefits for health as the twin aims of PE in schools, PETEs prioritized the former and PE students the latter, and this may represent a generational shift in philosophies.

THE PURPOSES OF PETE ACCORDING TO PETEs

The National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) identify five competency aims that PETEs should be aware of and use in their education of the PE student. These are, “subject

competency”, “didactical competency”, “social competency”, “adaptive and development competency”, and “professional ethics competency”. The themes emerging in the PETEs responses to questions about the aims and purposes of PETE can be mapped onto these five competency aims, and I will therefore use them to structure this section.

When talking to the PETEs about the five competency aims was, it was striking that just one of the 15 PETEs mentioned these aims without me having to ask them directly. Many of the others I had to help by telling them what was meant by the different competency aims. Indeed, a few of the PETEs appeared to avoid talking to me about issues in the National and Local curricula. In other words, virtually all the PETEs did not explicitly talk about the five competency aims, but rather spoke implicitly and indirectly about some of the aims when asked about the aims and purposes of PETE in general²⁴. However, before considering the five competency aims, this section will report how the PETEs’ viewed pedagogy on the basis that knowledge about pedagogy is described in the National curricula as a combining component in teacher education (UFD, 2003a, b, c). In other words, knowledge and understanding of pedagogy is viewed as a fundamental skill in which the PE students need to achieve results during the education together with (and in order to get) insight and knowledge of the five competency aims. Hence, it is interesting to shed light on how the PETEs viewed pedagogy, given that it is their responsibility to develop this aspect of the students’ knowledge.

Pedagogy in PETE

According to the National curriculum (UFD, 2003b), “pedagogy is a multiple subject which includes parts like history of ideas, didactic, philosophy, psychology, and sociology. The subject is a part of a profession formation and a combining component in

²⁴ So although I have located their comments within the different competency aims in this next section, the PETEs themselves did not do so.

the education. Through pedagogy the students shall gain knowledge about their teaching role, learning, and pupils so that they can develop good learning environment within PE and sport subjects” (p. 19) [my translation].

In spite of the above comments, some of the PETEs evidently found it difficult to talk about pedagogy, in the sense that they typically had little to say on the topic. In response to questions regarding their interpretations of pedagogy Jonas, for example, answered “What shall I say?” On several occasions I had to rephrase the question in order to elicit an answer.

The overall impression from this study is that many of the PETEs viewed pedagogy as “closely linked to subject didactics ... and directly linked to teaching methods” (Jonas). In Norway, subject didactics refers to “questions that develop when the subjects, pedagogy and school practice meets” (UFD, 2003b, p. 23). In this study, however, the PETEs took the term to mean teaching skills and teaching methods. Martin, for example, spoke for many when he commented that “I really see the connection between pedagogy and subject didactics. ... But I do see subject didactics as the most central”. Knowing that the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) defines pedagogy as a multiple subject which includes history of ideas, didactic, philosophy, psychology and sociology, the PETEs in this study tended towards a more narrow interpretation of pedagogy which only included one part of the National curricula definition of pedagogy, namely didactics (ibid).

Only a few of the PETEs described pedagogy as a (highly) theoretical subject with the aim of understanding the complexity of teaching, in the terms outlined in the National curricula (ibid). One who did so was John: “I look at pedagogy as an inter-disciplinary discipline or multi-disciplinary discipline with roots in philosophy, psychology and sociology. Pedagogy is to understand the complexity in teaching”. John was one of very few that expressed a view of pedagogy similar to the definition in the National curricula

(ibid). He was also one of few who did not mention subject competency or didactical competency as the two most important competencies to achieve in teacher education when talking about the five competency aims:

I think it is difficult to say that one [competency aim] is be more important than the others. They all fit together in my world, but maybe that of adaptive and development competency. If you [as a teacher] get very static, it is difficult to take into consideration all the changes that happen in society.

Similar to the study by Rovegno (2003), who indicated that teachers' knowledge tend to be practical and action-orientated, the majority of the PETEs in this study also viewed PE as a highly practical subject. Many of the PETEs talked about the need of making pedagogy practical in order to make the students see the need for this kind of knowledge. Kari, for example, commented:

I am very aware that pedagogy has to be something the students see as useful, that it is not only theory surfing above us that we learn about Piaget and Vygotsky without combining it to practice. That is central for me in my teaching and I try to relate pedagogy to practice.

Kari was typical of many PETEs who viewed pedagogy as a theoretical element that often appeared (to both the PETEs as well as the students) as quite separate from, and often irrelevant to, the practice of PE, and therefore to the students' professional socialization.

Nevertheless two of the PETEs talked about how their own experiences of studying sports (and sport psychology, in particular) at undergraduate level had influenced what and how they taught in relation to pedagogy. This quotation from Thomas is illustrative:

I am of course coloured by my sport background. I teach pedagogy at the sport study here at Nord UC. And I do of course have a kind of pedagogical psychology as a basis of my understanding. It is about motivation, group inclusion, communication, and such things.

In other words, and consistent with what Rovegno (2003) referred to as teachers' personal knowledge construction, it seemed that the PETEs' perception of pedagogy had been significantly and substantially influenced by their sporting habituses and prior experiences and that these were being reinforced rather than challenged by their experiences of teaching pedagogy in PETE. This tendency to fall back on what they knew and what they had become accustomed to through their own sports, PE and teaching experiences appeared quite common among the PETEs in this study. Taken together, it appears to be a marked contrast between the "official" (UFD, 2003a, b, c) and theoretical (academic) interpretations of pedagogy and the common-sense views the PETEs had on pedagogy.

As mentioned, some of the PETEs appeared "uncomfortable" talking about pedagogy during the interviews and one reason for this may have to do with the fact that pedagogical discussions among the PETEs and within the Sport Institute was something that rarely happened:

I guess it [pedagogy] is discussed ad hoc in small groups. But I can't recall that we have ever sat down and discussed pedagogy in a meeting or a large group. ... I guess it happens, but not in an organized form. (Knut)

Similar to findings from other studies on Norwegian PETE (Dowling, 2006) and Swedish PETE (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002), virtually all of the PETEs commented that there were no formal discussions about pedagogy at the Institute, although informal discussions could occur; they tended to do so incidentally. Nevertheless, where these informal discussions did occur, they were said to be more related to the practical aspects of teaching in a manner consistent with the weaker sense of reflexivity (Williams, 1993). Fredrik, for example, commented: “We do not have discussions on an abstract level related to pedagogy. We have had many discussions on how to solve the lessons in the best way, but not according to the fundamentals that lies beneath”.

John, however, mentioned, that the new leadership had the intentions to bring pedagogical discussions to the forefront, but that those intentions had not yet been fulfilled: “I know that this was one of the things, having an open debate about pedagogy, Gunnar wanted to focus on when he started as Institute Leader. But we have not had such discussions yet”. In the interview with Gunnar, he, however, pointed at two things, first that the responsibility for subject issues was placed on the Study Leaders “when it comes to subject issues, the Study Leader for each education is responsible”, (which begs the question why John, as Study Leader for PETE at Nord UC, had not used his position to facilitate discussions about pedagogy among the PETEs at the Sport Institute). Secondly, Gunnar took a view that subject or pedagogical discussions were something the PETEs ought to do and be responsible for on their own initiative:

This is actually a characteristic of academics, I think. They always push the responsibility upwards ... I do not agree that there are only a few pedagogical discussion at the Institute. The whole teaching plan is a pedagogical discussion. All meetings facilitated by the Study Leader are pedagogical discussion ... They have to contribute themselves ... Of course, the leadership also has to contribute to pedagogical discussions and in my experience, we are doing that. But it is not the responsibility of the leadership only.

In this regard, when analyzing the interviews, it was apparent that the PETEs perceived a heavy work load as a part of their everyday life, and this was often offered as a justification for giving other more prominent tasks (such as teaching) priority over, for example, facilitating pedagogical discussions.

In addition to the lack of pedagogical discussions among the PETEs and at the Institute, the PETEs also seemed to have little knowledge of their colleagues' "pedagogical standpoints", that is to say, how their colleagues viewed or defined pedagogy. Tom for example, answered in the following manner to a question about his knowledge of his colleagues' pedagogical standpoint: "Colleagues' pedagogical standpoint? I am not sure what you are thinking of", while Knut answered: "We are many working here, so it is hard to say anything about that". This lack of knowledge appears likely to be related to the small amount of formal discussions regarding pedagogy previously mentioned. It is also explainable in terms of the rarity of peer teaching. Teaching for the PETEs seemed to be a relatively isolated activity and therefore provided them with little insight into colleagues' teaching and pedagogical views, and there was little requirement for PETEs to compare and contrast potentially competing views and practices: as Harald responded to the question about his knowledge of colleagues' pedagogical standpoint: "It is hard to say because I have not taken part in my colleague's lessons". It seems reasonable to assume therefore, that they have little awareness of their colleague practices as well. That said, a few of the PETEs observed that they, in fact, had undertaken peer teaching and these experiences had given them insight into how colleagues were thinking and teaching, Linda, for example, said:

I have worked together with people that are very interested in methodology and didactics, like I am, especially the ones at kinder-garden education and general teacher education. But I have experienced colleagues that are not interested in this at all.

In other words, it seemed as if knowledge of colleagues' pedagogical practices were serendipitous, as exemplified in this comment from Jonas; "I think I share the views [of aims and purposes of PE and PETE] with the one's I work closely with", rather than knowledge that had emerged from professional discussions between the PETEs. There was also the clear impression that lack of knowledge about pedagogical standpoints among PETE colleagues were just one among many areas (like for example research projects and teaching practice) where the PETEs knew little about their peers.

The five competency aims

PETEs themselves only rarely, or rather, never, referred to the competency aims as such, when going through each of the five competency aims, I will introduce each of them together with the definitions in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), in order to provide a point of reference in the analysis of PETEs' comments.

Subject competency

In the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) subject competency is defined as: "skills, ability to express and have knowledge of PE, being conscious of sports as a culture and activity" [my translation] (UFD, 2003b, p. 12). When asked what they thought the aims and purposes of PETE were, the first thing the majority of the PETEs, unsurprisingly, said was "to educate good PE teachers" (Knut). By way of explaining what they meant by a "good PE teacher", they tended to refer to the several types of skills or expertise they considered to be required by PE teachers.

Similar to earlier research on PETEs in Norway (Dowling, 2006; Møller-Hansen, 2004), virtually all the PETEs at Nord UC talked about the importance of having a minimum of different sport skills in order to show, in the sense of demonstrating to pupils, "how to do

different activities” (Thomas). In response to the very first question (about the aims and purposes of PE), the PETEs suggested that PE teachers above all had to be good sport performers in order to demonstrate and teaching sport skills. At the same time they did not seem to view rules and theory as important. When we started to talk about the five competency aims in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), the majority of the PETEs focused mostly on subject competency; by which they meant the importance of having subject skills, or sport skills such as “being able to light a fire in friluftsliv” (John), and “learn about skiing both in practice and theoretically” (Knut). It seems that the PETEs viewed being a good PE teacher as being professionally competent, in other words, having subject content knowledge, which was predominantly equated with being able to teach sport skills. Although the PETEs described subject competence in accordance with the National curricula (ibid) – in terms, for example, of the students developing skills and knowledge within different physical and sporting activities in PE – none of the PETEs related subject competence to being conscious about *sports as a cultural activity*, as the National curriculum suggests they do. Indeed, some of the PETEs in the study, explicitly, and others, implicitly, seemed to be suggesting that *the* fundamental purpose of PE is to introduce youngsters to, and teach them, the necessary skills in various core activities (physical and sporting) including friluftsliv and dance. Tom, for example, said: “Subject competency is, if not the most central purpose, very important. Teachers without the sufficient subject competency will have difficulties when teaching the different activities that PE is supposed to teach pupils”.

It is interesting to note that when highlighting what they viewed as the central importance of subject knowledge, the PETEs tended to interpret this as practical sport skills, rather than knowledge of underpinning theory, strategy, or rules (even though a few did mention this explicitly, like for example Knut’s quotation above).

The emphasis PETE at Nord UC placed on the students' acquiring good sport skills (subject competency) was also highlighted by the focus on skill tests in the different sport disciplines in PETE²⁵:

In the period focusing on skills and practicing different dances, I teach them new dances relatively fast. ... That is the aim with the skill test. They are supposed to perform a number of dances at the end of the period. (Heidi)

The student interviews also confirmed that there was a focus on skill tests in PETE: "we have to pass the skill tests ... I think that are ok, and it is very important" (female student, third-year). There is reason to believe that such tests reinforce the tendency to view the aim of PE as enhancing pupils' performance of sport skills. Almost none of the PETEs in this study questioned the aims of skill tests and seemed to take-for-granted that such tests were an important part of PETE and a way to legitimate and value the practical nature of the subject.

Didactical competency

In the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) didactical competency is defined as "the ability to form the basis for pupils to learn how to learn, so that they can develop their own characters and make meaningful contributions to society. It is also important for the teacher to be able to analyze the backgrounds and the needs of children and adolescents, select and explain learning content, working methods, use of teaching aids and forms of assessment, and prepare individual learning plans" (Regjeringen, 2011a, p. 2).

²⁵ According to the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC, skill tests were only performed within bachelor in PE and sports. There were no skill tests in the 30 credit PE programme. (The 60 credit practical and didactical education in PE did not have Local curriculum, but I did not get the impression that skill tests were a part of this programme).

Despite the tendency of the PETEs to equate good PE teaching with the teaching of sport skills, and “good PETE” as ensuring that newly-qualified PE teachers are, indeed, capable of teaching sport skills, virtually all the PETEs also talked about the need for PE teachers to be able to combine this ability to demonstrate sport skills with the need for having good general didactical skills. Martin, for example spoke for many when he commented:

By “good PE teacher” I think of teachers who are solid when it comes to the subject of PE, teachers who have didactics or PE didactics as a basis for what they do. They must be able to interpret the curriculum and master various teaching [styles]. I think it is important also to have a certain number of sport skills when you are a PE teacher besides having didactical knowledge.

It was apparent among the PETEs that what they referred to as didactical competency was viewed as consisting of two core abilities: the ability to *facilitate activities* in PE and to provide a *variety of activities* and *teaching styles*. This perspective was illustrated by Kari: “I focus on how to develop different ball games and techniques, but also how to teach others, so this is where the didactic part comes in”. However, the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) claims didactical competency also include knowledge of and ability to analyze curricula, but few of the PETEs (besides Martin) referred to didactical competency as including skills of how to analyze curricula.

The PE students strengthened the impression given by the PETEs that the focus within PETE had been mainly on subject and didactical competency rather than on all the five competency aims. Some female students from the first-year bachelor in PE and sports, for example, said “we have focused on subject competency”, and “we have obtained quite some didactical competency”. In the same manner as the PETEs, the PE students also pointed to the importance of combining sport skills and didactical skills in order to become a good PE teacher: “we feel they fit together [subject and didactical

competency]. It is important to have both these subjects” (female student, second-year). In other words, as with the PETEs, the students (also) explicitly linked the two, the subject and the didactical, together. But even if the majority of the PETEs focused on the ability for future PE teachers to have good didactical skills, some of the PE students actually mentioned that one PE teacher educator never considered didactical competency in the practical lessons in ball games: “He never talks about didactics or how to teach [the activity] in school. ... I sometimes get the impression we are supposed to become coaches” (female student, second-year). But the students considered this PE teacher educator to be quite different from his colleagues: “He is very different. He stands out from the rest” (male student, second-year). In other words, it seems that the vast majority of the PETEs implement didactical competency as a part of their teaching core activities (physical and sporting), including friluftsliv and dance and as such implement the focus on didactical competency into their teaching within PETE.

Social competency

Social competency is defined in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) as: “the ability to interact and communicate. The teacher shall be able to make provisions for satisfactory learning environments through social interaction with children and adolescents, be able to exercise care for individuals, and clearly function as the leader (Regjeringen, 2011a, p. 2).

In addition to mentioning sport skills and didactical skills as necessary expertise of PE teachers, some of the PETEs talked about the need for PE teachers to perform these skills in a broader context; in other words, besides being able to facilitate activities, PE teachers should consider the child not just as a young sport person, but also as a member of a wider (Norwegian) culture, and that PETEs have an important job to perform in order to develop this aspect of youngsters’ education. Kari for example said:

I don't think we are supposed to educate teachers who can just give instruction and organize activity, they ought to be able to see the pupils both in relationship to others and the need for adaptation, and also being able to reflect upon the possibility to develop the subject ... I feel the most important part is the reflective teacher who is able to see the whole picture.

In this vein, some of the PETEs' used the term "reflective" when talking about the pedagogical skills required by PE teachers. Some, similar to Kari, spoke of the need to be able to "see" each pupil, in the sense of meeting the need of each individual and being an inclusive pedagogue, in the sense of being able to facilitate teaching for all pupils through communication with children, and motivate the children for physical activity.

Some PETEs mentioned social competency as a superior and significant competence for future PE teachers. There were, however, some differences among the PETEs on how PETE could help students provide social competency. Many focused on the social aspects of PE: "When it comes to social competency, I think it is easier to encompass this in a practical study than in other studies, because the students relate to one another through activity" (Jonas). This view that the moral and social dimensions of youngsters' characters will develop merely as a consequence of taking part in PE was also found in Green's (2003) study of PE teachers. On the other hand, a few of the PETEs spoke about the difficulties of developing students' social competencies through PETE:

Yes, social competency together with didactics in everyday life is important as a PE teacher. And it is maybe the most difficult thing to achieve in teacher education. But then we have school practice, we focus much on this in practice. The social competency is maybe the most difficult one to get a hold on during teacher education. (John)

Whereas the PETEs appeared to find it relatively easy to identify what they meant by subject skills and didactic competencies, they found it far more difficult in relation to social competencies. In Jonas' view, similar to many of his colleagues, development of social competence was expected to occur simply because PE is a practical subject where the students have to relate to each other. There were no indications from the PETEs that they focused explicitly on developing the PE students' social competence in theory classes and practical sessions at university. John expected the school practice to take care of students' development of social competency, and all-in-all it seemed as if the PETEs did not see themselves as (especially) responsible for building social competency through PETE as the rather vague and implicit function school practice was assumed to fulfill in this regard.

Adaptive and development competency

The National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) define adaptive and development competency as teachers' ability to:

Be well disposed to change and innovative thinking as regards academic content and teaching methods in the subjects and in the professional approach to teaching. At the same time, they must know how to safeguard what is of value. Both when working on their own and when working in a team, teachers must be able to analyze and assess activity plans, curricula, working methods and organization of teaching. They must be able to view the development, learning and socialization of children and adolescents in relation to changes in society. This requires creativity and learning strategies that promote entrepreneurship, i.e. the ability to take initiatives to start new activities or enterprises. The teachers' work involves a need to plan and update knowledge on a daily basis (Regjeringen, 2011a, p. 3).

When asking the PETEs what was meant by adaptive and development competency the way in which the PETEs (especially the experienced ones) argued for considering

adaptive and development competency in their teaching, was by including their students into research projects. Ida, for example, said: “When it comes to adaptive and development competency, we try to involve students in our research to give them insight into how to gather data from children; this may help them get some thoughts about such things”. A few of my informants claimed that achieving the aim of adaptive and development competency was not something every teacher within PETE had to consider in their teaching, but something that should be taken care of by others within PETE: “Adaptive and development competency? That has more to do with research, they have project work scheduled in the third year. I am not so much involved in that” (Fredrik). It was interesting to note that it seemed as if Fredrik actually had never heard about adaptive and development competency and, rather than admit so, he placed the responsibility of addressing this aim with the students on his colleagues.

Taken together, it seemed as if the PETEs did not take responsibility for considering adaptive and development competency in their teaching, or, if they did, they had their personal interpretations of this competency. This becomes particularly clear when one considers the inconsistency of, for example, Ida's view on adaptive and development competency and how it is defined in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). It seemed that the implementation of adaptive and development competency into PETE was rather accidental and not part of a conscious attempt to fulfill the National curriculum (ibid), even though Ida, for example, hoped that by including the students in her research project she would help them develop this competency.

Professional ethics competency

The National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c,) define professional ethics competency as the teachers' ability:

To see the relations between general morals and ethics and the special requirements of the profession. Relations with children and adults may involve both the duty to disclose information and the duty of confidentiality. The teacher often encounters children in conflict and crisis, and this may result in ethical dilemmas. The teacher role confers power, and the teacher must administer this power in accordance with legislation, acknowledged basic values and children's right to equal treatment. The profession requires the exercise of discrimination and ethical considerations in the selection of learning materials and working methods. Ethical competence provides a basis for the teachers' professional development, and is necessary if the role is to be conducted with honesty, responsibility and humility (Regjeringen, 2011a, p. 3).

John, as some of the PETEs, indicated that school practice was an important element for helping the PE students develop the ability to teach the social competency aim, and equal amount of the PETEs said the same in relation to professional ethics competency; that this was something that ought to be taken care of in school practice:

Yes, work ethics is a part of subject didactic, and it is an important part of school practice. I don't think we focus much on work ethics in subjects here at PETE, but maybe we do in a way. I don't want to hear swearing in my class for example. (Jonas).

The idea that social competency and professional ethics competency was implemented in the PE students' school practice was implicitly confirmed by some of the PE students during the group interviews, as well. One female student (first-year), for example, said:

We have just had school practice and I feel we have covered professional ethics competency and maybe social competency. We have not focused on such things at campus [at Nord UC], but during school practice we have focused on such issues.

Jonas' comment was similar to Fredrik's regarding what professional ethics competency meant: "professional ethics competency has to do with own behaviour and how to treat members of a group". Both examples of what many of the PETEs referred to when talking about professional ethics competency, namely that work ethics involved teaching students good behaviour. Some of the PETEs said they used time during their own teaching to both achieve good behaviour among the students, but also to discuss what good behaviour is or ought to be. Linda was the only one who talked about work ethics to be something else than to focus on good behaviour. She reflected on work ethics also having to do with the PE teachers' security in their role as PE teachers:

To be secure in the subject so that they can argue for the subject in school, that they know why we have PE, what the aims and purposes of the subject are, that it is something more than getting sweat on your back, and have fun and play ball. With such a view you fall through if you come to discuss PE with a teacher in another subject that is valued higher in our society. (Linda)

Compared to what the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) required under professional ethics competency, Linda's view of this competency, together with the earlier quotations, are more likely to be labelled personal rather than corresponding to the National curricula (ibid). This tendency for the PETEs to possess personal rather than unified understandings of the competency aims in the National curricula (ibid) was common for virtually all of the PETEs at Nord UC. Indeed, the findings indicated that virtually all of PETEs did not know the competency aims in terms of how they were actually defined and interpreted in the National curricula (ibid).

PETE IN PRACTICE

Having explored the PETEs' (and to a lesser extent the PE students') views on the aims and purposes of PE and PETE in principle, this section will explore the practice of PETE

according to the PETEs and PE students. Among other things, I will explore the different roles the PETEs had and their views of these roles. I will start by looking into the PETEs' roles as teachers and researchers before considering other roles in their everyday working lives. This includes an examination of school practice in PETE and how the PETEs and PE students experienced school practice and the role of the PETEs. This section also looks at how the PETEs experience the PE students and how they thought they could influence the students during teacher education. Further, this section will describe how the PETEs experience their workload, before exploring how the PETEs view informal and formal meeting places in their everyday lives. Lastly, the section will look at how the PETEs view the status of PETE. Before looking closer into how the PETEs experience the different roles they inhabit, it is worth considering the different roles of a PE teacher educator usually²⁶ consists of are; 73 percent of time is devoted to *teaching*, 20 percent to *research* and 7 percent is taken up by *administration*. Those with a PhD, however, have larger proportion of their roles to spend on research. Their commitments are as follows: 53 percent teaching, 40 percent research and 7 percent administration. Those employed in a temporary capacity usually have 81 percent teaching, 12 percent occupational updating²⁷ and 7 percent administration.

PETEs and teaching

The PETEs at Nord UC were required to devote between 30 to 100 percent²⁸ to teaching in their job. The majority, however, reported between 50 to 70 percent teaching along with administration, research or occupational updating and other tasks, such as being

²⁶ Even though there are no formal guidelines saying how to divide the working hours for employees at university colleges in Norway, this way of dividing the different roles of University College's employees have been quite common in Norway lately.

²⁷ 'Occupational updating' is a part of the post everyone not having research as a part of their job get in order to read and be updated on the latest research and literature in the field.

²⁸ The ones reporting having 100 percent teaching as a part of their job was Heidi, who was temporary employed and not aware of that she had time for administration or subject renewal, and Fredrik who had a 120 percent post in total, and said he at least had 100 percent teaching.

Study Leader²⁹. Within these tasks, as Linda put it: “the main part of my job is to plan teaching, to teach, and then to evaluate the teaching I do”.

In principle, PETE is based on teaching both theoretical and practical subjects, and being a PE teacher educator, for many, consisted of teaching both practical activities such as ball games, skiing, dance, and friluftsliv and, at the same time, more theoretical subjects such as pedagogy, sociology and physiology. The majority of the PETEs in this study did indeed teach both practical activities and theory, while a few taught either theory alone or only practical subjects alone.

Teaching practical subjects in PETE

Discussing how they usually performed their teaching in practical subjects the PETEs tended to talk about using different teaching forms or approaches towards the students. Nevertheless, the majority reported that their teaching in practical subjects was quite strict in its form and sometimes according to a “coaching standard” in the sense that the teaching at PETE was supposed to meet the standards from the Norwegian Confederation of Sports in order to be credited as a sport coach in a specific sport such as alpine skiing. Fredrik, for instance, gave this comment: “In alpine it [the teaching methods] is quite strict. In alpine we have to relate to a coaching standard from the Norwegian ski association, because then you get the formal competence as a ski instructor”.

Another common feature of the practical subjects was that the process of teaching in PETE appeared very teacher-centred; in other words, the preferred style of many of the PETEs was a direct, formal and at the teacher-centred end of the teaching styles spectrum. Even though Jonas, for example, claimed that “in PETE I want to use different

²⁹ The Study Leader has an administrative role and is in charge of the different studies at the section. For example Study Leader in PETE is in charge of PETE, and Study Leader in Sports is in charge of the sport education at the Institute.

types of teaching methods”, the PETEs in this study seemed to rely upon the teacher-centred instructional style, the most commonly used teaching style among PE teachers as well (Byra, 2006): “My teaching in practical subjects is very teacher-centred, because I have some tips to give them (the students). I am well prepared and have the equipment ready when the students arrive and I steer the activities” (Alexander). The Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC claims that possible working methods within practical subjects are supposed to be problem-based learning, group related work, individual work, instruction, observation, and supervising students and pupils. Nevertheless, Alexander, as with many of the PETEs in this study, first and foremost used instruction as the most prominent teaching style when teaching practical subjects. Alexander also mentioned that at times he stood out as a supervisor more than a teacher:

The students also get tasks where they have to prepare and conduct lessons in for example handball. And then we have work-shops after the lesson where we discuss “how do you think this lesson was”, “what was good”, “what can be improved”, “what could be done differently”. We are supposed to look at the positive elements and then we can be more critical. My role is to be a supervisor, if I manage to keep my mouth shut.

The final sentence in this quotation suggests there is reason to ask if Alexander (among others) actually is a *teacher* rather than a *supervisor*. In this regard Jonas’ earlier comment regarding the use of various teaching methods in PETE, does suggest that some of the PETEs tried to be supervisors rather than teachers. Indeed, because he followed up by saying “not only use them [various teaching methods], but also discuss with the students what type of teaching this was, what methods we did use, how we otherwise can use these methods. Then we are into what we talked about earlier, student reflection”. Similar, Kari spoke about educating reflective PE teachers:

I don't think we are supposed to educate teachers who can just do instruction and organize activities; they ought to be able to see the pupils in relation to others and be able to reflect upon the possibility of developing the subject.

In other words the PETEs, to some degree, supervised the students in reflecting, but the reflection seemed to be on a medium level (Williams, 1993), or what Handal and Lauvås (1983) refers to as “reflection about practice level”, and only briefly on a strong level of reflection (Handal & Lauvås, 1983; Williams, 1993).

In this regard, the PETEs' perception of PETE appears to be a mixture of what they thought the students needed in practice and their own PE teaching and sporting habituses (acculturation). In other words, the PETEs' own PE, sports and teaching experiences seemed to have shaped their views on their roles as PETEs in the form of giving the students teaching *tips*. This represents a mixture of what Rovegno (2003) describe as two (out of four) conceptions of teachers' knowledge, namely teachers' knowledge as practical knowledge, that experiences from practice influence teachers' knowledge on what to do, and teachers' knowledge of personal knowledge, which “reflects an individual teacher's biography, values, knowledge, and experience in the school context” (Rovegno, 2003, p. 296).

The PE students also confirmed that their tutors' way of teaching was based on the PETEs' practical and personal knowledge: “we get a lot of tips [from the PETEs] on how to organize the pupils, how to get them to listen to us etcetera. Small tips we can use” (student 30 credits PE). In this regard, to underpin that the teaching of practical subjects in PETE at Nord UC were quite conventional and sport oriented, as identified in this study, it is useful to quote Gro, a former PE teacher educator at Nord UC who participated in the pilot study:

When I started working at Nord UC, I ended up teaching practical subjects as the other PETEs, even though I did not agree with the way they did it. I intended to present my views, but met little understanding. I found they focused too much on skills, on having the right skills, and for example teaching handball and volleyball as in conventional sports, instead of adapting them to the school context or, even, not having these ballgames at all, but rather take “ball” as a starting point and take it from there.

Further, to illustrate that PETEs at Nord UC tended to reflect at a weak or medium level, the following statement from Roger, who participated in the pilot interview, and who worked at Nord UC at the time this study was undertaken, is illustrative:

I am very critical of the way PE is taught in school and of our education of PE teachers at Nord UC. There are many reasons for that. First, I think it is easy just to adapt to the culture when you start working here [at Nord UC]. And then I think of this taken-for-granted assumption that PE and physical activity is good for everyone and always. I think our education had been far better if we dared to be critical. That would hopefully make us able to educate our students to be more critical and reflective when they start working ... I think we reproduce PE teachers as sport people [teachers], and if we do, PE teachers will not be able to “reach all pupils” as they are supposed to.

Teaching theoretical subjects in PETE

When discussing teaching in theory classes, many of the PETEs spoke about using different approaches to teaching, but with an overall emphasis on oral presentations and the use of PowerPoint. Kari, for example, said:

In theory classes I use oral presentations, PowerPoint and discussions. I want to discuss and relate the theories I teach to the real world, make it close to practice. I am very eager to engage the students this way and I am not so good at giving them tasks to work on so

that they can engage in their own development. I have something to work on here. I often talk too much.

This quotation illustrates two analytical points: one about the PETEs' overarching concern with the practical implications of theory, and another about the tendency of PETEs, in both theoretical and practical lessons, to rely upon relatively narrow teaching styles (in relation to the recommendations in the academic literature and in the National and Local curricula). This tendency to use forms of media (PowerPoint) that lead to direct styles of teaching, suggests that PETEs are heavily dependent on their own pre-defined knowledge of the field rather than using approaches that require more input from the students, which are more prominent in more student-centred pedagogical approaches (such as for example problem-based learning [Pettersen, 1997]) of the kind recommended in both the academic literature and the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b) and Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports.

The student interviews also confirmed the findings that oral presentations and the use of PowerPoint were the most commonly used teaching style in theory classes by the PETEs. In this regard one male student (third-year) commented: "almost everyone at the university uses PowerPoint, and stands in the classroom reading the PowerPoint. I think I can read the PowerPoint myself instead of the teacher reading them to me". That said, some of the PETEs indicated that besides using conventional oral presentations they also had seminars as part of their theoretical education:

We do have some seminars and I have done different approaches, sometimes the students have to prepare before class, sometimes they work during class, and sometimes they give presentations after class. There are many different ways of doing this and I look at it as a way to vary the teaching from ordinary lecturers. (Ida)

Nevertheless, it seemed that these seminars did not have a pedagogical foundation in the sense of pedagogical rationale or vision. They were more likely to be as Ida said, “Counterpart lessons” and as such perceived as a “break”, or a different approach to teaching than oral PowerPoint presentations, both for the students and the PETEs.

None of the PETEs had used alternative pedagogical approaches to their theory sessions. All seemed to revolve around oral PowerPoint presentations, while some used videos or stories as well, like Elisabeth, who said: “Yes, I often use PowerPoint, and I find it very important to make it more concrete using something from a film or reading from a book about school”. This point to what is mentioned earlier; namely, that the PETEs seemed to think that they had to relate theory to practice in order to engage the students. But the comments from the students, in other words the student’s criticisms towards the PETEs use of oral presentations and PowerPoint, may be an indication that the students actually did not think the PETEs related theory to practice in a way that engaged them sufficiently in the theoretical lessons.

The Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports states, for example, that in theoretical subjects like “subject didactics” the following teaching methods should be applied: field work, group work, studying literature, working seminars and oral presentations, and lectures. While in the subject “pedagogy” the students are supposed to apply different working methods and combinations of working methods, like for example individual work, group work, students in charge of group work, students being supervised by teachers or peer students, seminars, role play, and lectures. In other words, the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports highlights that PETEs are supposed to use various approaches when teaching theoretical subjects. Despite the fact that some of the PETEs said they provided seminars, the overall impression gained from both the PETEs and the PE students was that teaching in theoretical subjects first and foremost consisted of oral lectures using PowerPoint presentations. In other words, the PETEs tended for the most part to provide only *one* out of the many working methods the Local curriculum for

bachelor in PE and sports claimed they were supposed to use when teaching theoretical aspects in PETE.

Real life experience

To be able to teach PE students in both theory classes and practical activities (sports, dance, and friluftsliv), many of the PETEs (especially those who had previously been PE teachers in school) emphasized previous experience of being a PE teacher in school as an important, even necessary, attribute to be a good PE teacher educator. Martin, for example, stated:

As a PE teacher educator I think it is important to have school experience. One thing is "to think", "to do" is something completely different. My hopes were that we should have been forced to teach in school every fifth year. They talked about that.

Kari was another of the many of the PETEs (with school experience) who explicitly commented that her "previous experience as a PE teacher is of importance in my job as a PE teacher educator".

At the same time a few of the PETEs took the view, similar to that in Annerstedt and Bergendahl's (2002) study on PETE in Sweden, that the trend towards requiring PETEs to possess higher degrees and even doctorates was not necessarily beneficial to PETE, and certainly not in relation to recent and relevant experience of teaching PE in schools:

I think it is important for our Institute to have a balance of people with a PhD and the ones with school experience ... If you are going to be a PE teacher educator, you ought to have experienced the real world. (Martin)

PETEs and research

In Norway, generally, including Nord UC, there is an expectation that besides teaching PETEs should actively do research as a part of their job. However, the degree to which the PETEs in this study engaged in research, varied. Out of the 15 PETEs, 10 of them said they had between 20 to 30 percent of their jobs scheduled for research, and 10 said they were involved in research projects at the time of the interviews. The two PETEs that had a PhD had between 40 and 50 percent research in their post and they both claimed to be research active. The ones not having research time were the ones employed on a temporary contract, the Study Leader of PETE and Linda with permanent employment who unlike the others with a permanent employment only had “occupational updating”, administration and then teaching. Linda informed me that the rules had been changed recently with regard to how to get research as part of your post:

Earlier everyone with a permanent position got research, but the temporarily employed were not automatically offered time for research. But now the permanent employees also have to apply. You don't get research automatically even if you are permanently employed. And the last new thing now is that we will not get what is called occupational updating either. As a trial project, they are going to shut it down for two years. So now we are just supposed to teach or do research, the ones that get any research at all in the hard battle for research funds.

After talking to the Research Coordinator at the Sport Institute at Nord UC he confirmed that the withdrawal of the occupational updating would not be prolonged. In other words, everyone not having research in their post was supposed to have occupational updating as part of their job in the future. An interesting observation, however, was that the Institute Leader said that occupational updating never had been withdrawn: “Everyone has occupational updating, and I have never taken occupational updating out of their post, it just a matter of how you spend your time”. In other words, there seemed to be a mismatch in the way the PETEs and the Institute Leader experienced the situation. What

the Research Coordinator also confirmed, and in accordance with what Linda said, was that everyone with permanent employment had to apply for research time if they wanted to do research. But that requirement did not include the ones with a PhD, because, as Mari said “If you have a PhD, you automatically get 40 percent research” in your post. But the ones with a PhD had to apply for it if they wanted to extend their research time. The two with a PhD noted that one of the things expected of them was to “produce research on behalf of Nord UC” (Harald). Nevertheless, a noteworthy finding in this study was that even though the majority of the PETEs had research as a part of their post, research was not something many of them spoke highly of or devoted much effort to. Some of the PETEs actually talked about research being a “balancing item” in their everyday lives as PETEs. Alexander put it like this:

Today I have 20 percent for research, which becomes a balancing item because I prioritize teaching and working with the students ... I am always behind, and if it [research] collides with student related work, the student related work goes first. That’s how I have done it, but I think this is quite common among those who have a small part for research in their post ... The research I have done, I do in my leisure time at night and in vacations.

Looking into the publication list for the Sport Institute (given to me by the Research Coordinator) between the years 2003 and 2008, it was noticeable that Alexander was not registered with any publications (neither peer-reviewed articles nor local publications at Nord UC). In other words, it did not seem that the research he (and for that matter other PETEs) claimed to do, had led to any research outputs. In this regard, Alexander was typical of the majority of the PETEs in this study who maintained the view that teaching was more important than research in their everyday work. Indeed, the majority of the PETEs identified themselves as teachers, and only teachers, viewing research a secondary part of their job. When asked what part of the job she experienced most important, Elisabeth (who had 30 percent of her job devoted to research), like the majority, for

example claimed: “The part of the job where I am in contact with the students is absolutely the most important part”.

It was even more noteworthy that the two PETEs with a PhD (with 40-50 percent allocated for research) did not seem to view research as being of superior importance to teaching. Harald, for example, answered my question on how he experienced having 50/50 time scheduled for teaching and research, this way: “The teaching part is the most devoted one, but also the most exciting part of my job”.

Another interesting finding in relation to research, and one that underlines the observation that the PETEs possess identities closely linked to teaching, is that some of the PETEs highlighted that they personally thought the research topics the PETEs should engage in ought to be school-related in order to have value in PETE:

And the research we have done the latest years is interesting. And it is important, because we are able to involve the students. Studies that have no connection to students or school, have never been important for me. I am not the type of person sitting down and digging myself into theory and literature and think that is ok. (Tom)

That said, the study reveals that only a few of the PETEs were actually engaged in research projects that specifically involved PE or PETE. Martin, for example, together with Tom and Mari, organized a school practice project for the students at a local school. Martin described the research project like this: “The title is 'What does a practice project like this mean according to students development towards becoming PE teachers?' We relate this to daily physical activity at the school”. This indicates that where research was done at Nord UC, it tended to be oriented towards the practical element of reflection, or in other words, reflection on a weak or possible middle level (Williams, 1993).

The research topics the PETEs engaged in varied, and not many were PE related, one PETE for example worked on a project about physical activity and duration of life, while another was doing research on yoga. In other words, it seemed that the majority of the research topics the PETEs engaged in were based on personal interests rather than institutional strategy.

PETEs and administration

Besides teaching and research, virtually all the PETEs had administration as part of their job: “and then I have 7 percent administration like everyone else” (Martin). Only one PETE on a temporary employment contract did not have any time scheduled for administration. But the striking point was that the majority of the PETEs talked about the administrative part of their job as growing out of proportion to the time allocated to it. In other words, the PETEs claimed that the administrative tasks they had to fulfill in their job, was gradually expanding without being allocated additional time to fulfill all the increasing administrative demands. Linda spoke for many when she said the following: “At the same time there are more and more administrative tasks put on each PE teacher educator, everything from scheduling the timetable, organizing exams and many other things”. Linda explained this in terms of a growth of bureaucracy to the extent that it resulted in extra administrative responsibilities being cascaded down to the PETEs’ level: “The Study Leader gets more and more tasks as well, and they have to get rid of them and the PETEs’ have to do them”. She added that this was a growing trend:

I have noticed a big difference during my years in the university system, that the administration is increasing, but the resources to do all the administrative tasks do not increase. You can’t skip informing the students on Fronter³⁰. You can’t skip the administrative tasks that are expected of you according to exams and such. You just have to do it. Then there is little time left for occupational updating. (Linda)

³⁰ “Fronter” is a web tool where the PETEs can communicate with PE students, and the students can communicate with each other etc. All information from the PETEs to the students is allocated on Fronter.

Linda mentioned occupational updating in the quotation, and she referred to the 12 percent of the post given to the ones that do not have research in their post. But as the quotation suggests, the time for occupational updating was often used on things such as administrative tasks rather than occupational updating. In other words, the time supposed to help PETEs being up front within the subject, tended to be spent on handling the increasing administration tasks.

PETEs and other roles

Besides the teaching and research tasks, two of the PETEs had functions as Study Leaders in an approximately 35 percent post. One of them was the Study Leader for PETE (John), and the other for Sport studies (Thomas). They both talked about these positions as important, but at the same time demanding. John even highlighted one element that had impact on his personal career: “On the other hand, it is a shit-job according to my career. There are no possibilities to accumulate research time during the time being Study Leader, for example.” That said, John had decided not to have research as part of his job when being Study Leader, but rather taught because, as he pointed out, “I teach a lot ... It would be impossible for me to be a leader for someone [the students] I don’t know”. In other words, he argues that being close to the students to be very important in his position as Study Leader. The decision by John to teach in order to be close to the students, rather than to research, is one further illustration of the PETEs’ viewing teaching and student-related work as the most important aspect of their work.

School practice in PETE

Having reported the PETEs’ comments on PETE in practice, using the three main headings in their job descriptions, I will now turn to one particular aspect of PETE that emerged as a prominent theme in the interviews, namely school practice. As already highlighted, virtually all the PETEs focused on the need for future PE teachers to have good didactical knowledge in the sense of PE students being able to facilitate teaching,

among other things, and using various teaching and teaching styles. One way of enabling students to experience and develop their PE teaching in practice is exercise through school practice, which is an obligatory part of all PETE³¹. In this section I will report what the National curricula (UFD, 2003,a, b, c) say about school practice before comparing and contrasting the PETEs' views and experiences of school practice as part of PETE.

School practice as described in the National and Local PETE curricula

The National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) state that during school practice the students are supposed to meet the claims and challenges that one expects a teacher to experience in everyday life. Among other things, the students are supposed to try out their subject and didactical knowledge. The teacher education institution is required to facilitate didactical reflection through discussions between the students, the teacher educators and the mentor teachers on questions regarding experiences from school practice and different approaches towards knowledge and learning. After each school practice period the students are evaluated "passed" or "not passed".

The National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b) highlights that institutions together with mentor teachers should develop a plan for school practice based on the National curricula. Common to all the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) is that the plan for school practice must formalize the responsibilities the teacher educators, the students and the practice schools are expected to have for planning, carrying out and discussing experiences from school practice. In the bachelor in PE and sports, school practice has to be 12-14 weeks during the three-year degree (UFD, 2003b). In other words, presuming a one-year study is 40 weeks, 12 to 14 of the 120 weeks (or approximately 10% of the PETE as a whole) has to be dedicated to school practice. The 30 credits PE programme, which is a part of general teacher education (a four years

³¹ The only study in PETE where the students not necessarily get school practice in PE, is the 30 credits as a part of general teacher education.

study), has 20-22 weeks dedicated to school practice during the four years of teacher education (UFD, 2003a). In other words, assuming a one-year study amounts to 40 weeks, 20 to 22 of the 160 weeks (or approximately 13% of the teacher education) has to be dedicated to school practice. In the Local curriculum for teacher education – 30 credits PE, it says that the students taking 30 credits PE as the third year of their teacher education, have to follow the ordinary plan for school practice for teacher education (in other words 30 credits PE does not have a specific plan or responsibility for school practice, it is incorporated in the teacher education in general).

The students taking 30 credits PE as their fourth year in teacher education, have to write an essay (5-7 pages), supervised by a PE teacher educator, instead of school practice. The essay has to be related to the subject or be a didactical analysis of a teaching session in primary, secondary or high school. It is worth remembering that the National curriculum for general teacher education (UFD, 2003a) does not qualify for teaching in high school, hence it is interesting to note that the essay the Local curriculum for teacher education - 30 credits PE claim they can write, can be related to teaching in high school. In other words, students taking 30 credits PE as their fourth year in teacher education can, in principle, become PE teachers without having school practice in PE specifically. The third route to take to become a PE teacher, namely practical and didactical education, includes 12-14 weeks of school practice during this one-year study; in other words, presuming a one-year study is 40 weeks, 12 to 14 out of the 40 weeks (or approximately 33 % of practical and didactical education) must be dedicated to school practice.

School practice in PETE at Nord UC

In accordance with the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports, the PETEs said school practice in PETE at Nord UC was organized by placing the students together in “groups of 3 to 4 students” (Harald). They were attached to a practice school together

with their mentor-teacher and had a contact teacher³², one of the PETEs at the university. In addition, some of the PETEs noted that contact teachers, PE students, and mentor teachers were required to hold a meeting before the school practice: “I have been used as contact teacher and I guess they expect us to have a meeting with the practice school. Before practice we have a meeting both together with the students and also alone with the mentor teacher” (Kari).

John also noted that the Sport Institute organized a meeting at Nord UC for the whole group of mentor teachers and contact teachers before school practice:

At this meeting we go through everything that is important, which we repeat every year, about student suitability, expectation of students in practice and so forth. The contact teachers from Nord UC are also present at this meeting. I used to let one of the pedagogy teachers or subject didactic teachers talk about what they had been working on in class during autumn and spring semester, so that the mentor teachers would know something about what the students had been working on.

John also noted that school practice was supposed to be:

An integrated part of the education. If you have a practice school that thinks: “We are now going to have practice, the students are coming here and are going to do their teaching and get feedback”, then they are off track. Because they [the practice school] are supposed to shed light on tasks in practice the same way we shed light on the practice in our theory classes. Practice schools are also supposed to develop an understanding of tasks the students have at campus, especially within pedagogy and subject didactics.

³² Contact teacher is the name of the role for PETEs have in school practice.

In John's view, school practice was supposed to compliment the education the students received at Nord UC, and was not supposed to be something "separate" or something in "addition to" the rest of teacher education. In other words, it was not supposed to be just a way for students to practice different PE activities and teaching styles with "real pupils". John's description of school practice corresponded to the stated intentions in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). In other words, the National curricula (ibid) indicate that the students, contact teachers, and mentor teachers are supposed to discuss knowledge and learning at, at least, a medium level of reflexivity (see, Williams, 1993). Nevertheless, it was noteworthy that many of the PETEs in this study expressed school practice to be very different from how John and the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) claimed school practice to be. The overall impression given from many was that they talked about school practice in terms of: "much of the responsibility [of school practice] is put on the mentor teachers" (Fredrik). In this regards, Tom commented this:

And the way we organize practice is so traditional – it is like it was 40 years ago when I was educated to be a teacher ... I experience much the same now as then. You [the student] get a mentor teacher, you have to be there and teach the classes, which are more or less decided by the mentor teacher. Then you teach and the other students watch and maybe they have a comment after class, but mostly they don't. Then there is supervision or a conversation with the mentor teacher about what was good and what to improve. Always traditional PE inside the gymnasium and it has been like this for forty years.

Some of the students also mentioned that observation was something they did a lot of during school practice:

Well, there is a lot of observation, but you don't have much teaching yourself. You are lucky if you have a class or two during a day. The rest of the time all you do is observing. It is not like being a teacher, like the way it is in reality. In a real situation you don't have so much spare time. (Male student, third-year)

All-in-all, school practice in PE at Nord UC was described by the majority of the PETEs and the students to be exactly what John said school practice was *not* supposed to be, namely, that PE students teach PE in the gymnasium and get feedback (from the mentor teacher and peer students). Put another way, it seemed that school practice was something happening between the student and the mentor teacher, and largely excluded the university tutor. In addition, cooperation with the university was not only relatively minimal but was viewed by the PETEs, and to some extent the PE students themselves, as relatively unimportant. The impression of the PETEs having a small role during school practice was also confirmed through the interviews with the students, where some actually said “We did not have a contact teacher” (male student, third-year), while others, similar to Tom’s comment, gave the impression that contact teacher “came, said this is good, and left” (female student, second-year).

A few of the PETEs also mentioned a need for improvement in the organization of school practice, like Martin who commented:

As a PE teacher educator I would like a more extensive co-operation between mentor teachers and practice schools in general. I think we ought to get more practice schools and not only practice in PE, to enable the students to get insight into everyday life in school. I think both parts would benefit from closer cooperation. But it is a question of resources, of course.

Martin’s demand that students ought to get more insight into everyday life in school is something the National curricula (2003a, b, c) already claims the students are supposed to achieve during practice: “In school practice, the students meet the claims and challenges that one expect a teacher to experience in everyday life” [my translation] (UFD, 2003b, p. 13). But it seemed that Martin did not think that the PE students obtained these real life experiences the way school practice was organized. He considered that linking PE students to practice schools instead of just having school practice in PE, was the way for

students to get a better understanding of the reality in school. Elisabeth also spoke about alternative ways to organize practice:

I do find it best to have practice continuously over some weeks, to have one day school practice once a week, for instance, and then be able to relate the experiences from practice to the subjects at university. That is one way of doing it, like we did in outdoor education. But I see it is easier to organize this in general teacher education because the practice schools are close to Campus, in PE the practice schools are spread out in a larger district.

The role of being a contact teacher

Virtually all the PETEs in this study described being a contact teacher for (one or) several student groups during school practice as a part of their job description. In the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports, the role of the contact teachers is referred to as follows:

Each student group gets a contact teacher that is a PE teacher educator at the university college. The contact teacher shall supervise the students in subject matters, and be the link between the mentor school and the university college. The contact teacher shall visit one time during each practice period. During each visit the contact teachers shall take part in supervision before teaching, observe the students teaching PE and take part in supervision after class (p.40) [my translation].

Findings from this study reveal that, in practice, the PETEs' role as contact teachers was described by many the way Knut expressed it:

We visit one or two schools each year. Sometimes we have a short conversation before class and then we look at the students when teaching. Hopefully, we can observe all the students, but sometimes we don't have the opportunity to watch them all. And then we have a conversation about the teaching session afterwards.

In other words, what the PETEs claimed they did as contact teachers did correspond with what The Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord CU say in relation to visiting students and taking part in supervision before and after class. It was noteworthy, though, that the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports did not claim that the contact teacher should be able to observe all the students when they visited during school practice, it only stipulated one visit per group. Even if the PETEs did not comment on this in the interviews, the PE students, as mentioned above, did talk about the limited visits they had from their contact teachers. The point to be made is, in the worst case, that PE students could go through all school practice periods without being observed by a contact teacher from Nord UC. Further and comparing the views of the PETEs with the PE students, the PE students told different stories. Several PE students had, for example, experienced contact teachers not showing up during practice or just briefly stopping by. A female third-year student said:

Not to say anything bad about the contact teacher at Nord UC, but he visited us one day, the last day of the practice period. Then he came one hour and observed, one hour and nothing more. It was a very poor support. We are also supposed to get feedback from the contact teacher, to get a wider perspective on how we are.

As this student noted, the students were supposed to get feedback from the contact teacher during practice in terms of the requirements in the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports. In other words, statements from several students, confirmed that the contact teachers had not followed the intentions in the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports. For example, this third-year male student said: "we did not have a contact

teacher at all ... I think they said it was lack of time and economic reasons”. Similarly a female second-year student commented: “he came [the contact teacher] and said this is good, and he went”. Thus, it appears that, at least some of the PETEs at Nord UC had not achieved an important aspect of the contract between the students and the university, insofar as the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports states that the contact teacher shall supervise the students on subject matters, visit one time during school practice and take part in supervision before teaching, observe the students teaching, and take part in supervision after class.

One interesting finding that may explain some of the PE students’ experiences, was that some of the PETEs actually questioned their role as contact teachers. Some even said they used too much time or resources on being a contact teacher, Thomas for example expressed it this way: ”why this need for contact teachers, when we hire experts from school? As a contact teacher I sometimes feel I just travel around, drink coffee, and chat for some hours before driving back home, having spent a whole day’s work on this”. Ida also expressed a similar view to Thomas:

I find this s an unnecessary way to spend my time. In the beginning I thought it was all right to visit different schools, getting to know them. But now I have been here for so many years, and I have been around and I know the mentor teachers we use. We are getting some new ones, but they are usually someone that have been students here or that we know anyway. So I think visiting schools – I do think the mentor teachers like us visiting ... But I think we spend resources on these visits that could have been spent on other things.

While some of the PETEs, and especially those without school experience, expressed the view (like Thomas and Ida) that being a contact teacher was not their highest priority (or favorite) part of their job, Linda was one of very few expressing a wish for closer cooperation with mentor teachers and mentor schools:

For my own sake it would be exciting, because when they have practice in High School, a school I am not familiar with, it would be interesting to cooperate more with the mentor teachers, because that could impact my teaching at the university. I could get better knowledge, which could enable me to help the students in a better way ... For the PETEs with little school background, it is important to have a high degree of contact with mentor teachers and schools. Earlier, we had to have this contact because we evaluated the “practice book” together with the mentor teacher ... But that has stopped. Now the evaluation of the practice book is the mentor teachers’ job.

In other words, Linda wanted a closer relationship with the mentor teachers in order to develop as a pedagogue both on a personal and theoretical level. As one of very few expressing a wish for closer contact with mentor teachers, Linda’s view contrasted with the majority of the PETEs, who gave an impression of being happy with the distinct and separate roles of mentor teachers and contact teacher that currently existed. Tom, like Linda, was one of the few PETEs who said they wanted closer relationships with the mentor teachers. While Linda focused on wanting to develop as a pedagogue, Tom pointed to the fact that the contact teachers at Nord UC no longer were part of the evaluation process in practice:

Some years ago we included in the Local curriculum a requirement that the contact teachers’ should take part in the evaluation of the students in practice. If you read the National curriculum now, you will see that it still maintains that PETEs’ are supposed to take part in that process. But everything is gone now. We are only supposed to stop by, say “hi”, and go home.

While the National curriculum (UFD, 2003b) does not claim that the PETEs are supposed to take part in the evaluation process during school practice, the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC actually said that: “the grade in practice is passed/not passed and is given by the mentor teacher in consultation with the contact

teacher [my translation]. In other words, when Tom said they as PETEs were not supposed to take part in the evaluation process of students in school practice, this did not correspond with the prevailing document for PETE at Nord UC. It was therefore necessary to ask what really happened when students were evaluated in practice; was it what Tom claimed was happening, that the PETEs did not take part in the evaluation process? The responses from other PETEs suggested that Tom was correct when he said that the PETEs did not participate in the evaluation of the students during school practice, and that the PETEs were only included in the evaluation process if there was any doubt about a student passing. Jonas, for example, expressed it this way: “if everyone in the group [the students] manages ok, there is no much contact with the contact teacher, but if there are problems, we will be asked to participate in the process”. In other words, it seemed that PETE did not fulfill the demands in the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports which explicitly said contact teacher were supposed to take part in the evaluation of the students during school practice.

Taken together, even though the National and Local curricula for PE and sports claims there is supposed to be close cooperation between mentor teachers, contact teachers, and students, this study has noted that most of the PETEs seemed happy with what I have identified as quite distinct and separate roles between contact teachers, mentor schools, and students in school practice. The PETEs seemed to be little involved in school practice, and school practice did not function in line with the intention in the National and Local curricula. Despite this observation, however, it was interesting to note that many, if not the majority, of the PETEs gave the impression of viewing school practice as one of the most important elements of PETE. Thomas, for example seemed happy with the existing situation:

From my point of view it seems like it works well. We hire skilled people in primary and upper secondary school, and the students take part in facilitated arrangements ... Then I get a group, the name of the mentor teacher, and the students, and I am supposed to have contact with them. It is quite unproblematic.

The element the PETEs mostly focused on was that school practice would give real life experience. Knut spoke for the majority when he said: "I experience school practice as educational. They are going to be PE teachers so it is important that they get the exercise". Analytically speaking, Knut presumably meant "educational" in the sense of experiencing the "lived reality" of being a PE teacher, in terms of gaining workplace socialization training to become a teacher, rather than in the more philosophical sense of cognitive knowledge. In other words, he as with many of the PETEs, viewed school practice as very important because it introduced the students to the real world of teaching.

This strong belief in the positive value of school practice among the PETEs corresponded with how the PE students responded in this study, and similar to findings from other studies (Velija et al., 2008), that school practice was the part of the education where they really learned about the important aspects of becoming PE teachers. This was expressed explicitly by a female second-year student: "I don't feel we have learnt much at university, but when we went to school practice that's when we learnt something. That's when we have developed". In this regard, it seemed that the PE students experienced school practice and the mentor teachers to be more influential on their development towards becoming PE teachers than the education at Nord UC. These indications, that the PE students rely more on school practice and mentor teachers than their university tutors, leads to obvious questions regarding how the university tutors viewed the PE students and how they thought they were able to influence the students.

PETEs' perceptions of PE students

The most important people in the PETEs everyday life, in the sense that the PETEs would not have a job without them, are the PE students. The following section looks into how the PETEs viewed the PE students and also how the PETEs experienced their influence on the PE students through teacher education, alongside the views of the PE students.

Before looking into this, it is worth commenting that the PETEs believed they had good relationships with their students and, as such, had positive relationships with the student groups. But even though the majority of the PETEs described having an “overall good relationship” (Thomas) with the students, something many of the PE students also confirmed: “The teachers are always open to questions at any time if I have any” (female student, first-year), I formed the impression that the PETEs positive relationship to the students had more to do with PETEs being helpful with smaller subject matters or smaller administrative challenges in the students everyday lives, than to broader contextual understandings, or interdependent understandings, of “what does it mean to be students in 2010”, and “what does a university expects of their students” or in other words “the role of PETE”.

PE students: a heterogeneous and homogenous group

Virtually all the PETEs viewed the PE students as a very heterogeneous group; that is to say, as a group with quite different backgrounds, interests, and attitudes to PE teaching and sport expertise. Thomas commented thus:

I experience the students as a very heterogenic group. They are different people, some are elite athletes and others are just interested in activity for children. And I guess you then might have different goals – to become a PE teacher in public school or to become sport teacher or coach at High School.

Gunnar commented on another element where the PE students differed markedly from each other:

The PE students are a complex group. They have different body-shapes, and I am sometimes surprised and question why some of them have chosen this study. Because I

mean you ought to practice what you preach. And some of the PE students are not “triggered” as much of physical activity as they ought to.

While Gunnar was the only one who commented explicitly on the body-shapes of the PE students, and that they ought to look and be healthy and sporty, and that they ought to have sporty lifestyles because of their future role as PE teachers and role models for youngsters, his views were consistent with the overall claim that the students were a heterogeneous group. At the same time, however, many of the PETEs expressed the view that all the students had one characteristic in common, in the form of a shared interest in sports: “The majority of them [the students] like physical activity and to exercise themselves” (Mari). In this regard, what PETEs’ perceive as the one shared characteristic of their students – namely, their love for sports – has in earlier research been found to be commonplace among PE students and PE teachers (Armour & Jones, 1998; Christensen, 2001; Dewar & Lawson, 1984; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; Næss, 1998; O’Bryant et al., 2000) as well as PETEs (Dowling, 2006; Larsson, 2009; Møller-Hansen, 2004). A noteworthy finding, however, was that the PETEs thought the students’ love of sports meant different things to different groups. In other words, that some love the competitive side of sports and being “best”, while other liked to be involved in non-competitive, recreational forms of physical activity.

Another common feature many of the PETEs perceived among the students was their apparent lack of interest in the theoretical aspects of PE: “Many are very good in sports, they are practical, and like being physically active themselves. But they are not so into theory and on average many are not so good in theory” (Knut). One of the PETEs indicated that she experienced the students as being “very traditional” – in the sense that they viewed PE as an essentially practical subject – and saw little relevance for theoretical aspects of PE. She added, “Some students, if you ask them a question, always answer from previous experience – from PE or coach experience – that that is the way it is supposed to be” (Kari). In other words, the PETEs experienced the PE students to draw

heavily on their “apprenticeship-of-observation” (Lortie, 1975) from school PE and sports, rather than on theoretical and evidence based knowledge about PE. In this regard, the views of the PETEs in the study appeared to corroborate the findings from a variety of studies (see, for example, Capel, 2005; Evans et al., 1996; Placek et al., 1995), which suggested that professional socialization (in the form of teacher education, for example) at North UC was likely to have little impact on the students’ largely established beliefs about the nature and purposes of PE. Nevertheless, and despite viewing the students as “a bit naïve” and without offering any justification for doing so, Kari still took the view that “they [the students] have the potential to develop and to critically evaluate their understandings”. In other words, the PETEs hoped they had an impact, or made a difference, on the students during PETE.

PETEs’ perception of a new reality for PE Students

Besides differentiating between those students who were top athletes and those who were just interested in physical activity, some PETEs drew a distinction on the basis of the students’ commitment and ambitions: “Oh, yes, they are very different. We have students that are very ambitious and who study a lot, and we also have students who work very little” (Ida). That said, many of the PETEs mentioned what they perceived as a new trend in recent years for nearly all the students to have part-time paid employment (beyond their teacher education programme) which had influenced their study-habits and ability to take part in the classes at campus:

Generally, I feel there are many students having work besides [their] studies, and many work a lot. Sometimes I feel that work has first priority while studies come second. When I think back to my own time as student only one or two of my peers had work in addition to studies. We did not work, because we were students. That was our job. It is not like that now. (Ida)

This view of the students as prioritizing part-time paid work over study was confirmed by many of the students as well: “I work a bit every Friday, Saturday and Sunday” (female student, second-year). The third-year bachelor students in particular said they worked a lot: “I feel I am working and earning money more than I go to university” (male student). Many of the students also said that they prioritized leaving campus and Solum city in order to go home (to parents) to meet friends and do competitive sports over studies, as exemplified by this comment from a first-year female bachelor student : “I go home to do sports and meet friends as soon as we have free time”. The interesting thing was that the PE students experienced the PETEs to be helpful in adjusting for example the timetable in PETE to enable them to do other things such as sports, paid work or going home on vacations: “if we ask to change things, it is never difficult to ask the teachers” (female student, first-year). Another female second-year student offered a more specific example:

To give you an example, when all the students planned to go home on vacation during winter-holiday, even though we do not have winter-holiday at university, but anyway, when the teacher realized everyone was going home, he cancelled the lessons we had in skiing that week.

A noteworthy finding in this regard was that the PETEs and the PE students seemed to have markedly differing views on who was responsible for “making” PETE a good education. Alongside the observation that the students said they worked because “We have to earn money” (male student, first-year), many of the students explained why they undertook paid work besides studying in terms of a lack of constraint in PETE. For example, a third-year female student commented “you have too much leisure time if you don’t work besides school”. A third-year male bachelor student added “it is too relaxed, way too relaxed being a PE student”. Many of the students spoke, in a similar manner, about the lack of pressure from the PETEs and the Institution on them as students:

You can get a bachelor and have three days off each week, and only be at school five hours a week. It lacks structure. My impression is that we can get a bachelor after one and a half or two years if you consider the number of lessons we have had at campus. We need schedules that are full, and they have to expect us to have something ready for presentation the next day that is evaluated. Doing such things would push us. (Male student, third-year)

The PETEs ability to influence the PE students

As previously noted, the PETEs viewed the role of PETE as educating good PE teachers and by “good”, virtually all were referring to good sporting skills (in the sense of performing activities) and didactical skills (in the sense of facilitating youngsters’ involvement in sports and physical activity). But how did the PETEs perpetuate this role? In other words, how did they think they could influence or help the students to become good PE teachers?

While expressing the view that PETE, as well as themselves as PETEs had a significant impact on the PETE students, Ida was typical of many of the PETEs in also implicitly acknowledging a degree of uncertainty about her (and their) roles: “We do have the power to influence the students, I really hope so. If not it would be quite sad”. It is hardly surprising that the PETEs thought they had power to influence the students, but actually it seemed more like they hoped they impacted on the students thoughts and behaviours, because the only evidence they seemed to have to confirm that they had impact on the students was their own impression of the situation. In this regard, a good deal of research has shown that PETE tends to have little impact on either PE students’ established beliefs about the nature and purposes of PE or even upon their practices (Capel, 2005; Evans et al., 1996; Placek et al., 1995). Nevertheless, none of the PETEs appeared to have read any research of this kind or reflected on this. Indeed, the following quotation from Ida illustrates the pertinence of the observation that PETE neither shakes nor stirs (Evans, et al., 1996) PE students’ beliefs and practices:

But I am sometimes surprised that students that have been pupils themselves in school and have experienced the ways things have been done, and then they come to us [PETE] and get some input. And then you see them in school practice and you see they don't do it the way we gave them input to do things, but they do it the way they experienced themselves in school. I really think what they have experienced earlier in school is heavily part of them.

Despite implicitly and explicitly acknowledging a disjuncture between what the PE students were taught regarding good practice in PE teaching and what they observed them doing on school practice, none of the PETEs reflected in much depth, if at all, on such questions as “why does what we do not work?” or “what can we do to make things work better?” Even though a few of the PETEs explicitly stated that PETE did not appear to impact on the students' way of thinking about PE or teaching PE, they largely stuck to their claims that PETE did indeed have an impact on the students: Linda, for example, when asked if she felt it was possible for her to impact on the students beliefs on PE, replied: “Yes, absolutely. And I try my very best”.

Martin mentioned one thing he experienced to be helpful for the students in developing into PE teachers, namely that the PETEs and the PE students used to have formal one-to-one discussions as part of PETE in relation to questions such as “why do I want to become a teacher”, and “how do I need to develop?” Martin felt that these conversations made the students more conscious about their choice of education and future work, while also enabling the PETEs to get to know the students better. He indicated, however, that these kind of one-to-one conversations between the PETEs and students were no longer part of the education programme because the Institute had fewer resources than earlier. In other words, if the Institute were to prioritize one-to-one conversations with all the PE students each year, they would have had to take time away from other theory lessons or practical activities, and according to Martin, the Institute had not prioritized like that.

Besides talking to the PETEs, I also asked the students how they thought PETE helped them in becoming future PE teachers, and the answers varied. Some said “not very much. It has been far from what I expected when I started” (male student, third-year). Others, however, like this female second-year student, said “we get a lot of knowledge when we have pedagogy and subject didactics and such. This is a kind of knowledge you don’t get just by living, you have to read, learn and study”. While another female second-year student followed up by saying; “Yes, knowledge both theoretically and practically, how to make lessons and make plans and such”. The answers from the student interviews seemed, on the one hand, to create an impression that many of the students did not feel that PETE had helped them on their way to becoming PE teachers while, on the other hand, the ones that felt PETE was valuable seemed to be referring most to the practical dimension in PETE, such as helping them to understand how to facilitate teaching and to a lesser extent theoretical knowledge. In other words, PETE seemed to have an impact on some of the students, especially in getting didactical skills and subject knowledge, while others actually did not feel the education had made any difference.

It was interesting to note that some of the students focused on administrative problems and lack of communication between the PETEs and the students as reasons why PETE had, in their view, failed. A male third-year student for example expressed his concern like this:

I did expect the leadership and the school to follow up much more. The follow up has been very poor. We think there are many things that don’t work the way it should. Things are being forgotten “Oh, we forgot that”. Much is not on track and that influences us.

So far, having dealt with how the PETEs experienced the different roles they had and what they implemented in these roles as well as, how they experienced the students and their ability to influence their students, and the PE students perspectives on these issues, the next section draws attention towards one theme running through all the different roles

of the PETEs (such as teaching, research, administrative tasks, school practice, and relationship with students) and something virtually all the PETEs expressed concern with; namely a heavy working load as a central aspect of their everyday life.

PETEs' perceptions on workload

Giving the PETEs an open question in the interviews on how they experienced their everyday working life at the Sport Institute at Nord UC, enabled many of the PETEs to talk about increasing demands as part of their roles. They spoke much, and at times emotionally, about how they experienced their everyday life. Indeed, it is worth noting that this part of the interview took much more time than anticipated when preparing the interview guide. In other words, the PETEs seemed to have a felt need to talk about these issues, and the interview with me seemed to be a good opportunity to do so.

Findings from this study indicated that the PETEs had experienced many organizational changes in PETE during the latest 10 to 15 years that had influenced their everyday lives. Like, for example, increasing administrative responsibilities (“there are many administrative things that come up” [Thomas]), how to cope as a professional (“the pressure is high both in teaching and to publish” [Mari]), less hours for teaching each subject (“I think we have so little time for teaching” [Martin]), and lack of time for professional discussions (“there is too little time for professional discussions” [Linda]).

The stories the PETEs told regarding working in the institution were quite uniform. Almost everyone indicated that organizational issues impacted on their everyday life in a way that that made it difficult to cope, and the term “heavy working load” was used by many of the PETEs independently. Indeed, the majority of the PETEs described heavy workload as the “normal situation” at the Institute. Thomas’ response was especially illustrative of the PETEs’ comments:

Well, the situation is under pressure because of the economy. I experience that the circumstances are tougher, and everyone has to work harder. And the ones who have been working here for a while experience the same, that they have tighter days at work now than 10 years ago. In my experience we are put in a position where they [the leadership] expect us be on top of the subjects, but at the same time we don't get the resources to do the job. It is in a way as if they [the leadership] know we are keen on doing our job, but then we have to work from eight to eight or eight to ten ... Yes, we work very long days in periods ... It is a bit early to feel tired when you are thirty and have worked for only two and a half years.

The Institute Leader confirmed that "it is hard work working in the university system", and was not surprised to hear that the PETEs expressed both teaching and administrative demands as impacting upon their experiences of heavy working loads.

Even though a few of the PETEs commented that they had calmer teaching periods during a year, "we have flexible working hours and after heavy working periods it is possible to take some days off" (Jonas), actually, some gave the impression "we don't have the ability to cover up during calm periods either" (Thomas). Thomas described a typical week for some of the PETEs in these terms: "When you have 15 to 20 hours of teaching each week at a university, then all you do is to prepare teaching and teach. You don't have a life". Earlier research has identified that heavy working load is a part of PETEs everyday lives (Williamson, 1993), similar to PE teachers. Research on PE teachers found that heavy working load was connected to the amount of teaching hours (Curtner-Smith, 1997; Macdonald, 1995; Schempp et al., 1993; Smyth, 1995; Wright, 2001). For example, similar to Thomas in this study, PE teachers in Wright's (2001) study described themselves as "worn out... You totally have no life, no social life. It is like you are married to the school" (p. 133).

In addition to high levels of teaching hours, another factor some of the PETEs' talked about in relation to their teaching was that each subject (for example skiing, swimming and other subjects) had been reduced during recent years: "when I started working here sixteen years ago, a course in practical subjects [in for example swimming] was 36 hours of teaching. Now the same course is 20 hours" (Ida). A consequence of reducing teaching hours in each subject was that "when you get fewer hours to teach one subject you need to teach more classes in order to fulfill your job expectations. This increases the working load a lot" (John). Linda added some detail: "earlier, we got factor 4³³ on our theory lesson. This has been reduced. We have to teach more classes to fulfill the total teaching post". In other words, the PETEs claimed they had to teach more subjects, and as a consequence relate to more students in order to meet the requirements of their role as PETEs. On the other hand it seemed like the PETEs held on to "old" expectations of what to put into the different subject courses even though the external conditions had changed. In other words, the PETEs seemed to hold on to the "historical" way of acting instead of adapting their teaching to the conditions of the present time. This may, in time, become demanding, and as such influence why they experienced theirs as heavy working load.

Another change that had occurred the latest years, and that some of the PETEs saw as a negative tendency in the university system, was that the PETEs had to teach larger groups in theory classes:

I have 120 students in the auditorium ... and it is way too much one-way-communication ... They struggle to relate it [theory] to reality. Earlier we had PE students in one group, sport students in another group, maybe 30 students in each group. Now they are together as one large group. Many of them just sit there and understand little or nothing. (Martin)

³³ "Factor 4" on theory indicates that when teaching 1 hour theory you get 3 hours to prepare this one hour. In other words, if you have a 3 hour theory session, this give a total amount of 12 working hours (included the teaching). A full time post for university lecturers was at the time this study was undertaken 1687 ½ working hours a year (confirmed by the Institute leader). This indicates that if the university college reduces the factor to preparation for teaching, the lecturers have to teach more.

In other words, the PETEs claimed this change in having to teach larger groups influenced their ability as educators to get close to the students and to follow them up and help them relate theory to practice.

In addition to viewing the teaching part of their roles as PETEs as demanding, many also commented the “increasing amounts of administrative tasks that are put on the PETEs, everything from making the timetable to organizing exams” (Linda). Some of the PETEs also referred to new administrative tasks that were “forced” onto them:

I feel it is much from the leadership now-a-days, not from the Institute Leader, but higher up in the system. You get forced to learn new things and much of it gives no credit to the students. For example, there is this new system of how to write “travel bills” and you have to send them here and there and everywhere. I think some of this could be worked out in a better way. (Ida)

In other words the PETEs experienced administrative systems being forced onto them, and as such they had no choice, they had to adapt to the system, even if it felt demanding and took time away from other more prominent tasks such as student-related work. The Institute Leader confirmed increasing administrative demands in the university system like this: “There is so much quality securing now. Actually, you are supposed to secure the quality so much that you do not have time to do the job you are supposed to secure the quality of”.

Another way some of the PETEs expressed administrative demands to influence their everyday life was in relation to the students. Thomas, for example, observed that this way: “The time disappears somewhere. My fear is that it disappears on student contact ... I think the administrative responsibility that the professional employees [the PETEs] have to cover is too much”.

Some of the PETEs commented that a consequence of the increased demands in their everyday lives was an increasing amount of staff absences: “Some are on sick leave because of the working load”, as well as “little understanding from the leadership according to your working situation” (Mari). In other words, the PETEs claimed both organizational issues as well as lack of understanding by the Institute Leader as impacting on staff absence. Mari, in fact, said:

We have a leader ... who is not capable to cover that part because he has so many other tasks. And the consequence of this is that many have been on sick leave lately. So I don't think we have a good working environment.

But as this quotation indicates, the Institute Leader also appears under similar workload pressure. Indeed, Gunnar himself commented;

I have personnel responsibility, economic responsibility and subject responsibility. Many tasks in relation to the position ... I do not have time to sit down in conversations with my employees or step by their offices. That is impossible. But I try to walk around the corridors.

But, an interesting observation in this regard was Gunnar saying that even if his post was: “a hundred percent leader job”, he had been teaching students while being an Institute Leader:

In my four years as leader I have done a lot of teaching. In my world, the students are most important. That is why we are here – to teach ... I have been teaching a lot during the last four years, in swimming, anatomy, and orienteering, and I have stepped in as a substitute teacher when needed.

Some of the PETEs observed that the sick leave in the Institute had increased the recent years, Thomas, for example stated: “We are a small Institute, about 20 to 25 employees, and we have three, four or five on sick leave all the time. And it’s not supposed to be like this”. John viewed this as a problem that had increased in recent years:

What we struggle with now more than earlier is sick leave, people seems to be more ill. This is a bad sign when it comes to the working environment. Maybe the pressure has increased lately, and some people cannot handle that.

Responding to such claims, Gunnar (the Institute Leader) commented thus:

I do not think those numbers are right. We had some long-time sick leave some years ago ... But these numbers are not right [three, four or five on sick leave]. You have to relate to the statistics to get the “hard” numbers. At the Sport Institute the sick leave has always been low, but it has increased the latest years because someone has been on long-term sick leave. But I do not relate the reasons for these sick leaves to the working environment [job related issues].

The sick leave numbers at the Sport Institute numbers from 2008 to 2010 indicate that the sick leave rate at the Institute was similar to what the PETEs had claimed, but that during the latest two years (2009-2010), in other words after the interviews with the PETEs, the sick leave numbers were lower, as the Institute Leader indicated. The interesting observation, however, was that while the PETEs seemed to question the heavy working pressure, and the working environment, to be reasons for increasing sick leave, the Institute Leader pointed to reasons beyond the working arena for the sick leave in 2008. In other words, the employees and the Leader seemed to have divergent views on this issue. Data from Statistics Norway describe the sickness absence in Norway in the fourth quarter of 2008 at 7.1 per cent of the working population (SSB, 2011). At the Sport

Institute at Nord UC there was, according to the data, 8,36 percent on sick leave in 2008. In other words the sick leave at the Sport Institute at Nord UC in 2008 was higher, but not significantly so, than in the Norwegian labor market in general. Indeed, the data from 2009 to 2010 indicate that the sick leave at the Sport Institute was below the average for to the Norwegian labour market

Taking this together, while the PETEs expressed views that heavy working load led to many consequences both personally and also professionally, the Institute Leader had quite different views both on the tendency of sick leave at the Institute, together with placing the responsibility for the sick leave outside the working environment.

PETEs' perceptions of "meeting places"

Findings from the study suggest that virtually all the PETEs missed having both informal and formal meeting places in their everyday working context. An equal amount talked about how hectic days impacted upon, for example, the possibility of spending time with their colleagues: "The problem now is that we have so many things going on ... so it is difficult to find time to discuss things" (Ida). Linda was more precise regarding what kind of discussions she missed:

I think there is too little time to have professional and pedagogical discussions about why we do things the way we do. I think of everything from curricula to how we work and how and what we prioritize. We use too little time on such things. I have thought about why this is so, is it lack of money and time, or is it other things. I don't know.

Similar to findings in this study, previous research on PE teachers (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Napper-Owen & Phillips, 1995) has identified heavy working-load as making it difficult

to engage in professional dialogue with colleagues. But, it is reasonable to ask if the PETEs in this study would, indeed, engage in professional dialogs even if they had time?

Other consequences of not having time to socialize with colleagues were that many of the PETEs had little knowledge about their peers: “We don’t really know what kind of research people do here, or what they teach. You live in your own bubble” (Thomas). However, Linda had some thoughts of potential consequences if the PETEs were constrained to discuss:

But I think if we had a discussion, different views would occur ... I think there are colleagues who share my view on what activities are important according to the National curriculum and what type of teaching and methods which are important. I have worked together with people that focus on methods and didactic like I do ... But I have also experienced colleagues that don’t find that important at all ... I have experienced that we have different views on things. And I find it a bit strange, because we are all working towards school.

The consequence of a lack of informal meeting places in PETE seemed to be that the PETEs retrained an individual approach towards educating PE students. A consequence of such individual approaches seemed to be that some of the PETEs, especially the newly-employed, referred to a kind of loneliness (or isolation) in their everyday life. Heidi, for example said: “It’s maybe the way it is supposed to be at the university, that you are a bit lonely. That you have your position [role], I don’t know?”. In fact, some of the experienced PETEs also talked about loneliness as part of their everyday life: “it is little control of what actually happens in class. You get kind of lonely when teaching your subjects” (Ida). In other words, PETEs had few opportunities to meet and discuss and they (mostly) taught in isolation. Hence, it may not be surprising that they experienced some kind of loneliness in their everyday lives as PETEs.

Although this study has identified limited ability to meet on informal basis, a few of the PETEs in this study did mention, similar to findings among PE teachers (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Napper-Owen & Phillips, 1995), that informal meeting places, such as the “10 o’clock-coffee in the kantina” (Harald) to be a social happening, and a place where “many discussions do occur in for example pedagogy, subjects, politics, pedagogy, and such things. I find it exciting” (Harald). In other words, the “10-coffee” seemed to be a kind of informal meeting place where the PETEs could engage in discussions with colleagues. But findings from this study do not say anything about *whom* or *how many* of the PETEs who actually joined the 10-coffee on a regular basis, and how this informal meeting place impacted the occupational socialization of the PETEs.

Besides the lack of informal meeting places, many, especially the newly-employed PETEs, articulated a lack of more formal discussions at the Institute. Heidi, for example, said: “I am a bit isolated ... But I have participated at some Institute meetings, and I don’t think there have been many discussions”. The experienced PETEs also spoke about lack of formal meeting places and that the Institute meetings were influenced by the PETEs hectic days:

Everyone is supposed to be able to participate at the institute meeting. But reality is different. Many are doing student related work [teaching] when we have institute meetings. At the latest institute meeting we were quite a few when the meeting started. The Institute Leader informed us about “info cases”, and that is mostly what the institute meetings are about, one-way information from the Institute Leader, but when we started to discuss issues that could be of interest, only four or five of us were left at the meeting. I was still present, but the majority left [to go teaching] during the meeting. (Tom)

Alexander confirmed this tendency when he observed: “I do not participate in institute meetings if it collides with teaching”. In other words, the institute meetings, as one of the only (mentioned during the interviews) formal meeting places within PETE where

professional discussions could occur, did not in fact include all the PETEs because the meetings were scheduled at times where some had teaching commitments. This may indicate that the administrative routines (by placing institute meetings when some PETEs have teaching), actually marginalize the possibility for involvement of the PETEs in professional discussions within the Institute. The Institute Leader, on the other hand, said institute meetings were one place where they facilitated professional discussions, but that not everyone chose to participate in these meetings: “I have difficulty in getting people to participate at the institute meeting, where pedagogical discussion take place”. He also said they had “institute seminars” where they discussed subject matters. As mentioned earlier, the Institute Leader took the view that the PETEs ought to personally take initiative to facilitate pedagogical or professional discussions, rather than “wait” for other to facilitate them.

PETEs’ perceptions of change in PETE

At first glance the PETEs appeared unable to recognize any developments or changes in their beliefs and practices regarding PETE; “change, no, actually not. ... My aim is to make them master the activity” (Heidi). The picture was, nevertheless, more complex. As Fredrik, for example, said: “I don’t think I have changed my views on aims and purposes of PETE, but I have become more conscious about them”. When they did speak of change it was evident that they viewed change on two levels; a personal level (as PETEs) and, change related to context.

Many referred to change as having to do with their personal development as pedagogues, Ida for example said:

Yes, I guess I have. You change all the time. I think one of the things is about my own teaching. When I was newly employed, I was afraid it was not going to be difficult

enough. I have been teaching in ... and I have always thought that I have to go beyond the syllabus. I felt I had to give them [the students] some more in each lecture. I can still think this way, but I have more experience now and I know the students better. I know there are in fact many who need to get the subject presented in a simple way in order to understand. Earlier I thought I had to make it difficult enough, but now I focus more on the learning process and that the knowledge I present is fruitful. So in this way I have changed. It is more on a personal level.

In line with Ida, John also refers to having changed on a personal level as a consequence of having more experience as a teacher educator:

Yes, and I think it has something to do with age: You dare to do different things. When you are newly employed, you may be afraid to give the students responsibility. You want to have control with how things shall be. Because if you come outside the comfort zone where you have experience you feel insecure. But when time goes by you don't take yourself so seriously, and it is ok make some mistakes as well. (John)

Besides change in the sense of adapting the teaching to the students and developing as pedagogues as consequence of amount of years in the occupation, some referred to experiences outside the Sport Institute to have impacted upon them personally as a PE teacher educator; in other words, that change in context impacted on them as PETEs and PETE. Elisabeth, for example, said:

Change? Not very much ... But I may have changed my view a little when it comes to how we as teacher educator ought to work. Yes, I have changed my view on this, and maybe seen many different opportunities after I was involved in the "Out-door studies" at Nord university college. An important part within "Outdoor pedagogy" is to see teaching as a whole and to work cross subjects, not only traditional classroom teaching, but that there are classrooms out there which give you experiences so that you see the

connections. We have some super opportunities here in Solum City, but factors like time and organization makes it difficult.

The following quotation from Tom also indicates how changes in context shaped and changed his approach to PETE:

Yes, there have been changes when it comes to content in the education. But when it comes to the PE teacher and what competence a PE teacher needs to have, there have been little changes ... And as I said, dance and adapted education which was not obligatory subjects earlier have become obligatory components in PETE [referring to the National curricula]. So there have been changes, but the importance of change has been attached to the content in PETE.

A similar point can be made according to this quotation as to the ones with Ida, John and Elisabeth above insofar as they are talking about having to adapt to developments in the context in which they have been PETEs. They are inevitably dependent upon *who* (the kinds of students) they teach and *what* (the content) they teach and both of these have shaped their outlook and practices as PETEs. Other examples on how changes in context impacted upon PETE were that some of the PETEs mentioned generational changes to be part of the Sport Institute at Nord. Tom felt that external developments were taking focus away from teacher education towards becoming a more university like:

I might not have the right feeling about this – but I feel there is some kind of alternation of generation when it comes to this. Martin and I have worked at the Sport Institute longer than all the others and we also have much experience from school. Both he and I came from school and have a quite similar view on what the role of PETE ought to be when it comes to preparing the students on what they will meet. But the ones that have started working here the latest years, well not only them but also the ones I have educated myself [referring to Ida, John and Gunnar], they have also changed focus the way I see it,

and they have changed focus away from the more typical teacher education towards a more academic education.

Thomas was one who also felt that generational change was occurring at the Sport Institute and that changes in context had influenced PETE:

At the same time we have changed the Local curriculum, and things change when new people come in. It has been an enormous alternation of generation here. No one from the old generation is left. It is only Tom and Martin, and Tom is retiring this year. John, Gunnar and Ida used to be the youngest, and now they are the oldest. So there has been an enormous change. And this influences the focus on the subjects, even though the formulations of the aims in the curriculum have been quite similar. So I do think things change quite slowly in a way that you are not conscious to the change, but in another way quite fast, because you are a part of the development.

Overall, the PETEs at Nord UC did not, at first glance, appear very conscious of change as a part of their everyday life. On the other hand, this study has identified that change had in fact occurred on two levels; one, a personal level which refers to the PETEs development as pedagogues and second, in terms of the way in which changes in context influenced and changed the PETEs and PETE.

PETEs' perceptions of the status of PETE

Talking to the PETEs about PETE it was interesting to note how they referred, implicitly or explicitly, to the status of PETE and the profession. They seemed to relate status to various contexts such as status of PETE at the Institute, in teacher education at Nord UC, and in wider society. The overall impression from virtually all informants was that PETE

had high status at the Institute, and many even label PETE as the “flagship” of the Institute:

We have different sport studies, so I find it likely to compare PETE to those. PETE has the highest status at the Institute because it has the longest history at the Sport Institute, and it [PETE] has recruited well for many years, and circumstances like this has led to PETE to be a flag-ship for a good education at the Institute. (John)

In other words, measure of status seemed to lie in the position of PETE at Nord UC over time, that is, in terms of “history” and in “recruitment”. However, the context specific relational nature of status became apparent when the PETEs referred to the status of PETE compared to general teacher education at Nord UC. Many of the PETEs talked about PE as a subject with low status in general teacher education at Nord UC. Indeed, they reported experiences that underpinned this impression. For example, they often felt looked down on from teacher educators’ colleague outside the Sport Institute. Tom for example commented:

But when we were part of general teacher education at Nord, everyone [the PETEs] felt I think, at least I felt, that we were never looked upon as equal as the other subjects in teacher education ... that we were not taken seriously on many occasions in many ways. Other teacher educators lifting their shoulders saying “Oh yes, it is a PE teacher saying that, he is a PE teacher so what can you expect”. Many degrading ways of acting towards us.

It was interesting to note, nevertheless, that the Institute Leader experienced PETE to have high status in the university system: “it [PETE] has status on an academic level. I guess so”.

Interestingly, the PETEs experienced PETE as having the same kind of low status in general teacher education that PE has in school:

I have a feeling that it reflects some of the mentality we find in school, that PE does not matter. I have a feeling the same mentality is reflected in teacher education. When we were part of teacher education we were viewed as being a bit special. It has to be a reason. I don't know if it has to do with status. But I think there are many teacher educators in other subjects that think that in PE all you do is to organize soccer games or something, and of course they think we have very relaxed days at work. (Ida)

In addition to the low status of PETE compared to general teacher education, many of the PETEs also spoke about experiences which indicated that PE and PETE had a relatively low status in society:

I have been working at the local authority and primary school for 10 years, and I have met many that don't see the need for PE teachers, School leaders who for example say it is much better with "general teachers" than PE teachers. So I think there are many outside the university that does not see the value of it [PETE]. (Jonas)

All-in-all, there seemed to be common agreement among the PETEs that PETE had a high status at the Institute, but not in the higher education system nor in the Norwegian society. Despite this, it was noticeable that the PETEs still tended to talk about PETE as the best job in the world.

PETEs and the "best job in the world"

Despite the PETEs' descriptions of their everyday life as demanding both on an

administrative level and according to teaching, with few opportunities to socialize and discuss things with colleagues, alongside the low status of PETE in the university system and in Norwegian society, the stories the PETEs told about their everyday lives as PETEs were loaded with positive examples and optimistic thoughts about their jobs. John, for example, commented: “except the heavy working load and amount of working tasks, it is a good place to be, we have few conflicts”. Knut was even more enthusiastic when saying “I have the best job in the world”, while Thomas observed that: “most of the ones working here love their job, and it is the subject part that motivates us”. Elisabeth added that “we have a good working environment, everybody knows each other very well.... and I think it a good place to be”. In other words, the majority of the PETEs expressed a positive view about their jobs and working environment with nice and helpful colleagues. Some informants also highlighted the freedom and trust given by the Institute Leader as positive elements in order to manage all the tasks expected from them:

I have a very nice boss, so as long as I do my job and do it in a proper way according to the subjects, I feel quite free to how I organize my day, and where I am. I experience freedom according to that. But there are many claims and a lot to do, but I am quite free in choosing how I do it ... So I experience quite a big amount of trust according to how I spend my day. That’s good, and it is easier to work extra within such frames. (Fredrik)

CONTEXTUALIZING PETE AT NORD UNIVERSITY COLLEGE

In order to understand the ways in which the circumstances or context may have shaped PETEs philosophies and practices at Nord UC, it is necessary to locate them in their personal, local, national, and international contexts. Thus, in order to contextualize this study it is useful to say something about the PETEs that took part in the study, the institution (Nord UC) and PE and PETE nationally and internationally.

This section will first of all look at the PETEs and “who they were”; in other words contextualizing them on a personal level in terms of their background. At a local level this section looks at how the PETEs were interrelated with each other at the Institute, which will require something to be said about the character of the Sport Institute at Nord UC. In order to contextualize PETE at Nord UC on a national level, it is necessary to give a brief insight into the policy documents PETE is grounded in, and which are supposed to shape PETE in Norway. Hence, this section provides a brief insight into the different National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) in PE in Norway and the PETEs’ understandings of these, as well as the process of conducting the Local curricula at the Sport Institute at Nord UC. Contextualizing PETE also requires an appreciation of mentoring and mentoring programmes in the profession. Insight into NOKUT, the Norwegian agency for quality assurance in higher education in Norway, which has the mandate of conducting external quality assurance of higher education in Norway, is also provided. After contextualizing PETE at Nord UC on a personal, local and national level, this section reports what knowledge the PETEs had of the international dimension of PETE, in other words, what they knew about PE and PETE beyond Norway.

The PETEs

The Sport Institute at Nord UC had approximately 25 employees and 16 of them were working as PETEs. There were 6 female and 9 male PETEs participating in the study, between the ages 30 to 63, besides the Institute Leader who was in his mid-40s. The majority of the PETEs were between 36 and 46 years old. Their working experiences as PETEs varied from one to 21 years, with an average of 13, 5 years of experience as PETEs. Ten of the PETEs had been teaching PE in public state schools, while six of the PETEs (including the Institute Leader) did not have experience as a PE teacher. Two of the PETEs were not formally qualified as PE teachers. Two of the PETEs, one male and one female, together with the Institute Leader, had a PhD in sports, 11 held a Master’s degree in PE, sports or friluftsliv, one had a master in pedagogy and one had a master in “language and cultural didactics”. Ten of the PETEs (including the Institute Leader), had

been previous students at Nord UC. One of them was Kari, who confirmed this: “I have been a PE student at Nord UC earlier, and already at that time I was inspired to wanting to work at the Sport Institute in the future”. All the PETEs reported being active in sports or friluftsliv (or both) in their leisure time.

In response to a question on what had impacted the most on him becoming a PE teacher educator, Harald spoke for many when he said: “My own sport interest and experiences as an athlete”. All the PETEs reported having previous sporting experiences at different levels, and for the time being they were all active in sports and/or friluftsliv in their leisure time. Many reported being active as coaches and many said they engaged in (or followed up) physical activity in leisure time as part of parenting (12 out of the 15 PETEs had children, and the majority of them had small children to take care of in their everyday life). In other words, it seemed as if the PETEs in this study, similar to findings in other studies on PE and PETE (Dowling 2006, 2008; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; McCullick, 2001; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998; O’Byrant et al., 2000) had strong sporting habituses. In addition, the study found that PETEs with school teaching background felt their school experience had also impacted on their decision to become PETEs: “my own experience from being a PE teacher in high school has impacted my choice of becoming a PE teacher educator” (Kari). In other words, the data revealed that many of the PETEs had a strong identity towards school and teaching as well as sports, and this may explain their predispositions towards sporting and teaching aspects of their roles rather than, for example, the research element.

As can be seen from this brief description, the PETEs appeared quite similar in many ways according to education background, family circumstances (in the sense of having small children) and sporting background and interests. Nevertheless, a distinctive difference between some of the PETEs was that while the majority had been working as PE teachers in school, five had never taught PE in schools (six, if one includes the Institute Leader). It was noteworthy that the PETEs with earlier PE teaching experience

explicitly identified themselves with those others who shared this common experience. For example, many of the PETEs with experience as PE teachers in school were keen to emphasize this as an important competence to have in their jobs as PETEs. Tom, for example, said: “I have been working in school for many years. And that has been of great value in this job”. Alexander, in turns commented; “I have experiences from being a teacher in school and hence knowledge of how to be a professional PE teacher”. On the other hand, the PETEs without teaching experience from school never commented on either the pros or cons of their lack of teaching experience in school for their understandings of PE and PETE or their role as PETEs. It is also worth to note that some of the PETEs sometimes referred to themselves as newly-employed PETEs. Kari, for example, said: “the first year I worked here [she was now into her second year within PETE] ... I was very afraid of making mistakes, and I asked the experienced [PETEs] many questions”. Thus, in the analysis and discussion I will use the terms “PETEs with previous school experience”, “PETEs without school experience” and “newly-employed” or similar terms, to help underpin analytical points.

The institution

Nord UC is located in central Norway and offers a range of courses including teacher education, nursing, agricultural studies, and sport studies. The Sport Institute was an Institute within the Faculty of Sports and Health at Nord UC, and at the time this study was undertaken the Sport Institute offered three different bachelor studies: bachelor in sports, bachelor in public health and bachelor in PE and sports. This last bachelor programme is one of the three routes to becoming a PE teacher at Nord UC. Alongside the bachelor in PE and sports, Nord UC also offered 30 credits PE (as a part of a 4-year general teacher education programme), and practical and didactical education (a one-year study on top of successful completion of a previous bachelor degree in, for example, Sports, or Public Health ect). At the point this study was undertaken, there were approximately 120 students on the bachelor of PE and sport programme at Nord UC. 14 students were taking 30 credits PE as part of general teacher education and seven students

were on the practical and didactical education programme in PE³⁴. Nord UC was one out of 15 universities or university colleges in Norway providing PETE at the time the study was undertaken.

The Sport Institute was first and foremost located in Solum City but had a minor element of staff located in Vike City, 30 kilometers from the campus of Solum City. Nord UC provided three different routes into PE teaching which were organized and delivered in slightly different ways. Bachelor in PE and sports were located at Solum City and the fifteen PETEs interviewed in this study were all teaching on this study, and as such they were teaching different and fragmented and at times specialized parts of PETE. While 30 credits PE as part of general teacher education, similar to practical and didactical education in PE, were located at Vike City. Alexander was responsible and taught at the 30 credits PE as part of general teacher education study alone. The practical and didactical education Alexander sheared with one other PE teacher educator located at Vike City. In other words, according to the sample of PETEs in this study, Alexander was the only PE teacher educator teaching at all three routes.

A significant difference between the bachelor in PE and sports versus the 30 credits PE and practical and didactical education in PE was that the bachelor programme focused on skill tests in different sporting activities. This was confirmed by the PETEs: “we have sporting skill tests on the bachelor study” (Martin) and by the PE students as well: “we do have sport skill tests” (male student, third-year). But the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports did not say anything about what the skills tests were about to test or how these skills were supposed to be facilitated; it was more general phrases like: “skill tests in national-dance, ballroom-dance, and jazz-dance”. Martin commented that there were no formal guidelines for the skill test: “We have sporting skill tests where the evaluation is based on personal judgment”, which indicates that the PETEs personal views seemed

³⁴ As mentioned in a footnote in Appendix A, the number in the Table 2 of students taking 30 credits PE and practical and didactical education i Table 2 does not correspond with the number of students actually attending these study programmes at Nord UC in 2008/2009, which I refer to in this sentence.

to set the premises for what was “good enough” or the “right” skills to have in different sports, rather than uniformed standards within the Sport Institute at Nord UC.

Martin was one of few who highlighted a dilemma for the PETEs according to the skill test: “I struggle – shall I let them pass? On the one hand I think they ought to master different sporting skills, but on the other hand we [the Institution] have to earn money. It is a dilemma”. Martin viewed his concern that he thought students ought to be gaining sporting skills on a respectable level to be conflicting with the Institution’s expectations to get students through the programme in order to earn money. In other words, his personal quality standard in PETE was challenged by the interdependencies he experienced within the networks PETE were a part of at a national level. His personal standards (minimum amount of sporting skills) were conflicting with what he saw as the over-arching institutional goal (earning money)³⁵. This dilemma expressed by Martin, letting students passing skill tests without actually having the “right” amount of skills, were actually something some of the students in the third-year bachelor had observed and were skeptical towards as well: “They [the PETEs] have to have expectations of us. There are several in our class that had skiing and passed the skill test in skiing and who actually are not able to ski”. Knowing that there are no formal guidelines on the skill tests, it is likely to understand that it is possible for Martin (and I guess for other PETEs as well) to let students pass the skill tests in order to enable the institution to earn the money. It is also understandable that the PE students questioned that some peer students passed skill tests even though they were (the way their peer students viewed it) not “able to ski”, and that such practice can be experienced to undermine the worth of skill tests as part of the education.

³⁵ The institution earns money from each student that passes the final exam.

Policy documents: The National and Local curricula in PETE

Having contextualized the PETEs at a personal and local level, and Nord UC on a local and partly national level, it is time to contextualize PETE in Norway on a national level.

Since 1976³⁶, teacher education in Norway has been grounded on a National teacher education curriculum. This study was undertaken when PETE was grounded on the National curricula from 2003 (UFD, 2003a, b, c), which implies that:

Pursuant to current legislation, the Ministry lays down National curriculum regulations for individual courses. This includes teacher education in Norway. Statutes and curriculum regulations constitute a mandatory basis for the institutions that provide teacher education, for the employees, students and representatives for practical training (Regjeringen, 2011a).

The three different routes into becoming a PE teacher offered at Nord UC in 2008/2009; had three different National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) as a foundation, which the institution had to relate to in order to develop Local curricula in PETE. The Institution were required to interpret and develop aims and decide content, literature, working methods and evaluation for each subject. The first part in the National curricula titled “teacher education” containing issues like “objectives and characteristics”, “being a teacher”, “becoming a teacher”, “social considerations”, and “from National curriculum regulations to [local] curriculum” is common for all National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). Under the heading being a teacher, the five competency aims a teacher is required to achieve through teacher education are specified as: subject competency, didactical

³⁶ B. Ausland (personal communication, January 3rd, 2011) from Department of Higher Education/Ministry of Education and Research confirmed that the concept “National curriculum” was first in use in Norway in 1994. The National curriculum for general teacher education in 1994 was an adjusted version of a “Study plan for teacher education” from 1992 and the adjustment in 1994 changed the name from “Study plan” to “Curriculum”. Teacher education in Norway has been grounded on a “Temporary study plan from 1976” followed by a “Study plan from 1980”, before the “Study plan from 1992”.

competency, social competency, adaptive and development competency, and professional ethics competency. The following section examines the three different National curricula for PETE relevant to this study.

The National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b)

The bachelor in PE and sports is a three-year study and the obligatory parts were: pedagogy (30 credits), activity subjects (including sport activities, games (play), dance and friluftsliv) (75 credits), subject didactics (30 credits), basis subjects (such as “motor learning”, “exercise sciences”, “physical activity and health” and “sports, culture and society”) (30 credits), school practice (12-14 weeks during three years). In addition to these obligatory aspects of the programme, the students were required to choose 15 credits for an in-depth study of, for example, subject didactic, basis subjects or activity subjects (UFD, 2003b). The Sport Institute at Nord UC had developed a Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports.

The National curriculum for general teacher education - 30 credits PE (UFD, 2003a)

A second way becoming a PE teacher is to take 30 credits PE as a part of general teacher education (a four year study). According to this curriculum the students had to achieve the following aims during the education in PE: subject knowledge and skills and subject didactical knowledge and skills, being a teacher in physical education, cooperation and reflection (UFD, 2003a). The Sport Institute at Nord UC had developed a Local curriculum for 30 credits PE.

The National curriculum for practical and didactical education (UFD, 2003c)

A third route into becoming a PE teacher at Nord UC was to take one year of practical and didactical education on top of an earlier Bachelor's degree in for example, “physical activity and health” or “friluftsliv”. “The National curriculum for practical and didactical

education (UFD, 2003c) does not give concrete implications on aims for PE, but stated the following regarding what the Local curricula in pedagogy and subject/work didactics needed to contain: subject content in pedagogy and subject and work didactics, working methods and evaluation, the multi-cultural and the international perspective, the sex- and gender equality perspective, and adapted education and specific help for the ones who need it. The Sport Institute at Nord UC had not conducted a Local curriculum in practical and didactical education in PE at the time this study was undertaken, and they could not provide answers as to why this had not occurred. That said, Alexander, who at the time was in charge of the practical and didactical study in PE, and who had just taken over the responsibility, questioned why the practical and didactical education had a theoretical approach, something he wanted to change:

PDE [practical and didactical education]? It is rather a Theoretical pedagogical education, the PDE as it is today does not have a practical approach, I think that is strange ... But I have changed this now, the last two hours each day I will use to do “model-teaching”, and they [the students] can try to be PE teachers as well.

Given this brief insight into the national and local policy documents the PETEs were supposed to rely their education (and teaching) on, the next section will shed light on how PETEs at Nord actually knew the content in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) and how they related these documents (including the Local curricula) into their teaching.

The PETEs knowledge about the curricula in PETE

When talking to the PETEs about the National and Local curricula in PETE, I formed the impression that many of the PETEs had little knowledge about them. As already mentioned, very few of the PETEs had for example knowledge about the five competency aims, and many said they mostly related their teaching to the Local curricula, rather than the National curricula: “In my teaching I do not relate to it [the National

curriculum]. I relate to the Local one” (Thomas). At first glance, this is a reasonable response given that, on the face of it, it is enough for the PETEs to know only the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports because it is a distillation of the National curriculum (UFD, 2003b). However, to conduct the Local curriculum, the institution had to interpret the National curriculum (ibid) and hence, a Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports may differ at some points according to the National curriculum (ibid) (or according to other Local PETE Curricula in other universities, for that matter). Indeed, it appeared that very few of the PETEs actually knew the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports either. Many of the PETEs appeared, in fact, only to use the Local curriculum in order to check that they covered all the themes within the subject they were teaching: “I use it [The Local curriculum] when I plan my teaching. I look into the aims for the subject. Then I make them concrete and operate them into teaching aims” (Jonas). The PETEs referred little to the first part of the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (which actually was a copy of the first part of the National curricula [UFD, 2003a, b, c] named teacher education) or to other subjects (practical or theoretical) within the Local curriculum than the ones they were teaching themselves. In other words, the majority of the PETEs seemed to have little knowledge (or overview) of PETE as described in the National or Local curricula.

When asking the PETEs about the students’ knowledge of the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), the majority said they thought that the student’s had little knowledge about the them: “It is [the National curriculum] out on the Fronter, so they ought to know it. But how good they know it, or if they have read it at all, I doubt it?” (Jonas). Equal amount of the PETEs referred to the Internet (Fronter) in a similar manner to Jonas and observed that the students ought to search the internet to get knowledge about the National curriculum the study they attended was grounded on. However, some said the students got information about the National curriculum at semester start:

They [the student's] get a lot of information in the beginning of the semester, the National curriculum and the Local curriculum. And maybe we expect them to look into it, and maybe they don't do it. We do refer to them (National and Local curriculum) sometimes, but to at least use the Local curriculum more actively is something we ought to do more. As I said earlier, to legitimate what we do, so that they [the student] see the connection and why we do as we do, that it isn't something we come up with from our heads, but it is what the National curriculum expects. (Elisabeth)

Very few of the PETEs said they presented the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) for the students as a part of their teaching and only some of the PETEs said they presented and used the Local curricula consciously and directly in their teaching in order to engage the students with:

The Local curriculum is maybe the one that is easiest to present for the students. But as a foundation for all my teaching is the National curriculum, and the Local curriculum does fulfill the National curriculum. But it is the Local curriculum I use actively towards the students ... But how good knowledge the students have of the Local curriculum – some of them give an impression that they don't know what it is. And then you have the National curriculum on the next level. I guess they at least don't know what that is. But I introduce all subjects and plans with regard to this plan [National curriculum] and the Local curriculum. (Kari)

This impression of the students' lack of knowledge about the National curriculum was confirmed in the interviews of the PE students. None of the students in the five groups I interviewed (a total of 41 students) were familiar with the National curriculum the study they attended was grounded on. Even when I showed them the document, none of them recalled had seen the document, but a few said things like "We have not got it from the teachers, but they have given us the name of it" (female student, first-year) or "It is on Fronter, we can get it there" (male student, third-year). In other words, the students had

(in various ways), as some of the PETEs indicated, been informed that there was a National curriculum in PETE and where to find it, but interviewing the students made it clear that the National curriculum was not a document they had ever looked into.

The PETEs' way of viewing (in other words showing little appreciation of them) and using (as a check list related to the subject) both the National and Local curricula may explain why the students had little (or no) knowledge about the National (and to some extent) the Local curricula.

The process of conducting the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports

The PETEs that appeared familiar with the National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b) were mostly the ones that had either been part of the national groups that had developed various National curricula in PETE or the ones in charge of conducting the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC. Martin, for example, had been part of the group conducting The National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b), and when asked how well he knew this curriculum he commented: "I know it [the National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports] quite well, because I was part of the group that conducted it, if it is the one from 2003 you think about?" Tom had been in the group conducting the former National curriculum, the National curriculum for general teacher education in physical education (KUF, 1999), while John (the Study Leader in PETE) and Thomas (the Study Leader in Sports) both expressed knowledge about the National and Local curricula in PETE as they had been important facilitators in conducting the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports.

The small group of PETEs (Martin, Tom, John, and Thomas), who all had taken part in conducting either National and/or the Local curricula, revealed their knowledge of the requirements of the National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b) and said that this document was supposed to give the foundation of the kind of PETE Nord UC should provide. On the other hand, they had very different views according to the

ways in which the National curriculum (UFD, 2003b) was supposed to steer their interpretation of the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports. There appeared to be two poles in this group. On the one hand, Tom and Martin held the opinion that the National curriculum (ibid) should form the basis for the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports. Tom put it this way:

Someone has the opinion that one has to feel free according to what to put into the PETE. We see this now at Nord UC. I am sceptical of this kind of freedom when it comes to education that has a National curriculum. Elsewhere one can have as much freedom as one likes. But if there is going to be a point in having National curricula, then they have to be so steering that one can relate to them. If not, there is no point in having National curricula.

On the other hand, John and Thomas claimed there had to be room for interpretation of the National curriculum (ibid). John, for example commented thus:

John: Our mission is to prepare students to a profession in a system that is politically decided, more or less ... And it is interpretations all the way according to how we want to do it, which can be done on an institutional level.

Kjersti: By interpretations, you mean...

John: Both of the National curriculum and how we operational it in the Local curriculum, we have quite a lot of freedom lately. It was much more stringent earlier. The Local curriculum has been revised lately and we checked with the National Education Department how much freedom we have to compose subjects. It has been softening up.³⁷

³⁷ Because of the different views among the PETEs in how to interpret the National curriculum (UFD, 2003b), John (as the Study Leader of PETE) contacted the National Education Department in order to get an answer on how much freedom (or how strict) they as an Institution had to follow the National

The two PETEs at Nord UC with experience of conducting the National curricula in PETE in 1999 (KUF, 1999) and 2003 (UFD, 2003b), with previous experience as PE teachers, and central positions within the Sport Institute earlier, felt they had not been centrally involved in the process of conducting the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC. Martin puts it like this:

I feel I have something to contribute with in general, and that we together with the leadership can help find meeting places where we can contribute. I did contribute with initiative according the new Local curriculum, but they were not sustained, but I did at least do it.

Martin's perception of having experiences relevant to conducting the Local curriculum was also stated by Tom in even more direct words:

My opinion is that Martin, who was Study Leader after me, until suddenly the four new ones took over, without any experience from anything according to this [referring to experience from school, teacher education, and conducting National curricula], and that they have not used him [Martin] ... I see it as nothing else than lack of insight and understanding according to what this is about.

Actually, this study has identified that both Martin and Tom felt marginalized, in the sense of being "pushed to the edge" (Roberts, 2009, p. 158) and not taken into the process. The perception of several of the PETEs was that the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC was a process taken care of by the Study Leader

curriculum when conducting their own Local curricula for bachelor in PE and sports. The answer was that they had quite a lot of freedom when interpreting the National curriculum (ibid) into the Local curriculum. After stating this freedom to interpret the National curriculum (ibid), Tom and Martin (as the ones with the opinion that the National curriculum (ibid) should be followed in a strict way, did accept that the Institute could provide more freedom when conducting the Local curriculum, even though they personally did not agree with this kind of local freedom.

and a small group connected to him with little involvement of the PETE employees in general. Tom, for example, said: “I feel there is zero involvement according the new Local curriculum that is developed. We had a glimpse of curriculum-work during spring and autumn, where we had a couple of Institute meetings with the Local curriculum on the agenda, but there was little initiative from each teacher. The whole process was very centrally directed, and the few initiatives that came were more or less ignored [referring to the initiatives given by Martin]”.

When talking to the Study Leader (John) about the development of the Local curriculum he drew a picture of a system within the university that gave the premises for the process of conducting the Local curriculum at the Institute. He claimed that what started the whole process of conducting a new Local PE Curriculum was “a change in the system regarding the web” (John). In other words, changing the Local curriculum was not initiated from the PETEs, but a consequence of inserting a new web-system at Nord UC. When John was informed that the Local curriculum had to be changed in order to fit into the new web-system, he communicated to the Dean that they had to make huge changes in the Local PE Curriculum and needed time to do so. However, no answer was given to this request before “we suddenly got an email that we had to get it done in a couple of months” (John). In other words, the Sport Institutes wanted to use time to conduct the new Local curriculum, but short deadlines from the university system lead to heavy time-pressure at the Institute and, as a consequence, the Institute was not able to conduct the Local PE Curriculum within the frames given in the National curriculum:

We did not fulfill the National curriculum at this point ... In the process of conducting a Local curriculum both the mentor schools and the students are supposed to be involved. It is quite clear in the National curriculum, but we had to deviate from that. (John)

John was right in claiming that the National curriculum said that “The institutions together with representatives from the practice schools conduct a plan for the education in school practice [my translation]” (UFD, 2003, p. 13). But considering the fact that the Sport Institute did not fulfill these demands in the National curriculum, this is another example of how context influence the PETEs and PETE, in other words, of how the PETEs (and hence PETE) saw themselves as dependent on the administrative levels in the university system at Nord UC.

Besides not involving the practice schools (mentor teachers) or the students, the PETEs at the Institute were not greatly involved in developing the Local curriculum either. They were invited by the Study Leaders to comment on the written draft in terms of: “make the aims and methods clear” (John), or in commenting directly on the subjects they were teaching, so that the Study Leader could “get fresh moves [the latest or updated knowledge within the subject] within sports, psychology, PE, and motivation” (Harald). Harald commented, like many of the PETEs, that “it is for the most part the Study Leaders that develop it [the Local curriculum]”. On the other hand, Kari spoke for some when she said: “I have been able to influence it (the Local curriculum), so I think the Curriculum is OK”.

A noteworthy finding was that even though John claimed the Local curriculum did not fulfill the demands in the National curriculum (UFD, 2003b) to involve practice schools (mentor teachers) and students, the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports: “was approved in the Study and Curriculum Group at Nord university college³⁸” (John). In other words, the need for getting a curriculum approved seemed to be more important at Nord UC than to fulfill the aims in the National curriculum (ibid).

³⁸ “The Study and Curriculum Group” at Nord UC had the mandate to give approval to all Local curricula and Study Plans at Nord UC before they were implemented into the different educations.

Mentor programmes to guide the PETEs

In order to get a fuller picture of the context of PETE, I asked the PETEs if they had experienced having a mentor or been used as a mentor at Nord UC. I got quite uniform answers that having a mentor or being part of a mentoring programme was something very few at the Sport Institute had experienced, but on the other hand, the majority mentioned the great value of having good colleagues who had been including and helpful when they were newly-employed, like Fredrik who for example expressed:

Yes, there are several, my boss, who is very supportive and positive and who has suggestions on how to solve things. In that way he is a very good mentor when he is present. But we use each other. I don't relate to just one person, it depends on which subject I have questions.

When asking about mentoring, the PETEs rather talked about on-the-job training or continuing professional development as informal occurrences rather than being part of a formal mentoring programme. In a formal sense, mentoring is supposed to consist of both peer assistance and peer review (Stroot & Ko, 2006). Mentoring is, in other words, supposed to be both a guidance on content in teaching, but also advice and guidance in more philosophical dimensions. But what the PETEs seemed to refer to when talking about having a mentor, was being attached to a person at the beginning of their employment that could help with practical issues:

Yes, I got a person I could relate to, but not in any way a mentor who I could relate to according to the subject or professionally. But I got a person I could ask about everything like where the Xerox-machine was and what Fronter is. I could ask practical questions.
(Linda)

In other words, none of the PETEs talked about having a mentor guiding on subject knowledge, pedagogical knowledge or philosophical questions regarding PE or PETE. Gunnar (the Institute Leader) confirmed that the Sport Institute did not have a formal mentor programme, but that the newly employed were allocated a person to relate to:

Everyone who starts working here gets a person they can relate to, one you can talk to and who can help you with different things. But then it is the Study Leader who in a way is a mentor, but we have not called that a mentor programme.

Gunnar mentioned that they had “first lecturer programmes”³⁹ as formal programmes, and that some did peer teaching, which he also referred to as a sort of mentoring: “the ones who want to have been offered to attend first lecturer programmes ... And then we have peer-teaching, which I have used myself, and which I encourage others to do, that is a form of mentor programme”.

What was striking when talking about mentors and mentoring was that some of the PETEs talked as if they were taken care of by their colleagues as part of a family. Knut spoke for some when saying:

I can't remember getting a mentor, but I was included at once and invited home on coffee and dinner to Ida and Gunnar. I quickly got a relationship of trust to some of the colleagues, so I felt it easy to ask for help.

In other words the PETEs seemed to lean heavily on good personal relations rather than to ask for professional guidance (mentoring) as a part of their way to understand and become part of the Institute and PETE. Actually, only a few of the PETEs, and mostly the

³⁹ A first lecturer programme is a qualification programme for university lecturers without a PhD.

newly-employed, said they missed not having a mentor or being part of a mentor programme, Harald was one of them. When asked if he had a mentor or supervisor when he started working at Nord UC, he replied:

No, I did not, and I missed it. I think it is important. If you for example come from another university and start work at Nord, things are different. We can't just expect that just because you have PhD or have been working at an Institute like this before, that it is the same. So having a mentoring programme or to have a person you can talk to who you know is responsible for helping you, we need that.

Even though only a few of the PETEs said they missed being part of a mentor programme, some, and mostly the newly-employed, talked about some kind of loneliness in their everyday life as PETEs.

With the overall impression that the majority of the PETEs had not taken part in a mentor programme, two of the PETEs said that they had a mentor during their first years at Nord. Elisabeth was at that time part of the Pedagogy Section at Nord UC, in other words she had not experienced having a mentor at the Sport Institute:

Yes, when I started working here there was this person having responsibility in supervising newly-employed as a part of his position. The majority used him to take part in their teaching and to evaluate. I found it challenging to evaluate exams, so I used him as a supervisor in that process.

The other person claiming she had experienced having a mentor, was Mari: "Yes, I got a mentor. Tom was my mentor and the relationship was good. It was useful, and we started

a research-team together and have worked together closely several years on this research project”.

Even though Mari claimed having had a mentor, none of the experienced PETEs said they formally had been used as mentors for newly-employed. But the experienced PETEs were quite uniform in their answers according to their influence on their colleagues: “We have never had any formalized mentoring programme, but that I have influenced others, yes, I guess so” (Alexander).

The Quality Reform (2003)

On a national level, PETE, as all higher education institutions in Norway, is grounded on the Quality Reform (2003). This reform was implemented in higher education in Norway in 2003 and implies three broad aims: to increase the quality of education and research, to increase the intensity of the education, and to increase internalization (Quality Reform, 2003). As part of establishing the Quality Reform (2003) in higher education, the Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education (NOKUT) was also established.

The Norwegian Agency for Quality Assurance in Education (NOKUT)

NOKUT was established as an independent quality assurance agency in 2003 in conjunction with the Norwegian Quality Reform in the higher education sector. NOKUT is the “professionally independent government agency, with the mandate of conducting external quality assurance of higher education and tertiary vocational education and generally contribute towards the enhancement of educational quality” (NOKUT, 2010). It conducts quality assurance and promotes improvements in the education provided by Norwegian higher education institutions.

Norwegian higher education institutions have responsibility for ensuring the quality of the education they provide. The institutions are imposed to have internal systems that secure the quality of the education. NOKUT has the mandate to evaluate these internal systems for quality insurance of the higher education institutions every sixth year and the evaluation are done by committees of external qualified experts (NOKUT, 2010). This evaluation is due to the proposal from the Knowledge-department and an evaluation-form conducted by NOKUT. The institutions are given six months' notice before a NOKUT inspection. But because the universities and university colleges in Norway are self-accreditational⁴⁰, the inspections from NOKUT are not focusing on *what* or *if* the institution provides the content the National curricula claim they are supposed to (NOKUT, 2010). B. K. Haugland (personal communication, November 25th, 2010) confirmed that the NOKUT evaluations do only evaluate the quality systems in the education, in other words, the inspection does not check if the education actually provides the content of, for example, the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c).

Despite the fact that there were several opportunities during the interview, none of the PETEs mentioned NOKUT. In other words, it seemed as if NOKUT (with the mandate to ensure quality in higher education in Norway) was not constraining the PETEs to reflect upon their practices.

Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway

All universities and university colleges in Norway were bound on the Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway from the Knowledge department 2005 (Universitets- og høgskoleloven, 2005):

§ 1-1. The aim of the law

⁴⁰Self-accreditational means the institution providing the education is in charge of ensuring that the education is given in lines with the expectations in the National curriculum.

The aim of this law is to facilitate that universities and university colleges

- a) give higher education on an international level,
- b) do research and develop work on an international level,
- c) bring about knowledge on the activity and spread knowledge on the principle of academic freedom and use of scientific and art methods and results, both when teaching students, in own activity and in public administration, cultural life and in business.

§ 2-1. The NOKUT board

- (1) NOKUT is a professionally independent administrative body with an aim to ensure the quality in higher education in Norway. [My translation].

PETEs knowledge of PE and PETE beyond Norway

After contextualizing PETEs and Nord UC at a personal, local and national level, it is worth saying something about PETEs' knowledge of the international dimension of PETE, given the growth of research internationally into PE and PETE. Similar to the impression of having little knowledge about the National and Local curricula in PETE, the majority of the PETEs also demonstrated little knowledge of PE and PETE beyond Norway. To the question "do you know anything about PE or PETE in other countries" several, for example, answered: "I don't know ... I can't answer" (Kari). But even though many could not answer the question, some of the PETEs had some thoughts on the issue. Jonas said, for example: "I am not sure, but in the Nordic countries we focus more on the importance of being physically active than further down the continent. My impression is that they focus more on other school subjects than on PE". Actually the indications I got from my respondents about PE and PETE in other countries seemed to be built on impressions. Some of the PETEs referred, however, to personal experiences that had given them insight into PE in other countries. Tom, for example, who had been in Eritrea, an underdeveloped country on the African continent, said:

Yes, I have been to Eritrea some weeks ... But my impression is that the aims in PE were activity for the sake of the activity. The focus was on gathering children to play and do sports without focusing on health or health related work.

John highlighted PE as having particular cultural significance in Norwegian PE compared to other countries: “There are some things that are quite typical Norwegian. The Norwegian friluftsliv tradition is quite special. The same can be said about dance, without me knowing too much about it, it has something to do with school delivering culture”. The Institute Leader was the only one who referred to research from other countries, which in some ways can be related to PE.

Besides knowing little about PE outside Norway, very few also seemed to have insight into PETE in other countries as well. The very few who knew something about PETE outside Norway were the ones who had experience from cooperating with teacher education in other countries, such as Belgium and the Czech Republic. Martin, for example, referred to both the similarities and dissimilarities with Norwegian PETE as follows:

First and foremost I know Belgium and the Czech Republic. It is much the same as here in Norway, but their everyday life is different. When they teach friluftsliv, they hire firms to do the teaching, especially in Belgium. They have another attitude towards friluftsliv and dance. In the Czech Republic they focus especially on sports ... They focus much on sport skills, and how to do it right. That is an important part of it, but on the other hand you lose something important according to other activities that you can do later in life.

Some of the PETEs who reported having knowledge about PETE outside Norway were informed by exchange students in PE at Nord UC, as illustrated by this comment from Knut: ”I do think several countries focus more on sport skills and knowledge. It seems

so. We have students from the Czech Republic and they are very keen on sport skills, instruction and their own sport skills”.

All-in-all, the comments from the PETEs gave the impression that many of the PETEs had little knowledge about PE and PETE outside Norway. In those examples where they had some knowledge, the PETEs’ views on PE and PETE were impressionistic rather than informed, and these impressions were first and foremost based on experiences and thus impression were contingent. In other words, they depended on just what particular experiences the PETEs had received, rather than relying upon research literature on PE or PETE.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

In the preceding chapters I sought to identify the PETEs' (and, to a lesser extent, the PE students') views on the nature, purposes, and practices of PE and PETE. In this chapter I will utilize concepts from the various studies theorizing PETE (and PE) discussed in Chapter 4 that appear most relevant in making sociological sense of the findings from this study.

In short, I will suggest that it is possible to say that this study reveals that PETEs' *ideologies* (or philosophies) and practices tended to reflect their *socialization* into sports and PE and their socialization manifested itself in their deeply seated *habitus*s. These habituses or dispositions have been and continue to be shaped by the various *networks* the PETEs have been and continue to be a part of and the *interdependencies* (at a local and national level) these networks involved. The nature of (and more specifically, the *power relations*) of their interdependencies at the local level, in particular, had significant consequences for the PETEs' inclination towards *reflexivity*. In other words, the PETEs' habituses manifested themselves in particular attitudes and beliefs towards PETE and PE, and these were shaped by the various networks the PETEs were a part of and because interdependencies and power balances are an inevitable aspect of all human relationships and exists within all figurations (Elias, 1978), this influenced PETEs' reflexivity. Besides these mentioned sensitizing concepts, the concept of *role* and *gender* has also been utilized in this study to understand the PETEs' philosophies and practices on PETE.

The study also revealed the significance of context for PETE and for PETEs themselves, and in particular, for their developing habituses. The extent, to which their attitudes and beliefs manifested themselves in their practices as PETEs, depended upon the extent to which their habituses were congruent with the institutional demands of role. The PETEs were, for example constrained by their dependence to a greater or lesser extent on the National curriculum (UFD, 2003a, b, c) and also the customs and practices of the various

networks prominent in their occupational lives, such as the custom and practices of the PETE group at Nord UC and, for that matter, Nord UC as an institution.

In the first instance, this chapter will discuss how PETEs' philosophies were linked to broader ideologies. Then, in order to explain how the PETEs' ideologies was manifested in their practices, it will explore how the networks the PETEs had been and were a part of influenced the PETEs and, as a consequence, PETE at Nord UC. For ease of explanation, I will divide this part of the discussion into three dimensions: the personal, the local, and the national. Lastly, I discuss the place of reflexivity, something widely seen as an ideal state for teacher educators and teachers themselves, in the PETEs' customs and practices and thus their ability to educate reflexive PE teachers.

Having in Chapter 4 used observable indicator as representatives according to the findings (for example, none, few, some, etc.), these indicators are also used throughout the discussion chapter. However, it is worth commenting that when, in the discussion, not using these indicators, but rather referring to "the PETEs", this indicates that there was a seemingly common view among (the equal amount, the, majority or virtually all, or all of) the PETEs.

IDEOLOGIES IN PETE

In order to understand PETE at Nord UC from a sociological perspective, I will begin by considering the PETEs' views on the aims and purposes of PE and PETE, in other words, their philosophies (Green, 2003). As mentioned earlier, the term philosophies do in this study indicate the ways in which the supposedly rational thoughts of the PETEs are more-or-less value-laden and subjective. Sociologically speaking, these philosophies are more accurately referred to as ideologies, in the sense that all thinking is inevitably a blend of fact and fiction, "an amalgam of realistic observations and collective fantasies" (Elias;

cited in Mennell & Goudsblom, 1998, p. 227; cited in Green, 2003, p. 31). In this section, whenever possible, I locate the PETEs philosophies within the already identified ideologies in PE and PETE (Green, 2003; Houlihan, 1991; Sparkes, 1989, 1993; Tinning, 1990). Nonetheless, the chapter will also suggest the presence of new ideologies in PETE. In the first instance however, it may be worth reflecting on what seemed to be the main *raison d'être* of PE among the PETEs, namely *enjoyment*. To be more precise, it is useful to view enjoyment as an aspect of what I refer to as an ideology of hedonism; the pursuit of pleasure for its own sake among the PETEs, in other words, an ideology not previously identified as a specific ideology in PETE.

The ideology of hedonism

Similar to studies on PE teachers (Green, 2003), and on PE students (Larsson, 2009; Rønning, 1996) it was evident in this study that virtually all the PETEs emphasized enjoyment as a central feature of PE. In other words, they viewed PE as a subject where pupils should have the opportunity and experience enjoyment in its various physical and sporting forms; that is, through different kinds of sporting and physical activities. Thus, through PETE they viewed their role, as PETEs, to develop PE teachers as facilitators of enjoyable sporting experiences. In this regard, it was noteworthy that the PETEs appeared not to notice, let alone, reflect or comment upon, the tension between enjoyment as a primary goal of PE as a subject and the more educationally “worthy” goals that one might expect teacher educators to identify for their subject. While it may be surprising among educationalists to find PE teachers prioritizing enjoyment as a goal (Green, 2003), it might be seen as doubly surprising to find PETEs expressing a similar view. After all, one might reasonably assume that those responsible for PETE to be keen to advocate the supposedly educational benefits of PE. This may begin to explain why, on a number of occasions, there seemed to be a tension between the PETEs’ emphasis on enjoyment and the wider social role for sports (Coalter, 2007) that many referred to implicitly and explicitly at some stage in the interviews. Indeed, it was noteworthy how, having begun their responses by emphasizing enjoyment as a primary goal of PE, many PETEs sought

to, as Green (2003) puts it, “bolt on” a more “educational” (in the sense that there is more to PE than just playing sports) justification for PE in the form, for example, of health promotion as an assumed good of PE.

The ideology of performativity

Findings from this study imply that what is taught in PETE is determined primarily by its practical relevance to, for example, the teaching of sport skills by PE teachers to pupils (and in PETE, to PE students). In other words, it seemed that the PETEs’ ideas of what was important to pass on to the PE students in PETE, and the knowledge they claimed future PE teachers needed, was related to “what works” in terms of what works in school PE, and hence, what knowledge the PE students are assumed to need. As such, the knowledge the PETEs valued as important for PE students to possess was closely connected to what Tinning (1990) and Sparkes (1993), among others (see, for example, Dowling, 2006; Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 1997; Kirk, 1992, 2010; Larsson, 2009; Lawson, 1993; Næss, 1998), claim to be a prominent ideology in PE and PETE, namely technocratic rationality.

While a technocratic ideology in PE is related to a viewpoint of man-as-a-machine and efficiency is related to physical performance, findings from this study indicate that what the PETEs actually emphasized in their day-to-day practicalities was not first and foremost physical performance as such, but rather performativity in the sense of what works for future PE teachers. In other words, they were keen to pass on relevant knowledge (sporting skills and didactical skills) to the students, which include the PETEs’ tendency not to think in abstract terms. Hence, I argue that performativity, referred to by Roberts (2009) as knowledge judged by its ability to deliver results, is a more adequate way of conceptualizing what has hitherto been referred to as the technocratic rationality ideology. In other words, while this study has identified, similar to other studies, that PETEs’ practices were related to a technocratic rational ideology in their understanding

of the body and PE, findings from this study give weight to the argument that what may be viewed as a technocratic rational ideology among the PETEs actually is more accurately an ideology of performativity among the PETEs. That is to say, that the PETEs rationalized their views and teaching on the basis of what they assumed to be the most relevant knowledge (skills) needed as future PE teachers, and this was what PETE was seen as being about. This performativity ideology identified among the PETEs was first and foremost illustrated by the fact that PETEs had quite straight-forward views on what kinds of knowledge were deemed important for future PE teachers.

In the following section I will discuss different kinds of knowledge and practices the PETEs highlighted as especially important in PETE and how these can be related to what I refer to as an ideology of performativity.

Biomechanical knowledge: Sport-techniques

The ideology of sports with its focus on sport performance, what Kirk (2010) refers to as “the idea of physical education-as-sport-techniques” (p. 41), has been the main justification for “traditional” PE since the Second World War (Houlihan, 1991; Kirk, 1992, 2010). Similar to findings in earlier research on PE teachers (Green, 2003; Næss, 1998) and PETEs (Dowling, 2006; Larsson, 2009; McCullick, 2001; Møller-Hansen, 2004), virtually all the PETEs in this study valued enjoyment and sports and, therefore, the ability to demonstrate different sport skills as of paramount importance. In other words, this may explain their concern to link the ability to facilitate enjoyable PE to the need for PE teachers to master a range of different sport activities.

The PETEs took the view that skills in various sports were essential for future PE teachers and that it was possible (and important) to test the students’ technical levels in different sports in order to enable them to become good PE teachers. The PETEs’ emphasis on sport skills and for PE students to master different sports as the most

important competency to achieve in teacher education, was at one level not surprising, considering that sport skills was one aspect of the subject competency aim in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b). It is noteworthy, however, that overall, the PETEs viewed sport skills as the most important skill to develop for PE students during PETE. The PETEs spoke of frequently using skill tests to evaluate whether the PE students performed the sport activities in “the right way”, even though some of the PE students argued that the PETEs did not have a common standard for these tests.

While the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b) focuses on sport skills, they do not stipulate that PETE should involve the use of sport skill tests. In other words, this was something the PETEs at Nord UC had chosen to bring into their Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports and their education (something they were entitled to do if they wanted). But it was noteworthy that the PETEs did not question the worth (or content) of such tests in PETE. This suggests that the PETEs overall focus on PE as the teaching of sport techniques (Kirk, 2010) including skill tests to measure the sport skill level among the PE students, may be viewed as evidence that PETEs’ ideologies of PETE at Nord UC were grounded in what Kirk (2010) refers to as the hegemony of biomechanical knowledge in PE. Hence, the PETEs rationalized their teaching as necessary, not least, in order to deliver results (that is, give the PE students the relevant knowledge they would require in their future roles as PE teachers), which in reality meant enabling the PE students to perform sporting skills (the right way), in other words, preferred knowledge rooted in an ideology of performativity.

This emphasis on performing sport skills or sport techniques identified among the PETEs in this study is also likely to favour boys' expectations of PE rather than girls' (Flintoff & Scraton, 2001; Penney & Evans, 1999). In other words, focusing on sport techniques in PETE, as identified at Nord UC, the education reinforces a gendered practice of PE.

Pedagogy and didactical knowledge

Alongside (albeit secondary to) the focus on sport skills, virtually all the PETEs also pointed to the need for didactical skills for future PE teachers, and an interesting finding was that the majority of the PETEs viewed pedagogy as closely linked to subject didactics. In other words, in the eyes of the PETEs, pedagogy and subject didactics were similar things, even though the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) distinguish between the two. The PETEs in this study described didactical skills as addressing how to facilitate activities in PE and to provide a variety of teaching styles, which is in keeping with the National curriculum (ibid).

However, looking in the National curricula (ibid) didactical competency includes more than just the two core abilities facilitating activities and various teaching styles the PETEs referred to. The National curricula (ibid) states that didactical competency is “the ability to analyze the intentions of the curriculum as a basis for planning, carrying through and evaluating organized training in PE and sports from the pupils abilities/premises and the distinctive character of the subject” [my translation] (p. 12). In other words, besides focusing on facilitating activities and teaching styles, the National curricula (ibid) also emphasizes the ability to analyze the school curriculum and evaluate teaching.

Furthermore, knowing that the PETEs viewed didactics and pedagogy as so closely related, and knowing that the National curricula (ibid) define pedagogy as a multiple subject which includes parts as didactic, philosophy, history of ideas, psychology, and sociology, there are grounds for thinking that the PETEs had a quite narrow view (compared to the intentions in the National curricula [ibid]) on what didactics and pedagogy actually are. In other words, the majority of the PETEs seemed to have a predetermined view of what didactical competency involved and they did not seem to question this view or even relate it to what the National curricula (ibid) says about didactics (and pedagogy).

The way the PETEs in this study described didactical competency (and pedagogy) was in keeping with what Tinning (1991) describes as a performance pedagogy, or more recently as the science of teaching (Tinning, 2010). Performance pedagogy is based on a discourse that foregrounds utility and is concerned with the problems of how to teach PE, in other words, it focuses on teaching techniques and can be viewed, therefore, as an aspect of a technocratic rational ideology (Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1990, 1991, 2010), implicitly held by the PETEs.

Sociologically speaking, the PETEs beliefs and practices, that is, their tendencies to rationalize their understanding (and teaching) of didactical competency (and pedagogical competency) in order to deliver results, and teaching the students the kind of didactical (and pedagogical) knowledge they considered they would need as future PE teachers, might best be described by the concept of performativity, namely that knowledge is not judged by truth standards, but according to its usefulness in meeting practical ends (Roberts, 2009). Such thinking also illustrates the way in which the PETEs' day-to-day practices tended to shape their views (even over something that is actually defined in the National curricula [UFD, 200a, b, c]), rather than the other way around. Hence, the PETEs' understanding of didactical competency appeared to implicitly express the relation to an ideology of performativity.

Teaching styles

Further indications that an ideology of performativity was a foundation for the PETEs philosophies, were the ways in which they described their own teaching in terms of tips they wanted to pass on to the students as part and parcel of the more general teacher-centred instruction styles (Mosston & Ashworth, 2002) that they not only advocated for their students, but also adopted more or less wittingly when teaching both practical and theoretical subjects. Teacher-centred instruction styles are identified as the most favoured commonly used and appreciated teaching styles in PE (Byra, 2006; Curtner-Smith et al., 2001; Mosston & Ashworth, 2002; Salvara, et al., 2006) and PETE (Bulger & Housner,

2007). The PETEs' preference for teacher-centred teaching styles implied that the PE students were, indeed, viewed as "passive receivers" of predefined knowledge and that, by extension, the PE students would view their pupils in the same way. Even though the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC claimed that PETE is supposed to use a range of different approaches and styles, findings from this study confirm previous findings from other countries (see, for example, Kirk, 2005; Morgan et al., 2005) that despite the PE curricula emphasizing pupil-centred and model-based teaching approaches in sport education, the traditional teacher-centred styles continue to dominate the practice of PE teachers.

Other studies of PE and PETE have tried to implement student-centred teaching strategies in PE and PETE, with various degrees of success (Azzarito & Ennis, 2003; Curtner-Smith, 2007; Fernández-Balboa, 1995; Hickey, 2001; Macdonald and Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005; Tsangaridou, 2008). None, however, of the PETEs or PE students at Nord UC reported the use or experience of teaching strategies of such kinds in PETE.

While earlier research have found that male teachers favour a more direct, didactic teaching strategy and female PE teachers tend to use problem-solving approaches (Capel, 2005), the PETEs in this study show no gender difference according to teaching styles. Nonetheless, this study indicated that the PETEs used teaching styles preferred by male PE teacher which also tend to favour boys' PE, rather than using pupil-centred teaching styles which are more emphasized by girls in PE. This implies that even though this study has not identified gender differences among the PETEs on how they teach, the study had identified that PETE continue to teach gendered PE which echo findings from earlier Norwegian research on PETE (Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008; Kårhus, 2004a; Teksum, 2006).

Capel (2005) argues that the teaching strategies PE teachers use may be a product of their socialization into PE and sports. More specifically, Capel's (ibid) study suggests that teachers who had participated in non-traditional sports were "more likely to have an innovative orientation towards PE" (p. 117), while teachers who had participated in traditional sports at a high level tended to have a more conservative orientation towards the content and teaching styles of traditional PE. This is similar to Evans et al.'s (1996) findings that it was more common to use pupil-centred teaching styles in dance and gymnastics. In this regard, there is reason to believe that the teacher-centred teaching styles identified among the PETEs at Nord UC can largely be explained by a combination of the teaching and coaching styles the PE students had experienced in their own sporting lives as well as when they were pupils themselves. In other words, and consistent with Capel's (2005) findings, among others (Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008; Flintoff, 1993; Kårhus, 2004a; Teksum, 2006), the study revealed that PETEs socialization, and particular their previous experiences in traditional sports rather than non-traditional sports, seemed to reinforce a masculine understanding of PE which in turn impacted upon the development of PETE at Nord UC.

The PETEs were, in reality, pushing on an open door: Like the PETEs themselves, the PE students intuitive views of how to teach tended to be reinforced through anticipation of what was required to teach PE in school, and their experiences from school practice. Their predispositions tended to be reinforced, in other words, by a pragmatic outlook. Hence, the teaching styles (or teaching practices) among the PETEs were closely linked to an ideology of performativity, it seemed that the PETEs chose teaching styles they thought would be most efficient in helping the students develop the kind of knowledge they needed in real life. In other words, the PETEs rationalized their teaching both for pedagogical reasons (giving the students what they needed), but also economic reasons⁴¹ by claiming that economic pressure constrained them to use command-style teaching styles. The PETEs evidently considered the best way to "deliver" the relevant knowledge

⁴¹ Some of the PETEs commented that because the Institute had to save money, they as teachers had to teach large groups in the auditorium which implies one-way, commando-style teaching style.

to their students was by using teacher-centred instruction styles, even though they claimed one of the most important aspects of didactical (and pedagogical) knowledge the PE students needed to achieve during their education, was to be able to use a range of different teaching styles. In other words, findings from this study seem to contradict the PETEs' views; on the one hand they talked about the desirability for PE teachers to use a variety of teaching styles, while at the same time using instruction styles in their own teaching.

School practice and real life experiences

Findings from this study suggest that the majority (if not virtually all) of the PETEs viewed school practice as the single most important element of PETE, thereby implying that learning about the job of being a PE teacher "in reality" was considerably more important than the other aspects of PETE, such as theoretical knowledge and reflection. This is similar to what Velija et al. (2008) and Larsson (2009) found in their studies of PETE, namely, that PE students valued school-based experiences during PETE more than university lessons. Further evidence for claiming that the PETEs emphasized real life experience as especially important was that many of the PETEs, and especially the ones with previous experience as PE teachers from school, explicitly mentioned the need for recent and/or relevant school experience as a necessary competency to have in order to achieve the aims and purposes for PETE.

It was interesting to note that the emphasis on school practice was something the majority of the PETEs talked about regardless of whether they possessed previous experience as PE teachers in school themselves⁴². It was also noteworthy that even though many of the PETEs suggested that learning about the job of being a PE teacher in reality was more important than the other aspects of PETE, they did not seem to view themselves (as PETEs) as important elements of school practice, even in the role of contact teachers. Indeed, some of the PETEs questioned the usefulness of their role as contact teachers. In

⁴² Given that some of the PETEs interviewed had, in fact, never been school PE teachers.

this regard, the PE students reported contact teachers as rarely showing up during school practice. All-in-all, although the PETEs claimed school practice to be the most central part of the education, it was interesting to note that none questioned that for example students taking 30 credits PE could become PE teachers without having any practice from school during teacher education (because some of them could write an essay instead of having school practice). Further, the PETEs seemed to hand over to their mentor teachers to take care of the preparation of the next generation of PE students in relation to the practice of PE teaching.

It is well established that mentor teachers view themselves as having a practical role in learning students' subject specific teaching and classroom management and control (Booth, 1993; Hagelund, 2006; Skagen, 2010). In other words, the role of the mentor teacher is often limited first and foremost to helping students with the practical nature of teaching PE. The National and Local curricula require the PETEs to take part in school practice, which implies that the PETEs are supposed to; at least, have a complimentary role in school practice to the mentor teachers. However, as findings from this study indicate, the PETEs did not view themselves as having any particularly useful role in school practice, not even in relation to the practical roles of teaching PE. This finding begs the question: Why do PETEs as university teachers not include themselves as important parts of school practice? Indeed, if they do not see themselves as important contributors to school practice, why do they seem to view school practice as the most important aspect of PETE?

Part of the answer to these questions seems to lie in the PETEs' concern with real life experiences for their students and for what might be termed their performativity. Put another way, the focus on real life experiences is an expression of the PETEs' predispositions (*habitus*) grounded on their own experiences, and the context they find themselves in, (in particular) their relative dependence on PE students whose main concern is being prepared to teach PE in (real life schools) [and whose own *habitus*

focuses on sports], and the pressure on the PETEs to produce PE students who can cope with “real life” PE.

Within cultures which are informed by an ideology of performativity questions regarding, for example, *what* and *how* to teach are simply taken-for-granted and assumed to be the central role of PETE. By contrast, questions regarding *why*, that is to say, broader questions about the underlying purposes of PE/PETE, are seldom dealt with or introduced, either formally or informally, and this appeared to be the case in PETE at Nord UC. Not only did the PETEs focus on the practicalities of teaching PE in school during PETE, they tended not to engage the students in reflecting upon the aims and purposes of PE, nor relate their practices (or those of the students) to the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). It is worthy of note, however, that nothing within the context, institutional and professional, was constraining them to focus on reflexivity. Indeed, the most significant constraints, and the pressure towards real life experiences, in particular, seemed to constrain them away from reflection on a deeper level.

Findings from this study show that few of the PETEs referred to the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) to explain or provide justification for any of the competency aims, or rather, the aims and purposes of PE or PETE. Many of the PETEs did not, in fact, seem to know what was meant by, for example, social competency, adaptive and development competency or professional ethics competency, and they used personal examples and interpretations as explanations rather than referring to what was written in the National curricula (ibid). An interesting finding was that when the PETEs tried to explain the different competencies, what they meant and what was important, they resorted to the same kinds of unsubstantiated assertions that PE teachers tend to make, in order to argue for the subject in short phrases around preferences like enjoyment, health, skills, and sports for all (Green, 2003). Thus, although it might be expected that PETEs, as part of their role as professional educators of successive generations of PE teachers, would be able to provide a rationale and justifications (for the various competencies and attributes

PE students will need to acquire), they appeared no better able to do so than PE teachers themselves. Nor did the PETEs appear to have given these issues much thought.

Altogether, the prominence of performativity suggests that, similar to findings in earlier studies on Norwegian PETE (Dowling, 2006; Møller-Hansen, 2004), and in PETE in other countries (Fernández-Balboa, 1995; 1997; Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Lawson, 1993; Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1990, 1997, 2002) that technocratic rationality was reflected in the focus on sport skills, didactical competency and preferred teaching styles. Hence, the PETEs rationalized their philosophies and practices in terms of this.

The ideologies of health and individualism

Similar to findings from earlier studies on PE teachers and PETE (Annerstedt, 2008; George & Kirk, 1988; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; Velija et al., 2008), findings in this study revealed that the majority of the PETEs also tended to use health-related ideological justifications for PE, and have uncritically accepted (taken-for-granted) assumptions about the health benefits of sports and physical activity (Waddington, 2000). Telama et al. (2005), for example, describe health promotion as “the main goal of physical education in many countries” (p. 115).

Tinning (1990) observes that the ideology of health is closely connected to the ideology of liberal individualism which, itself, is frequently claimed to be the dominant ideology in society in general and PE in particular (Hargreaves, 1996; Sparkes, 1989; Tinning, 1990). The ideology of individual liberalism is premised on the belief that people are responsible for their own fortunes in for example, school, work or sports. Thus, by extension health is something each individual is responsible for. People have, in other words, to keep themselves in good physical condition through, for example exercising regularly. Such an individualized view on health is viewed by critical theorists, however,

as one-dimensional, failing to consider the dialectical relationship between the individual and social and structural aspects of individual as well as social health (Evans & Davies, 2004a, Kirk, 2004; Tinning, 1990).

The PETEs in this study certainly tended either implicitly or explicitly to connect the ideology of health to the ideology of liberal individualism in the sense that they viewed their roles as PETEs to educate PE teachers able to facilitate enjoyable PE in Norwegian schools that could encourage pupils towards a life-long physically active lifestyle, in which they would assume responsibility for their own health. In other words, the PETEs implicitly accepted a role as educators of “health experts” (PE teachers) (Evans & Davies, 2004a, p. 39). The PETEs tended not to reflect, either among themselves or with the PE students, upon the various issues related to the ideology of healthism, that is to say, the realization that in focusing upon pupils’ roles in the form of health-related exercise, PE teachers and PETEs could be accused of adapting a narrow and overly simplistic (and thus problematic) conception of health (Evans, 2004; Evans & Davies, 2004a, b), thereby perpetuating a “victim blaming” (Colquhoun, 1991; Tinning, 1990) ideology of individualism and that health is a problematic justification for PE in so far as PE cannot “save” children’s health alone (Evans, 2004; Evans & Davies, 2004a). In other words, if a health promotion looks likely to become a, even *the*, primary justification for PE in the minds of the future PE teachers, and the dominant ideology of healthism and individualism that dominate PE are problematic; it becomes crucial that PETEs introduce PE students to the complex nature of health.

While it was noteworthy that the PETEs in general mentioned enjoyment as an aim of PE before talking about health, the PE students mentioned health first and foremost as the main aim of PE. Indeed, the PE students in this study and similar to recent research (McKenzie, 2007; Larsson, 2009; Velija et al., 2008) placed a good deal of emphasis on PE as a subject that can and should counteract the alleged increase in life-style diseases in society. Although PE students and PETEs appear equally committed to the ideology of

individualism, the PE students appeared more deeply imbued with an ideology of healthism than the PETEs. It seemed that young people (PE students) who have grown up in the contemporary body- and fitness culture (Evans & Davies, 2004b), take such thoughts for granted, and hence put even more emphasis on the extrinsic benefit of health as an important aim for PE than their PETEs, who had only been part of this body and fitness culture in Norway over the last 10 years (in other words this body and fitness culture has not been part of many of the PETEs' childhood or youth). It seems that the health, body and fitness culture had become more deeply-seated in PE students' habituses' than in those of the PETEs. Hence, it may be that the next generation of PE teachers in Norway focuses, first and foremost, on health issues in PE, and if there is supposed to be more to PE than preventing health diseases (which the Knowledge Promotion [KD, 2006] actually says), there is reason to take Evans (2004) and Evans and Davies' (2004a, b) considerations on the aims and purposes of PE and PETE more seriously, namely that the narrow and overly simplistic conception on health, or the taken-for-granted assumptions of health being related just to health-related exercise, has to be reconsidered.

According to Evans (2004), among others (Evans & Davies, 2004a, b; Tinning, 1990), this means that health has to be discussed as a dialectical relationship between the individual and social and structural control. Nonetheless, given that this study suggests that discussions among the PETEs or between them and the students about the aims and purposes of PE and PETE were rare occurrences, it seems that any shifts in the PETEs' habituses (with regard to health, for example) is more likely to occur through their wider social networks than those around their day-to-day occupational roles. For example, the prevalence of the issue of health in wider society may have had a significant impact on the PE students' and PETEs' views on PE and PETE. Actually, the failure of the PETEs to formally (and systematically) and informally discuss health in PE with the students is probably explainable by the fact that both the PE students and the PETEs took the relationship between PE and health for granted.

The ideology of mesomorphism

During the interviews I did not ask the PETEs specific questions related to the ideology of mesomorphism, an ideology highlighted, especially among critical theorists, as prominent among PE teachers (Evans & Davies, 2004b; Tinning, 1990). Only one of the PETEs explicitly mentioned a view in line with this ideology, in other words, a preferred [slim and well trained] body-shape among PE students. The argument for the need of body-shape of this kind was related to their future job as PE teachers and the fact that they are supposed to be role models (and as such have to look healthy and sporty). Such statements echo findings from McCullick's (2001) study on American PE teachers. However, even though findings from this study give an impression that the ideology of mesomorphism did not shape the PETEs' philosophies or practices significantly, because nearly none of them mentioned aspects which can be related to the ideology of mesomorphism, it is reason to speculate if this impression would be different if I had asked them more direct and specific questions. In other words, it is reason to speculate if the view of a preferred slim and well-trained body-shape explored by one of the PETEs at Nord UC actually is a more common view among the PETEs at Nord UC than findings from this study suggests.

Summary: Ideologies in PETE

Findings from this study suggest, not only that the concepts of ideology is extremely useful in making sense of the PETEs philosophies and practices, but that it is possible to identify several broad ideological themes.

A major finding was that many of the PETEs', similar to PE teachers (2003), emphasized the ideology of hedonism as a justification for PE in school. Nonetheless, they also offered more educational justifications for PE such as health. Health was a major argument for PE used by the PETEs (but the PE students were even keener to advocate

the health benefits one can achieve through PE). The PETEs' understanding of health was closely connected to the liberal individualism ideology (Evans & Davies, 2004b; Kirk, 2004; Tinning, 1990), that is to say, that everyone is personally responsible for their own health. The way the PETEs tried to accomplish the ideology of health in PE was through a blend of the ideology of hedonism and the sport ideology (referred to under the ideology of performativity). Put another way, the PETEs viewed the aim of PETE to educate PE teachers able to facilitate enjoyable PE (sport activities) in a way that enable pupils to take care of own health. Thus, the ideologies of hedonism and sports (performativity) seemed like guiding principles among the majority of the PETEs, in the sense that the overarching aim was to make youngsters active, fit and healthy (and thin) (Evans & Davies, 2004b) through enjoyable PE (sporting activities).

The PETEs in this study had similar to earlier studies philosophies closely related to sports (a sport ideology), in the sense that virtually all the PETEs viewed mastering sport skills to be of paramount importance for future PE teachers. The sport ideology is closely linked to what Tinning (1990, 1991) refers to as a technocratic rational ideology and which earlier studies have shown to be a prominent ideology in PE and PETE (see, for example, Dowling, 2006; Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 1997; Houlihan, 1991; Kirk, 1992; 2010; Larsson, 2009; Lawson, 1993; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998; Sparkes, 1993). Thus, in contrast to earlier studies that relate such findings first and foremost to a technocratic rational ideology among PETEs (and PE teachers), this study has identified that an overarching ideology superior to the technocratic rational ideology seems to be the ideology of performativity, that is to say, that the outcome of the education is valued for its performativity. In reality this means that the PETEs' philosophies of PETE were closely linked to the intention of giving the students relevant knowledge and skills that work in real life. The ideology of performativity seemed so deeply ingrained in the individual and group habituses of the PETEs, that it operated as a hegemonic ideology in the PETEs' philosophies and practices, in the sense that it was the dominant way of viewing PE and PETE and, as such, became the implicit, taken for granted view among the PETEs.

There are several sociological concepts that are helpful in making sociological sense of *why* the PETEs' philosophies and practices, and hence PETE at Nord UC, seemed to be grounded on these identified ideologies. It seemed that the PETEs socialization was manifested in their habituses which also became part of their professional identities. The individual and group habituses, and hence professional identities, were shaped by the various networks (at different levels), and the power relations of the interdependencies of the networks the PETEs were involved in. In the following section I will use these sociological concepts to make sense of the PETEs' ideologies.

MAKING SENSE OF PETEs' IDEOLOGIES

In order to understand the PETEs' views regarding the nature and purposes of PE and PETE, their philosophies of their subject, and how these philosophies and practices (behaviours) or, more accurately, ideologies became manifest, it is necessary to look more closely at the PETEs themselves and how they had been socialized into becoming PETEs. In Chapter 2 the process of socialization was categorized into three phases: acculturation, professional socialization (including so-called continuing professional development [CPD]), and lastly, occupational socialization. These different phases in the socialization process are related to the various networks the PETEs have been and continue to be a part of. In order to understand the socialization process of the PETEs and, in particular, their development of professional identities, the next part of the discussion will, for ease of explanation, be divided into three dimensions: the personal, the local, and the national.

PETEs: The personal dimension

In the process of understanding PETEs' philosophies of PE and PETE, it is necessary to look at the networks the PETEs have been and are involved in, because these networks are likely to have shaped their thoughts and practices (in other words their habituses), as

well as the networks they are involved in today. These networks or figurations include the family, schools, friendship groups, and sport clubs and the manner in which each of these networks formally and informally shape their attitudes to and practices in sports.

PETEs' sporting habituses and sporting identity

A common feature of all the PETEs in this study was their current and previous sporting and friluftsliv (outdoor life) experience. Many highlighted their own interest in sports to be the main reason for entering the profession. In other words, and similar to findings in other studies on PE and PETE (Armour & Jones, 1998; Dowling, 2006, 2008; Evans & Williams, 1989; Green, 2003; Larsson, 2009; McCullick, 2001; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998; O'Bryant et al., 2000; Velija et al., 2008), the PETEs in this study had strong sporting habituses. Their biographies, and especially their early attachments to sports, had developed a typical orientation towards PE, and sports. This habitual love of sports formed a sporting identity among the PETEs, in terms of the way they viewed themselves as well as how they presented themselves to others as sporting persons. This sporting identity among the PETEs helps explaining the prominence of what I am referring to as an ideology of hedonism in PETE at Nord UC. Said another way, the PETEs' love of sports, reflected their emphasis on the need for PETE to educate PE teachers able to facilitate enjoyable PE.

This study has demonstrated that the PETEs' perceptions of what should be delivered by their mentor teachers in school and by the PETEs themselves in teacher education, was very conventional and shaped primarily by their experiences (of sports and of PE teaching), rather than any professional reflection undertaken informally or formally as PETEs or required of them as part of their roles. For example, the PETEs' emphasis on performing sports the right way and ensuring the performance level through sport tests, is an indication of their conventional and habitual views on sports. Another example is that enjoying sports themselves appeared to be one reason why they emphasized enjoyment as an important aim of PE.

The majority of the PETEs also took the view that because young people were likely to have a variety of sporting tastes and gain pleasure from differing activities, they should be introduced to a variety of activities in PE. All-in-all, what PETEs emphasized in PETE (sport skills and teaching methods) appeared to be influenced by the PETEs' own sporting habituses. Hence their understanding of what was viewed as enjoyable in PE was coloured more by the PETEs' own experience and tastes rather than any empirical research and professional reflection or training. Such views among the PETEs corresponded more or less exactly with findings on PE teachers' view of PE (Green, 2003). It seems that the findings in this study confirm that the PETEs sporting habitus, similar to PE teachers socialize them into particular values and beliefs (Chen & Ennis, 1996) regarding the nature and purpose of PE (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006; Placek et al., 1995) and PETE. Hence, as with PE teachers, it seems as PETEs' early experiences tend to have a long-lasting impact on PETE, and provide the basis for a sport-oriented ideology (here identified as the ideology of performativity) in PETE. This similarity between the views of PETEs and PE teachers is hardly surprising, however, given the similarities in their backgrounds (and, in particular, their strong attachment to sports) and the group habituses these are likely to create.

As such, it seems that the concept of habitus is a useful way of explaining the PETEs' views and practices at Nord UC. Similar to findings among PE teachers (Green, 2003; Næss, 1998) and PETEs (Dowling, 2006; Møller-Hansen, 2004), this study echoes that the view that a love of sports (having emerged during childhood and youth) was reinforced by being a member of a PE teaching community in school. Subsequently, rather than being challenged or constrained to reflect upon their sporting dispositions when becoming teacher educators, PETE had, if anything further, reinforced their sporting predispositions. The commonality of sporting habituses among the PETEs in this study suggested the existence of a shared *social* or *group habitus* (van Krieken, 1998) among the PETEs.

PETEs' teacher habitus – teacher identity

Besides having a strong sporting habitus, which in fact was so deeply embedded in the PETEs' outlook that it formed basis for their professional identities, in the sense of how the PETEs referred to their individual sense of self (as well as how they were identified by others) (Roberts, 2009), many of the PETEs in this study expressed views about the aims and purposes of PETE and their role as PETEs strongly connected towards school and teaching. Many (also the ones that had not been PE teachers in school themselves) actually seemed to have what I have identified as a teacher habitus. In other words, whether or not the PETEs themselves had been teachers, they believed that PETE was first and foremost about preparing PE students for the practicalities of day-to-day teaching. Many, for example, mentioned their own real life experiences as PE teachers to be the single most important experience to have in their role as PETEs. In other words, and similar to findings in Velija et al.'s (2008) study on PE students, the PETEs appeared to draw heavily upon their own PE experience and PE teacher experience, and as such they had "already developed their own ideologies about teaching from school" (Velija et al., 2008, p. 401).

Alongside this appreciation of their own experiences, the majority of the PETEs also emphasized school practice and didactical competency as the most important parts of PETE. This reflects the hegemony of school practice and an ideology of performativity, in the sense that the PETEs in this study identified school practice as a very important part of the education, even though some questioned their role as contact teachers in school practice. In other words, whether the PETEs agreed with it or not, there was dominance in PETE of the taken-for-granted assumed superiority of practical real life occupational knowledge to theoretical knowledge. Hence, the PETEs were constrained into this view, especially by the PE students' pre-occupation, to view practical knowledge more important and significant than theory.

Besides the focus on real life experience of PE, virtually all the PETEs also expressed the views that the teaching aspect of being a PE teacher educator was the single most important part of their job and a great deal more important than, for example, doing research. Even though the majority of the PETEs had research as a part of their job description, virtually all the PETEs (including the ones with a PhD for whom a large part of their post is scheduled for research) stated that the teaching part of their job was the most important. The PETEs' appreciation of the teaching part of the job and earlier teaching experiences as PE teachers seemed to be experiences that had an ongoing influence on the PETEs' values, thoughts and practices and it had become a significant dimension in their individual and collective identities. Put another way, the PETEs attachment towards teaching became a significant dimension in how they viewed themselves as professionals; their professional identity, in other words, how they referred to their individual sense of self (and how they were identified by other) (Roberts, 2009) was in terms of a teaching identity.

Actually, irrespective of any assumptions there might be regarding the desirability of PETEs' reflecting upon their practice, as well as that of the PE students, alongside integrating theory and practice, and the fact that research (and, by implication, theory or at least evidence based theory) is considered so important to PETE that it is formally built into their working lives, the PETEs in this study still viewed teaching and learning about PE via school practice as the twin pillars of PETE at Nord UC. This demonstrates the depth and pervasiveness of their (some might say conservative) PE teaching habituses or identities, and thus the PETEs' preference for an ideology of performativity.

Despite the fact that the PETEs in this study had teacher identities, findings also suggest that when teaching practical subjects the majority of the PETEs' teaching were in terms of a coaching orientation. In this regard, it is relevant to think in terms of subject warrant, a person's perception of the requirements of and benefits of work in a given profession weighed against self-assessments of aspiration and competence (Lawson, 1983a, b).

Lawson (1983a, b) divides subjective warrant into two forms: a teaching orientation and a coaching orientation. Findings from this study confirm Green's (2003) findings, among others (Dowling, 2006; Evans & Williams, 1989; O'Bryant et al., 2000), that PE teachers often have experiences which incline the move towards directive behaviours typically associated with coaches rather than ideal type teaching behaviours, and that the coaching orientation influences PE teachers perceptions of their role. Hence, it seemed as if the PETEs in this study, similar to the PE teachers in Greens' (2003) study and what Tsangaridou (2006) found in the review on PE teachers' beliefs, that it was difficult to distinguish between the teaching and coaching roles both in theory and practice, because their perceptions of what knowledge was needed in PE were influenced not only by their sporting and teaching habituses, but also by their coaching orientations and expectations.

PETEs' professional socialization (including CPD)

According to the previous sections, findings from this study confirm that acculturation is an important and influential phase of PETEs' socialization. This significance of acculturation begs questions, nevertheless, about professional socialization in the form of formalized education PETEs undertake in order to be able to work as PETEs. How does this dimension of professional socialization influence the PETEs?

The professional education (or formal professional socialization) of the PETEs at Nord UC varied to some degree. While some of the PETEs had general teacher education as part of their education, others had a bachelor in PE and sports, while two had neither teacher education nor PE as part of their formal education. Nonetheless, there was one common feature among all the PETEs in this study: they had all undertaken a Master's degree, something which is a premise for being able to work as a PE teacher educator in Norway. What was noteworthy was that there seemed to be no premise for the relevance of the theme/subject of the Master's degrees or the PhD in order to teach in PETE. So, while there is formal training to become a PE teacher, there is no formal training for becoming a PETE. That said, more well-established universities in Norway have in recent

years required doctoral degree to obtain permanent employment. Two of the PETEs in this study had a PhD, which made them “stand out” from the rest of the group in terms of educational background. However, it did not seem that the possession of a higher degree (in the form of a PhD) had any particular impact on these PETEs’ views and practices regarding PE and PETE. Neither did their PhD degree seem to have any effect on their likelihood to view school practice as the heart of PETE, or even engage in research or focus on reflexive practice in their roles.

It was interesting to note that many of the PETEs had previously been students at Nord UC, and some of them explicitly mentioned their own education as a reason for wanting to become a PE teacher educator. In other words, they talked about their own experiences as students at Nord UC as influencing their choice of wanting to enter the occupation as PETEs. The tendency for many of the PETEs to have previously been students at the institution they now worked at is commonplace in Norway, especially at the larger university colleges providing a bachelor in PE and sports or master programme. But at smaller university colleges it seems to be more common that the PETE staff is recruited from other (larger) university colleges. In this study, two out of three of the PETEs had been previous students at Nord UC and as such there is reason to believe that their professional education had impacted upon their entrance into PETE, or in other words, as some of the PETEs said explicitly, they had been inspired to become PETEs by observing the professional lives of PETEs. An obvious question to ask in this regard is if this over time may have encouraged them to adapt to conservative or “traditional” views regarding what PETE (and PE) should involve? Actually, one can only speculate if recruitment of ex-students is likely to reinforce rather than challenge the status quo and, therefore, reinforce a conservative PETE.

PETEs and research

Only two of the PETEs had obtained PhDs' and, thus, been formally trained as researchers. As mentioned previously, however, even these two described themselves first and foremost as teachers.

Findings from this study reflect the fact that (most) PETEs in Norway have time for research built into their workload. In principle, at least, this suggests that the universities are sending a clear message about what is expected from PETEs: that is to say, that the government views being research active as an integral part of being a university teacher, including a teacher educator. This suggests that the official view is that teacher education should be informed by research, which also implies that it is thought desirable that the education of teachers involves a theoretical element on which the practice of teaching is based or grounded. In sociological terms, the PETEs' employment contracts were discursive, that is to say, they communicate a particular view of PETEs' ostensible roles, namely, as academics expected to research, and in doing so, apply theory to practice. Yet, the PETEs did not tend to use the time allocated to research for research, but rather used in student-related work.

The PETEs' tendency to use the 20 percent research time for other purposes was, however, evidence not only of the low esteem in which they held research (and theorizing more generally), but also of the relative freedom PETEs had to manoeuvre within their contractual obligations. Put more simply, the PETEs clearly had sufficient independence to ignore the expectation from the institution to undertake research. Indeed, research time served as a repository that could be used when extra time was needed for activities related to the practice of teaching. Evidently the PETEs were not predisposed towards valuing research (probably because of their sporting and teaching background), and while research was enabled they were not constrained by their institution to engage in research (for example, expectations of publications), and their research activity had not, historically, been closely monitored.

Similar to findings on earlier studies on PETEs (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002), the majority of the PETEs at Nord UC emphasized teaching rather than research, and the impression that the PETEs seemed to have identities exclusively attached to teaching can be confirmed by the fact that the PETEs in this study had only produced two peer-reviewed articles during seven years. Associate Professors in Norway typically have about 40 percent research time (some have less and some more) built into their position, which gives them a relatively large amounts of time to undertake research. As a consequence, one of the main expectations will naturally be that they produce research. The results from ForskDok⁴³, however, revealed that only one of the 15 PETEs in this study (one with a PhD) had published one peer-reviewed article in 2009. In 2008 two of the PETEs, together with the Institute Leader, were authors together on one peer-reviewed article.

Besides these examples, none of the PETEs in this study were recorded with peer-reviewed articles in the period since 2003. Given that all 15 PETEs had 20 percent time for research each year (although, in fact, some had more and a few had less) over the last seven years (15 PETEs x 20% research x 7 man-labour-years), gives a total of 21 man-labour-years of research time at the Institute. All told, the time allocated for research seemed to have resulted in very little peer reviewed research activity within the Sport Institute at Nord UC. Indeed, findings from the study indicate that PETEs at Nord UC produced little research when compared to university employees in Norway in general (Kyvik & Sivertsen, 2005), who have increased their publications output by 30 percent over the latest 20 years.

⁴³ BIBSYS ForskDok consists of two databases: The ForskPub database: includes Norwegian research and development publications, and the ForskPro database: includes research and development projects.

Even though the two PETEs with a PhD explicitly said research was important and expected of them, it seemed like their identities, similar to virtually all the PETEs in this study, was more closely connected towards teaching (and sports) than research. Henkel (2000) found in her study that identity among senior staff in universities was connected to their teaching roles, but young staff in “young” universities looked at themselves as researchers. The PETEs at Nord UC however, regardless of amount of years in the university system or whether they had a PhD or not, viewed teaching as more important than research. In other words, all the PETEs in this study seemed to view themselves as teachers, and as such their primary professional identity was related to teaching, rather than research. An interesting observation, nonetheless, was that they wanted to be viewed by others as academics rather than merely trainers of PE teachers. However, findings from this study suggest that they were more concerned to emphasize practical knowledge, which Freidson (2001) relate to as common within manual discretionary types of specialization, rather than emphasizing high formal knowledge, which is related to mental discretionary specializations (ibid) supposed to be held by academics.

Furthermore, indications of the (pre-eminence) of school practice and the focus on real life experiences in the PETEs’ perceptions was confirmed by the fact that some of them thought that the research topics that PETEs should engage in ought to be school-related (on the practice of teaching) in order to have practical value in PETE; in other words, projects aimed at understanding PE or PETE theoretically were not valued highly.

It seems as if the PETEs’ networks (or figurations) constrained the PETEs in particular ways. The two PETEs with a PhD, had in effect joined an existing network (the PETEs at Nord UC; the established) with a distinct sub-culture (way of life/practices) that constrained the ones with a PhD to adapt (as outsider [de Swaan, 2001; van Krieken, 1998]), and in doing so, they adapted the views and practices of the established majority (as PETEs).

Of all the sensitizing concepts used to make sense of socialization into PETE, acculturation, professional socialization and occupational socialization, acculturation and to a lesser extent, occupational socialization appear far more useful as explanatory concepts making sense of PETEs' beliefs and practices. Professional socialization, on the other hand, appears to have little impact.

Summary: The personal dimension

Taken together, in this section on the personal dimension of the PETEs' figurations, it is argued that in modern life (in contrast to simpler societies where identities were seen as more stable), identities are (now) more fragmented because we interact with different persons and in different places. Earlier research on teachers' identities indicate that teachers' identities are not stable, but influenced by personal and institutional aspects and social experiences, both in the past and the present (Bain, 1997; Dowling, 2006; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; Henkel, 2000; Keay, 2006; Kogan, 2000; Rossi & Cassidy, 1999; Sachs, 2001; Tinning, 2000). Roberts (2009) observes that some sociologists argue that in late or postmodern societies life has become so fragmented that we are in some ways losing sense of who we really are, with the consequence "that identities are now subject to constant revision, and can be changed and chosen deliberately" (p. 128) (a view often held by post structuralists). But findings from this study show that PETEs' professional identities (the sporting and teacher identity) tend to be particularly stable and enduring, in the sense of being deeply embedded in their sporting and teaching habituses. In other words, it did not seem that the PETEs' identities had, if at all, changed much over time.

It is possible to say that the PETEs in this study seemed to have very similar sporting and teaching habituses, and in effect, they influenced each other by reinforcing each other's habituses rather than challenging them. Thus, findings from this study show that PETEs adapted to the existing culture at the same time as reinforcing it. Knowing that the Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway (Universitets- og høyskoleloven,

2005) highlights that the role of teacher education is to educate reflective teachers (this paragraph is also referred in the National curricula [UFD, 2003a, b, c]), an obvious question to ask is: “is it likely that PETEs, with strong sporting and teaching habituses and without research identities (assuming that research encourages reflexivity) will be able to educate reflective PE teachers?”

It seemed like the teacher habitus among the PETEs, identified on an individual level, also was a *social habitus* among the PETEs, because the identified sporting and teacher habitus was a characteristic shared by the whole PETE group (van Krieken, 1998). Hence, it is possible to say that the PETEs had sporting and teacher identities as professional group identities, because their sporting and teachers habituses were developed and reinforced in their working context. The next section will consider the PETEs on-the-job experiences.

PETEs: The local dimension

As already indicated, the acculturation process seemed to heavily impact upon the PETEs’ habituses and identities, and in the process, legitimated their understanding of the aims and purposes of PE and PETE (through earlier experiences as sportsmen and sportswomen, and PE teachers). By the same token, the PETEs’ professional socialization (including CPD) seemed to have a minor impact on both their views and their roles as PETEs. What about the working context or in other words the occupational socialization? How did on-the-job experiences influence the PETEs ideologies, practices and hence identity?

Occupational socialization is according to Lawson (1986), “the process by which physical educationalists learn the knowledge, values, and skills required by the work organization” (p. 108); in other words, the attitudes and behaviours learnt on-the-job

(Green, 2008a). In this regard, the “job” of a PE teacher educator consists of having different roles, the main role being teaching PE students. But besides teaching, research and administration were also prominent roles in their job description, and for some, other roles such as being a Study Leader. Green (2003) observes that PE teachers find themselves enmeshed within a variety of constraints and expectations in their job in the various networks they are a part of. These include, for example, constraints from significant others (such as peers, students and managers). These are, in other words, constraints at a local level. Similar to PE teachers (Green, 2003), the PETEs in this study seemed to experience being part of different figurations or networks of social relations (Elias, 1978) which formed “a structure of mutually oriented and (inter)dependent people” (Elias, 1978, p. 261). The concept of interdependency conceptualizes the relationships within the networks (figurations) people are involved in.

In this section, I will look more closely at the networks the PETEs were a part of at the workplace and how the interdependencies within these networks influenced and shaped the PETEs’ ideologies and practices; in other words, how the process of workplace culture developed and changed in relation to the development of the PETEs in PETE. In order to understand the nature of the interdependencies, it is necessary to recognize power balances and ratios as central dimensions within interdependencies understood as complex power balances within figurations. Power is treated as an inevitable aspect of all human relationships and exists within all figurations (Elias, 1978). In the following section I will identify the networks of interdependencies the PETEs were involved in on a local level, including the nature (the power relations) of these interdependencies, and their consequences for the beliefs and practices of PETEs at Nord UC.

The most notable network of interdependencies identified in this study the PETEs were involved in was their relationship with their peers and the students they were training. But also mentor teachers in school practice, the leadership at the Sport Institute, CPD and mentoring programmes, and the administration at Nord UC, were influential aspects of

the networks in the PETEs' everyday lives. I will deal with each of these figurations in turn.

PETEs and PE students

This study has noted how the PETEs perceived themselves as especially dependent upon (and thus, interdependent with) their students, and that they perceived this as the most significant network they were involved in as PETEs. The PETEs observed how they were dependent for the success of the course on the students. Nevertheless, the PETEs did not appear entirely conscious of the extent to which their dependency on the students influenced their everyday lives and the nature of the PETE they provided.

As previously indicated, the PETEs had various experiences regarding the PE students' dedication towards being students, and were especially critical about the students putting more emphasis on such things as paid work than on being students teachers. But while the students seemed to justify their engagement in paid work as two folded, the need for money and lack of pressure from the PETEs and the Institution, many of the PETEs seemed to explain the students undertaking paid work only in terms of their apparent need to earn money, hence the PETEs' assumption that students should use any "spare" time to study rather than work. In other words, findings from this study seem to suggest that PETEs and PE students have different views on who was responsible for facilitating a good PETE and make the students full-time-students.

A recent study on higher education in Norway revealed the same view found among the PE students in this study, namely that quality in the education first and foremost was viewed as the education or the educators facilitating a good learning environment, good social environment and physical surroundings. Only a small amount of the students claimed that they as students were responsible for developing good study skills (Rønning, Johansen & Finbak, 2010). This is illustrative of how the PETEs were dependent on the

students. The PETEs saw themselves as in an impossible situation – trying to get students to be committed to their training/study, while having limited power to alter their priorities. Referring to themselves as students 20 years ago, some of the PETEs perceived the balance of power to have shifted over time from the PETEs towards the students. In this regard, it was recognizable that the students were involved in many (sometimes in overlapping and interconnected) networks besides being a PE student at Nord UC. Many students, for example, talked about doing sports during leisure time (both as a leisure activity and at a competitive level), working as coaches and having paid work beyond their course.

One reason for the students' desire (or, rather, perceived need) to earn money can be that youth in Norway today perceive strongly lifestyle norms, and in particular, being able to purchase and consume the “right” clothes or do the right things. This increases their need for money. In other words, the overlapping networks and interdependencies the PE students were a part of may lead to conflicting expectations between the university teachers and the students regarding what being a student actually involves. Similar to the significance of “youth's new condition” (Green, 2010, p. 193), referring to how informal, casual and recreational activities impact on, for example, youth sports, this study has shown that the relationship between the PETEs and their students were themselves shaped by the relationships between the students and others (for example, employers, coaches, and friends) in the PE students' networks. As a consequence, the overlapping networks the PE students were a part of also influenced and shaped the practice of PETE at Nord UC, because the PETEs were constrained to adapt their practice to the fact that the PE students were often part of other networks.

Another interesting aspect of the PETEs' interdependence with the students was the way the PETEs seemed, at a more sub-conscious level, to adapt their teaching to the students' expectations. Although Annerstedt and Bergendahl (2002) found in their study on Swedish PETE that PE students felt they were not able to influence their education

sufficiently, the PETEs at Nord UC appeared constrained to adapt their practice to the reality of their students' lives. In other words, the PETEs teaching were heavily dependent on their students and what knowledge the PETEs thought the students wanted or needed. This again underpins the ideology of performativity identified among the PETEs. For example, it was interesting to note that despite believing that the students had little interest in educational theory, the PETEs reinforced this tendency by giving the students what they wanted rather than challenging the students and their views about the different subjects. Put more simply, many of the PETEs did not think the students wanted "highly theoretical" knowledge, so they did not give them theory on this level, hence, the students did not want this kind of theory. In other words, this seems like something of a self-fulfilling prophecy, also known as the "Thomas rule" (de Swaan, 2001, p. 34).

Together with findings from this study indicating that the PETEs themselves were not very interested in theory and research, it may explain why the PETEs did not seem to challenge the PE students to reflect upon the aims and purposes of PE or PETE. But it also seemed as if the PETEs were not constrained to reflect upon the nature and purposes of PETE through, for example, formal discussions at the Institute or being constrained to do research (and as such having to reflect theoretically on for example PE or PETE), which in turn lead the PETEs not to constrain their students to reflect upon such issues either.

Similar to PE teachers (Green, 2003) many of the PETEs seemed to think that students' development of social competency or adaptive and development competency was something that would happen "naturally", informally as by a process of osmosis, rather than that they, as PETEs, were responsible for helping the students reflecting on such issues. This disposition appears likely to have been compounded by the fact that the PETEs did not themselves appear to have reflected much on the aims and purposes of PE and PETE, hence to help the students reflect on these issues where they themselves did not know what was meant by social competency and adaptive and development

competency in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) could hardly be expected. In other words, there is reason to question if one can reasonably expect the students to have insight and knowledge about such documents if the PETEs, as the ones delivering the content of these documents, did not have insight and knowledge about them.

All-in-all, findings from this study suggest that the majority of the PETEs believed that they primarily helped the PE students to become good practicing PE teachers. At the same time it appeared that the PETEs had neither consciously reflected upon nor discussed explicitly with their peers, or the students, what PE and PETE should be or indeed was about in practice. Even though some of the PETEs explicitly expressed their position of power to influence the students, this study indicates that the PE students were also in position of power. In other words, the PETEs were, in reality, highly dependent on the students, with the result that the group of people we might at first glance consider to be all powerful in the PE teacher educator process, the PETEs was, in fact, less powerful than we originally thought. They were actually highly dependent on others in their networks, the students, and as a consequence the students had more power than might be expected. There was, in other words, a shift in power balance from the PETEs towards the PE students.

As such there are grounds for claiming that findings from this study have identified that the PE students seemed to be very influential in defining PETE at Nord UC: for example in the way the PETEs adapted the teaching to a level suitable for the students, the focus on sport skills and didactical skills in the education which corresponded with the students expectations of what to learn during PETE, and that the PETEs adapted the time-schedule in order to fit the PE students' requirements outside campus (as for example being able to work, do competitive sports or go on vacations). It is worth observing that this study, similar to earlier research (see, for example, Dowling, 2006; Larsson, 2009; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005), reveals that even those one might reasonably expect to reflect on PE and education in the stronger sense appeared pre-

occupied with preparing their students for what may be termed the *what* and *how* of teaching, rather than the *why*.

In being implicitly and/or explicitly critical of PETEs for failing to be more critically reflective, findings from this study indicate that critical theorists often fail to appreciate the ways in which PETEs' interdependencies with their students (and, for that matter, the schools in which they are placed for practice) constrains them to deal with the day-to-day realities their students will face. These interdependency ties further constrain them towards a view of reflexivity that they (as PE teachers, and sports men and women) are already predisposed towards.

PETEs and their colleagues

What seemed evident in this study was that the majority of PETEs experienced having a positive working environment including good colleagues. Indeed, many spoke about their colleagues as friends, with whom they associated outside the working arena as well as inside, and some described having a close relationship with the ones they worked closely with as PETEs. Actually, the fact that many of the PETEs spoke of their colleagues in warm, personal terms may reflect shared outlooks and mean that the PETE "community" at Nord UC involved very strong interdependency ties (at a personal level) and thus be likely to be perceived by the PETEs as constraining their thoughts and behaviour to a greater extent than usual. Nevertheless, although the personal ties were viewed as strong, the professional ties were considered less so. For example, the PETEs had little knowledge about their peers' teaching and/or research projects. Furthermore, very few of the PETEs reported informal discussions and none reported formal pedagogical discussions about the aims and purposes of PETE or the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). Thus, the majority of the PETEs seemed to interpret the National curricula (ibid) and aims purposes of PE and PETE personally, in "private" rather than in discussions with and in relation to their colleagues. The majority of PETEs believed that some of their colleagues shared their views regarding the aims and purposes of PETE, and they

especially referred to the ones they worked closely with. In other words, they perceived both a large amount of homogeneity alongside degrees of heterogeneity within the group.

What was noteworthy, nevertheless, was that many of the PETEs' answers appeared to be based on guesswork rather than actual knowledge. Indeed, they acknowledged that although they were a "team" of PETEs at Nord UC, in practice, they worked in relative isolation or relatively independently. This impression was strengthened by the fact that the PETEs reported to do, first and foremost, traditional teacher-centred teaching approaches. This reinforced the impression, similar to findings in Dowling's (2006) study that the PETEs operated in private. A few of the PETEs spoke of having experienced peer-teaching (on their own initiative), but very few had experienced having a mentor as a personal assistant and/or peer discussion partner (Stroot & Ko, 2006). This adds weight to the impression that being a PE teacher educator was sometimes, as one PETE described it, "a bit lonely". This in turn suggests that the PETEs seemed little dependent on their peers in their everyday work, and as such the PETEs had to rely on themselves rather than be part of a strongly interdependent working community. Loneliness is identified to be common among newly-employed PE teachers (Macdonald, 1995), but even if loneliness implicitly implied among PETEs to be the "natural" way of their everyday lives, it is reason to question if loneliness is a productive occupational socialization of, especially, newly-employed.

Nevertheless, although the study identified that the PETEs seemed little dependent on their colleagues, some of the PETEs mentioned that their relationship with their colleagues had led to changes in content in PETE, and as such, being a PE teacher educator meant having to adapt to developments in the context. In other words, the interdependencies among PETEs created changes in PETE, because, PETE, like all social phenomena, is a process that is continually developing, and PETEs will inevitably develop over time (more or less slowly or rapidly) because they are bound into networks of interdependencies (van Krieken, 1998).

Some of the PETEs claimed that interdependencies within generations were inevitably dependent upon whom they worked together with and that this shaped their outlooks and practices as PETEs. In this regard the figurational concepts of established and outsider groups (van Krieken, 1998) appear a productive way to describe and understand differences in outlook and practice among the various generations of PETEs. Because “people are always embedded in power and dependence relations with others” (de Swaan, 2001, p. 35), there is reason to believe and expect that the experienced PETEs were the established ones, with a positive balance of power (de Swaan, 2001) in positions of power over the outsiders, not least, because of their amount of years working as PETEs, while the newly-employed were the outsiders and less powerful group because of their lack of relevant experience. Hence, one might reasonably expect the established PETEs to have, for example, more knowledge about PE and PETE and be more conscious of implementing such things as the competency aims in their teaching.

However, as this study shows, neither the experienced PETEs’ (the established) nor the newly-employed (the outsiders), implemented the aims in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) in a way that the National curricula (ibid) intended them to. In other words, neither established nor outsider PETEs, because of their positions within these groupings (or generations) seemed to influence PETE significantly in ways the National curricula (ibid) claim they ought to. As such, these findings contrast with what some of the PETEs claimed happened in PETE at Nord UC, namely that shifts in generations shaped and changed the PETEs’ outlooks and practices in PETE. What actually seemed to happen, which implies that the established continued to be in position of power, was that even where individual PETEs had ideas and views related to PETE at Nord, they found it easier to adapt to the existing culture than trying to force against it; it was easier to become part of the established group (van Krieken, 1998) of PETEs and not continue to be an outsider (ibid). One former PETE at Nord UC (attending the pilot study) explicitly spoke about how she found it easier to adapt to existing ways of doing things at Nord UC, than trying to change (or develop) things. Similarly, the two PETEs with doctorates

(which require reflection on a highly theoretical level) had also been incorporated into the established group, and the hegemonic discourse of practical and real life views on PETE.

PETEs with and without experience as PE teachers

The concept of established and outsiders (van Krieken, 1998) were also productive in making sense of the relationship, and uneven power balance, between PETEs with school experience and those without previous experience as school PE teachers. The PETEs with school experience may be labelled as established (ibid) because of how the real life experience as PE teacher in school heavily influenced the ideologies and practices of PETEs in PETE. In contrast, the PETEs with experience as PE teachers in school consider the PETEs without school experience as outsiders (ibid). In other words, findings from this study show that the PETEs with actual teaching experience felt themselves to be in possession of the most influential knowledge on PETE at Nord UC. On the other hand, however, it was interesting to note the PETEs without experience as PE teachers in school did not bring their lack of school experience to the forefront in a way that they label themselves as outsiders in relation to their peers with such experience. Put another way, the PETEs without teaching experience did not value themselves as “less” able PETEs because of their lack real life experience. This may be explained by the fact that the PETEs without school experience also had established a teaching habitus, which included valuing real life experience as the most important knowledge in PETE.

Indeed, also the PETEs without experience as teachers in school were likely to share a similar view about the centrality of practice rather than theory because of their sporting background (and coaching warrant). Because this was embedded as a taken-for-granted assumption (as part of the ideology of performativity) among the majority of the PETEs, the ones without school experience did not consider their own lack of real life experience as PE teachers having any significant impact on the way they viewed themselves and their ability to perform their role as PETEs. In other words, they would never consider themselves as outsiders and hence less powerful (van Krieken, 1998) PETEs, because, as

findings from this study suggests, all the PETEs at Nord UC, had a common view that real life experience was the most highly valued knowledge in PETE, which show the hegemony of an ideology of performativity at Nord UC.

This implies that the appreciation of real life experience influenced PETE at Nord UC, both directly from the ones actually having real life experience as PE teachers, but also indirectly by the fact that the ones without real life experience seemed to have been constrained to adopt this outlook by virtue of being outsiders, something which may have been easily persuaded by the fact of them being sportsmen and sportswomen.

Despite this overall appreciation of real life experience among the PETEs and in PETE, some of the most experienced PETEs (both according to experience as PE teachers in school and as PETEs in the university system) had experienced being marginalized in their jobs lately.

Marginalization of some colleagues

On several occasions during the interviews, two PETEs described a feeling of being marginalized, or pushed to the edge (Roberts, 2009) of the PETEs group. This was especially recognizable when it came to questions regarding the processes of developing the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at the Institute, in other words, in decision-making processes of PETE. They both described a sort of resignation that had to do with loss of power in their positions as equal PETEs with their younger colleagues at the Institute. In other words, despite their varied experiences as school PE teachers, university lecturers (and even having had central positions in the working parties responsible for developing the National curricula in PETE), being Study Leaders at the Sport Institute for many years, and being International Coordinator for the Institute, they felt under-valued when new policies for education were formed at the Institute. In other words, they described a process where while they used to be among the established with

power to act and make decisions, lately they had begun to feel marginalized with less possibility to influence PETE at Nord UC. As such, it seemed that they had moved from being the established PETEs to becoming the outsiders (van Krieken, 1998). For Tom, the perceived pressure from the institution to retire was a concrete example of his marginalization. This perception was triangulated by a colleague who mentioned during his interview that Tom and Martin were no longer considered part of the PETE group.

Taking together this section on the interdependencies of PETE colleagues, it seemed that although the PETEs described many of their peers as good friends, professionally they had little knowledge about each other. This impression was strengthened by the fact that the PETEs reported no formal, and very few informal, pedagogical discussions among themselves. Furthermore, the majority described teaching alone, although a few had tried peer-teaching. In other words, the PETEs seemed minimally interdependent with their peers in their everyday work. At the same time, however, the study demonstrated how the PETEs were very interdependent in other, less tangible, ways than their day-to-day teaching. They were for example more dependent on the ones they worked closely with, in the sense that, for example, some PETEs had responsibility for a specific subject together. The study showed that both experienced PETEs and those newly-employed implemented the same kind of education, because it seemed like the PETEs' sporting and teacher identities and rather low research identity were much more significant in defining what PETE was about, than deliberate interdependence among the PETEs at Nord UC and a commitment to the National curricula.

So, even though some of the established PETEs felt themselves marginalized in decision making processes in PETE, their established practical knowledge-base was, in fact, still heavily impacting upon all the PETEs' philosophies and practices and hence PETE at Nord UC. In other words, the worries among some of the established PETEs that PETE was, in fact, changing towards a more academic teacher education similar to what Annerstedt and Bergendahl's (2002) found in their Swedish study, did not seem to be the

case. It seemed that the PETEs' working context, in other words, the networks the PETEs were a part of, and especially those of the PE students and mentor teachers (school practice), and the interdependencies of these networks, heavily influenced and shaped the PETEs towards building PETE on an ideology of performativity.

PETEs, school practice and mentor teachers

Virtually all the PETEs in this study (both the ones with and without experience as PE teachers) emphasized the role of school practice in teacher education. School practice was evidently viewed as more valuable than theorizing. Even though the PETEs tended to play a relatively small part in school practice (as contact teachers) and some viewed this part of the job as of minor interest, they still considered school practice to be a crucial dimension in PETE. Put another way, the PETEs viewed school practice as not only central, but arguably the most important element of PETE, even though their own involvement was minimal and school practice only constitutes approximately 10% of PETE. Analytically speaking, it seemed that the significance of school practice was the perception of those involved and that the significance of school practice far outweighed the time allocated to it during PETE. In other words, the National curricula (the governmental directions) does not emphasize school practice (at least in terms of the percentage dedicated to school practice in comparison to the whole education) as much as those involved in PETE (namely the PETEs and students) were inclined to.

That said the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC indicate that the PETEs are supposed to have an influential role as contact teachers during school practice. However, as indicated, some of the PETEs did not view the contact teacher role as important, and a few indeed viewed the aspect of visiting in practice as to "keep an eye" on the mentors. Further, some also indicated that because everything is "known" when it comes to mentor teachers and practice schools (and actually fits the PETEs own philosophies regarding PE), there is no need to engage in practice, practice schools and mentor teachers because it will always remain the same. However, such a view on the

role of the contact teacher did not correspond with the aim of having a contact teacher given by the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports at Nord UC, which actually say that the role of the contact teacher is to supervise the *students*, setting grades and be the link between the mentor school and the university college. In other words, when some of the PETEs expressed they did not see the need for them to visit during school practice, this conflicts with what the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports claims their role of being a contact teachers consist of. Actually, findings in this study show that the PETEs would rather use time scheduled for visiting in school practice other ways, they were, in other words, implicitly undermining their influence on the students during school practice.

All-in-all, findings from this study indicate that some of the PE students at Nord UC had not received an education in correspondence with the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports, because they had not experienced the contact teacher visiting them in school practice. It seemed like the PETEs relied on the mentor teachers to take care of school practice in PETE at Nord UC, hence some of the PETEs experienced themselves as outsiders (van Krieken, 1998) according to school practice. Actually I got many indications that school practice in PETE was something happening between the mentor teachers and the students, and that Nord UC had a minor or at least “incidental” role in this part of PETE. In sociological terms power is considered an aspect of relations to the extent that people are more-or-less dependent upon other people (van Krieken, 1998). The PETEs in this study were, in reality, highly dependent on the mentor teachers, with the result that the group of people we might consider to be all powerful in the PETE process, namely the PETEs, was in fact less powerful than we originally thought. They were, in fact, highly dependent on others in their networks and the mentor teachers in particular, and, as a consequence, the mentor teachers had more power in PETE than originally thought. There had in other words been a shift in the power balance between the PETEs and the mentor teachers, in favour of the latter.

We know that mentor teachers are preoccupied with the practical role of mentoring in the sense of passing on to PE student practical advice about the day-to-day demands of teaching and focus upon the “immediate, practical issues of subject-specific teaching and classroom management and control” (Booth, 1993, p. 194). This is consistent with the ideology of technocratic rationality identified within PE and PETE in other studies (see, for example, Fernández-Balboa, 1995, 1997; Fernández-Balboa & Muros, 2006; Kirk, 2010; Lawson, 1993; McKay et al., 1990; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Næss, 1998; Rossi, 1996; Rossi & Cassidy, 1999; Sparkes, 1989, 1993; Tinning, 1991, 1997, 2002) and what is identified as the ideology of performativity among the PETEs in this study. Indeed, findings from this study show how, similar to findings on PE teachers (Coleman & Mitchell, 2000), that PE students learn to adopt a pedagogy of necessity during school practice, and thus, real life experience has the most substantial impact on PE teachers’ views and behaviours. In other words, the PE students teaching behaviours reflected the methods used by the mentor teachers, maybe because, as Coleman and Mitchell (2000) found, that would make it easier for the students to pass the course, rather than the methods used in PETE. Considering knowledge of how mentor teachers perceive their role, there are grounds for questioning whether those competencies the PETEs claimed to be taken care of during school practice, actually were highlighted by the mentor teachers and discussed with PE students during school practice in a manner that corresponded with the requirements of the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c).

Indeed, similar to findings in earlier research on PETE (Bulger et al., 2001; Larsson, 2009; Velija et al., 2008) and general teacher education in Norway (Smeby, 2010a), this study indicates that the students valued school practice as the setting where they really learned what being a PE teacher was all about. Findings in this study at Nord UC seemed also to reflect earlier studies (Bulger et al., 2001; Larsson, 2009; Velija et al., 2008) on the reason why PE students seemed to value school based experiences and practical sessions over university-based theory, namely, the difficulties the students had in making meaningful connections between theoretical coursework and its practical applications in the teaching of PE. Even though findings from this study imply that the majority of the

PETEs themselves were not very interested in theory, and did not emphasize theoretical knowledge, they did of course teach theory to their students, and it is this theory the students point to as worthless in relation to (what they consider as) relevant practical knowledge learned in school practice. Because PE students are involved in what appear as two mutually exclusive figurations, the school and the university, the consequence seemed to be, similar to findings in other studies (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006; Coleman & Mitchell, 2000; Larsson, 2009) that: “student teachers must link the two together themselves, and when this fails they tend to accept the ideologies of those whose knowledge they value and which will help them get by: school-based mentor” (Velija et al., p. 403).

School practice and mentoring at Nord UC was described by the majority of the PETEs as being very traditional. The emphasis on teaching performance rather than reflection reported elsewhere (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006; Hagelund, 2006), also in research on general teacher education in Norway (Ohnstad & Munthe, 2010) was also characteristic of PETE at Nord UC. In this regard, it reinforces the impression that the PETEs intuitively viewed PETE as more to do with training (for practice) than education (for reflective practice). Such findings are commonplace in previous research on PETE as well (see, for example, Coleman & Mitchell, 2000; Randall, 1992).

The fact that many of the PETEs viewed school practice to be “training for practice” and their role as contact teachers to be of limited importance may have several explanations. One may be found in the fact that some of the PETEs did not have any experience as PE teachers, and this lack of real life experience made it difficult for them to take part in professional discussions with “real” PE teachers (mentor teachers) and the students. Even though the majority of the PETEs had previous experience as PE teachers, the findings from this study indicate that the PETEs’ philosophies was highly related to the ideology of performativity; in other words, that works in school strengthens the impression that the PETEs may have had little to add in a discussion between the mentor teachers and the PE

students during school practice. There are grounds for supposing that the PETEs' sporting backgrounds, together with their teaching experiences, the expectations of their students and mentor teachers, besides their own lack of theoretical development (because of their lack of engagement in research) adds up to create a philosophy that tends to support rather than challenge their students' perspectives on the "real" nature and purposes of PETE more generally. This way of thinking leads to the recognition that the mentor teachers are capable of giving the PE students the training needed to become PE teachers, and hence the role of the contact teachers (and the PETEs in general) is of minor value. As such, this study indicates that the mentor teachers seemed to be the more important actors in addressing the knowledge and practices deemed of importance for future PE teachers, while the PETEs seemed far less powerful in this process.

PETEs and the administration at Nord UC

A striking impression from the study was that for many, possibly all, of the PETEs the interviews were the first time they had reflected deeply, in a structured form, about their job. I also formed the impression that this was something many wanted to do.

Many of the PETEs described their working environment as influencing their everyday lives in different ways. The PETEs seemed to express the term "working environment" on different levels. On the one hand they described the working environment on a personal level (referring to internal motivation and good colleagues), while on the other hand they referred to working environment on an organizational level, referring to organizational issues within the Sport Institute, the Sport and Health Department and on the university level. While research on PE teachers over several decades has identified their experiences of heavy working loads as a common part of their everyday life (Curtner-Smith, 1997, 2001; Lortie, 1975; Schempp et al., 1993; Wright, 2001), Stidder (unpublished) highlights the shortage of research on how PETEs experience their workload in terms of teaching, research and administration. What was commonplace among the PETEs at Nord UC was that they referred to heavy working load as increasing

administrative demands, and they “blamed” different organizational levels for these demands. While some mentioned challenges related to the leadership at the university level (like, for example economic issues and administrative routines, in other words constraints related to the national dimension), others mentioned challenges at the Health and Sport department level (like different projects popping up). Others also mentioned challenges related to the leadership at the Sport Institute (like for example administrative issues including how to organize the teaching, how to make room for professional discussions among colleagues and how to help each employee cope with the working pressure), in other words, constraints at the local level.

Similar to Williamson’s (1993) study on the socialization of beginning PETE in the United States who found that the PETEs experienced every-day life as teacher educators to be hard, not least because of the demands to both teach and research, the PETEs at Nord UC, however, referred to the burden of administration at the Health and Sport Department at Nord UC, rather than teaching and research pressure. It seemed that contextual changes over time within the university system had added to the administrative burden felt by the PETEs, and having to adapt to new administrative routines, had, or so they claimed, taken the focus and time away from teaching, occupational updating and research. Hence changes in context had led to changes in how the PETEs managed and prioritized their everyday tasks within the PETE profession. Some, for example, described research as a balancing item used to cover up all demands, because doing research was the only part of the job where they did not have any demands like in teaching, where lessons were scheduled and the students expected them to show up and be prepared. In other words, it seemed as if the PETEs experienced the pressures of the everyday working context to shape and influence their beliefs (about what they ought to be doing) and the practice of what they actually did. As such, the PETEs blamed the context for not being able to do research. More likely, they expressed the view that their working context limited their ability to engage in research as much as in earlier years. However, a search for publications among the PETEs at Nord UC on BIBSYS and ForskDok, revealed that the PETEs had, in fact, not been more research active (at least in

the sense of producing peer-reviewed articles) earlier than during the last 7 years, even when, as they claimed, they had less administrative demands.

So, while the PETEs talked about external constraints, in the sense of heavy work load limiting their ability to do research, among other things, it seemed more accurate that this concern about administrative pressure taking time away from research production appeared to be more a question of rationalization, in the sense of justifying their lack of research activity by scapegoating administrative duties. Smeby (ibid) found the exact opposite in his study of Norwegian university employees, namely, that they had been able to protect their research time and actually had produced more research in recent years than previously (20 years ago). The university employees in his study thought administrative tasks took more time away from their ability to produce research 20 years ago than today. The study by Smeby (ibid) found that the university lecturers used approximately 17 percent of their time on administrative tasks; a figure Smeby (ibid) claimed has been quite stable over the last 20 years. When compared with the fact that the PETEs in this study referred to having approximately seven per cent of their time scheduled for administrative tasks this may be an explanation why the PETEs were exaggerating the impact of administrative tasks on their other roles. It is worthy of note, however, that what Smeby (ibid) referred to as administrative duties includes all types of commissions and tasks that are not included as a natural part of the university employees' research and teaching, for example, time allocated for evaluating people applying for jobs and evaluating student applications. In other words the 17 percent Smeby (ibid) refers to includes more administrative tasks (and roles) than that included in the seven per cent administration the PETEs were referring to in this study. So, in the end, the university employees in Smeby's (ibid) study may not actually have more time for administration than the PETEs in this study. Yet, still, they have been able to produce more research now than before.

Another example of how the PETEs were dependent upon the administration at Nord UC, was the fact that changing the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports was not initiated from the PETEs themselves, but a consequence of inserting a new web-system at Nord UC. Furthermore, the mentor teachers and students who were supposed to take part in the process of conducting the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports, were not included in the process (hardly any of the PETEs either), because there was not time to include them in order to get the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports approved in the Study and Curriculum Group at Nord UC. This adds to the impression that the PETEs were highly dependent upon the administrative dimension of the networks at the local level they were inevitably a part of, and that this dependency influenced their everyday life as well, ultimately, and the education they provided for the students.

The study reveals that conducting a Local curricula is a process involving many interdependencies between different people and groups (Study Leader and PETEs, Study Leader and the Norwegian Education Department, Study Leader and Study and Curriculum Group at Nord UC), interdependencies which result in a variety of power relations between the different groups. The interdependent nature of PETE was particularly evident when the Local curriculum for PE and sports was being conducted.

As highlighted in this section, this study has identified that the PETEs were dependent upon the administration at Nord UC, and there was a power-balance between the PETEs and the administration at Nord UC. Hence the administration at Nord UC seemed powerful to influence and shape PETE at Nord UC. On the other hand, the PETEs putting blame on the context for not producing research seemed more like a kind of rationalization to justify their action, than factual pressure from the administration at Nord UC.

PETEs and the leadership at the Sport Institute

While the PETEs seemed to blame some of those they felt very dependent on, in other words the administration at Nord UC, for their heavy workloads, the leadership within the Institute was not heavily critiqued as a source for how the PETEs experienced their everyday life. Only a few commented on increasing sick leave having to do with bad leadership from the Institute Leader. Findings from this study indicate that the Institute Leader also was under pressure and involved in other networks which made it difficult for him to cope in the everyday life of being Institute Leader as well. However, it is worth commenting that even though teaching was not part of the Institute Leader job expectations, he had chosen to teach students during all four years of his engagement as Institute Leader.

One thing virtually all the PETEs viewed as “missing”, was pedagogical or professional discussions and meeting places for such discussions. The PETEs took the view that it was reasonable to expect that the ones responsible for facilitating for discussions were the leadership at the Sport Institute. Findings in this study revealed that the Study Leader claimed to be waiting for the Institute Leaders to facilitate professional discussions. During the interview the Study Leader never indicated that he as the Study Leader for PETE had any responsibilities for placing pedagogical discussions among the PETEs on a formalized level. The Institute Leader, on the other hand, suggested the PETEs (including the Study Leader) were responsible for facilitating pedagogical and/or professional discussions. All-in-all, it seemed that everyone was waiting for someone else to take the initiative. There is reason to believe that the reason for the PETEs not facilitating such discussion themselves was because the PETEs were rationalizing their day-to-day work. This impression was strengthened further by the fact that Institute Leader claimed to have facilitated professional discussions among the staff in recent years, but not many of the PETEs were sufficiently interested to attend.

The perception of a quite undeveloped network between the leadership and the PETEs was also highlighted by the fact that the leadership did not seem to constrain the PETEs to do or produce research, even if the PETEs had time for research built into their job expectations. Hence, it is reasonable to believe that the leadership at Nord UC, at least partly, was responsible for the low research production at the Institute, and as such responsible for reinforcing rather than challenging the low research production and low research identity among the PETEs. A consequence of low research production among the PETEs (and the absence of dealing with PE and PETE as research topics) is the tendency to reinforce the characteristics of PE and PETE as low status subjects, which has been the case historically (Bain, 1990; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Fitzclarence & Tinning, 1990; Smyth, 1995; Wright, 2001). Smeby (2005a) claims the expectations towards the university employees' research production and being research active on an international level has increased in Norway during the last 10 to 20 years. But findings from this study imply that research at Nord UC has not been prioritized as a norm among PETEs at Nord UC. The research aspect of the PETEs' job seemed to be somewhat individual and isolated parts of their roles without much guidance or constraints from the Institute. In fact, it did not seem that the Sport Institute had a plan or strategy on how to constrain the PETEs to develop their research identities. On the other hand, in the interview with the Institute Leader (two years after the main study), he mentioned that the Institute had put emphasis on research at the Institute in recent years (2008-2011). At the same time he pointed to the Research Leader as the one in charge of developing research at the Institute.

The way the research part of the PETEs was organized at Nord UC may be in terms of what Henkel (2000) and Smeby (2005b) describe as "academic freedom", something the university employees in Henkel's (2000) study valued highly, implying that they had the freedom to choose research agenda and that they were given trust in managing own working life. But if freedom according to research leads to little or no research production, there are grounds for questioning if there are other ways to organize the research part of PETEs' job in PETE and to motivate the PETEs to encourage research (or in other words, do their job).

Things are changing, however. In Stortingsmelding (White Paper) number 11 (2008-2009) the Stjernø-committee claims that education in Norway that provides professional studies, has to achieve wider and more robust professional and research milieus and that they [the institutions] have to stimulate research within larger projects (KD, 2009). Thus, the individual or personal research projects described by many of the PETEs will not fit into the government policy. The institutions are recommended to develop research strategies with larger “umbrella” projects as a foundation. One of the intentions from the Stjernø-committee is to constrain the university employees (including the PETEs) to become more research active and limit their ability to treat research as contingency time. It is well known in the university sector that the employees’ research production is an important income to the university. In other words, low research production means less money to the Institute, hence it is in the leaderships’ interest that the PETEs at Nord UC produce research, and therefore it is reason to believe they have to constrain the PETEs to become research active.

Another consequence of the Sport Institute not increasing the research activity may in fact be that PETE will continue to be non-academic (or, in other words, to have low status). Findings from this study suggests that both the PETEs at Nord UC and the context (the leadership) were facilitators of this myth (or reality) of PETE being non-academic. In the university system, research and research production are important aspects to be defined as academic (Smeby, 2008), and it is likely that increasing the research production is one way of increasing the academic position of PETE.

Considering the low research production among the PETEs at Nord, there is reason to speculate that academics in Norwegian teacher education (more generally), as well as in PETE, are more research active and productive than the PETEs in this study. Findings from a recent report from Tromsø University show that one out of five university employees did not deliver measurable research expected of them in their working descriptions (Nipen, 2011). Even if the leadership at Tromsø University found these

figures discouraging, they seem to indicate that university employees in Norway in general produce more research than PETEs at Nord UC. It has not been possible to find studies measuring research production among Norwegian PETEs, but considering the little amount of peer-reviewed research on PE and PETE in Norway, identified in Chapter 2, it seems reasonable to believe that the PETEs at Nord UC do not stand out from other PETEs colleagues in Norway when it comes to either level or amount of research production. Hence, what at first glance may be identified as a lack of leadership to constrain the PETEs to engage in research may partly be explained by other circumstances as well, for example, it may be more commonplace in the Norwegian culture to rely more on consensus than on authoritative leadership (Antikainen, 2010; Smeby, 2005b).

It is not commonplace for a leader to put too much pressure on the employees in delivering results (for example publications). In addition, it may be that the greater autonomy of academics in Norway enables the PETEs to avoid engaging in research if they are not inclined to. It may also be the fact that PETEs' secure positions as professionals in Norway make it possible for them to actually carry on the relatively low research activity. But this said, Smeby (2008) found that university employees in Norway in general have increased their research production in recent years. Hence, there is reason to believe that the low research production among virtually all the PETEs may have other explanations than autonomy and secure positions, and it is reason to believe that one answer may lie in the low research identity and rather strong sporting and teaching identities identified among the PETEs in this study. Even more importantly, these habituses were shaped and reinforced by the fact that the PETEs were part of complex interdependent networks in their day-to-day work.

Van Krieken, 1998 suggest that habituses might change more slowly than the surrounding social relations, in other words that that people's outlook in life (such as PETEs' view of what is expected of them in their job) remains to a greater or lesser

extent tied to “yesterday’s social reality” (van Krieken, 1998, p. 91). In other words, it seemed as if the PETEs sporting and teaching habituses, which were reinforced in their day-to-day relations, helps explain the delay in PETEs responding to recent pressure towards research activity and CPD. The Institute Leader for example said that they had enabled PETEs to take part in a first lecturer programme in recent years, but not many had attended.

Furthermore, and as commented in earlier sections, the PETEs’ teaching was described as a lonely activity, and this implies that the leadership were not much involved in the teaching part of the PETEs’ job either. This impression was further strengthened with the knowledge that the leadership did not constrain or challenge the PETEs to use, for example, different teaching styles/methods (rather than teacher-centred teaching styles identified in this study) as required in the National and Local PETE Curriculum. In other words, the leadership at the Sport Institute at Nord UC did not seem to impact the PETEs everyday life in a way that it actually influenced the education they provided. This was actually both confirmed and not confirmed by the Institute Leader. The Institute Leader did confirm that he did not have time to follow up his colleagues on a daily basis. One explanation of the Institute Leader not taking part in the day-to-day work of the PETEs may lie in the fact that that the Institute Leader had been a previous student at the Sport Institute at Nord UC (as with 9 of his PE teacher educator colleagues), and as such maybe took it for-granted that everyone knew what to do and how to do PETE at Nord UC, in other words, that they created a sub-culture at the Sport Institute.

PETEs in this study, in their day-to-day practice, did not seem very dependent on the leadership, with the result that the leadership that we might consider to be powerful in influencing the PETEs and defining PETE, were in fact less powerful than we originally thought. The leadership did not impact or constrain the PETEs to engage in professional discussions or to produce research that actually was expected of the PETEs, which reinforce the impression that the PETEs intuitively viewed PETE as more to do with

training (for practice) than education (for reflective practice). In other words, the key aspect of the PETEs' working situation (for example research time) was established and thus, normative and, as a consequence, shifted the balance of power between the PETEs and the leadership towards the former. In this regard, the Institute Leader said this had changed in more recent years (after the interviews of the PETEs in the main study). In other words, he implied that the leadership now, more so than earlier, constrained the PETEs to do research. This neatly explains how a working culture develops and changes, in other words, is an ongoing process hence is socially constructed (Berger & Luckmann, 1967).

But even though the Institute Leader claimed that the PETEs were constrained now, more than earlier, to be research active, findings from this study imply that the PETEs, together with other members of their various networks (students, colleagues, mentor teachers, the administration at Nord UC), were far more likely to impact on the education and the role of being a PE teacher educator than the leadership. With the knowledge (from NOKUT) that each university have to ensure the implementation of the National and Local curricula into PETE (which in reality means the leadership), findings from this study imply that the leadership has not fully implemented the intentions of the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) into PETE at Nord UC. One explanation to this may be that the leadership also was part of different networks constraining them in their everyday lives, and the implementation of the National curricula was not formally constraining them in anyway because there were no external inspections. As such, other networks in the leadership's everyday life way have been experienced as more constraining than ensuring the implementation of the National curricula (ibid).

PETEs, CPD and mentor programmes

As previously indicated, findings from this study add weight to the view that PETEs' professional training tends not to be an important part in shaping PETEs philosophies and practices. Apart from some of the PETEs mentioning their own education as impacting

upon their choice of occupation, few PETEs focused explicitly on their formal education (for example their PETE, the Master's degree or PhD) as important for being able to work as a PE teacher educator. None of them referred to continuing professional development (CPD) being defined as “all types of professional learning undertaken by teachers beyond the initial point of training” (Craft, 1996, cited in Armour & Yelling, 2004, p. 96), as a part of their everyday life as PETEs. Even though CPD for PE teachers has grown substantially around the world (Bechtel & Sullivan, 2006), findings from this study, corresponding with findings from earlier research on PETE (Dowling, 2006), suggests CPD happens more by chance or luck (and usually informally⁴⁴), rather than as formalized programmes as part of PETEs’ professional socialization. In other words, it seemed like CPD at the Sport Institute was based on personal relationships among the PETEs (good colleagues helping out) rather than formal ideas formed through for example a mentor programme. But it is worth commenting, in this regard, that the PETEs could take part in a First lecturer programme if they wanted. The only ones in this study that had undertaken what according to Craft’s definition (1996, cited in Armour & Yelling, 2004) can be labelled as CPD, were the two PETEs with a PhD. In other words, these two had undertaken a formalized CPD programme towards becoming researchers, in the form of a doctoral degree. But it seemed that the CPD these two had undertaken had not impacted upon them in a manner that they produced research as expected of them, neither did their PhD seem to have impacted them to becoming more reflective PETEs, because their philosophies and practices of PE and PETE were similar to the ones not having a PhD, in other words related to the day-to-day practicalities of teaching.

A form of CPD is mentoring, both formal and informal mentoring (Ayers & Griffin, 2005; Jenkins & Veal, 2002; Napper-Owen & Phillips, 1995; Smyth, 1995; Stroot et al.,

⁴⁴ There is reason to discuss if informal experiences in the PETEs everyday life may be described as CPD because the definition on CPD used in this thesis claim the CPD is “all types of professional learning undertaken by teachers beyond the initial point of training” (Craft, 1996, cited in Armour & Yelling, 2004, p. 96). This definition for example includes more profound and explicit professional learning than just random experiences on-the-job in relation to colleagues in similar position.

1993)⁴⁵, which in this case refers to relatively senior colleagues who undertake a medium to long term “care” and guidance of new colleagues, and in formal sense, mentoring consists of peer assistance and peer review (Stroot & Ko, 2006). While many of the PETEs at Nord UC described having experienced what could be labelled informal mentoring (in the sense of the having good helping colleagues or for example sharing teaching ideas and exploring these together [Ayers & Griffin, 2005]), none of the PETEs in this study had experienced being part of a formal mentoring programme (referring to peer assistance and peer review [Stroot & Ko, 2006]). Only one of the PETEs had been part of a formal mentoring programme when working at the Pedagogy Section at Nord UC. In other words, there did not seem to be an institutional plan regarding how to take care, in a formal sense, of newly-employed PETEs, either according to guidance on content and teaching or on more philosophical dimensions of their work (Stroot & Ko, 2006). So, while some authors claim that mentoring programmes are as varied as the context (Stroot & Ko, 2006), and other distinguishes between traditional and reflective approaches to mentoring in PE (Behets & Vergauwen, 2006), the PETEs at Nord UC seemed only to have experienced informal mentoring in any substantial way. Hence, the Sport Institute did not seem to implement formal mentoring as a part of a CPD-plan for the PETEs, something the Institute Leader confirmed.

Given that there were PETEs at the Sport Institute teaching PE to students, that did not have PE as a subject in their own education (in other words they were not formally qualified as PE teachers), and the fact that there were also PETEs that had never been teaching PE in school, it may appear surprising that newly-employed PETEs had not been part of a formal mentoring programme. In other words, there are grounds for asking why the Sport Institute did not put emphasis on the professional socialization of their PETEs through, for example, formal mentoring programmes. It may be that the leadership relied on “good colleagues” to take care of their peers (as many of the PETEs said actually happened in practice), or expected new employees to simply manage their job (which in

⁴⁵ The definition of mentoring as being both formal and informal indicates that if mentoring is going to be viewed as CPD (in lines of the definition used in this thesis), it is only formal mentoring that may be labeled within CPD.

fact was the way some of the newly-employed described their situations). Alternatively, it may have been that because many (10) of the PETEs (including the Institute Leader) at Nord UC had been previous students there, the leadership did not seem to consider formal mentoring as necessary, because, it might be assumed the PETEs knew how things should be done. The interesting thing is that findings from this study suggest quite the opposite. Actually, some of the PETEs, especially the newly-employed, said they missed being part of a mentoring programme, while others mentioned experiencing isolation, a common experience among PE teachers as well (Curtner-Smith, 2001; Napper-Owen & Phillips, 1995; Solomon et al., 1993; Stroot & Ko, 2006), as a part of their everyday life as PETEs. In line with what the PETEs said, the Institute Leader confirmed that newly-employed PETEs did not have formal mentoring programmes, but that they had a person they could relate to for help on more practical need such as for example finding rooms, helping out with the Xerox-machine and help with web-tools such as Fronter.

That said, it is not very commonplace in PETE in Norway, or for that matter elsewhere, to have formalized mentor programmes for newly-employed PETEs. As a former PE teacher educator at three different university colleges in Norway, I have never experienced having a mentor or being part of mentoring programme. Hence, it seems most likely that Nord UC, like other university colleges in Norway, have never really viewed CPD, including formal mentoring, as necessary for their PETEs.

Summary: The local dimension

So far this study has suggested that the acculturation phase of the PETEs' socialization, including the development of sporting and teaching habituses, heavily influenced their professional identities as sporting and teacher identities, while the professional socialization phase appeared to have little impact, beyond reinforcing their predispositions to view PETE as training future PE teachers to teach sport skills.

What this study has also identified, is that the PETEs' beliefs and practices at the local level were shaped by some groups whom the PETEs were more dependent on than others. As a result these groups had more power to shape the PETEs' practices, which in turn, shaped their beliefs, than other groups. Especially prominent were the groups that seemed to reinforce the PETEs' already established sporting and teaching identities. The group the PETEs seemed to feel most dependent on, the PE students, appeared to hold similar views on PE to those of the PETEs. The PE students, for example, valued the need to improve their sporting skills and to get exercise or real life experience as PE teachers, and the PETEs and PETE seemed to give them what they expected. In line with the PETEs' emphasis on giving the students real life experiences (consistent with the ideology of performativity), mentor teachers in school practice were powerful in shaping the PETEs' philosophies and practices. The prominence of the PE students, and mentor teachers (school practice) in the practices of the PETEs themselves, was facilitated by the relatively minimal demands and constraint of other players in the PETE figuration at the local level at Nord UC.

Another network in the PETEs' working context which influenced their every-day working lives significantly, was the administration at Nord UC. For example, the PETEs said administrative demands took time away from student-related work and research. Especially noteworthy was the fact that the PETEs blamed the working context (administrative demands) for their low research production. However, when considering their scientific publications during the earlier years (when they claimed the administrative pressure was less), it is more likely to say that they were scapegoating administrative pressure for their low research production. In other words, even though the PETEs seemed to experience the administrative demands (facilitated by the administration at Nord UC) heavily influencing their ability to perform their roles, there is reason to question if the explanations offered by the PETEs may not have been accurate (the PETEs had low research identities which was reinforced by their working context by the fact that nothing [little], for example colleagues or leadership, was constraining them to do research). This suggests that the administration at Nord UC, in the eyes of the PETEs,

was a powerful network to influence their day-to-day philosophies and practices, but in reality, other networks, such as PE students, colleagues and mentor teachers were in fact more powerful actors to influence the PETEs' views of the nature and purposes of PETE.

Naturally, the leadership at the Sport Institute (The Institute Leader and the Study Leader) was identified as a network the PETEs were a part of. However, findings from this study indicate that the PETEs in their day-to-day practice were not very dependent on the leadership. In other words, the leadership did not seem to influence the PETEs' thoughts and practices as PETEs and hence PETE deliberately. Even though there seemed to be no doubt between the leadership and the PETEs according to who was the leader and who was being led, the leadership was in fact far less powerful than originally thought. This, it is suggested, has more to do, for example, with dominant norms regarding the "rights" of professionals in Norway (especially in the university sector) (Antikainen, 2010; Smeby, 2005b), which weaken the position of leaders and shifts the balance of power towards the employees in some significant ways.

In short, this study has identified that the PETEs were part of several and at times overlapping networks at the local level. Considering power as an aspect of relations in the extent to which people are more or less dependent upon each other (van Krieken, 1998), this study has identified that some networks on the local level were far more influential than might be expected (PE students, school practice, mentor teachers, colleagues, and to some extent the administration at Nord UC), while others were far less powerful (for example the leadership and CPD including mentoring programmes). This implies that deep-seated habituses identified among the PETEs in this study, are processual and can be reinforced, or substantially altered by significant and/or lengthy experience in the workplace, in other words that PETEs' habituses are influenced by time spent on-the-job (Capel, 2005; Green, 2003; Lawson, 1983a, b). However, findings from this study show that the PETEs' habituses were reinforced rather than changed (substantially) within their day-to-day figurations, and when they were challenged, they were moved towards the

hegemonic ideology in PETE, performativity. In the next section I will look into how the PETEs' networks on national level impacted upon PETEs and PETE at Nord UC.

PETEs: The national dimension

Having dealt with the PETEs' networks at the personal and local levels, it is time to look at how the PETEs are inevitably involved in networks on a national (and also, to some extent, international) level. In other words, how broader socio-political networks impacted upon PETE as well as the PETEs' ideologies and practices. I have identified several networks the PETEs were a part of on a national (and, to some extent, international) level which impacted upon their views and practices in different ways. These are: the Norwegian society including more globalized ideologies in for example health, the national sports association, and the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) (including NOKUT inspections).

Dominant ideologies nationally and internationally

PETEs are part of wider national and international contexts where health is given increasing prominence in both media and government policy whose interests overlap PE teachers and PETEs. Through the media, occupational groups such as PE teachers and PETEs are, on a daily basis, bombarded with messages about the need of eating healthy food, the benefits of being physical active and individuals' responsibility for health. All of this has led the prominence of "health industries" (Evans & Davies, 2004a, p. 37) in the Western society. This mix can be added to the health focus in governmental politics (Evans & Davies, 2004a), in Norway this is manifested in the widely held belief that the Norwegian state has responsibilities for ensuring the health care of Norwegian citizens, beyond ensuring enough hospitals. A consequence of this political focus on health is, for example, that some working places give their employees opportunity to exercise during working hours or pay for membership at a gym. Some also give free fruit to their workers as part of health promotion. In other words, the health focus has become what

sociologists refer to as a hegemonic ideology, a dominant orthodoxy in the world and in PE and PETE (see, for example, Larsson, 2009; McKenzie, 2007; McKenzie and Kahan, 2004; Telama et al., 2005; Veilija, et al., 2008; Waddington, 2000).

Inevitably, the health ideology in society has impacted PETE and the PETEs in Norway. In the same way that Evans and Davies (2004a) claim health issues have been emphasized in “government policies, and in physical education, and the wider school curriculum in recent years in USA, UK, Australia and New Zealand” (p. 37), the connection between movement activity and health is mentioned as a fundamental aim of PE in the National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b), the National curriculum for general teacher education – 30 credits PE (UFD, 2003a) and in the Knowledge Promotion (the National curriculum for public school in Norway [(KD, 2006])). What seems evident from the study at Nord UC was that virtually all of the PETEs seemed to have adopted the view that their job as PETEs was to educate PE teachers who could facilitate enjoyable PE in order to help ensuring and increasing pupils health over the life course. In other words, it seemed that the PETEs in this study were heavily influenced especially by the informal health focus (ideology). Indeed, the PETEs seemed to have a taken-for-granted (ideological) view of themselves as important contributors to ensure the health of the Norwegian population by educating PE teachers, or health experts (Evans & Davies, 2004a), who can prevent or minimize negative health trends in the Norwegian society. Although they subscribed to the ideology of healthism, the PETEs tended not to reflect upon the various issues related to the ideology of healthism.

National sport associations

Another network the PETEs seemed to be dependent upon in their practices in PETE was the Norwegian Confederation of Sports (NIF), and in particular the Norwegian National Ski Association (NSF). This tendency to tailor their practices to the demands in national sport associations, such as NSF, was illustrated by the PETEs’ dependency on people and

organizations beyond the university and, for that matter, education per se. It also reflects the range of groups that can be part of the wider networks of processes such as teacher education. In other words, what at first glance appeared quite straight forward according to the networks PETEs were a part of (or example, colleagues, students, the institutional leadership), identifying their dependence upon organizations such as NSF reveals how the PETEs in this study, similar to PE teachers in Green's (2003) study, were involved in networks with a range of various groups and some of these networks appeared less influential than one might have expected (for example, colleagues and the leadership), while other seemed more important (for example students, mentor teachers, administration, and the national sport association). An interesting observation was that there were no formal guidelines in the National curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports (UFD, 2003b) indicating that PETE had to follow coaching programmes for ski-instructors according to NSF standard. Thus, it is worth speculating why PETEs at Nord UC facilitated their teaching in for example skiing so that the PE students could become licensed ski instructors in the NSF. One answer may lie in the fact that the students appeared to expect to get some kind of coaching license as part of their PETE to be able to teach some sports outside the school system (for example skiing), and the PETEs felt dependent upon the students to give them what they wanted, hence their dependence on NSF (as a national sport association).

Another answer may be found in the PETEs' sporting habituses, and that the coaching standard implemented from the national ski association acted as a constraint that reinforced the PETEs sporting habitus towards a coaching orientation as a part of their subject warrant (Lawson, 1983a, b), rather than an education standard, or teaching warrant (Lawson, *ibid*) which is expected when educating PE teachers for school. As such, a coaching orientation as encouraged by the national sport association was a network the PETEs were a part of that seemed to reinforce the sport ideology (identified as part of the ideology of performativity) among the PETEs and within PETE at Nord UC, and closely related to what Kirk (2010) refers to as PE as teaching sport techniques.

Furthermore, there is reason to think that the fact that the historical roots in PE and sports (Houlihan, 1991; Kirk, 1992, 2010), and especially in the Norwegian culture (Bairner, 2010; Seippel, Ibsen & Norberg, 2010) made it easy for PETEs and PETE to adopt teaching programmes associated with national sport associations without questioning *why* these kind of programmes were suitable (or otherwise) for PETE.

The National curricula

Findings from this study reveal slippage (Penney & Evans, 2005) in the implementation of policy into PETE. In other words, there was difference between what the PETEs practiced in PETE and the goals or principles outlined in the particular policy or legislation (more precisely the National and Local PETE Curricula). Similar to findings in research on PE teachers (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Green, 2003; Rønning, 1996), this study suggests that even though the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) may be considered as relatively fixed documents in practice, the PETEs modified them to make it fit their own views about PETE. Put another way, the PETEs tended to find room for manoeuvre or slippage within the requirements of the National curricula (ibid). They did, for example, not put much emphasis on all the competency aims as outlined in the National curricula nor did they use various teaching methods to the extent claimed in the policy documents on both a national and local level. PETE did not fulfill the requirements of the Local curriculum for bachelor in PE and sports where it said the contact teachers were supposed to visit each student group once every school practice period and participate in supervision. Actually, it seemed as if the slippage in the implementation of policy document identified in this study occurred because nothing within the PETEs' working context actually constrained them to fulfill the demands in the policy document. Furthermore, it seemed like their slippage when participating as contact teachers in school practice had to do with the ideology of performativity identified in this study. In other words, that the majority of PETEs were when teaching at campus, preoccupied with the practicalities of teaching and preparing the students for teaching PE in real life. Hence, when the PE students took part in school practice (real life practice) they were viewed as being in the best hands (in the hands of the mentor

teachers) to learn the necessary skills to become a qualified teacher, and the PETEs felt they had little or nothing to contribute as contact teachers in school practice, and, as a consequence, ignored the demands of the policy documents.

NOKUT inspections

An obvious question to ask is how slippage in the implementation of the National and Local curricula, as identified at the Sport Institute at Nord UC, could occur? One answer may lie in the fact that there are no external inspections of PETE in Norway as, for example, is commonplace in England where “The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) inspects the quality of all Initial Teacher Training (ITT) provision in England on behalf of the Teacher Training Agency” (Cale & Harris, 2003, p. 135). NOKUT is supposed to ensure the quality of higher education in Norway, both the structural aspect of the system and the institution’s own evaluations of study quality. However, it has been confirmed by B. K. Haugland (personal communication, November 25, 2010) that NOKUT inspections tend not to involve actually inspecting what goes on in practice in a particular study (for example PETE). In other words, because studies on a bachelor level are supposed to be self-accredited, it is the leadership at the Sport Institute at Nord UC that are responsible for assuring that the education they provide is in line with the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). This lack of external inspection of education makes it easier to understand why the PETEs and the Sport Institute did not experience the National curricula (ibid) as steering and/or necessary to be implied in their practice, and that slippages of the policy documents could occur without any consequences.

Summary: The national dimension

Similar to findings within the local dimension, the PETEs seemed to be involved in various networks on a national level. A significant group, the health proponents in Norwegian (and worldwide) society, influenced the PETEs towards their inclination of implementing a health ideology on PE and, and they viewed the primary goal of PETEs

to educate PE teachers able to facilitate enjoyable PE so that people continue with physical activity through the life span in order to prevent life style diseases in the Norwegian society.

Another group in the PETE network on the national level, with a vested interest in PETE, was national sport associations, exemplified by how the PETEs adapted their teaching in skiing to fit the NSF's coaching standard, seemingly, as a taken-for-granted assumption because of the prominence and appreciation of sports in the Norwegian culture (Seippel et al., 2010). On the other hand, an identified network supposed to influence the PETEs' views and practices, the government, in other words those developing the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), seemed not to be significant in terms of impacting upon the PETEs' views and practices. This may partly be explained by the fact that there were no external inspections ensuring that the Institution provided PETE in terms with the intentions in the National curricula (ibid). Hence, NOKUT inspections, the last identified network at the national level, was, in other words, a network with little power to influence the PETEs or PETE substantially.

Summary: Making sense of PETEs' ideologies

Findings from this study indicate how the various networks that PETE had been and were a part of influenced the PETEs' professional development, their philosophies and practices. In other words, like all knowledge, PETEs' knowledge of their subject and practices was social: It was acquired from other people both casually and deliberately (van Krieken, 1998). This study has confirmed the explanatory power of Lawson's (1986) three types of socialization: acculturation, professional socialization, and occupational socialization. In other words, the PETEs were socialized within a network or web of social relations and the study has found significant differences in which networks influenced the PETEs the most. Sociologically-speaking, the study has found significance differences in the power relations within the different networks. While PE

students, school practice, mentor teachers, colleagues and (to some extent) the administration at Nord UC, the national sport association and the health proponents in Norwegian (and worldwide) society were powerful networks impacting on the PETEs' everyday lives, their philosophies and practices, the leadership, formal mentoring programmes, the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), and NOKUT seemed to have little impact on the PETEs' beliefs about the nature and purpose of PE and PETE.

More specifically, findings from this study suggest that the network of interdependent relations (on a personal, local and national level) the PETEs were most involved in and dependent on in their everyday life, was, on the local level the PE students, colleagues and mentor teachers (including school practice). These networks were powerful in the sense that they tended to reinforce the PETEs' already established sporting and teacher habituses achieved through their acculturation phase. Furthermore, on a national level, the health proponents and the national sport association heavily impacted the PETEs' views and practices. In other words, the networks the PETEs were most dependent on in their day-to-day relations, were the ones reinforcing their views of the purposes of PE and PETE rather than the ones that might have challenged these beliefs (such as the leadership and the Department for Education). Even though PETE, like all social phenomena, is a process that is continually developing, it seemed like the development within PETE was slow (in relation to for example the intentions in the National curricula and their job descriptions). This was presumably because it was recognizable that the PETEs' sporting and teacher habituses (and professional identities) which heavily influenced the education they gave their students, changed more slowly than the surroundings' social relation (van Krieken, 1998), such as for example intentions in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), and the intentions in other national policy documents such as the Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway (Universitets- og høgskoleloven, 2005) and the Quality Reform (2003). Hence, it is frequently the case that people's outlook in life (such as PETEs' views on the nature and purposes of their subject or their job) remains to a greater or lesser extent tied to "yesterday's social reality" (van Krieken, 1998, p. 61). In other words, the PETEs

yesterday's social reality (their sporting and teacher habituses developed in the acculturation phase) were far more influential on the PETEs' views and practices than for example "new" aspects the PETEs had to relate to, for example, the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) or job descriptions. Further, demands in for example the National curricula (ibid) that required reflection on a high level, or demands in their job descriptions to do research (on an expected academic level) which follows the intentions in the Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway (Universitets- og høgskoleloven, 2005) and the Quality Reform (2003), and which contrasted with the PETEs established sporting and teacher habituses, were not easily accepted by the PETEs.

Earlier research claim that on-the-job experiences (occupational socialization) leads to long-term changes in PE teachers' habituses (Capel, 2005; Lawson, 1983a, b; Stroot & Ko, 2006). Findings from this study, however, suggest that both PETEs' professional socialization and occupational socialization largely reinforced the PETEs' habituses (as sporting and teacher habituses) rather than changed them. In other words, the PETEs beliefs of what being a PE teacher educator meant in practice was heavily influenced by the acculturation phase (their sporting habitus) and experiences as PE teachers (teacher habitus), and for the majority of the PETEs, less so within their professional socialization. But this is just partly true, because this study did identify that some of the PETEs that did not have experience as school PE teachers themselves had adopted a view when working as PETEs at Nord UC of the importance for PE students to get real life experience during school practice, as well as emphasizing practical skills and knowledge (sporting skills and didactical skills) in their teaching at the university. In other words, an ideology of performativity influenced their views and practices as PETEs, even though they had different backgrounds than the majority of their peers that had experiences of teaching PE in school. Furthermore, a couple of the PETEs, the ones that had possessed a PhD and who also engaged briefly in research at Nord UC, in other words, the PETEs who had undertaken professional socialization towards becoming researchers, had been shaken and stirred in their daily work towards pragmatic views on PE and PETE in line with a

performativity ideology, and also their role as academics in the university system to be teachers rather than researchers. Similarly, a former PE teacher educator at Nord UC (in one of the pilot interviews) claimed it was easier to adapt to the existing culture at the Sport Institute than to challenge it, which neatly explains that PETEs were influenced by time spent on-the-job.

The main finding in this study was the realization of the complex and at times overlapping interdependent networks the PETEs were a part of, and how these networks (to various degrees) influenced the education delivered at Nord UC. So, while earlier socialization theory research on PETE (Annerstedt & Bergendahl, 2002; Larsson, 2009) including Norwegian research on PETE (Dowling, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2011; Hansen & Rønning, 2002; Hatleset, 2003; Kårhus 2004a, b, 2010; Lundemo, 2009; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Teksum, 2006) seems to underplay the significance of the various networks or figurations PETEs are a part of in different stages in the socialization process, and the interdependencies (power relations) of the networks, a recent study by Velija et al. (2008) have used the concepts of network and interdependencies to make sense of PETE in England. But it also seems that Velija et al. (2008) may have underplayed the significance of networks for PETEs. What seemed apparent from my study at Nord UC was the fact that some networks (for example, early engagement in sports, experiences as PE teachers, PE students in PETE, colleagues, mentor teachers and school practice, the administration at Nord UC, the health proponents, and national sport associations) were far more influential networks than others that one might have expected to influence the PETEs' views and practices (like, for example, the leadership at the Sport Institute and government departments, including National curricula, university laws and NOKUT).

MAKING SENSE OF REFLEXIVITY

Roberts (2009) defines reflection as “the ability of human actors to reflect upon themselves (their hopes, goals and plans as well as their behaviour and circumstances),

and to modify their hopes, plans and behaviours accordingly” (Roberts, 2009, p. 230). Williams (1993) suggests that reflective practice among PE teachers can be explored in three broad terms from a weak to a strong sense similar to Handal and Lauvås (1990), who separated teaching practice into an action level (P1), a reflection about practice level (P2), and an ethical, theoretical and value based reflection level (P3). I find it productive to use Williams' (1993) and Handal and Lauvås' (1990) levels of reflection in order to discuss the PETEs' inclinations or otherwise towards reflexivity; or rather, their ability to reflect upon themselves, their behaviours and circumstances (Roberts, 2009).

The government department has implemented a principal in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), similar to academics, that an overarching aim in teacher education is to educate reflective teachers. This points to the relevance of elaborating findings from this study on the PETEs and their inclination towards reflection more closely, and discuss what consequences their reflexivity may have for the education of PE teachers and PETE.

In broad terms, findings from this study show that PETEs' ideologies were deeply situated in the PETEs' habituses. But because habituses are processual, they inevitably develop depending upon the significance or longevity of their context. This study has found that the PETEs were part of several networks (context) which influenced their habituses, and their views and practices of PE and PETE. A noteworthy finding, however, was that the most significant networks in PETEs day-to-day practices reinforced, rather than challenged their beliefs and practices of PE and PETE.

PETEs' reflexivity

Findings from this study give a clear impression that many of the PETEs did not seem to have reflected much on issues related to, for example, the aims and purposes of PE and PETE, or the different competency aims in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c).

Actually it seemed that the interview was the first time many had taken the different competency aims in the National curricula (ibid) into consideration (even though they never said so directly, which of course is understandable because that would undermine their role as PETEs). This reinforces the impression that the PETEs were pre-occupied with the practical issues in their day-to-day lived reality.

The interpretation of reflection and the teacher-centred approaches to their work reported by the PETEs clearly shows the pragmatic character of their reflection; in other words, how to do teaching (P1) (Handal & Lauvås, 1990), which correspond with the weak level of reflection (Williams, 1993), and occasionally, reflections on the teaching process (P2) (Handal & Lauvås, 1990), a middle level of reflection (Williams, 1993). Even if many of the PETEs talked about reflection together with the students as an important part of their teaching and of PETE, nevertheless, all reflection about practice seemed to be on a weak level of reflection (or at an action level P1) or at medium level of reflection, in other words “reflection as a form of deliberation among competing views on teaching” (Williams, 1993, p. 138). Only a couple of the PETEs spoke in terms chiming with the stronger sense of reflexivity (Williams, 1993), in other words reflection about ethical, theoretical, and value based questions regarding teaching (Handal & Lauvås, 1990).

However, when asking the PETEs to reflect upon experienced changes on aims and purposes of PETE during their employment, the majority related changes to personal development as teachers and pedagogues, and they referred to change in terms of having become more confident in their role as a pedagogue. In other words, when reflecting about change or development in PETE and as PETEs, they were also reflecting on an action level (P1) and reflecting about practice level (P2) (Handal & Lauvås, 1990), or in other words on a weak and a middle sense of reflection (Williams, 1993). It is also interesting to note, that even the two PETEs with higher degrees (PhD) (who actually had more time to do research and were expected to reflect as part of their job) failed to reflect on a stronger or ethical, theoretical and value based reflection level (P3) (Handal &

Lauvås, 1990). Put another way, even if one might expect those with a PhD to reflect about philosophies in PE and PETE or their practices in more theoretical and deliberate ways than their colleagues without a PhD, they seemed not able to do so.

This emphasis on a weak or middle level of reflection among the PETEs corresponds with findings from Møller-Hansen's (2004) study of two Norwegian PETEs where one teacher educator did reflect upon her teaching at the P3 level (Handal & Lauvås, 1990), but the experiences of the two educators on the whole tended to support the notion that much practice and reflection was at the P2 level (Handal & Lauvås, 1990), at best. Other studies on PETEs in Norway (Dowling, 2006) and Sweden (Annerstedt, 1991), as well as studies outside Scandinavia (Curtner-Smith, 2007; Hickey, 2001; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005), show the same tendency.

All-in-all, it seems that similar to the majority of the reported findings (Annerstedt, 1991; Curtner-Smith, 2007; Dowling, 2006; Hickey, 2001; Møller-Hansen, 2004; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005) PETEs at Nord UC did not tend to reflect at a strong level about their own practices or the subject of PE or PETE. Findings rather indicated that virtually all the PETEs tended to use personal interpretations rather than theoretical understandings on issues such as "what is pedagogy" or when interpreting the competency aims in the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c). Similar to findings among PE teachers (Green, 2003), the PETEs in this study seemed to believe that they achieved some of the competency aims (of PETE) indirectly rather than directly, almost by a process of osmosis. Research show that students entering general teacher education in Norway have been exposed to the teacher role for more than 12000 hours during their years of schooling (Terum & Heggen, 2010), and PE students will have been exposed to nearly 1000 hours of contact with a PE teacher prior to entering PETE. All of which adds up to an apprenticeship-of-observation (Lortie, 1975). Findings from this study show that the PETEs' apprenticeship-of-observation (ibid), their own PE experiences in school and also experience as PE teachers and sport coaches, influenced their understanding, their

teaching and their views far more than theory-based knowledge. As such, the PETEs at Nord UC, similar to what Evans and Davies (1986) found already in the 1980s, did not take a reflective approach on a strong level about their own practice of PE or PETE.

Explanations of the PETEs' reflection levels

The answer to why the PETEs reflected mostly on a weak or middle level seemed to lie in their teaching and sporting habitus (and rather low research habitus), and the fact that these habituses were developed and reinforced in the context; the networks the PETEs had been and were a part of. Findings from this study show that the PETEs, as well as the PE students, saw the primary goal of PETE to educate competent (practical) PE teachers, which simply did not require theoretical reflection.

The PETEs' sporting habituses, for example, led them to put much emphasis on subject competency in the sense of mastering different sport skills as well as focusing on sport skill tests as an important part of PETE. The PETEs' responses suggested that their own success in sports and understanding of how to perform different sports the right way, seemed to be a taken-for-granted assumption among the PETEs, and it lay at the heart of their belief that sport skills and sport performance are the most important knowledge to pass on to pupils or students within PE or PETE. Such taken-for-granted, unreflective thinking is described as a technocratic rationality ideology by Sparkes (1989) and Tinning (1990). This suggests that PETEs' own attachment to sports limits their ability to question and reflect upon *what* they do and *why* they do things the way they do in PE and PETE. Actually, it seemed as if the PETEs sporting habituses limited their desire to ask reflecting questions both on a "philosophical" level such as "what's worth doing" in PETE, but also on a more practical level "is what I'm [we are] doing working?" (Harrison & Templin, 1991, p. 3, emphasis added).

While the tendency among the PETEs at Nord UC to be reflective at a low level tells us something about the significance of habituses for the PETEs' philosophies and practices, it also reveals something about their context, and in particular the lack of formal training for PETEs (their professional socialization) and the lack of formal (or informal) constraints upon them to reflect. The Sport Institute at Nord UC did, for example, not facilitate professional discussions among the PETEs in the form of reflections on PE and PETE. Neither did the Sport Institute have a plan for CPD or formal mentoring for the PETEs (although the Institute Leader claimed this to have improved the latest years, after the interviews with the PETEs in 2009). In other words, the Sport Institute did not constrain the PETEs to reflect upon their own professional position or the aims and purposes of PETE. Hence it seems likely to claim that the Sport Institute reinforced the tendency among the PETEs to continue to reflect on a weak or middle level. Knowing that there would be no external inspections of what the PETEs do in practice may be another answer to why the PETEs continued to reflect at only a weak or middle level about their job. In other words, it seemed like the PETEs' working context (both on a local and national level) reinforced rather than challenged their predispositions towards sports and teaching, in other words, their habituses.

The focus of this study on identifying that PETEs were part of various interdependent networks (throughout the whole life span) may add a contribution to the explanation of why teachers (and researchers) taking a critical theory/pedagogical approach towards PE and PETE, appear to have failed to educate genuinely reflexive PE teachers or PETE (see, for example, Curtner-Smith, 2007; Hickey, 2001; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005). It seems that critical theorists have underplayed the significance of the networks and interdependencies PE students, PE teachers and PETEs have been and are a part of, or in other words, because PE students, PE teachers, and PETEs are part of and constrained within different interdependent networks in their everyday life, they may not be "free" to reflect at the kind of critical level critical theorists expect and advocate.

In the following I will consider some possible consequences of the PETEs' conservative pragmatic approaches to reflection identified in this study.

PETEs' reflection levels and the consequences for PETE

In contrast to Velija et al. (2008), who found that the university tutors ideologies' on PE were grounded on academic ideas of what PE is or ought to be, the PETEs at Nord UC seemed first and foremost to reflect on a weak or medium level, even though, the Quality Reform (2003), the Law on Universities and University Colleges in Norway (Universitets- og høgskoleloven, 2005), the National curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c), and their requirements in their job descriptions for them to be research active, all implies that the PETEs ought to reflect on a strong, ethical, theoretical, and value based level. In this last section I will consider some of the potential consequences for PETEs, PETE, and the Sport Institute if the PETEs continue to reflect on a low or medium level rather than on a strong level.

PETE does not educate reflective PE teachers

Findings in this study indicate that the PETEs found the PE students to be unreflective beyond the weaker sense of the term, and to have very limited interest in theory. Nonetheless, the study also indicated that part of the reason may be found by looking at the PETEs themselves, in other words, to understand the students' lack of theory interest and low reflection levels as a consequence of the interdependency between the PETEs and the PE students. Put another way, it is likely that PE students were already predisposed to a taken-for-granted, uncritical, view of PE, because they found themselves being taught by PETEs who shared very similar assumptions and views. It seemed like the PETEs' sporting and teacher habituses were so strong that it blindfolded their understanding of why the students were not interested in theory and/or reflection. In other words, because the PETEs were not aware of, and hence challenged by, their working

context in their own a-theoretical approaches to PE and PETE, it is possible to understand why the students seemed to continue to have a-theoretical or traditional approaches towards the subject.

Thus, the criticism that PETE fail to make students reflexive at a deeper ideological level to be found, for example, among advocates of critical pedagogy in PETE (see, for example, Curtner-Smith, 2007; Dowling, 2006; Gore, 1990; Hickey, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005), seems to overlook the constraints experiences by the PETEs in their working contexts. In other words, critical theorists seems to overplay or exaggerate (probably for ideological reasons) the freedom of PETEs (and PEs) to reflect upon and change their practices, because they underplay the explanatory significance of the networks PETEs find themselves a part of and, therefore, their interdependencies with others. PE students, as with PE teachers (Green, 2003), lack of or at least limited use of reflection may have as much to do with their tutors' disinclination towards reflexive practice and their failure to encourage or constrain their PE students to reflect at a deeper level because the PE students' prior concerns is with the "nuts and bolts" of teaching PE. It is hardly surprising, therefore, that newly-qualified PE teachers are only inclined to reflect upon the practicalities of their role as PE teachers if during their training the PETEs (whose responsibility it is for encouraging deeper reflection on the subject) are also pre-occupied with reflection in the weaker sense. What seemed evident in this study was the fact that PE students reproduced and reinforced what they experienced during their professional socialization as PE students.

PETE continuing to be unacademic

Because the PETEs' reflection tended to be on practical matters of teaching, or weak levels of reflection, they also seemed to produce unreflexive PE student. In academia, one expectation of university employees is their inclination to reflect on a theoretical level (Freidson, 2001; Smeby, 2008, 2010b; Universitets- og høyskoleloven, 2005). In other words, if PETEs continue to reflect on the practicalities of teaching rather than on a more

theoretical level, it is likely that PETE will continue to be viewed as an unacademic occupation, at least in academia.

To consider PETE within the professional landscape, it is important to realize that various types of occupation are associated by the existence of a professional association (Roberts, 2009). While some professions may be protected by law (for example, the medical profession), the majority of professions do not have such protections. In other words, “occupations differ in the degree to which they have been professionalized. There are more semi-professions and aspirant professions than fully fledged professions such as medicine and law” (Roberts, 2009, p. 217). In order to be able to distinguish different professions more specifically than merely professions, semi-professions, and aspirant professions, Freidson (2001) claims one way to do this is by distinguishing between mental and manual labor, between mechanical and discretionary specialization, and not least outline the kind of knowledge that establishes the foundation for the claim for professionalism.

Freidson (ibid) distinguished between four different types of knowledge's; everyday knowledge, practical knowledge, formal knowledge and tacit knowledge. Further he distinguishes between three types of specializations; mechanical; manual discretionary, and mental discretionary. While, for example mechanical specializations rely on high everyday knowledge, low practical knowledge, low formal knowledge, and moderate tacit knowledge, manual discretionary specializations rely on moderate everyday knowledge, high practical knowledge, moderate formal knowledge, and high tacit knowledge. In contrast are mental discretionary specializations which rely on low everyday knowledge, moderate practical knowledge, high formal knowledge and low tacit knowledge

Furthermore, Freidson (2001) outlines three occupational categories “commonly associated with fairly complex specialized knowledge – those called ... crafts, technicians, and professions” (p. 88). Craft workers have usually received their training on-the-job, while technicians receive various kinds of formal training in para-secondary or post-secondary institutions where they are taught some theory and abstract concepts, in addition to experiences on-the-job. In contrast to these is what Freidson (2001) refers to as ideal-typical professionalism, where the education is fully under control of the occupation which takes place in higher education institutions. The employees at these higher education institutions are “expected not only to teach, but also to be active in the codification, refinement, and expansion of the occupation’s body of knowledge and skill by both theorizing and doing research” (Freidson, 2001, p. 92).

In Norway, shorter educational courses such as teacher education and nursing, took place separately from universities and university colleges until the 1960s, but were included, as all higher education in Norway, into universities and university colleges at the end of the 1960s. The main political aim of the decision to make higher education in Norway more academic was to put more emphasis on theory and research in educational institutions (Smeby, 2008). In other words, these types of specialization were supposed to be based on high formal knowledge and skills, and rather moderate practical knowledge (and low tacit knowledge) (Freidson, 2001).

We know that PE has historically been characterized as having a relatively low academic status at all levels in the educational system (Bain, 1990; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Fitzclarence & Tinning, 1990; Smyth, 1995; Wright, 2001) and that a consequence of this has been an increasing effort to make PE and PETE more academic. The academicisation process of PE and PETE has meant increasing emphasis on theoretical aspects of studying sports and physical activity, and downplayed the practical and unreflective practice of just playing sports (Reid, 1996a, b). Hence, more theoretical justifications have been included in curricula and policy documents with the aim of making PE

becoming a mental discretionary type of specialization, which requires higher education (Freidson, 2001).

Besides PE and PETE having difficulty of becoming and being viewed as academic subjects, Smeby (2008) claims general teachers (and teacher education) also have struggled to become academic. Hence, they have had difficulty in achieving high academic status because they did not have “ownership” of a relatively small cognitive knowledge base or discipline which is the nature of the classic professions such as medicine and law (Freidson, 2001). It is likely to think that PETEs (and PE teachers) appear to have had the same difficulty as teachers more generally, not having ownership of their own cognitive knowledge-base. But as findings from this study indicate, many of the PETEs believed that general teacher educators viewed PETE as having a lower academic status than educators generally. In other words, general teacher education has struggled to be viewed as being academic (Smeby, 2008). There is reason to believe that one reason why PETE continues to be viewed as not fully academic and to have a low status within academic circles (also among other semi-professions), may have to do with the relatively low research activity (and production) among the PETEs, together with the fact that the PETEs seem to have relatively little interest in theoretical aspects of PE in general. In other words, PETE did not seem to fulfill what is expected of higher education institutions (and their employees) in order to be defined a fully-profession (Freidson, 2001). Rather, findings from this study indicate that the education of PE teachers, even though it took place in the university system (and as such is defined as an academic subject), seemed to rely more on knowledge and skills emphasized in manual discretionary specializations than mental discretionary specialization (Freidson, 2001).

Smeby (2010b) claims professional competence in higher education is the relationship between theoretical knowledge, tacit knowledge, and practical skills, but he does not specify, as Freidson (2001), what separates manual specializations from mental specializations, namely the high focus on formal knowledge and skills and rather

moderate emphasis on practical knowledge of the latter (mental specialization), while manual specialization emphasizes practical and tacit knowledge, and only puts moderate focus on formal knowledge. In this study, the PETEs emphasized practical knowledge over theoretical knowledge, as their professional identities were closely linked to their sporting and teacher habituses, which was reinforced by their working context. These findings correspond with Annerstedt and Bergendahl's (2002) study on Swedish PETE which pointed out that PETEs were worried about the development towards a more university-like PETE, and their concern was especially research being valued more highly than teaching experience. Actually, PETE at Nord UC seemed to be in lines with what Freidson (2001) refers to as education for technicians (which requires a mix of on-the-job training and theoretical education, with an emphasis on the former), than an education that can be related to a mental discretionary type of specialization that requires high theoretical knowledge and skills (both among the students and the university employees).

The professional identity among the PETEs at Nord UC (similar to Swedish PETEs) contrasts with the expectations of academics on a university level in Norway (Smeby, 2008, 2010b; Universitets- og høyskoleloven, 2005) and worldwide (Freidson, 2001). This inevitably brings into question the professional status of PETEs. After all, which academic professions would claim that aspects of what they aim to achieve in the academic professional training (of teachers and, for that matter, aspects of what PE teachers do in schools) is contingent or serendipitous and are not deliberately grounded on theoretical considerations and/or research? Given that PETE is a professional academic education you might reasonably have expected the PETEs to be passing on to the PE students the professional knowledge indicated in the National Curricula (UFD, 2003a, b, c) in a more deliberate or more systematic way, or in other words, more in correspondence with what is defined in the National curricula (bid), than it actually seemed the PETEs in this study did.

Considering these thoughts in relation to the issue of academic status within PETE, this tells us that status was measured in different ways in different places by different people. On the one hand, it was noteworthy that virtually all the PETEs talked about PETE having a very high status at the Sport Institute at Nord UC, being the flag-ship which recruited many students. But, despite the high status PETE had at the Sport Institute, the overall impression was that many of the PETEs viewed PETE as having low status both in relation to general teacher education and in society in general. So, it seemed as if the high status of PETE at Nord UC was measured primarily by the ability to recruit students, rather than status in terms of academic professional standing and reputation. By contrast, the status of PETE in general teacher education was measured by its academic context. So, in fact status as the ability to recruit students may be better described as the state or condition of PETE, whereas status as an academic measure is more about status in the sense of esteem or worth.

The answer to why PETE continue to be viewed as an unacademic and have low status in the university system and in society, may have to do with findings identified in this study, namely, that the PETE (like PE teachers) focused on the practice of sports and the practicalities of teaching rather than the theory of both, or even theoretically informed practice. In other words, the PETEs' sporting and teaching habituses together with their working context heavily influenced their ideologies and practices towards an ideology of performativity. Furthermore, very little within their working context seemed to either shake nor stir them to become academic and reflect on a strong theoretical level, which is expected of academics (Freidson, 2001; Smeby, 2008, 2010b; Universitets- og høyskoleloven, 2005). Together, this reinforces PETE to continue to be, and be viewed by others, as an unacademic in the university system.

Summary: Making sense of PETEs' reflection levels

This study has found that PETEs reflected on a weak to medium level (Williams, 1993).

In other words, the PETEs reflected first and foremost on technical or practical issues regarding teaching, or on different views of teaching. These findings correspond with findings in earlier studies on PETE (Annerstedt, 1991; Dowling, 2006; Møller-Hansen, 2004). The explanations for this may be found in their strong sporting and teaching habituses and rather low research identities (which actually implies reflection on a strong level). In other words, the PETEs emphasized practical (sporting and teaching) knowledge as superior competencies to achieve in PETE rather than theoretical knowledge and reflection. Even more important, however, was how the PETEs' working context (the networks the PETEs were a part of) impacted on their inclination towards reflecting on the practicalities of sports and teaching rather than theoretical reflection. The PETEs' dependence upon the PE students and mentor teachers in school practice, were, for example, very influential on the inclination for the PETEs to emphasize the practical aspects of sports and teaching. In other words, these networks reinforced rather than challenged the PETEs sporting and teaching habituses, while other networks that could have constrained the PETEs to reflect on a strong level (the leadership, the government department, and NOKUT), were not influencing the PETEs sufficiently in their day-to-day practice. This may explain the PETEs' inclinations towards a weak or medium level rather than a strong level of reflection.

A common critique among critical theorists has been the fact that PE teachers do not tend to reflect on a deeper ideological level (see, for example, Curtner-Smith, 2007; Dowling, 2006; Gore, 1990; Hickey, 2001; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Ruiz & Fernández-Balboa, 2005). Findings from this study, however, indicate that critical theorists overlook the constraints in the PETEs' working contexts. In other words, critical theorists seem to overplay or exaggerate the freedom of PETEs (and PE teachers) to reflect upon and change their practices because they underplay the explanatory significance of networks PETEs find themselves a part of and therefore their interdependencies with others.

This study has identified that a potential consequence of the fact that PETEs tend to reflect on a low level and were preoccupied with the practicalities of sports and teaching, may be that PETE continues to educate PE teachers disinclined to reflect on a strong theoretical level. Another consequence may be that PETE continues to be viewed as unacademic within the university system.

To summarize this discussion chapter, it is possible to say that PETEs, like all people, develop and live in contexts. These contexts constrain and enable and therefore shape the PETEs' views and behaviours. The contexts the PETEs were a part of amounted to various networks of (more or less) interdependent people, (for example, sporting clubs, school, universities, peers, and society). In this study I have identified the various networks the PETEs were involved in and discussed how the various networks constrained and shaped the practice of PETE at Nord UC.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUDING REMARKS

The aim of this study was to research PETEs' (and to a lesser extent PE students') perspectives on the nature and purposes of PETE in Norway via a case-study of one quite typical institution offering PETE. The questions that needed to be answered were: How do PETEs (and PE students) view the purposes of PETE, that is to say, what are their philosophies and ideologies regarding PE and PETE? How do PETEs view the nature of PETE in practice, in other words, how do they view their roles and identities as PETEs? How do the PETEs experience working as PETEs, and how do PE students view being PE students? Finally, how do PETEs at Nord UC implement the kind of PETE the institution was supposed to offer the students?

By taking a grounded theory approach towards theory, in the study I have also set out to examine the most prominent theories, concepts, and assumptions of the various theories. In doing so, I have discussed the validity of the existing concepts in terms of whether and to what extent they have made sense of the findings of the empirical study of PETE at Nord UC, retaining, modifying, and/or jettisoning the sensitizing concepts accordingly on the basis of the findings. In this vein, the study set out to examine and map the dynamics of the social relationships involved in PETE and their effects on PETE itself.

Time has come to consider some concluding remarks and, in short, to suggest which have been the most useful sensitizing concepts for this study. It is plausible to ascertain that PETEs (and PE students), as all people, develop and live in contexts. The contexts the PETEs were a part of amounted to various networks or figurations of interdependent people. This study has identified that these contexts constrained and therefore shaped the PETEs' views, beliefs and behaviours. For example, PETEs' ideologies (philosophies) and practices tended to reflect their socialization in different places at different times, and their socialization manifested itself in their habituses. These habituses or predispositions continued to be shaped by the various networks the PETEs had been and continued to be

a part of and the interdependencies these networks involved. Furthermore, a noteworthy finding was that the nature (power relations) of the PETEs interdependencies at the local level, in particular, had significant consequences for the nature and purposes of PETE at Nord UC.

This chapter considers the main finding in this study, which is that PETE neither shakes nor stirs PE students, before revealing some special characteristics of PETE in Norway. Further, I have some remarks according to theoretical (sociological) attempts to make sense of (or understand) PETE, before discussing pros and cons of the case-study approach adopted in this study. Finally, the chapter outlines suggestions for further research within the field.

MAIN FINDINGS FROM THE CASE-STUDY OF PETE

This case-study of PETE at Nord UC has provided findings on PETE in general, and more specifically on PETE in Norway, while, to a lesser extent, insight into PE.

PETE neither shakes nor stirs

A main finding in this study was the significance of acculturation (and their resulting habituses) for PETEs as well as PE students, and how these deep-seated habituses influenced among other things their inclination towards reflection. All-in-all, the expectation that PETE could develop successive generations of reflective practitioners, possessing the ability and inclination to critically reflect upon their roles as educationalists alongside the desire to effect change at the personal, institutional and political levels, has been revealed as a vain hope. Put another way, several studies have tended to confirm that PETE neither shakes nor stirs newly-emerging PE teachers' relatively conservative views and practices in relation to PE, let alone, education more generally (see, for example, Capel, 2005; Dowling, 2011; Evans et al., 1996; Larsson,

2009; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Placek et al., 1995; Velija et al., 2008). This failure to impact, at the outset, upon teachers' beliefs and attitudes has led to scholars emphasizing what they view as the need for PETE to confront the uncritical, unreflexive dispositions of each new generation of PE teachers as they emerge from PETE (see, for example, Dowling, 2011; Fernández-Balboa, & Muros, 2006; Kirk, 2009; Tinning, 2000).

Kirk (2009) claims that, over the last generation or so, teacher educators have been influenced by attempts "to politicize the notions of knowledge and schooling" (p. 207). However, the findings from this study show that the philosophies and practices of PETEs at Nord UC remained steadfastly conservative. The same appears true for Tinning's (2006, p. 373) observation that "one of the major trends in teacher education and PETE" has been "the rise of reflection as a dominant concept" and reflexivity as "a generic professional disposition" (Feiman-Nemser, 1990, p. 221, cited in Tinning, 2006, p. 373).

One thing that the present study at Nord UC revealed, however, was the tendency for academics to over-emphasize the impact of professional training on prospective teachers, let alone, its potential to transform PE students' ideological predispositions. PETE at Nord UC, similar to findings in earlier research (Capel, 2005; Evans et al., 1996; Larsson, 2009; Macdonald & Brooker, 1999; Placek et al., 1995; Velija et al., 2008), appeared to have little impact on the largely established beliefs of PE students and only limited, and largely indirect and brief, impact upon their practices. All-in-all, in the same way that the significance of academic debate about the nature and purposes of PE is frequently exaggerated, so too is the impact of professional socialization in the form of PETE. Recruits to PETE (as well as PE teaching) who shared a common background typically consisting of sports and games, appeared not only to have great difficulty envisaging alternative curriculum models for the subject, they seemed quite disinclined to accept alternative views. Both the PE students and PETEs appeared disinclined to accept that there actually are alternatives models to PE (a more academic view, for example). While

Kirk (2009) claims that “teacher education programmes lead to students *developing* utilitarian perspectives” (p. 208, italic in original), it was apparent that the students and the PETEs at Nord UC already possessed such utilitarian perspectives before entering PETE. Hence, the immediacy and significance of the prospect of teaching simply served to sharpen their orientations to the day-to-day realities of PE teaching. Undoubtedly, PETE programmes “that focus on survival and craft- or skill-based courses” (Kirk, 2009, p. 208) strengthen these tendencies.

Considering the policy implications of this study, student-teachers’ deep-seated orientations towards the practise of sports and, for that matter teaching, alongside their pre-occupation with the imminent prospect of teaching, made them disinclined to engage in reflexive practices. In this regard, findings from this study support the view that “the noise of education reform and the weight of education legislation” (Evans, et al., 1996, p. 165) constraining PETEs to engage in curriculum change, which Evans et al. (ibid) described almost two decades ago, may have done little to alter the process of PETE, at least as far as PETE at Nord UC is concerned.

In broad terms, the findings from this study suggest that at least part of the explanation for the conservative nature of PETE at Nord UC and, by extension, the inability of PETE to shake or stir PE students’ predispositions and practices were, in fact, the predispositions and preferred practices of the deliverers of PETE, namely, that PETE did not shake or stir PE students because PETEs were not inclined to shake and stir them and the PETEs were not inclined to do so because they themselves were never shaken or stirred in turn and nothing was constraining them to do so now. More specifically, the conservative nature of the PETEs’ own habituses were reinforced by the immediacy and significance of their experiences in the field. Furthermore, local, institutional, and wider social and cultural contexts that PETEs at Nord UC were part of appeared more likely to reinforce rather than challenge the hegemony of a sporting ideology alongside the primacy of teaching in PETE (in this study referred to as an ideology of performativity).

The study has also highlighted the potential significance of context not only in reinforcing existing habituses among PETEs, but also in the consequences of an absence of, for example, constraint towards reflexivity from the context. In addition, the study has revealed that contexts were varied and differentially influential. In other words, the particularities of countries, institutions, and programmes need to be taken into consideration when explaining social processes such as PETE at Nord UC in Norway. For example, the influence of the increasing prominence of health focus in the developed world and in Norway (at political and social levels) appears to have led PE teachers to be viewed as agents of change in the health behaviours of young people (Evans & Davies, 2004a).

All-in-all, in order to make PETEs become more reflective on a theoretical and academic level in consistence with their job description and expectations in academia in Norway (Smeby, 2008; Universitets- og høgskoleloven, 2005), it may be that constraint is the only way to bring about the kinds of change towards reflexivity in PE and PETE generally. The reason for this claim is Tsangaridou's (2006) observation that most of those who choose PE as a career "are academically average students who are mostly successful in physical education and sports rather than academic achievement" (p. 492) and, therefore, always likely to favour sporting and teaching practice over theory and reflection.

Characteristics of PETE in Norway

Having considered the main findings from this study on PETE in general, this section will first look closer at some elements that may help explaining the prominence of *why* PETEs in Norway emphasize sport skills in PETE, namely that of sports being a central element in the Norwegian culture. In this regard some authors claim that sports (and physical activity) are central to the identities of many Norwegians (Seippel et al., 2010). Second, this section considers the characteristic of what may be described as a high

degree of autonomy in Norwegian work-place cultures (Antikainen, 2010; Smeby, 2005b), which also may be viewed as a characteristic of Norwegian workplace culture.

Sports and physical activity in Norwegian culture

This study has revealed that the PETEs focused on teaching sporting skills alongside the need for future PE teachers to develop didactical skills in PETE.

These findings were to be expected given not only the prevalence of sporting ideologies among PE teachers and PETEs world-wide but, in particular, the prominent place of sports in Norwegian culture. Seippel et al. (2010) describes sports and physical activity in Scandinavia as characterised by “high levels of participation in sports in particular as well as physical activity in general” (p. 563) among both young and old people. Seippel et al. (2010) claim sports and physical activity is a core element of not only the personal identity of many individuals, but also the national identity in Nordic countries such as Norway. In a similar vein, Bairner (2010) suggests that “people in Nordic countries are more likely to be directly involved in sports as active participants and volunteer coaches than is the case in most other western societies” (p.736). Hence, the historical involvement of national sport associations in sports at all levels together with the strength of the culture of sports and physical activity in Norway has created a contextual legacy for PE and PETE: all parties in the PETE configuration (from students through schools and PETEs to government) expect (and even welcome) the various sport associations’ influence not only on PE, but also in the preparation of PE teachers via PETE.

The developments in social processes such as PETE are predominantly the result of the interdependencies between a range of people and groups within the PETE configuration and, in particular, the expectations each have of the others. The end result, however, is often something that no one involved had intended or hoped for; it occurs unintentionally through the interactions between people and often without them intending it or even

realizing it. Thus, there appears to be a great deal of continuity alongside minimal change in PETE at Nord UC. Continuity was apparent in the (sporting) philosophies of the PETEs (and, for that matter, those “above” them – the leadership – and those “below” them – the PE students). Continuity was also apparent in the practice of PETE at Nord: the emphasis on teaching sporting skills in PETE continued to be of great importance for the PETEs, in order for future PE teachers to demonstrate “good practice” to future pupils. All-in-all it seemed that what Seippel et al. (2010) describes as a national sporting identity in the Norwegian population shaped, among other things, the continuity in Norwegian PETE focusing on sporting skills. Hence, because sport is a more or less taken-for-granted assumption in the Norwegian population (culture), critical questions regarding the emphasis on sport skills in PETE (at Nord UC) are seldom (if ever) asked from within (the PETEs) or from outsiders (the Norwegian population).

Autonomy in the Norwegian work-place culture

Another prominent finding, which may be referred to as typically Scandinavian as well as Norwegian was the relatively democratic and autonomic nature of the workplace culture (Antikainen, 2010; Smeby, 2005b) identified at Nord UC. The study found, for example, minimal influence of government on the PETEs’ practices, together with relatively non-interventionist styles of leadership within the institution. A consequence of the autonomy in the workplace culture seemed to be a power-balance between the PETEs and their managers tilted towards the former, as well as the perceptions of autonomy among the former. This can be explained, at least in part, by shifts in power balances at the societal and individual levels, for example, the trend towards more equal power relations in the form of a decentralization and de-regulation of education administration. Further, alongside a trend towards increased institutional accountability between the different levels of professional and employment hierarchies in Nordic countries, such as Norway, since the early 1980s (Antikainen, 2010). Consequently, it has become the norm in the university sector in Norway for occupational groups (such as PETEs) to have a great deal of autonomy (Smeby, 2005b). Such autonomy seems also to have led to a great deal of security and confidence in the positions of the PETEs (and thus their capacity to view themselves as relatively autonomous and independent). In other words, the prevailing

norms regarding what might be termed the rights of professionals in Norway (and especially in the university sector) weakens the position of managers and shifts the balance of power towards the employees in some crucial ways.

Alongside the trend towards more equal power relations at the institutional level, has been a similar process at the level of individual relations. Scandinavian countries, such as Norway, have been in the forefront of wider social processes of informalization that have been underway in the developed world since the second half of the twentieth century. Informalization is associated with a narrowing of power differentials and a process of social equalization (or levelling), as hierarchies of rank gradually getting smaller as a consequence of shifts in the balance of power between, and integration among, the social classes, sexes, and generations (Kilminster, 1998). The democratization of relations between adults and young people (van Krieken, 1998) has resulted in less authoritarian social relations (for example, between teacher and taught) and led to youngsters breaking out from an “imposed sense of inferiority” (Mennell, 1998, p. 123). The result has been that students are more ready and willing to challenge the “say so” of their teachers and are keen in their attempts to influence the content and delivery of their (higher) education and training. At Nord UC, this general tendency appeared to have been heightened by the students’ awareness of the primacy of acquiring (sporting and teaching) skills. While the network of dependencies stretched further than the immediate PETE and connected far more people than simply PETEs and their students, the interactions between PETEs and their students were more immediate and intense than those with other groups in the network of PETE. The balance of power had, by degrees, shifted towards the students.

PE and PE teachers

Findings from the case-study of PETE at Nord UC, implicitly, give insight into aspects of PE as a school subject as well as PE teachers. For example, the focus of (mentor teachers on) day-to-day practicalities of teaching in school practice for the PE student described by both the PE students and the PETEs in this study, indicates a lack of medium or strong level of reflection among PE teachers, individual or collectively.

Furthermore, an increasingly common-place view among the PETEs at Nord UC seemed to be that newly-qualified PE teachers lacked the kinds of subject expertise (especially in terms of practical sporting skills and abilities) previous generations were believed to have enjoyed. This view seemed to strengthen the view of (and the emphasis on) sporting skills as *the* most important competency for PE students to develop in PETE. What seemed as a commonplace view among PETEs was that there were no grounds for thinking that more highly-educated (to degree level in sport science) PE student were likely to become better practitioners of PE.

THEORETICAL ATTEMPTS TO MAKE SENSE OF PETE

This study has echoed earlier research (see, for example, Annerstedt, 1991; Armour & Yelling, 2004; Curtner-Smith, 2001; Graber, 1989; Lawson, 1986, 1988; Lawson & Stroot, 1993; O'Bryant et al., 2000; Rønning, 1996; Rønning & Hansen, 1993; Schempp, 1989; Stroot & Williamson, 1993) of the substantial contribution and continued relevance of socialization theory and its variants to our understanding of the predispositions (habitus) of those in PE either as PE teachers or, in this case, as PETE educators

The continued relevance of critical theorists' observations regarding the ideological continuum from tacit assumptions through to hegemonic ideologies, such as technocratic rationality (here referred to under the umbrella term of performativity) (see, for example, Dowling, 2006; Kirk, 2010; Næss, 1998; Sparkes, 1993; Tinning, 1990, 1991), healthism, and liberal individualism, has also proved useful (see, for example, Evans & Davies, 2004a; Green, 2003; Telama et al., 2005; Waddington, 2000). However, symbolic interactionists' (and critical theorists, for that matter) emphasis on human beings' being supposedly capable of distinctive reflexivity may exaggerate individuals' general ability to overcome the constraints of circumstances (Roberts, 2009). As far as PETEs are concerned, and in order to make sociological sense of processes such as PETE and PE, it is necessary to locate individuals and groups in the networks they have been and are

inevitably a part of. In doing so, this study has made it possible to explore the various ways in which the PETEs' dependence on other people and groups constrained and shaped their views and practices. For example, PE students' disinclination to reflect on their practices and experiences is said, by those engaged with teacher education in PE, to be one of the reasons why they tend to be fundamentally unresponsive during their training to attempts to encourage them to reflect critically upon various aspects of the subject: from teaching styles through to the nature and purposes of the subject (Capel, 2005). This study suggests, however, that the students' lack of critically reflection needs contextualizing. In order to fully appreciate why PETE appears neither to shake nor stir the ideologies and practices of future PE teachers, we need to go beyond the PE student themselves and, for that matter, PETE.

Post-modernists may be generally correct in claiming that post-modern economic and social conditions are forcing young people, for example, to reflect upon their future plans and construct their own paths and identities as former social structures and divisions have weakened. Nonetheless, the paths and identities of those established in or entering occupational groups such as PE and PETE remain relatively predictable, and PETEs are an example of the argument that post-modern conditions have not made everyone and all groups to act reflexively. In this regard, post-modern conditions may, for example, have weakened gender divisions (but certainly not obliterated them), and resulted in the reduced significance of gender as an explanatory concept in understanding PETE. On the other hand, post-feminists may have something to say in relation to female Norwegian PE student and PETEs' apparent lack of concern with the issue of gender (see, for example, Dowling, 2006, 2008, 2011). That is to say, it seemed as if female PE student or PETEs were more concerned to use their greater equality and relatively new-found freedom to adopt views and practices similar to those of their male counterparts towards PE, PETE and sports. This is similar to Pfister's (2010) claim that female sportswomen "take up men's sports and, in order to integrate, adjust to the norms and values which dominate them" (p. 239),

Critical theorists has over several decades focused on praxis (change) not only to PE (and PE teachers) and PETE (and PETEs), but also to those academics studying PE and PETE, in this case sociologists. It is important to recognize, however, that critical theorists themselves only occasionally acknowledge (and, for that matter, recognize) their own partiality and tacit assumptions and, therefore, lack of detachment in their studies. At the same time, critical theorists often fail to acknowledge just how significant context is in order to understand, in this case, PETEs' views and practices. Explanations for social phenomena, in this case PETE at Nord UC, are seldom mono-causal. It is usually the case that several processes come together to create circumstances of favourable developments, that is to say, they make a particular outcome more likely than others. In configuration, the PETEs' PE teaching experiences, the expectations and anticipated demands of their students and the mentor teachers, the relative weakness of government and the institution, together with the dearth of a research culture within PETE generally, but at Nord UC in particular, all add up to create ideologies that support rather than challenge the intuitive philosophies of PETEs at Nord UC regarding the real nature and purposes of PETE.

PETE at Nord UC neatly illustrates the so-called "Thomas rule" (de Swaan, 2001, p. 34): When people expect something to happen, these expectations tend to effect what happens. The apparent dearth of constraint from above (that is, the leadership and national inspections) as it were, together with the expectations of continuity – in the form of an emphasis on the development of sporting and teaching skills – from below (that is, from the PE students) simply served to reinforce the conservative customs and practices of PETEs at Nord UC. The continued existence of PETE depended upon a degree of unity of purpose and, at Nord UC at least, this tended to take the form of expectations based on the customs and conventions of sports. Against this backdrop, it is difficult to escape the conclusion that for all the insistence of policy-makers and teacher educationalists that PETE is supposed to be *education*, in the case of PETE at Nord UC (and, one suspects, elsewhere and not merely in Norway), PETE bears all the hall marks of teacher *training*: the training of PE student to teach sports using conventional teaching styles.

THE CASE-STUDY APPROACH

The case-study approach adopted in this study has included (almost) all PETEs teaching on one or several of the PE study programmes provided at Nord UC the year this study was undertaken. Sampling virtually all PETEs at Nord UC has provided useful insight into the views of the PETEs at Nord UC as a group, as well as personal views of particular PETEs. Including PE students alongside the Study Leader and Institute Leader in the sample has provided a productive way to triangulate the views of the PETEs from below (the PE students) and above (the leadership). On the other hand, there may have been limitations when studying one single case such as Nord UC. For example, conducting case-studies on institutions where more of the PETEs had not been students at the institution being studied may have provided other findings than this case-study at Nord UC where 10 of the PETEs (including the Institute Leader) had been previous students at the Sport Institute. Similar, conducting case-studies at institutions where more of the PETEs had graduated a PhD, may have added other findings than this case-study at Nord UC where only two of the ones teaching in PETE had graduated a PhD. Further, conducting case-studies in countries where the sporting and physical activity culture is not as prominent as in Norway, may also have added other findings.

FURTHER RESEARCH

By focusing on PETEs and the PE students, this study has given insight into the social dynamics in PETE and their effects on PETE itself. In the process, new knowledge has developed, but, alongside this, the study has also revealed gaps in the knowledge-base of PETE, and PE for that matter, especially in a Norwegian context and, in this regard, I have suggestions for further research in the field.

A network identified in this study to be quite strong in influencing PETE was that of school practice, including mentor teachers. There is little available Norwegian research

on school practice in PETE (Hagelund, 2006; Lundemo, 2009). So even though this recent study at Nord UC has identified school practice and mentor teachers to be a powerful network of which the PETEs and PE students were a part, the study did not include mentor teachers into nor research what actually goes on in school practice in PETE. The relationships between the three interrelated groups, PE students, mentor teachers, and PETEs, needs further research.

This recent study at Nord UC has included PE students into the sample, but the study has not focused explicitly on PE students. Dowling (2011) has recently published an article on PE students in Norway focusing on the emerging professional identities of the PE students. However, this is a qualitative study and large measure quantitative studies on PE students, their backgrounds and philosophies, and in addition qualitative studies, are deemed a potentially fruitful research area in Norwegian PETE.

So far, I have mentioned what I consider underdeveloped research areas in PETE. Although some authors have studied school PE in Norway from a psychological perspective (Andrews & Johansen, 2005; Bagøien et al., 2010; Bagøien & Halvari, 2005; Ommundsen, 2001a, b, c, 2003, 2004a, b, 2006; Ommundsen & Kvalø, 2007), and a recent PhD have studied how PE teachers in Norway like their job (Jakobsen, 2010), together with another recently published PhD studying effects on inducting intercultural learning in PE in upper secondary Norwegian schools (Midthaugen, 2011), this study of PETE at Nord UC has identified that sociological research on the nature and purposes of PE in Norwegian school (both from pupils and PE teachers perspective), are underdeveloped research areas that need to be addressed.

REFERENCES

- Annerstedt, C. (1991). *Idrottslärarna och idrottsämnet: utveckling, mål, kompetens - ett didaktiskt perspektiv*. Göteborg: Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis.
- Annerstedt, C. (2008). Physical education in Scandinavia with a focus on Sweden: A comparative perspective. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 13(4), 303-318.
- Annerstedt, C., & Bergendahl, L. (2002). *Attraktiv utbildning. En studie av lärerutbildningar i idrott och hälsa*. (Gothenburg University IPD-Report no. 8, 2002). Gothenburg: Gothenburg University.
- Antikainen, A. (2010). The capitalist state and education. The case of restructuring the Nordic model. *Current Sociology*, 58(4), 530-550.
- Apple, M. W. (2004). *Ideology and curriculum* (3rd ed.). New York: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Armour, K. M. (2006). The way to a teachers' heart: Narrative research in physical education. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 467-485). London: Sage Publications.
- Armour, N., & Jones, R. (1998). *Physical education, teachers' lives and careers. PE, sport and educational status*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Armour, N., & Yelling, M. (2004). Continuing professional development for experienced physical education teachers: Towards effective provision. *Sport, Education and Society*, 9(1), 95-114.
- Armour, N., & Yelling, M. (2007). Effective professional development for physical education teachers: The role of informal, collaborative learning. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 26(2), 177-200.
- Arnold, P. J. (1980). Movement, physical education and the curriculum. *Physical Education Review*, 3(1), 14-17.
- Augustad, P. (2003). *Skolering av kroppen. Om kunnskap og makt i kroppsøvningsfaget*. (Doctoral dissertation, Telemark University College). Bø: Høgskolen i Telemark.

- Ayers, S. F., & Griffin, L. L. (2005). Chapter 5: PETE mentoring as a mosaic. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 24, 368-378.
- Azzarito, L., & Ennis, C. E. (2003). A Sense of connection: Toward social constructivist physical education. *Sport, Education and Society*, 8(2), 179-198.
- Bagøien, T. E., & Halvari, H. (2005). Autonomous motivation: involvement in physical activity, and perceived sport competence, structural and mediator models. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 100(1), 3-21.
- Bagøien, T. E., Halvari, H., & Nesheim, H. (2010). Self-determined in physical education and its links to motivation for leisure time physical activity, and well-being in general. *Perceptual and Motor skills*, 111(2), 1-26.
- Bain, L. (1990). Physical education teacher education. In W. R. Houston, M. Haberman & J. Sikula (Eds.), *Handbook of research on teacher education: A project of the association of teacher educators* (pp. 758-782). New York: Macmillan.
- Bain, L. (1997). Transformation in the postmodern era: A new game plan. In J. M. Fernández-Balboa (Ed.), *Critical postmodernism in human movement, physical education and sport* (pp. 183-196). New York: State University of New York Press.
- Bairner, A. (2010). What's Scandinavian about Scandinavian sport? *Sport in Society*, 13(4), 734-743.
- Bechtel, P. A., & O'Sullivan, M. (2006). Effective professional development – what we now know. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 25(4), 363-378.
- Behets, D., & Vergauwen, L. (2006). Learning to teach in the field. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 407-424). London: Sage Publications.
- Benn, T. (2002). Muslim women in teacher training: Issues of gender, 'race' and religion. In D. Penney (Ed.), *Gender and physical education, contemporary issues and future directions* (pp. 57-79). London: Routledge.
- Berger, P. L., & Luckmann, T. (1967). *The social construction of reality: a treatise in the sociology of knowledge*. London: Allen Lane The Penguin Press.

- Bernstein, B. (1996). *Pedagogy, symbolic control and identity. Theory, research, critique*. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Booth, M. (1993). The effectiveness and role of the mentor in school: The students view. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 23(2), 185-197.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of theory and practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Bowen, G. A. (2006). Grounded theory and sensitizing concepts. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(3), 1-9.
- Brekke, M. (2000). *Lærerutdanning i nord. Et historisk kasus gjennom tre tidsperioder*. (Doctoral dissertation, Luleå University of Technology). Luleå: Luleå tekniska universitet.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford: University Press.
- Bulger, S. M., & Housner, L. D. (2007). Modified delphi investigation of exercise science in physical education teacher education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 26(1), 57-80.
- Bulger, S. M., Mohr, D. J., Carson, L. M., & Wiegand, R. L. (2001). Infusing health-related physical fitness in physical education teacher education. *Quest*, 53, 403-417.
- Burden, J. W. jr., Hodge, S. R., O'Bryant, C. P., & Harrison, L. jr. (2004). From colorblindness to intercultural sensitivity: Infusing diversity training in PETE Programmes. *Quest*, 56, 173-189.
- Byra, M. (2006). Teaching styles and inclusive pedagogies'. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 449-466). London: Sage Publications.
- Cale, L., & Harris, J. (2003). OFSTED revisited: Re-living the experience of an initial teacher training PE inspection. *European Physical Education Review*, 9(2), 135-161.

- Camacho, A. S., & Fernández-Balboa, J.-M. (2006). Ethics, politics and bio-pedagogy in physical education teacher education: Easing the tension between the self and the group. *Sport, Education and Society*, 11(1), 1-20.
- Capel, S. (2005). Teachers, teaching and pedagogy in physical education. In K. Green & K. Hardman (Eds.), *Physical Education Essential Issues* (pp. 111-127). London: Sage Publications.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory. A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London: Sage Publications.
- Chen, A., & Ennis, C. D. (1996). Teaching value-laden curricula in physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 15(3), 338-354.
- Christensen, M. K. (2001). *Når alderen indhenter én, kropslighed, aldring og profession hos gymnasiets idrætslærere*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Copenhagen). København: Københavns universitet.
- Coalter, F. (2007). *A wider social role of sport. Who's keeping the score?* London: Routledge.
- Coleman, M. M., & Mitchell, M. (2000). Assessing observation focus and conference targets of cooperating teacher. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 20(1), 40-54.
- Colquhoun, D. (1991). Health-based physical education: The ideology of healthism and victim-blaming. *Physical Education Review*, 14(1), 15-13.
- Cothran, D. J., Kulinna, P. H., Banville, D., Choi, E., Amade-Escot, C., MacPhail, A., Macdonald, D., Richard, J.-F., Saramento, P., & Kirk, D. (2005). A cross-cultural investigation of the use of teaching styles. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 76(2), 193-201.
- Coulon, S. C., & Byra, M. (1997). Investigating the post-lesson dialogue of cooperating and student teachers. *The Physical Educator*, 54(1), 2-9.

- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (1997). The impact of biography, teacher education, and organizational socialization on the perspectives and practices of first-year physical education teachers: Case studies of recruits with coaching orientations. *Sport, Education and Society*, 2(1), 73-94.
- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (1999). The more things change the more they stay the same: Factors influencing teachers' interpretations and delivery of National Curriculum Physical Education. *Sport, Education and Society*, 4(1), 75-97.
- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (2001). The occupational socialization of a first-year physical education teacher with teaching orientation. *Sport, Education and Society*, 6(1), 81-105.
- Curtner-Smith, M. D. (2007). The impact of a critically oriented physical education teacher education course on preservice classroom teachers. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 26, 35-56.
- Curtner-Smith, M. D., Todorovich, J. R., McCaughtry, N. A., & Lacon, S. A. (2001). Urban teachers' use of productive and reproductive teaching styles within the confines of the National Curriculum for physical education. *European Physical Education Review*, 7(2), 177-190.
- Darder, A., Baltodano, M., & Torres, R. D. (2003). Critical pedagogy: An introduction. In A. Darder, M. Baltodano & R. D. Torres (Eds.), *The critical pedagogy reader* (pp. 1-23). New York: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction. The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (3rd ed., pp. 1-32). London: Sage Publications.
- de Swaan, A. (2001). *Human societies an introduction*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Dewar, A. M. (1989). Recruitment in physical education teaching: Toward a critical approach. In T. J. Templin & P. G. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach* (pp. 39-58). Indianapolis: Benchmark Press.

- Dewar, A. M. (1990). Oppression and privilege in physical education: Struggles in the negotiation of gender in a university program. In D. Kirk & R. Tinning (Eds.), *Physical education, curriculum and culture: Critical issues in the contemporary crisis* (pp. 67-100). London: The Falmer Press.
- Dewar, A. M., & Lawson, H. A. (1984). The subjective warrant and recruitment into physical education. *Quest*, 30, 15-25.
- Dodds, P. (2005). Chapter 4: PETE women's experiences of being mentored into postsecondary faculty positions. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 24, 344-367.
- Dodds, P. (2006). Physical education teacher education (PE/TE) policy. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 540-561). London: Sage Publications.
- Dowling, F. (2004). Supervisory teachers' constructions of femininities and masculinities in the 'gym'. In P. Jørgensen & N. Vogensen (Eds.), *What's going on in the gym?: Learning, teaching and research in physical education* (pp. 199-211). Odense: University of Southern Denmark.
- Dowling, F. (2006). Physical education teacher educators' professional identities, continuing professional development and the issues of gender equalities. *Journal of Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 11(3), 247-263.
- Dowling, F. (2008). Getting in touch with our feelings: The emotional geographies of gender relations in PETE. *Sport, Education and Society*, 13(3), 247-266.
- Dowling, F. (2011). Are PE teacher identities fit for postmodern schools or are they clinging to modernist notions of professionalism? A case study of Norwegian PE teacher students' emerging professional identities. *Sport, Education and Society*, 16(2), 201-222.
- Eldar, E. (1990). Effect of self-management on preservice teachers' performance during a field experience in physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 9, 307-323.
- Elias, N. (1978). *What is sociology?* London: Hutchinson.

- Eri, S. (1994). *Kroppsøvningsutdanning og kroppsøvningsundervisning i Nord-Trøndelag: En kartleggingsundersøkelse av kroppsøvningsutdanningen til grunnskolelærere, samt av hvordan kroppsøvningsutdanning og andre utvalgte faktorer har betydning for om lærerne underviser i kroppsøving eller ikke*. (Master-thesis, North Trøndelag University College). Levanger: Høgskolen i Nord-Trøndelag.
- Evans, J. (2004). Making a difference? Education and 'ability' in physical education. *European Physical Education Review*, 10(1), 95-108.
- Evans, J., & Davies, B. (1986). Sociology, schooling and physical education. In J. Evans (Ed.), *Physical education, sport and schooling: Studies in the sociology of physical education* (pp. 11-17). London: The Falmer Press.
- Evans, J., & Davies, B. (2004a). Sociology, the body and health in a risk society. In J. Evans, B. Davies & J. Wright (Eds.), *Body knowledge and control, studies in the sociology of physical education and health* (pp. 35-51). London: Routledge.
- Evans, J., & Davies, B. (2004b). Pedagogy, symbolic control, identity and health. In J. Evans, B. Davies & J. Wright (Eds.), *Body knowledge and control, studies in the sociology of physical education and health* (pp. 3-18). London: Routledge.
- Evans, J., Davies, B., & Penney, D. (1996). Teachers, teaching and the social construction of gender. *Sport, Education and Society*, 1(2), 165-183.
- Evans, J., & Williams, T. (1989). Moving up and getting out: The classed and gendered opportunities of physical education teachers'. In T. J. Templin & P. G. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach* (pp. 235-251). Indianapolis: Benchmark Press.
- Fernández-Balboa, J.-M. (1995). Reclaiming physical education in higher education through critical pedagogy. *Quest*, 47, 91-114.
- Fernández-Balboa, J.-M. (1997). Physical education teacher preparation in the postmodern era: Toward a critical pedagogy. In J.-M. Fernández-Balboa (Ed.), *Critical postmodernism in human movement, physical education and sport* (pp. 121-138). New York: State University of New York Press.

- Fernández-Balboa, J.-M. (2009). Bio-pedagogical self-reflection in PETE: Reawakening the ethical conscience and purpose in pedagogy and research. *Sport, Education and Society*, 14(2), 147-163.
- Fernández-Balboa, J.-M., & Muros, B. (2006). The hegemonic triumvirate - ideologies, discourses, and habitus in sport and physical education: Implications and suggestions. *Quest*, 58, 197-221.
- Fitzclarence, L., & Tinning, R. (1990). Challenging hegemonic physical education: Contextualizing physical education as an examinable subject. In D. Kirk & R. Tinning (Eds.), *Physical education, curriculum and culture: Critical issues in the contemporary crisis* (pp. 169-192). London: The Falmer Press.
- Flintoff, A. (1993). Gender, physical education and initial teacher education. In J. Evans (Ed.), *Equality, education and physical education* (pp. 184-204). London: The Falmer Press.
- Flintoff, A. (2009, June 4). What's the difference? The contribution of feminist thought to PE and school sport. [Inaugural lecture notes].
- Flintoff, A., & Scraton, S. (2001). Stepping into active leisure? Young women's perceptions of active lifestyles and their experiences of school physical education. *Sport, Education and Society*, 6(1), 5-21.
- Flintoff, A., & Scraton, S. (2006). Girls and physical education. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 767-783). London: Sage Publications.
- Folkehøgskole. (2011). About folkehøgskole. Retrieved May 19, 2011, from folkehøgskole:
http://www.folkehogskole.no/index.php?page_id=30&set_session_n=0&set_session_navn_0=sess_top_selected_id&set_session_verdi_0=0
- Freidson, E. (2001). *Professionalism. The third logic*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- George, L., & Kirk, D. (1988). The limits of change in physical education: Ideologies, teachers experience and physical activity. In J. Evans (Ed.), *Teachers, Teaching and Control in Physical Education* (pp. 145-155). Lewes: The Falmer Press.

- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Gore, J. M. (1990). Pedagogy as text in physical education teacher education: Beyond the preferred reading. In D. Kirk & R. Tinning (Eds.), *Physical education, curriculum and culture: critical issues in the contemporary crisis* (pp. 101-138). London: The Falmer Press.
- Gore, J. M. (1993). *The struggle for pedagogies. Critical and feminist discourses as regimes of truth*. New York: Routledge.
- Graber, K. C. (1989). Teaching tomorrow's teachers: Professional preparation as an agent of socialization. In T. J. Templin & P. G. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into physical education: learning to teach* (pp. 59-80). Indianapolis, Indiana: Benchmark Press.
- Green, K. (1998). Philosophies, ideologies and the practice of physical education. *Sport, Education and Society*, 3(2), 125-143.
- Green, K. (2000). Exploring the everyday "philosophies" of physical education teachers from a sociological perspective. *Sport, Education and Society*, 5(2), 109-129.
- Green, K. (2002). Physical education teachers in their figurations: A sociological analysis of everyday 'philosophies'. *Sport, Education and Society*, 7(1), 65-83.
- Green, K. (2003). *Physical education teachers on physical education. A sociological study of philosophies and ideologies*. Chester: Academic Press.
- Green, K. (2008a). *Understanding physical education*. London: Sage Publications.
- Green, K. (2008b, June 17). Physical education research in practice. [Paper presented to BERA Symposium].
- Green, K. (2010). *Key themes in youth sport*. London: Routledge.
- Green, K., Smith, A., & Roberts, K. (2005). Young people and lifelong participation in sport and physical activity: A sociological perceptiveness on contemporary physical education programs in England and Wales. *Leisure Studies*, 24(1), 27-43.

- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 105-118). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Hagelund, L. (2006). *Veiledning i praksis i kroppsøvingslærerstudiet*. (Master-thesis, Norwegian School of Sport Sciences). Oslo: Norges idrettshøgskole.
- Handal, G., & Lauvås, P. (1983). *På egne vilkår: En strategi for veiledning med lærer*. Oslo: Cappelens Forlag.
- Handal, G., & Lauvås, P. (1990). *Veiledning og praktisk yrkest teori*. Oslo: Cappelens Forlag.
- Hansen, K., & Rønning, T. (2002). Problembasert læring i kroppsøvingsstudiet - bedre lærere eller bare problemer? (Nesna University College Report no. 2, 2002). Nesna: Høgskolen i Nesna.
- Hargreaves, A. (1996). *Lærerarbeid og skolekultur: Læreryrkets forandring i en postmoderne tid*. Oslo: Gyldendal.
- Hargreaves, A., & Goodson, I. (1996). Teachers' professional lives: Aspirations and actualities. In I. Goodson & A. Hargreaves (Eds.), *Teachers' professional lives* (pp. 1-27). London: The Falmer Press.
- Harris, J., & Penney, D. (2002). Gender, health and physical education. In D. Penney (Ed.), *Gender and physical education, contemporary issues and future directions* (pp. 123-145). London: Routledge.
- Hatleset, T. (2003). *Pedagogiske diskurser og faglig kompetanse i kroppsøvingsfaget i allmennlærerutdanningen. Fire studenter opplevelser i og erfaringer med kroppsøvingsfaget i allmennlærerutdanningen*. (Master-thesis, Norwegian School of Sport Sciences). Oslo: Norges idrettshøgskole.
- Hellison, D. R., & Templin, T. J. (1991). *A reflective approach to teaching physical education*. Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics Books.
- Henkel, M. (2000). *Academic identities and policy change in higher education*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers.

- Hickey, C. (2001). "I feel enlightened now, but...": The limits to the pedagogical translation of critical social discourses in physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 20(3), 227-246.
- Houlihan, B. (1991). *The government and politics of sport*. London: Routledge.
- Jakobsen, A. M. (2010). *Trivsel hos kroppsøvlingslærerne i ungdomsskolen. Hvor godt trives kroppsøvlingslærerne i ungdomsskolen og hvor sannsynlig er det at de underviser i faget om fem år?* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Tromsø). Tromsø: Universitetet i Tromsø.
- Jenkins, J. M., & Veal, M. L. (2002). Preservice teachers' PCK development during peer coaching. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 22(1), 49-68.
- Jonksås, K. (2010). *En kunnskapsoversikt over FOU-arbeid innen kroppsøvlingsfaget i Norge fra januar 1978-desember 2010*. Oslo: Norges Idrettshøgskole.
- Jordell, K. Ø. (1986). Lærersosialisering – yrkessosialisering av voksne. In G. Handal, S. Våge & K. Ø. Jordell (Eds.), *Hvordan lærere blir til: 11 nordiske bidrag til forskning om lærersosialisering* (pp. 16-38). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.
- Kahan, D. (2002). The effects of a bug-in-the-air device on intralesson communication between a student teacher and a cooperating teacher. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 22, 86-104.
- Keay, J. K. (2006). What is a PE teacher's role? The influence of learning opportunities on role definition. *Sport, Education and Society*, 11(4), 369-383.
- Keay, J. K. (2009). Being influenced or being an influence: New teachers' inductions experiences. *European Physical Education Review*, 15, 249-267.
- Kilminster, R. (1998). *The sociological revolution. From the enlightenment to the global age*. London: Routledge.
- Kirk, D. (1986). A critical pedagogy for teacher education: Toward an inquiry-oriented approach. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 5(4), 230-246.
- Kirk, D. (1992). Physical education, discourse and ideology: Bringing the hidden curriculum into view. *Quest*, 44, 35-56.

- Kirk, D. (2004). Towards a critical history of the body, identity, and health. In J. Evans, B. Davies & J. Wright (Eds.), *Body knowledge and control. Studies in the sociology of physical education and health* (pp. 52-67). London: Routledge.
- Kirk, D. (2005). Model based teaching and assessment in physical education: The tactical game model. In K. Green & K. Hardman (Eds.), *Physical education: Essential issues* (pp. 128-142). London: Sage Publications.
- Kirk, D. (2006). Sport education, critical pedagogy, and learning theory: Toward an intrinsic justification for physical education and youth sport. *Quest*, 58, 255-264.
- Kirk, D. (2009). A critical pedagogy for teacher education. In R. Bailey & D. Kirk (Eds.), *The Routledge physical education reader* (pp. 207-223). London: Routledge.
- Kirk, D. (2010). *Physical education futures*. London: Routledge.
- Kirk, D., & Macdonald, D. (2001). The social construction of PETE in higher education: Toward a research agenda. *Quest*, 53, 440-457.
- Kirke-, utdannings og forskningsdepartementet. [KUF]. (1999). *Rammeplan for faglærerutdanning i kroppsøving*. Retrieved from http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/kilde/ufd/pla/2003/0001/ddd/pdfv/175124-faglarer_kroppsoving.pdf
- Kleven, T. A. (2008). Validity and validation in qualitative and quantitative research. *Nordisk Pedagogik*, 28, 219-233.
- Kogan, M. (2000). Higher education communities and academic identity. In I. McNay (Ed.), *Higher education and its communities* (pp. 29-37). Buckingham: Society for research into Higher Education & Open University Press.
- Kuhn, T. (1962). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Kunnskapsdepartementet. [KD]. (2006). *Kunnskapsløftet. [Knowledge Promotion]*. Retrieved from <http://www.regjeringen.no/en/dep/kd/Selected-topics/compulsory-education/Knowledge-Promotion.html?id=1411>
- Kunnskapsdepartementet. [KD]. (2009). *Læreren Rollen og utdanningen*. (St.medl. nr. 11, 2008-2009). Oslo: Departementet.

- Kyvik, S., & Sivertsen, G. (2005). Vitenskapelig publisering. In M. Gulbrandsen & J. C. Smeby (Eds.), *Forskning ved universitetene. Rammebetingelser, relevans og resultater* (pp. 149-163). Oslo: Cappelen Akademiske Forlag.
- Kårhus, S. (2004a). Physical education teacher education and gender discourses – an analysis of Norwegian policy documents and curricula. In P. Jørgensen & N. Vogensen (Eds.), *What's going on in the gym?: Learning, teaching and research in physical education* (pp. 212-221). Odense: University of Southern Denmark.
- Kårhus, S. (2004b). Lærerutdannere, skolefaget kroppsøving og profesjonsfaglig selvforståelse. *Nordisk Pedagogisk Tidsskrift*, 88, 37-50.
- Kårhus, S. (2010). Physical education teacher education on the education market – who's defining what physical education teachers need to know? *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 15(3), 227-241.
- Laker, A. (2003). The Future of Physical Education. Is this the 'New Pedagogy'? In A. Laker (Ed.), *The future of physical education building a new pedagogy* (pp. 153-170). London: Routledge.
- Larsson, L. (2009). *Idrott – och helst lite mer idrott. Idrottsärrarstudenters möte med utbildningen*. (Doctoral dissertation, Stockholm University). Stockholm: Stockholms universitet.
- Lawson, H. A. (1983a). Toward a model of teacher socialization in physical education: The subject warrant, recruitment and teacher education (Part 1). *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 2(3), 3-16.
- Lawson, H. A. (1983b). Toward a model of teacher socialization in physical education: Entry into schools, teachers' role orientations and longevity in teaching. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 3(1), 3-15.
- Lawson, H. A. (1986). Occupational socialization and the design of teacher education programs. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 5, 107-116.
- Lawson, H. A. (1988). Occupational socialization, cultural studies, and the physical education curriculum. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 7, 265-288.

- Lawson, H. A. (1993). Dominant discourses, problem setting, and teacher education pedagogies: A critique. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 12*, 149-160.
- Lawson, H. A. (2007). Renewing the core curriculum. *Quest, 59*, 219-243.
- Lawson, H. A., & Stroot, S. A. (1993). Footprints and signposts: Perspectives on socialization research. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 12*, 437-446.
- Lortie, D. (1975). *School teacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Lundemo, G. (2009). *Forberedelse til å være kun delvis forberedt: Om læring av profesjonskunnskap for kroppsøvingstudenter*. (Master-thesis, North Trøndelag University College). Levanger: Høgskolen i Nord-Trøndelag.
- Lyngstad, I. (2008). Levende og kroppsliggjort kunnskap i kroppsøving. In T. M. Guldal, O. F. Lillemyr, G. Løkken, N. Naastad & R. Rønning (Eds.), *Rapport fra konferanse om praksisrettet FOU i lærerutdanning* (pp. 209-221). Trondheim: Tapir Akademiske Forlag.
- Macdonald, D. (1995). The role of proletarianization in physical education teacher attrition. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 66*(2), 129-141.
- Macdonald, D., & Brooker, R. (1999). Articulating a critical pedagogy in physical education teacher education. *Journal of Sport Pedagogy, 5*(1), 51-63.
- Macdonald, D., & Tinning, R. (1995). Physical education teacher education and the trend to proletarianization: A case study. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 15*, 98-118.
- Mason, J. (2005). *Qualitative researching* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- McCullick, B. A. (2001). Practitioners' perspectives on values, knowledge, and skills needed by PETE participants. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 21*, 35-56.
- McCullick, B., Metzler, M., Cicek, S., Jackson, J., & Vickers, B. (2008). Kids say the darndest things: PETE program assessment through the eyes of students. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 27*, 4-20.

- McKay, J., Gore, J. M., & Kirk, D. (1990). Beyond the limits of technocratic physical education. *Quest*, 42, 52-76.
- McKenzie, T. (2007). The preparation of physical educators: A public health perspective. *Quest*, 59, 346-357.
- McKenzie, T., & Kahan, D. (2004). Impact of the surgeon general's report: Through the eyes of physical education teacher educators. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 23, 300-317.
- McLaren, P. (1989). *Life in schools: An introduction to critical pedagogy in the foundations of education*. New York: Longman.
- McNamee, M. (2005). The nature and values of physical education. In K. Green & K. Hardman (Eds.), *Physical education: Essential issues* (pp. 1-20). London: Sage Publications.
- Mennell, S. (1998). *Norbert Elias: An Introduction*. Dublin: University College Dublin Press.
- Metzler, M. W. (2009). The great debate over teacher education reform escalates: More rhetoric or a new reality? *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 28(3), 293-309.
- Metzler, M. W., & Tjeerdsma, B. L. (1998). PETE program assessment within a development, research, and improvement framework. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 17(4), 468-492.
- Midthaugen, P. (2011). *Learning the difference. On-the-job training of PE teachers, and its effect on upper secondary students*. (Doctoral dissertation, Norwegian School of Sport Sciences). Oslo: Norges idrettshøgskole.
- Morgan, D. L. (1998). *Planning focus groups*. London: Sage Publications.
- Morgan, D. L. (2002). Focus group interviewing. In J. F. Gubrium & J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method* (pp. 141-159). Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.

- Morgan, K., Kingston, K., & Sproule, J. (2005). Effects on different teaching styles on the teacher behaviours that influence motivational climate and pupils' motivation in physical education. *European Physical Education Review*, 11(3), 257-285.
- Mosston, M., & Ashworth, S. (2002). *Teaching physical education* (5th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Benjamin Cummings.
- Møller-Hansen, F. (2004). *Praksisteori og yrkeskultur. En kvalitativ undersøkelse av allmennlærerutdannere kroppsøving og deres praksisteori og yrkeskultur*. (Master-thesis, Norwegian School of Sport Sciences). Oslo: Norges idrettshøgskole.
- Napper-Owen, G. E., & Phillips, D. A. (1995). A qualitative analysis of the impact of induction assistance on first-year physical educators. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 14(3), 305-327.
- Nilges, L. M. (2006). Feminist strands, perspectives, and methodology for research in physical education. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 76-94). London: Sage Publications.
- Nipen, K. (2011, February 16). 1 av 5 forskere forsker ikke. *Aftenposten*. Retrieved from http://www.aftenposten.no/kul_und/article4031359.ece
- NOKUT. (2010). About NOKUT. Retrieved June 21, 2010, from NOKUT: <http://www.nokut.no/en/About-NOKUT/>
- Nordaker, D. J. (2009). *Dans i skolen? En didaktisk studie av dansens legitimering og innhold i relasjon til den norske grunnskole sett i lys av nasjonale lærerplaner, aktuelle fagtidsskrift og kultur- og utdanningspolitiske dokument*. (Doctoral dissertation, Aarhus University). Aarhus: Aarhus universitet.
- Næss, F. D. (1996). Life events and curriculum change: The life history of a Norwegian physical educator. *European Physical Education Review*, 2(1), 41-53.
- Næss, F. D. (1998). *Tales of Norwegian physical education teachers: A life history analysis*. (Doctoral dissertation, Norwegian School of Sport Sciences). Oslo: Norges idrettshøgskole.

- Næss, F. D. (2001). Sharing stories about the dialectics of self and structure in teacher socialization: Revisiting a Norwegian physical educator's life history. *European Physical Education Review*, 7(1), 44-60.
- Næss, F. D. (2002). Kroppsøvingslærerens fysiske identitet – ven eller fjende? In M. K. Christensen (Ed.), *Aldring og bevægelse i idræt* (pp. 91-104). Aarhus: Aarhus Universitetsforlag.
- O' Bryant, C., O'Sullivan, M., & Raudensky, J. (2000). Socialization of prospective physical education teachers: The story of new blood. *Sport, Education and Society*, 5(2), 177-193.
- Ohnstad, F. O., & Munthe, E. (2010). Veiledet praksisopplæring og lærerstudenters kvalifisering. In P. Haug (Ed.), *Kvalifisering til læreryrket* (pp. 140-168). Oslo: Abstrakt forlag.
- Ommundsen, Y. (1994). Helsefremmende arbeid i skole/kroppsøving - et pedagogisk sosiologisk perspektiv. *Norsk pedagogisk tidsskrift*, 78, 128-14.
- Ommundsen, Y. (2001a). Students' implicit theories of ability in physical education classes: The influence of motivational aspects of the learning environment. *Learning Environments Research*, 4, 139-158.
- Ommundsen, Y. (2001b). Pupils' affective responses in physical education classes: The association of implicit theories of the nature of ability and achievement goals. *European Physical Education Review*, 7(3), 219-242.
- Ommundsen, Y. (2001c). Self-handicapping strategies in physical education classes: the influence of implicit theories of the nature of ability and achievement goal orientations. *Psychology of Sport*, 2(3), 139-156.
- Ommundsen, Y. (2003). Implicit theories of ability and self-regulation strategies in physical education classes. *Educational Psychology*, 23(2), 141-157.
- Ommundsen, Y. (2004a). Self-handicapping related to task and performance-approach and avoidance goals in physical education. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 16(2), 183-197.

- Ommundsen, Y. (2004b). Self-regulation and emotion in the gym: Studies on the role of perceived ability to learn and differential achievement goals. In P. Jørgensen & N. Vogensen (Eds.), *What's going on in the gym?: Learning, teaching and research in physical education* (pp. 114-126). Odense: University of Southern Denmark.
- Ommundsen, Y. (2005). Kroppsøving: Aktivitet eller læring. Om ulike begrunnelser for faget og deres konsekvenser. *Kroppsøving*, 6, 8-12.
- Ommundsen, Y. (2006). Pupils' self-regulation in physical education: The role of motivational climates and differential achievement goals. *European Physical Education Review*, 12(3), 289-315.
- Ommundsen, Y., & Kvalø, S. E. (2007). Autonomy-mastery, supportive or performance focused? Different teacher behaviours and pupils' outcomes in physical education. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 51(4), 385-412.
- Parker, A., & Tritter, J. (2006). Focus group method and methodology: Current practice and recent debate. *International Journal of Research and Method in Education*, 29(1), 23-37.
- Pascual, C. (2006). The initial training of physical education teachers - in search of the lost meaning of professionalism. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 11(1), 69-82.
- Pedersen, G. (1981). *Desentralisert allmennlærerutdanning: Kvartårsenhet i kroppsøving: En undersøkelse av deltakernes mening om ulike sider ved et desentralisert lærerutdanningskurs gjennomført ved Tromsø lærerhøgskole skoleåret 1979/80*. (Master-thesis, North Trøndelag University College). Levanger: Høgskolen i Nord-Trøndelag.
- Penney, D. (2002). Gendered policies. In D. Penney (Ed.), *Gender and physical education, contemporary issues and future directions* (pp. 103-122). London: Routledge.
- Penney, D., & Evans, J. (1999). *Politics, policy and practice in physical education*. London: E & FN Spon/Routledge.

- Penney, D., & Evans, J. (2005). Policy, power and politics in physical education. In K. Green & K. Hardman (Eds.), *Physical education: Essential issues* (pp. 21-38). London: Sage Publications.
- Pettersen, R. C. (1997). *Problemet først: Problembasert læring som pedagogisk idé og strategi*. Otta: Tano Aschehoug.
- Pfister, G. (2010). Women in sport – gender relations and future perspectives. *Sport in Society*, 13(2), 234-248.
- Placek, J. H., Dodds, P., Doolittle, S., Portman, P. A., Ratliffe, T., & Pinkham, K. M. (1995). Teaching recruits' physical education backgrounds and beliefs about purposes for their subjects. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 14(3), 246-261.
- Plummer, K. (2001). *Documents of life 2. An invitation to critical humanism*. London: Sage Publications.
- Quality Reform. (2003). Retrieved from http://www.regjeringen.no/en/dep/kd/tema/hoyere_utdanning/kvalitetsreformen.html?id=1416
- Randall, L. E. (1992). *Systematic supervision for physical education*. Champaign, III: Human Kinetics.
- Regjeringen. (2011a). Retrieved April 1, 2011, from Regjeringen: http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/kilde/kd/pla/2006/0002/ddd/pdfv/235560-rammeplan_laerer_eng.pdf
- Regjeringen. (2011b). Retrieved May 25, 2011, from Regjeringen: http://www.regjeringen.no/nb/om_regjeringen/tidligere/oversikt/departementer_embeter/regjeringssekr_dep/dep.html?id=426141
- Reid, A. (1996a). Knowledge practice and theory in physical education. *European Physical Education Review*, 2(2), 94-104.
- Reid, A. (1996b). The concept of physical education in current curriculum and assessment policy in Scotland. *European Physical Education Review*, 2(1), 7-18.
- Roberts, K. (2009). *Key concepts in sociology*. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan.

- Rolider, A., Siedentop, D., & van Houten, R. (1984). Effects of enthusiasm training on subsequent teacher enthusiastic behavior. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 3(2), 47-59.
- Rossi, T. (1996). Pedagogical content knowledge and critical reflection in physical education. In M. Mawer (Ed.), *Mentoring in physical education: Issues and insights* (pp. 176-193). London: The Falmer Press.
- Rossi, T., & Cassidy, T. (1999). Knowledgeable teachers in physical education: A view of teachers' knowledge. In C. Hardy & M. Mawer (Eds.), *Learning and teaching in physical education* (pp. 188-202). London: The Falmer Press.
- Rovegno, I. (2003). Teachers' knowledge and construction. In S. Silverman & C. Ennis (Eds.), *Student learning in physical education: Applying research to enhance instruction* (2nd ed., pp. 295-310). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Ruiz, B. M., & Fernández-Balboa, J.-M. (2005). Physical education teacher educators' personal perspectives regarding their practice of critical pedagogy. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 24, 243-264.
- Rønning, T. (1996). Kroppsøvingstudentenes kvalifisering til kroppsøvingslæreryrket. Hvilken påvirkning har lærerutdanningen? *Kroppsøving*, 7/8, 9-13.
- Rønning, T., & Hansen, K. (1993). *Kroppsøvingslæreren – kvalifisering og lærerarbeid. En undersøkelse blant kroppsøvingslærere i grunnskolen på Helgeland*. (Nesna lærerhøgskole Skriftserie nr. 18). Nesna: Nesna lærerhøgskole.
- Rønning, W. M., Johansen, K. B., & Finbak, L. (2010). "Servert på sølvfat?" Studiekvalitet i høyere utdanning – slik studenter ser det. *Uniped, Tidsskrift for universitets- og høgskolepedagogikk*, 33(2), 50-59.
- Sachs, J. (2001). Teacher professional identity: Competing discourses, competing outcomes. *Journal of Educational Policy*, 16(2), 149-161.
- Salvara, M. I., Jess, M., Abbott, A., & Bognár, J. (2006). A preliminary study to investigate the influence of different teaching styles on pupils' goal orientations in physical education. *European Physical Education Review*, 12(1), 51-74.

- Schempp, P. G. (1989). Apprenticeship-of-observation and the development of PE teachers. In T. J. Templin & P. G. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach*. Indianapolis: Benchmark Press.
- Schempp, P. G., Sparkes, A. C., & Templin, T. J. (1993). The micropolitics of teacher induction. *American Educational Research Journal*, 30(3), 447-472.
- Seippel, Ø., Ibsen, B., & Norberg, J. R. (2010). Introduction: sport in Scandinavian societies. *Sport in Society*, 13(4), 563-566.
- Sharpe, T. L., So, H., Mavi, H., & Brown, S. (2002). Comparative effects of sequential behavior feedback and goal-settings across peer-teaching and field-based practice teaching. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 21(3), 337-360.
- Sharpe, T. L., Spies, R., Newman, D., & Spickelmier-Vallin, D. (1996). Assessing and improving the accuracy of in-service teachers' preparations of daily practice. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 15(3), 297-318.
- Siedentop, D. (2002). Content knowledge for physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 21, 368-377.
- Skagen, K. (2010). Teori og praksisopplæring i lærerkvalifisering. In P. Haug (Ed.), *Kvalifisering til læreryrket* (pp. 118-139). Oslo: Abstrakt forlag.
- Smeby, J.-C. (2005a). Forskningsvilkår. In M. Gulbrandsen & J.-C. Smeby (Eds.), *Forskning ved universitetene. Rammebetingelser, relevans og resultater* (pp. 85-106). Oslo: Cappelen Akademiske Forlag.
- Smeby, J.-C. (2005b). Grunnforskning og anvendt forskning. In M. Gulbrandsen & J.-C. Smeby (Eds.), *Forskning ved universitetene. Rammebetingelser, relevans og resultater* (pp. 127-146). Oslo: Cappelen Akademiske Forlag.
- Smeby, J.-C. (2008). Profesjon og utdanning. In A. Molander & L. I. Terum (Eds.), *Profesjonsstudier* (pp. 87-102). Oslo: Universitetsforlaget.
- Smeby, J.-C. (2010a). Studiekvalitet, praksiskvalitet og yrkesrelevans. In P. Haug (Ed.), *Kvalifisering til læreryrket* (pp. 98-117). Oslo: Abstrakt forlag.

- Smeby, J.-C. (2010b, July 12). Introduction: Developing professional competence. In *XVII World Congress of Sociology* (p. 271). [Gothenburg]: International Sociological Association.
- Smyth, D. (1995). First year physical education teachers' perceptions of their workplace. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 14(2), 198-214.
- Solomon, M. A., Worthy, T., & Carter, J. A. (1993). The interaction of school context and role identity of first-year teachers. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 12(3), 313-328.
- Sparkes, A. C. (1989). Culture and ideology in physical education. In T. J. Templin & P. G. Schempp (Eds.), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach* (pp. 315-338). Indianapolis, Indiana: Benchmark Press.
- Sparkes, A. C. (1993). Challenging technical rationality in physical education teacher education: The potential of a life history approach. *Physical Education Review*, 16(2), 107-121.
- Sparkes, A. C. (2002). *Telling tales in sport and physical activity: A qualitative journey*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Sparkes, A. C., Partington, E., & Brown, D. H. K. (2007). Bodies as bearers of value: The transmission of jock culture via the 'Twelve Commandants'. *Sport, Education and Society*, 12(3), 295-316.
- Sparkes, A. C., & Templin, T. (1992). Life histories and physical education teachers: Exploring the meanings of marginality. In A. Sparkes (Ed.), *Research in Physical Education and Sport: Exploring Alternative Visions* (pp. 118-145). London: The Falmer Press.
- Statistisk sentralbyrå. [SSB]. (2011). Retrieved May 26, 2011, from SSB:
http://statbank.ssb.no/statistikbanken/Default_FR.asp?PXSid=0&nvl=true&PLanguage=0&tilside=selectvarval/define.asp&Tabellid=08718
- Stidder, G. (unpublished). Physical education teacher education in England and Wales. A review of the research (1998-2008).

- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded theory methodology: An overview. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 273-285). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stroot, S. A., & Ko, B. (2006). Induction of beginning physical educators into the school setting. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 425-448). London: Sage Publications.
- Stroot, S. A., & Williamson, K. M. (1993). Issues and themes of socialization into physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 12, 337-343.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed methodology. Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. London: Sage Publications.
- Teksum, L. (2006). *Hvilke konstruksjoner av kjønn, likeverd og likestilling skapes i utvalgte lærerutdanningsinstitusjoner for kroppsøving og friluftsliv?* (Master-thesis, Norwegian School of Sport Sciences). Oslo: Norges idrettshøgskole.
- Telama, R., Nupponen, H., & Pierón, M. (2005). Physical activity among young people in the context of lifestyle. *European Physical Education Review*, 11(2), 115-137.
- Templin, T. J., & Schempp, P. G. (Eds.). (1989), *Socialization into physical education: Learning to teach*. Indianapolis: Benchmark Press.
- Terum, L. I., & Heggen, K. (2010). Lærarkvalifisering og lærarkompetanse. In P. Haug (Ed.), *Kvalifisering til læreryrket* (pp. 75-97). Oslo: Abstrakt forlag.
- Tinning, R. (1990). *Ideology and physical Education: Opening Pandora's Box*. Australia: Deakin University Press.
- Tinning, R. (1991). Teacher education pedagogy: Dominant discourses and the process of problem setting. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 11, 1-20.
- Tinning, R. (1997). Performance and participation discourses in human movement: Toward a socially critical physical education. In J. M. Fernández-Balboa (Ed.), *Critical postmodernism in human movement, physical education and sport* (pp. 99-119). New York: State University of New York Press.
- Tinning, R. (2000). Unsettling matters for physical education in higher education: Implications of "new times". *Quest*, 52, 32-48.

- Tinning, R. (2002). Toward a “modest pedagogy”: Reflections on the problematics of critical pedagogy. *Quest*, 54, 224-240.
- Tinning, R. (2006). Theoretical orientations in physical education teacher education. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O’Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 369-385). London: Sage Publications.
- Tinning, R. (2010). *Pedagogy and human movement. Theory, practice, research*. London: Routledge.
- Tinning, R., & Glasby, T. (2002). Pedagogical work and the 'cult of the body': Considering the role of HPE in the context of the 'new public health'. *Sport, Education and Society*, 7(2), 109-119.
- Tsangaridou, N. (2006). Teacher’s beliefs. In D. Kirk, D. Macdonald & M. O’Sullivan (Eds.), *The Handbook of Physical Education* (pp. 486-501). London: Sage Publications.
- Tsangaridou, N. (2008). Trainee primary teachers’ beliefs and practices about physical education during student teaching. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 13(2), 131-152.
- Tsangaridou, N., & Siedentop, D. (1995). Reflective teaching: Literature review. *Quest*, 47(2), 212-237.
- Universitets- og høyskoleloven, LOV-2005-04-01-15. (2009). Retrieved from <http://www.lovdato.no/all/nl-20050401-015.html>
- Utdanningsdirektoratet. [Udir]. (2011). Retrieved April 28, 2011, from Udir: <http://www.udir.no/upload/Rundskriv/2010/Udir-08-2010-fag-og-timefordeling.pdf>
- Utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet. [UFD]. (2003a). *Rammeplan for Allmennlærerutdanningen*. Retrieved from http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/KD/Vedlegg/UH/Rammeplaner/L%C3%A6rer/Rammeplan_2003_allmennlaerertd.pdf

- Utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet. [UFD]. (2003b). *Rammeplan for Faglærerutdanning i kroppsøving og idrettsfag*. Retrieved from http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/kilde/kd/pla/2006/0002/ddd/pdfv/175791-2rammeplan_2003_faglaererutd_kroppsovingidrettsfag.pdf
- Utdannings- og forskningsdepartementet. [UFD]. (2003c). *Rammeplan for Praktisk-pedagogisk utdanning*. Retrieved from http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/KD/Vedlegg/UH/Rammeplaner/L%C3%A6rer/2Rammeplan_2003_PPU.pdf
- van Krieken, R. (1998). *Norbert Elias*. London: Routledge.
- Van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing with ways of being practical. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 6(3), 205-228.
- Velija, P., Capel, S., Katene, W., & Hayes, S. (2008). Does knowing stuff like PSHE and citizenship make me a better teacher?: Student teachers in the teacher training figuration. *European Physical Education Review*, 4(3), 389-406.
- Waddington, I. (2000). *Sport, health and drugs: A critical sociological perspective*. London: E & FN Spon.
- Ward, P., & Barrett, T. (2002). A review of behavior analysis research in physical education. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 21, 242-266.
- Williams, A. E. (1993). The reflective physical education teacher implications for initial teacher education. *Physical Education Review*, 16(2), 137-144.
- Williamson, K. (1993). A qualitative study on the socialization of beginning physical teacher educators. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 2, 188-201.
- Wright, J. (2002). Physical education teacher education: Sites of progress or resistance. In D. Penney (Ed.), *Gender and physical education. Contemporary issues and future directions* (pp. 190-207). London: Routledge.
- Wright, S. C. (2001). The socialization of Singaporean physical educators. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 20, 207-226.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research. Design and methods (4th ed.)*. London: Sage Publications.

Appendix A

Tables consisting information about PETE in Norway 2008/2009

Table 1. Table consisting information about staff in higher education institutions on PETE in Norway 2008-2009

| Institution | Number of staff | Sex of staff | Age of staff | Staff teaching PE |
|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|--|--------------------------|
| Nord UC | 24 | 13 male 11 female | 20-30: 1 30-40: 8 40-50: 7 50 - 60: 7 60 – 70: 1 | 20 |
| Institution A | 6 | 6 male | 20-30: 1 30-40: 1 40-50: 2 50-60: 2 | 5 |
| Institution B | 11 | 6 male 5 female | 30-40: 4 40-50: 2 50-60: 3 60 -70: 2 | 11 |
| Institution C | 12 | 8 male 4 female | 20-30: 2 30-40: 2 40-50: 2 50-60: 4 60 -70: 2 | |
| Institution D | 25 | 15 male 10 female | 20-30: 1 30-40: 7 40-50: 12 50-60: 3 60-70: 2 | 8 |
| Institution E | 6 | 5 male 1 female | 30-40: 1 40-50: 3 50-60: 2 | 6 |
| Institution F | 7 | 3 male 4 female | 40-50: 4 50-60: 1 60–70: 2 | |
| Institution G | 15 | 12 male 3 female | 20-30: 1 30-40: 3 40-50: 6 50-60: 2 60-70: 3 | 12 |
| Institution H | 5 | 3 male | 30-40: 1 | 5 |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|-----|-----------------------|---|-----------|
| | | 2 female | 50-60: 2 60-70: 2 | |
| Institution I | 20 | 14 male 6 female | 20-30: 2 30-40: 10 40-50: 5 50-60: 3 | 18 |
| Institution J | 28 | 16 male 12 female | 20-30: 1 30-40: 3 30-40: 9 50-60: 11 60-70: 4 | 20 |
| Institution K | 14 | 14 male | 20-30: 4 30-40: 3 40-50: 3 50-60: 2 60-65: 2 | 7 |
| Institution L | 5 | 3 male 2 female | 40-50: 3 50-60: 2 | 5 |
| Institution M | 10 | 8 male 2 female | 20-30: 1 30-40: 2 50-60: 6 60-70: 1 | 6 |
| Institution N | 9 | 6 male 3 female | 20-30: 2 30-40: 2 40-50: 3 50-60: 1 60-70: 1 | 9 |
| Institution O | 10 | 7 male 3 female | 30-40: 5 40-50: 1 50-60: 4 | 7 |
| Institution P | 5 | 2 male 3 female | 20-30: 1 30-40: 4 | 5 |
| Total | 212 | 141 male 71 female | | 144 |

¹ The information for Table 1 and 2 were given to me by persons working at PETE and Sport departments at higher education institutions in Norway. The roles of those who handed in the answers on the questionnaire (see Appendix J) varied; some were Head of Department, others were Study Leaders, some were PETEs.

Table 2. Consisting information about study programmes in PETE in higher education and how many students studying the different PETE study programmes in 2008-2009 in Norway

| Institution | 30 credits PE | 60 credits PE | Bachelor in PE and sports | Practical and didactical education |
|---------------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|---|
| Nord UC | 20 ² | | 120 | 20 ³ |
| Institution A | 15 | | | |
| Institution B | 26 | 18 | 135 | |
| Institution C | | | | |
| Institution D | 45 | 30 | | |
| Institution E | | 44 | | 10 |
| Institution F | | | | |
| Institution G | | 29 | | 15 |
| Institution H | 40 | | | |
| Institution I | | | 24 | 12 |
| Institution J | | | 74 | 40 |
| Institution K | | | 40 | |
| Institution L | 10 | 13 | | |
| Institution M | | | | 8 |
| Institution N | 7 | 26 | 67 | 24 |
| Institution O | | | | 9 |
| Institution P | 20 | 30 | | |
| Total number of students | 183 | 190 | 460 | 138 |

² This number, 20 students, (given to me by the Study Leader in PETE at Nord UC), did not correspond the exact number of students that actually studied 30 credits PE at Nord UC in 2008-2009. The exact number was 14 students. In other words, there was a mismatch between the information and the reality. Nevertheless, I have retained the numbers given by the Study Leader because I had to relate to the numbers given from the other institutions and it may be that the information from the other institutions did not exactly match the reality of amount of students either, hence I find it most appropriate to handle the information in a similar way.

³ Similar to the point made in footnote 2, this number did not match the real number of students taking practical and didactical education at Nord UC in 2008-2009. The information obtained from the Study Leader in PETE was that Nord had 20 PDE students, but the real number was 7.

Appendix B

Correspondence with the Norwegian Social Science Data Service



Harald Hårfagres gate 29
N-5007 Bergen
Norway
Tel: +47-55 58 21 17
Fax: +47-55 58 96 50
nsd@nsd.uib.no
www.nsd.uib.no
Org.nr. 985 321 884

Kjersti Mordal Moen
Seksjon for kroppøving og pedagogikk
Norges idrettshøgskole
Postboks 4014 Ullevål stadion
0806 OSLO

ARKIV/PVO
2 ①

Vår dato: 27.11.2006

Vår ref: 15535/IE

Deres dato:

Deres ref:

TILRÅDING AV BEHANDLING AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER

Vi viser til melding om behandling av personopplysninger, mottatt 10.10.2006. Meldingen gjelder prosjektet:

15535 *Teacher educators in physical education: A key to understanding Norwegian physical education's cultures, values and ideologies*
Behandlingsansvarlig *Norges idrettshøgskole, ved institusjonens øverste leder*
Daglig ansvarlig *Kjersti Mordal Moen*

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet, og finner at behandlingen av personopplysninger vil være regulert av § 7-27 i personopplysningsforskriften. Personvernombudet tilrår at prosjektet gjennomføres.

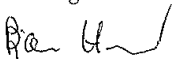
Personvernombudets tilråding forutsetter at prosjektet gjennomføres i tråd med opplysningene gitt i meldeskjemaet, korrespondanse med ombudet, eventuelle kommentarer samt personopplysningsloven/-helseregisterloven med forskrifter. Behandlingen av personopplysninger kan settes i gang.

Det gjøres oppmerksom på at det skal gis ny melding dersom behandlingen endres i forhold til de opplysninger som ligger til grunn for personvernombudets vurdering. Endringsmeldinger gis via et eget skjema, <http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/endrings skjema>. Det skal også gis melding etter tre år dersom prosjektet fortsatt pågår. Meldinger skal skje skriftlig til ombudet.

Personvernombudet har lagt ut opplysninger om prosjektet i en offentlig database, <http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvern/register/>

Personvernombudet vil ved prosjektets avslutning, 01.01.2010 rette en henvendelse angående status for behandlingen av personopplysninger.

Vennlig hilsen


Bjørn Henrichsen


Janne Sigbjørnsen Eie

Kontaktperson: Janne Sigbjørnsen Eie tlf. 55 58 31 52

Vedlegg: Prosjektvurdering

Avdelingskontorer / District Offices:

OSLO: NSD, Universitetet i Oslo, Postboks 1055 Blindern, 0316 Oslo. Tel: +47-22 85 52 11. nsd@uio.no

TRONDHEIM: NSD, Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet, 7491 Trondheim. Tel: +47-73 59 19 07. kyrr.svarva@svl.ntnu.no

TROMSØ: NSD, SVF, Universitetet i Tromsø, 9037 Tromsø. Tel: +47-77 64 43 36. nsdmaa@sv.uit.no

Personvernombudet for forskning, NSD



Prosjektvurdering - Kommentar

15535

Personvernombudet har vurdert prosjektet og finner at behandlingen kan hjemles i personopplysningsloven (pol) §§ 8 første ledd og 9 a).

Det kan registreres sensitive opplysninger i prosjektet, jf. pol § 2 punkt 8). Navn registreres ikke, men personene vil være indirekte identifiserbare på bakgrunn av lydopptak samt opplysninger om alder, kjønn, yrke, arbeidsplass, utdanning med mer.

Ved prosjektslutt 31.01.2010 skal datamaterialet anonymiseres. Anonymisering innebærer at direkte og indirekte personidentifiserende opplysninger slettes eller omkodes (grovkategoriseres), koblingsliste og lydopptak destrueres.

SV: Prosjektnr: 15535. The nature and purposes of PE in Physic...

Emne: Re: SV: Prosjektnr: 15535. The nature and purposes of PE in Physical Education Teacher Education in Norway: A Sociological Investigation

Fra: Anne-Mette Somby <anne-mette.somby@nsd.uib.no>

Dato: Thu, 02 Oct 2008 16:45:31 +0200

Til: Kjersti Mordal Moen <kjersti.mordal.moen@nih.no>

ARKIV/PVO

1 (3)

Ombudet tilrår de endringene som er beskrevet, og finner at reviderte informasjonskriv og opplegg for inklusjon er tilfredsstillende utformet.

--

Vennlig hilsen
Anne-Mette Somby
Fagkonsulent

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS
Personvernombud for forskning
Harald Hårfagres gate 29, 5007 BERGEN

Tlf. direkte: (+47) 55 58 33 48
Tlf. sentral: (+47) 55 58 21 17
Faks: (+47) 55 58 96 50
E-post: anne-mette.somby@nsd.uib.no
Internettadresse www.nsd.uib.no/personvern

Kjersti Mordal Moen said the following on 02.10.2008 13:49:

Hei
Takk for innspill.
Vedlagt er nytt utkast til brev til lærerne og forslag til informasjonsbrev til studentene.
Ang. studentene vil jeg først ha et muntlig informasjonsmøte slik som for de ansatte, og de som ønsker å være med prosjektet kan skrive seg på en liste. Studenter til gruppeintervjuene vil bli trukket ut fra denne listen. De som blir trukket ut får tilsendt vedlagte informasjonsbrev.

Mvh
Kjersti Mordal Moen

-----Opprinnelig melding-----

Fra: Anne-Mette Somby [<mailto:anne-mette.somby@nsd.uib.no>] Sendt: 2. oktober 2008 11:52
Til: Kjersti Mordal Moen
Emne: Prosjektnr: 15535. The nature and purposes of PE in Physical Education Teacher Education in Norway: A Sociological Investigation

Viser til endringsmelding mottatt 30.9.2008.

Personvernombudet har registrert følgende endringer:

1. Ny tittel: The nature and purposes of PE in Physical Education Teacher Education in Norway: A Sociological Investigation
2. Formål med prosjektet: Problemstilling: "How do PE teacher educators view the nature and purposes of PE in teacher education in Norway and what implications does this have for the training/education of PE teachers?"
3. Utvalgsbeskrivelse: Undersøkelsen vil finne sted på en utdanningsinstitusjon som tilbyr Bachelor i kroppsøving (Faglærerutdanning i kroppsøving & idrett). Prosjektet vil organiseres som et case studie der jeg ønsker å intervju alle på en utvalgt institusjon som underviser på studiet Bachelor i kroppsøving & idrett, samt gjennomføre gruppeintervju av studenter. Gruppeintervjuene vil omfatte en gruppe fra hvert studieår, 4-6 studenter pr gruppe, altså i alt tre gruppeintervju.

4. Rekruttering og trekking: a) Jeg kontakter instituttledelsen ved en aktuell institusjon for å få samtykke om at institusjonen ønsker å delta på prosjektet (vedlegg 1). b) Etter samtykke henvender jeg meg til aktuelle lærerutdannere som får tilsendt informasjonsskriv om prosjektet, samt en muntlig informasjon om prosjektet på et seksjonsmøte (Vedlegg 2). c) Studenter til gruppeintervjuene vil bli trukket ut fra studentlistene, de vil få muntlig informasjon om prosjektet på et allmøte.

5. Metode: Undersøkelsen legges opp som et case studie der jeg benytter kvalitative metoder med hovedvekt på individuelle intervju og gruppe intervju.

6. Datamaterialets innhold: Intervjuene vil bygge på vedlagte utkast til intervjuguide (vedlegg 3).

Ombudet har kommentarer til informasjonen som skal gis til utvalget:

Informasjonsskrivet til ansatte er noe mangelfullt, og følgende må endres/inkluderes:

- Andre avsnitt: Setningen "Navngitte personer, institusjoner og andre personidentifiserbare navns skal anonymiseres" er noe uklar. Menes det i publikasjonen eller i datamaterialet?

- Det må framgå at datamaterialet skal anonymiseres/makuleres innen prosjektslutt. Anonymisering innebærer at datamaterialet skrives om slik at direkte/indirekte personidentifiserende opplysninger ikke framgår i transkripsjoner. Navnelister og ev. lydopptak skal slettes. Dato for prosjektslutt må oppgis.

Ombudet registrerer at det er lagt opp til at studentene skal få muntlig informasjon. Det forutsettes at informasjonen som gis til studentene tilsvarende den informasjonen som gis til de ansatte, og ombudet anbefaler at også studentene får skriftlig informasjon og samtykker skriftlig til deltakelse.

Svar og revidert informasjonsskriv imøteses.

Endrings skjema

for endringer i forsknings- og studentprosjekt som medfører meldeplikt eller konsesjonsplikt (jf. personopplysningsloven og helseregisterloven med forskrifter)

| | |
|---------------|--------------|
| NSD/PVO | DATE: 300908 |
| P.NR.: 15535 | |
| DOK.NR.: 3 | AVSKR.: 4 |
| SAKSBEH.: Ans | KOPI: |

04, 2-10-08, Ans

Meldeskjema sendes per post, e-post eller faks, i ett eksemplar, til:

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS
Personvernombudet for forskning
Harald Hårfagres gate 29
5007 BERGEN

personvernombudet@nsd.uib.no / Telefaks: 55 58 96 50 / Telefon: 55 58 21 17

Vennligst les veiledning bakerst

| | | | |
|--|-----------|---------------------------|---|
| 1. BEHANDLINGSANSVARLIGⁱ | | | |
| Institusjon: Norges idrettshøgskole | | Dato for innsending: | |
| Adresse: Pb 4014 Ullevål Stadion | | Postnr.: 0806 | Poststed: Oslo |
| 2. DAGLIG ANSVARⁱⁱ | | | |
| Navn (fornavn - etternavn): Kjersti Mordal Moen | | | |
| Arbeidssted (avdeling/seksjon/institutt): Seksjon for kroppsøving og pedagogikk | | Stilling/grad: Stipendiat | |
| Adresse – arbeidssted: Norges idrettshøgskole | | Postnr.: 0806 | Poststed: Oslo |
| Telefon: 62411104 | Telefaks: | Mobil: 95833168 | E-postadresse: Kjersti.Mordal.Moen@nih.no |
| 3. VED STUDENTPROSJEKTⁱⁱⁱ | | | |
| Navn (fornavn - etternavn) på studenten: | | | |
| | | Grad: | |
| | | Postnr.: | Poststed: |
| Telefon: | Telefaks: | Mobil: | E-postadresse: |
| 4. PROSJEKTNUMMER OG PROSJEKTITTEL | | | |
| Nummer: 15535 | | | |
| Tittel: Teacher educators in physical education: A key to understanding Norwegian physical education's cultures, values and ideologies | | | |
| 5. ENDRING | | | |

Det er blitt noen endringer ift mitt opprinnelige prosjekt. Jeg har skissert endringene under, men er usikker på hvor mye informasjon dere trenger. Håper dere tar kontakt dersom noe er uklart.

1. Ny tittel: The nature and purposes of PE in Physical Education Teacher Education in Norway: A Sociological Investigation
2. Formål med prosjektet: Problemstilling: "How do PE teacher educators view the nature and purposes of PE in teacher education in Norway and what implications does this have for the training/education of PE teachers?"
3. Utvalgsbeskrivelse: Undersøkelsen vil finne sted på en utdanningsinstitusjon som tilbyr Bachelor i kroppsøving (Faglærerutdanning i kroppsøving & idrett). Prosjektet vil organiseres som et case studie der jeg ønsker å intervju alle på en utvalgt institusjon som underviser på studiet Bachelor i kroppsøving & idrett, samt gjennomføre gruppeintervju av studenter. Gruppeintervjuene vil omfatte en gruppe fra hvert studieår, 4-6 studenter pr gruppe, altså i alt tre gruppeintervju.
4. Rekruttering og trekking: a) Jeg kontakter instituttledelsen ved en aktuell institusjon for å få samtykke om at institusjonen ønsker å delta på prosjektet (vedlegg 1). b) Etter samtykke henvender jeg meg til aktuelle lærerutdannere som får tilsendt informasjonsskriv om prosjektet, samt en muntlig informasjon om prosjektet på et seksjonsmøte (Vedlegg 2). c) Studenter til gruppeintervjuene vil bli trukket ut fra studentlistene, de vil få muntlig informasjon om prosjektet på et allmøte..
5. Metode: Undersøkelsen legges opp som et case studie der jeg benytter kvalitative metoder med hovedvekt på individuelle intervju og gruppe intervju.
6. Datamaterialets innhold: Intervjuene vil bygge på vedlagte utkast til intervjuguide (vedlegg 3).

| 6. SPESIELLE TILLATELSER ^{iv} | | |
|---|--|---|
| Er endringen meldt til Regional komité for medisinsk forskningsetikk? | <input type="checkbox"/> Ja <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Nei | Hvis ja, legg ved eller ettersend kopi av tilråding |
| Gjør endringen at prosjektet nå blir fremleggelsespliktig for Regional komité for medisinsk forskningsetikk (inkludert melding om forskningsbiobank)? | <input type="checkbox"/> Ja <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Nei | Hvis ja, legg ved eller ettersend kopi av tilråding |
| Gjør endringen det nødvendig å søke om dispensasjon fra taushetsplikt for å få tilgang til data? | <input type="checkbox"/> Ja <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Nei | Hvis ja, legg ved eller ettersend dispensasjon |
| 7. TILLEGGSOPPLYSNINGER | | |

Jeg har vært langtidssykemeldt i perioden januar 2007 til august 2008, dette har ført til at opprinnelig fremdriftsplan for prosjektet er endret. Jeg er nå tilbake i arbeid, og har ny veileder og etter ny plan skal datainnsamlingen påbegynnes april 2009.

8. ANTALL VEDLEGG

| | |
|--|--|
| <i>Legg ved eventuelle nye vedlegg (forespørsel, intervjuguide, registreringsskjema, spørreskjema, tillatelser og lignende).</i> | 3 vedlegg Vedlegg 1. Brev til institusjon Vedlegg 2. Brev til lærere Vedlegg 3. Intervjuguide |
|--|--|

BEKREFTELSE PÅ ENDRING

Viser til innsendt endringsmelding for prosjektet 15535 "The Nature and Purposes of PE on physical Education in Norway: A Sociological Investigation".

Personvernombudet har nå registrert at utvalget er utvidet til også å omfatte intervju med ledelsen. Det legges til grunn at leder ikke uttaler seg om identifiserbare enkeltansatte.

Ta gjerne kontakt dersom noe er uklart.

--

Vennlig hilsen

Linn-Merethe Rød

Fagkonsulent

Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS

Personvernombud for forskning

Harald Hårfagres gate 29, 5007 BERGEN

Tlf. direkte: (+47) 55 58 89 11

Tlf. sentral: (+47) 55 58 21 17

Faks: (+47) 55 58 96 50

E-post: Linn.Rod@nsd.uib.no

www.nsd.uib.no/personvern

Appendix C

Interview guide for the PETEs

Intervju kroppsøvingslærerutdannere

TEMA 1. KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNERES FILOSOFIER OG IDEOLOGIER OM LÆRERUTDANNING I KROPPSØVING

1.1 KAN DU SI HVA SOM *ER* DE VIKTIGSTE MÅLENE OG HENSIKTENE MED KROPPSØVINGSFAGET (formelt sett)?

Med andre ord:

Hva skal kroppsøvingsfaget dreier seg om (formelt sett)?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du kroppsøvingsfaget omhandler dette?
2. Tror du disse målene og hensiktene med kroppsøvingsfaget er allmenne rundt om i verden, eller barede bare gyldig i Norge?
3. Jeg "SITERER DEM". Kan du si litt mer om dette....

1.2 KAN DU SI HVA DU SOM *ER* DE VIKTIGSTE MÅLENE OG HENSIKTENE MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN (formelt sett)? (jeg kommer tilbake til hva du mener de *bør* være)

Med andre ord:

Hva skal kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen dreie seg om (formelt sett)?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen dreier seg om dette?
2. Tror du disse målene og hensiktene med kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen er allmenne rundt i verden, eller er de bare gyldige i Norge?
3. Jeg "SITERER DEM". Kan du si litt mer om dette....

1.3 DU HAR NÅ SAGT EN DEL OM HVA DU SYNES HOVEDMÅLENE OG HENSIKTEN MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN ER. KAN DU NÅ FORTELLE MEG HVA DU SYNES DE BØR VÆRE?

Med andre ord:

Er du enig med de målene og hensiktene du har omtalt tidligere?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor synes du kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen skal omhandle dette?

1.4 HAR DINE OPPFATNINGER OM MÅL OG HENSIKTER MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN FORANDRET SEG I DIN TID SOM LÆRERUTDANNER? HVIS JA, PÅ HVILKE MÅTER?

Med andre ord:

Hvordan ser du på mål og hensikter med kroppsøvingslæruddanningen nå sammenlignet med i dine tidlige år som lærerutdanner?

1.5 TROR DU ANDRE KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNERE VED [REDAKERT], I NORGE OG I VERDEN DELER DINE OPPFATNINGER?

Med andre ord:

Føler du deg alene med dine tanker om hva kroppsøvingslæruddanningen i Norge bør omhandle, eller føler du at du tilhører den gruppe med sammenfallende tanker?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvordan vil du beskrive dine kollegaer sine oppfatninger av lærerutdanning i kroppsøving?

1.6 HVORDAN VIL DU BESKRIVE STATUSEN TIL KROPPSØVINGSFAGET I LÆRERUTDANNINGEN I NORGE?

TEMA 2. ROLLEN TIL KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNERE

2.1 KAN DU FORTELLE MEG HVA DIN JOBB SOM LÆRERUTDANNER I KROPPSØVING INNEBÆRER?

Med andre ord:

Hva gjør du til daglig i jobben din?

2.2 HVA ANSER DU SOM DEN VIKTIGSTE DELEN AV JOBBEN DIN?

Med andre ord:

Hvilken del av jobben som kroppsøvingslæruddanner anser du som mest viktig?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor anser du dette som den viktigste delen av jobben din?
2. Hvordan er arbeidstiden din (prosentvis) fordelt mellom undervisning, forskning og administrasjon?
3. Hvordan opplever du denne fordelingen?
4. Kan du si litt kort om hva du forsker på?

2.3 HVA TROR DU SEKSJONEN FORVENTER AV DEG I DIN ROLLE SOM LÆRERUTDANNER I KROPPSØVING?

TEMA 3. RAMMEPLANEN

3.1 KAN DU FORTELLE MEG HVA RAMMEPLANEN HAR Å SI OM KROPPSØVINGSFAGET?

Med andre ord:

Hva vet du om innholdet i Rammeplanen?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hva anser du som den viktigste delen av Rammeplanen?

3.2 HVORDAN PÅVIRKER RAMMEPLANEN JOBBEN DU GJØR SOM LÆRERUTDANNER I KROPPSØVING?

Med andre ord:

Hvordan forholder du deg til Rammeplanen i din undervisning?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvordan bruker du Rammeplanen i ditt daglige arbeid?
2. Hvorfor bruker du/bruker du ikke Rammeplanen på denne måten?
3. På hvilken måte kjenner studenten til innholdet i Rammeplanen?
4. Hvordan utvikler seksjonen den lokale Fagplanen?
5. Hvordan vil du beskrive din rolle i prosessen med å utvikle fagplanen?
6. Hvordan vil du beskrive den lokale fagplanen?
7. I Rammeplanen er praksis en sentral del i kroppsøvningsstudiet, studentenes praksisperiode på Faglærerutdanningen er relativt omfattende (12-14 uker), kan du si noe om hvordan du samarbeider med øvningslærerne på skolene?

3.3 DEN GENERELLE DELEN I RAMMEPLANEN SIER AT STUDENTENE I LØPET AV STUDIET SKAL UTVIKLE "FAGLIG KOMPETANSE", "DIDAKTISK KOMPETANSE", "SOSIAL KOMPETANSE", "ENDRINGS- OG UTVIKLINGSKOMPETANSE" OG "YRKESETISK KOMPETANSE". HVORDAN FORHOLDER DU DEG TIL DISSE MÅLENE?

TEMA 4. KONTKEST

4.1 HVORDAN VIL DU BESKRIVE ARBEIDSMILJØET VED HØGSKOLEN IFT JOBBEN DU GJØR SOM LÆRERUTDANNER I KROPPSØVING?

Med andre ord:

Kan du fortelle meg hvordan arbeidsmiljøet påvirker jobben du gjør?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Har du / eller har du hatt noen 'mentor' eller 'veileder' i din tid på instituttet?

TEMA 5. UNDERVISNING I KROPPSØVING

5.1 KAN DU BESKRIVE EN TYPISK UNDERVISNINGSTIME I KROPPSØVING

Med andre ord:

Fortell meg hva du gjør, fra start til slutt, i den typisk undervisningstime du holder.

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hva vil du beskrive som ditt hovedmål i en typisk undervisningstime?
2. Hvorfor er dette hovedmålet i timen?
3. Kan du beskrive forskjellen mellom en typisk teoritime og en praktisk time?

5.2 HVA BETYR PEDAGOGIKK FOR DEG?

Med andre ord:

Hva legger du i emnet pedagogikk?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hva betyr pedagogikk for deg i forhold til jobben som lærerutdanner i kroppsøving?
2. I følge Rammepleanen er ”pedagogikk et mangfoldig fag som omfatter delområder som idehistorie, didaktikk, filosofi, psykologi og sosiologi. Faget inngår som en profesjonsdannende og sammenbindende komponent i faglærerutdanningen. Pedagogikk skal bidra til at studentene opparbeider kunnskap om lærerrolle, læring og elever, slik at de kan utvikle gode læringsmiljø innen kroppsøving og idrettsfag” (UFD, 2003, 19)
Hva tenker du om dette?
Vil du kommentere dette?
3. Hvordan oppfatter du ditt pedagogiske ståsted sammenlignet med dine kollegaers pedagogiske ståsted?
4. Diskuterer du og dine kollegaer pedagogikk i relasjon til kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen?

TEMA 6. KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERSTUDENTER

6.1 HVA ANSER DU SOM DE VIKTIGSTE EGENSKAPENE FOR EN FREMTIDIG KROPPSØVINGSLÆRER?

Med andre ord:

Kan du beskrive hvilke egenskaper en god kroppsøvingslærer bør ha?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Har kroppsøvingsstudentene du har disse egenskapene/ferdighetene?
2. Hvordan kan kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen hjelpe studentene med å få/utvikle disse gode egenskapene/ferdighetene?

3. Hvordan hjelper du studentene med å utvikle disse egenskapene/ferdighetene?
4. Hvilken type kunnskap i kroppsøving synes du er mest viktig for studentene å lære? (f.eks teknisk kunnskap, idretts- og undervisningsteknikker, pedagogisk kunnskap)

6.2 HVORDAN TROR DU STUDENTENE DU HAR SER PÅ KROPPSØVING?

Med andre ord:

Hva tror du studentene mener er målene og hensiktene med kroppsøving?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du studentene tenker dette om kroppsøving?
2. Føler du noen mulighet til å påvirke studentenes oppfatning om hva kroppsøving er eller bør være?
3. Hvordan / hvorfor ikke?

6.3 HVA TROR DU STUDENTENE ANSER SOM DEN VIKTIGSTE DELEN AV SIN ROLLE SOM FREMTIDIGE KROPPSØVINGSLÆRER?

Med andre ord:

Hva tror du studentene synes er mest viktig i jobben som fremtidige kroppsøvingslærere?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du det?
2. Hva tror du påvirker studentene i størst grad i deres syn på sin fremtidige rolle som kroppsøvingslærer?

6.4 HVA ER DINE ERFARINGER MED KROPPSØVINGSSTUDENTER GENERELT SETT?

Med andre ord:

Hvordan ser du på kroppsøvingsstudentene som en gruppe?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvordan vil du beskrive studentens arbeids-/studierutiner?
2. Hvordan vil du beskrive forholdet mellom deg og studentene?

TEMA 7. Å BLI KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNER – PESONLIG HISTORIE

7.1 HVORFOR BLE DU LÆRERUTDANNER I KROPPSØVING?

Med andre ord:

Kan du i store trekk beskrive din vei mot å bli kroppsøvingslærerutdanner?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hva har påvirket deg mest i forhold til å bli lærerutdanner i kroppsøving?
2. Hvordan vil du beskrive deg selv som kroppsøvingslærerutdanner i dag?
3. Hva har påvirket deg mest i å bli den kroppsøvingslærerutdanneren du er i dag?

Appendix D

Interview guide Institute Leader

Intervju instituttleder

TEMA 1. KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNERES FILOSOFIER OG IDEOLOGIER OM LÆRERUTDANNING I KROPPSØVING

1.1 KAN DU SI HVA SOM *ER* DE VIKTIGSTE MÅLENE OG HENSIKTENE MED KROPPSØVINGSFAGET (formelt sett)?

Med andre ord:

Hva skal kroppsøvingsfaget dreier seg om (formelt sett)?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du kroppsøvingsfaget omhandler dette?
2. Tror du disse målene og hensiktene med kroppsøvingsfaget er allmenne rundt om i verden, eller bare gyldige i Norge?
3. Jeg "SITERER". Kan du si litt mer om dette....

1.2 KAN DU SI HVA DU SOM *ER* DE VIKTIGSTE MÅLENE OG HENSIKTENE MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN (formelt sett)? (jeg kommer tilbake til hva du mener de *bør* være)

Med andre ord:

Hva skal kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen dreie seg om (formelt sett)?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen dreier seg om dette?
2. Tror du disse målene og hensiktene med kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen er allmenne rundt i verden, eller er de bare gyldige i Norge?
3. Jeg "SITERER". Kan du si litt mer om dette....

1.3 DU HAR NÅ SAGT EN DEL OM HVA DU SYNES HOVEDMÅLENE OG HENSIKTEN MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN ER. KAN DU NÅ FORTELLE MEG HVA DU SYNES DE BØR VÆRE?

Med andre ord:

Er du enig med de målene og hensiktene du har omtalt tidligere?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor synes du kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen skal omhandle dette?

1.4 HAR DINE OPPFATNINGER OM MÅL OG HENSIKTER MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN FORANDRET SEG I DIN TID SOM LÆRERUTDANNER? HVIS JA, PÅ HVILKE MÅTER?

Med andre ord:

Hvordan ser du på mål og hensikter med kroppsøvingslæreutdanningen nå sammenlignet med i dine tidlige år som lærerutdanner?

1.5 TROR DU ANDRE KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNERE VED [REDAKERT], I NORGE OG I VERDEN DELER DINE OPPFATNINGER?

Med andre ord:

Føler du deg alene med dine tanker om hva kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen i Norge bør omhandle, eller føler du at du tilhører den gruppe med sammenfallende tanker?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvordan vil du beskrive dine kollegaer sine oppfatninger av lærerutdanning i kroppsøving?

1.6 HVORDAN VIL DU BESKRIVE STATUSEN TIL KROPPSØVINGSFAGET I LÆRERUTDANNINGEN I NORGE?

TEMA 2. ROLLEN TIL LEDER

2.1 KAN DU FORTELLE MEG HVA DIN JOBB SOM LEDER VED IFI INNEBÆRER?

Med andre ord:

Hva gjør du til daglig i jobben din?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Underviser du?
2. Forsker du?

2.2 HVA ANSER DU SOM DEN VIKTIGSTE DELEN AV JOBBEN DIN?

Med andre ord:

Hvilken del av jobben som leder anser du som mest viktig?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor anser du dette som den viktigste delen av jobben din?

Spørsmål med utgangspunkt fra funn fra analysen:

1. Hvor mange timer må en ansatt undervise/forske pr år for å fylle sin undervisningsplikt (1688?)?
2. Hvor stor er posten 'Faglig fornying', og hvem av de ansatte har dette i sin arbeidsplikt?

2.3 HVA TROR DU DE ANSATTE VED SEKSJONEN FORVENTER AV DEG SOM LEDER?

Spørsmål med utgangspunkt fra funn fra analysen:

1. Mange nevnte en økte administrative belastning i arbeidshverdagen de senere årene som har tatt fokus bort fra undervisning og forskning. Hva tenker du om det?

TEMA 3. KONTKEST

3.1 HVORDAN VIL DU BESKRIVE ARBEIDSMILJØET VED DIN ARBEIDSPASS?

Med andre ord:

Kan du fortelle meg hvordan arbeidsmiljøet påvirker jobben du gjør?

Spørsmål med utgangspunkt i funn fra analysen:

1. Flere av dine ansatte nevner økt arbeidsbelastning og økt sykefravær på instituttet de senere årene. Kan du kommentere det?
2. Noen nevner at du som leder ser ut til å ha mange oppgaver som gjør at det er vanskelig for deg å følge opp hver enkelt, hva sier du til det?
3. Noen uttrykker at de opplever ensomhet i sin arbeidshverdag som kroppsøvingslærerutdanner, har du noen kommentarer til det?

TEMA 4. PEDAGOGIKK

4.1 HVA BETYR PEDAGOGIKK FOR DEG?

Med andre ord:

Hva legger du i emnet pedagogikk?

Spørsmål med utgangspunkt fra funn fra analysen:

1. Flere av dine ansatte uttrykte at det var få/ingen pedagogiske diskusjoner på instituttet. Hva er din kommentar til det?
2. Noen nevnte også at du som leder burde iverksette pedagogiske diskusjoner på instituttet og tilrettelegge møteplasser der de ansatte kan diskutere faglige spørsmål. Hva tenker du om det

TEMA 5. KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERSTUDENTER

5.1 HVA ANSER DU SOM DE VIKTIGSTE EGENSKAPENE FOR EN FREMTIDIG KROPPSØVINGSLÆRER?

Med andre ord:

Kan du beskrive hvilke egenskaper en god kroppsøvingslærer bør ha?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Har kroppsøvingsstudentene deres disse egenskapene/ferdighetene?
2. Hvordan kan kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen hjelpe studentene med å få/utvikle disse gode egenskapene/ferdighetene?

5.2 HVORDAN TROR DU STUDENTENE DERE HAR SER PÅ KROPPSØVING?

Med andre ord:

Hva tror du studentene mener er målene og hensiktene med kroppsøvingsfaget?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du studentene tenker dette om kroppsøvingsfaget?
2. Føler du utdanningen deres har mulighet til å påvirke studentenes oppfatning om hva kroppsøving er eller bør være?
3. Hvordan / hvorfor ikke?

5.3 HVA TROR DU STUDENTENE ANSER SOM DEN VIKTIGSTE DELEN AV SIN ROLLE SOM FREMTIDIGE KROPPSØVINGSLÆRER?

Med andre ord:

Hva tror du studentene synes er mest viktig i jobben som fremtidige kroppsøvingslærere?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du det?
2. Hva tror du påvirker studentene i størst grad i deres syn på sin fremtidige rolle som kroppsøvingslærer?

5.4 HVA ER DINE ERFARINGER MED KROPPSØVINGSSTUDENTER GENERELT SETT?

Med andre ord:

Hvordan ser du på kroppsøvingsstudentene som en gruppe?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvordan vil du beskrive studentens arbeids-/studierutiner?
2. Hvordan vil du beskrive forholdet mellom deg og studentene?

Appendix E

Information letter to PETEs

Deres ref.

Vår avd.

Vår dato:

FORESPØRSEL OM Å DELTA I FORSKNINGSPROSJEKT

Jeg jobber som forsker ved Norges idrettshøgskole på et doktorgradsprosjekt der målet er å få mer kunnskap om lærerutdanning i kroppsøving i Norge gjennom å intervjuer kroppsøvlingslærerutdannere. Jeg har fått opplyst at du underviser på ett eller flere av studietilbudene [redacted] tilbyr i kroppsøving, og håper du kunne tenke deg å stille opp på et intervju der vi snakker sammen om kroppsøvlingsfaget generelt og om den jobben du gjør som lærerutdanner i kroppsøving. Intervjuet vil vare cirka en time, og jeg har avklart med din instituttleder at vi kan gjennomføre det i din arbeidstid.

Jeg gjør oppmerksom på at alle opplysninger som blir gitt meg i dette prosjektet vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Navngitte personer, institusjoner og andre identifiserbare navn skal anonymiseres. Anonymiseringen innebærer at direkte og indirekte personidentifiserte opplysninger ikke fremgår i transkripsjoner. Navnelister og lydbandopptak vil slettes. Prosjektet regnes avsluttet medio 2011. Jeg er som forsker underlagt taushetsplikt, og prosjektet er meldt inn til Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS. Du vil skrive under en samtykkeerklæring når du inngår i prosjektet. Jeg vil også gjøre deg oppmerksom på at du kan trekke deg fra prosjektet når du måtte ønske.

Jeg håper du ser verdien av å få mer kunnskap om kroppsøvlingslærerutdanningen i Norge, og i så måte stiller deg positiv til å være med i denne undersøkelsen.

Det er fint hvis du kan bekrefte eller avkrefte om du ønsker å være med i undersøkelsen, og gjøre dette på mail: Kjersti.Mordal.Moen@nih.no innen 1. Desember 2008.

Med vennlig hilsen

Kjersti Mordal Moen
Stipendiat

Telefon: [redacted]
Mobil: 95833168
E-mail: Kjersti.Mordal.Moen@nih.no

Appendix F

The consent form

**SAMTYKKEERKLÆRING VED INNSAMLING OG BRUK AV PERSONOPPLYSNINGER TIL
FORSKNINGSFORMÅL**

Prosjektleder: Kjersti Mordal Moen

Prosjekt tittel: “*The Nature and Purposes of Physical Education in Physical Education Teacher Education: A Sociological Investigation*”

Jeg samtykker i at opplysninger* innhentet fra meg kan brukes av Kjersti Mordal Moen i hennes doktorgradsavhandling, artikler i tidsskrifter og faglige bøker.

(*Det forutsettes at opplysningene er anonymisert)

Jeg er kjent med at det er frivillig å delta i forskningsprosjektet.

Sted

Dato

Underskrift

Appendix G

Interview guide group interviews of PE students

Gruppeintervju studenter

TEMA 1. KROPPSØVINGSFAGET

1.1 HVA ANSER DERE SOM DE VIKTIGSTE EGENSKAPENE EN FREMTIDIG KROPPSØVINGSLÆRER BØR HA?

Med andre ord:

Kan dere beskrive hvilke egenskaper en kroppsøvingslærer bør ha?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Har dere disse egenskapene/ferdighetene?
Hvilke, hvis noen, av disse ferdighetene har dere?
Hvilke, hvis noen, av disse ferdighetene forventer dere å utvikle i løpet av kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen?
2. Hvordan kan kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen hjelpe dere med å få/utvikle disse gode egenskapene/ferdighetene?

1.2 KAN DERE SI HVA SOM ER DE VIKTIGSTE MÅLENE OG HENSIKTENE MED KROPPSØVINGSFAGET (formelt sett)?

Med andre ord:

Hva skal kroppsøvingsfaget dreie seg om (formelt sett)?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror dere kroppsøvingsfaget omhandler dette?

1.3 HVA ANSER DERE SOM DERES VIKTIGSTE OPPGAVER SOM FREMTIDIGE KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERE?

Med andre ord:

Hva innebærer rollen som kroppsøvingslærer?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Kan du rangere de faktorene som rollen innebærer?

TEMA 2. KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNING

2.1 HVORDAN TROR DERE LÆRERNE DERE VED HØGSKOLEN SER PÅ KROPPSØVINGSFAGET I SKOLEN?

Med andre ord:

Hva tror dere lærerne ved høyskolen mener er målene og hensiktene med kroppsøvingsfaget i skolen?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Føler dere at høgkolelærerne sitt syn om hva kroppsøving er eller bør være påvirker dere studenter sitt syn om hva kroppsøving er eller bør være?

2.2 HAR DERES OPPFATNINGER OM MÅL OG HENSIKTER MED KROPPSØVINGSFAGET FORANDRET SEG I TIDEN SOM STUDENTER? HVIS JA, PÅ HVILKE MÅTER?

Med andre ord:

Hvordan ser dere på mål og hensikter med kroppsøvingfaget nå sammenlignet med når dere var nye som kroppsøvingstudenter?

2.3 KAN DERE SI HVA SOM *ER* DE VIKTIGSTE MÅLENE OG HENSIKTENE MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN (formelt sett)?

Med andre ord:

Hva skal kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen dreie seg om (formelt sett)?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor tror du kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen dreier seg om dette?

2.4 DERE HAR NÅ SAGT EN DEL OM HVA HOVEDMÅLENE OG HENSIKTEN MED KROPPSØVINGSLÆRERUTDANNINGEN ER. KAN DERE NÅ SI NOE OM HVA DERE MENER DET BØR VÆRE?

Med andre ord:

Er dere enig med de målene og hensiktene dere har omtalt tidligere?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvorfor synes dere kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen skal omhandle dette?

2.5 KAN DERE FORTELLE MEG HVA RAMMEPLANEN HAR Å SI OM KROPPSØVINGSFAGET?

Med andre ord:

Hva vet dere om innholdet i Rammeplanen?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hva anser dere som den viktigste delen av Rammeplanen?
2. Hvordan har dere fått Rammeplanen presentert på studiet?
3. Hvordan forholder dere dere til Rammeplanen i studiehverdagen?

2.6 DEN GENERELLE DELEN I RAMMEPLANEN SIER AT STUDENTENE I LØPET AV STUDIET SKAL UTVIKLE ”FAGLIG KOMPETANSE”, ”DIDAKTISK KOMPETANSE”, ”SOSIAL KOMPETANSE”, ”ENDRINGS- OG UTVIKLINGSKOMPETANSE” OG ”YRKESETISK KOMPETANSE”. HVORDAN FORHOLDER DERE DERE TIL DISSE MÅLENE I DERES UTDANNING?

2.7 HVA LEGGER DERE I EMNET PEDAGOGIKK?

Med andre ord:

Hva betyr pedagogikk for dere?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. I følge Rammeplanen er ”pedagogikk et mangfoldig fag som omfatter delområder som idehistorie, didaktikk, filosofi, psykologi og sosiologi. Faget inngår som en profesjonsdannende og sammenbindende komponent i faglærerutdanningen. Pedagogikk skal bidra til at studentene opparbeider kunnskap om lærerrolle, læring og elever, slik at de kan utvikle gode læringsmiljø innen kroppsøving og idrettsfag” (UFD, 2003,s. 19)
Hva tenker dere om dette?
Vil dere kommentere dette?
2. Praksis er en sentral del av kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen. Hvordan opplever dere å være i praksis?
3. Hvordan opplever dere forholdet mellom øvingslærere/praksisskolen og høgskolen/seksjonen?
4. Hvordan opplever dere forholdet mellom dere studenter og øvingslærerne?

TEMA 3 STUDENTROLLEN

3.1 KAN DERE FORTELLE MEG LITT OM DERES HVERDAG SOM STUDENTER I KROPPSØVING?

Med andre ord:

Hva gjør dere på en vanlig dag i studiet?

Oppfølgingsspørsmål:

1. Hvordan vil dere beskrive studentmiljøet på kroppsøvingsstudiet?
2. Hvordan vil du beskrive studentens arbeids-/studierutiner?
3. Hvordan vil du beskrive forholdet mellom dere og lærerne på høgskolen?
4. Hva tror dere seksjonen forventer av dere som studenter?

Appendix H

Information letter to PE students

Deres ref.

Vår avd.

Vår dato:

09.01-2009

FORESPØRSEL OM Å DELTA I FORSKNINGSPROSJEKT

Jeg jobber som forsker ved Norges idrettshøgskole på et doktorgradsprosjekt der målet er å få mer kunnskap om lærerutdanning i kroppsøving i Norge. Jeg ønsker å få innsikt i hva lærerutdannere i kroppsøving tenker om kroppsøvingfaget samt hvordan studenter opplever kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen. Du er trukket ut sammen med 9 andre fra din klasse til å delta i et gruppeintervju der vi snakker om kroppsøvingfaget og det å være kroppsøvingstudent.

Håper du kan stille opp på intervju på [REDACTED] Intervjuet varer ca 1 time.

Jeg gjør oppmerksom på at alle opplysninger som blir gitt meg i dette prosjektet vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Navngitte personer, institusjoner og andre identifiserbare navn skal anonymiseres. Anonymiseringen innebærer at direkte og indirekte personidentifiserte opplysninger ikke fremgår i transkripsjoner. Navnelister og lydbåndopptak vil slettes. Prosjektet regnes avsluttet medio 2011. Jeg er som forsker underlagt taushetsplikt, og prosjektet er meldt inn til Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste AS. Du vil skrive under en samtykkeerklæring når du inngår i prosjektet. Jeg vil også gjøre deg oppmerksom på at du kan trekke deg fra prosjektet når du måtte ønske.

Jeg håper du ser verdien av å få mer kunnskap om kroppsøvingslærerutdanningen i Norge, og i så måte stiller deg positiv til å være med i denne undersøkelsen. Ta gjerne kontakt dersom du har spørsmål.

Med vennlig hilsen

Kjersti Mordal Moen
Doktorgradsstipendiat
Norges idrettshøgskole
Seksjon for kroppsøving og pedagogikk
Telefon: [REDACTED]
Mobil: 95833168
E-mail: Kjersti.Mordal.Moen@nih.no

Appendix I

Questionnaire PETEs

Spørsmål til kroppsøvingslærerutdannere i forkant av intervju

1. Navn?
2. Alder?
3. Tittel på stilling ved [REDACTED]?
4. Familiesituasjon?
5. Utdanning?
6. Yrkeserfaring?
7. Hvor lenge har du jobbet ved [REDACTED]?
8. Hvorfor begynte du å jobbe ved [REDACTED] og som lærerutdanner i kroppsøving?
9. Hva har påvirket deg mest i ditt valg med å bli lærerutdanner i kroppsøving?
10. Hvilke fagområder underviser du i på kroppsøvingsstudiene ved [REDACTED]?
11. Er du engasjert i idrett/friluftsliv på fritiden, eventuelt på hvilken måte?
12. Er du engasjert i andre fritidsaktiviteter, på hvilken måte?

Appendix J

Questionnaire to higher education institutions in Norway offering
PETE

Spørsmål til seksjoner/institutt som tilbyr kroppøvlingslærerutdanning i Norge

1. Hvor mange ansatt er det på seksjonen (institutt) for idrett/kroppøvløving?
2. Hvor mange kvinner og hvor mange menn?
3. Hvilken alder er det på de ansatte? (Ca alder; 20-30; 30-40, etc)
4. Hvilke studietilbud har dere i kroppøvløving?
5. Tilbyr dere PPU (praktisk pedagogisk utdanning) i kroppøvløving?
6. Hvor mange av de ansatte på seksjonen (instituttet) underviser på studiene dere tilbyr i kroppøvløving?
7. Hvor mange studenter (antall) tar studier i kroppøvløving hos dere?
8. Hvordan er disse studentene fordelt (antall) på de ulike studietilbudene i kroppøvløving?

