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The factors that enable and constrain Physical Education teachers to exercise agency during large-scale educational reform

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of PhD by
Research Publications

Justine T. MacLean
2017
Abstract

Curriculum for Excellence (CfE, 2004), Scotland’s most recent curricular reform, adopted in 2010, positions teachers as key stakeholders in the change process where they are not merely regarded as technicians delivering prescribed curricula but rather as designers and co-producers of school-based curriculum. This critical review considers the ways in which teachers engage with and enact this reform using the lens of teacher agency, to provide insight into how teachers relate to policy (Tao & Gao, 2017).

Teacher agency has been defined as the ability to act (Bandura, 2001), to critically shape a response to a problem (Biesta & Tedder, 2006), and reflect on the impact of one’s actions (Rogers & Wetzel, 2013). This critical review contributes to understanding of the factors that enable or constrain teachers to exercise agency as they enact new policy. Research in teacher agency is important because teachers may use their agency to support new policy, develop a critical stance or oppose educational change altogether (Sannino, 2010).

CfE significantly altered the nature and purpose of Physical Education (PE) by relocating PE and dance to the newly created educational domain of ‘Health and Wellbeing’, but also offering dance as a unique subject within the Expressive Arts domain. The focus on PE is particularly salient, since PE teachers were not only managing the complexities of enacting whole school reform, but at the same time reconstructing the nature of their subject between the two educational domains. Given the complexities of enacting new policy in PE, this critical review examines the tensions, issues and challenges that PE teachers face when exercising agency to enact new curricular policy in their school setting.

This critical review draws from three studies presented in six peer-reviewed international publications, analysing 525 Questionnaires and 50 interviews, that trace the policy formation process using Bowe, Ball and Gold’s (1992) cycle of policy creation and enactment in practice. The six papers do not follow a linear path but can be read as a set of three interrelated research studies, conducted in ‘real time’, examining policy processes in practice. The first study investigated the creation of the CfE policy text by interviewing key policy constructors selected by the Scottish Government to create a vision for PE within Health and Wellbeing. The second study surveyed PE teachers in Scottish secondary schools and examined CfE at
the implementation stage of the policy process, comparing policy intentions to teachers’
translation of the policy text during the early years of policy enactment. The third study
analysed PE teachers’ perceptions, experiences and provision of dance in the curriculum
using a ten-year longitudinal study to explore teacher agency from student through to
experienced teacher.

The studies identified the practical manifestations of the theoretically complex concept of
collective context-bound agency that is exercised through policy enactment in the relational
context of schools. The research established that policy enactment and agency were
interconnected when actors were able to respond to tasks that involved them in a socially
embedded process. Agency was exercised when teachers reflexively deliberated on the
meaning of policy for their practice and negotiated the cultural, social and material
contextual environment required to support reform. Teacher agency was enhanced by the
collective experience in that, as a group, the PE teachers possessed emergent properties not
possessed by individuals but by the power of the relationship that bound them together. The
findings are relevant and timely in seeking to explore the information that sits beneath the
surface of curriculum change by developing an understanding of the ways to support
teachers’ current and future practice.
Declaration

I, Justine T. MacLean, certify that I have composed this thesis and publication herein and that I have made a significant contribution to the research and writing of any joint publications as specified within this critical review. I also certify that this work has not been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification.

Signature:

Date: 15\textsuperscript{th} December 2017
To the students, who lean in, with wide eyes
and a sense of wonder....

I hope this research will inform, empower and extend
your dedication to pupils’ learning and transformational
practice now and in the future.
Acknowledgements

I have been fortunate enough to have worked closely with renowned and distinguished colleagues throughout this research to whom I would like to express gratitude and sincere regard.

To my incredibly gifted and knowledgeable supervisors, Professor Lani Florian and Dr. Natasa Pantic, thank you for creating a constructive environment for my learning to take place and encouraging me to grow as a researcher. Thank you for the planned, impromptu and sometimes emotional meetings, where your belief in me gave me the resolve to carry on. Thank you also to Professor Nanette Mutrie, for your passionate belief and encouragement to pursue the PhD by Research Publications route. To my co-researchers, colleagues and friends, Rosie, Shirley, Andrew, and John, thank you for working collaboratively with me and encouraging me to build my research in this field.

Special thanks to the many Policy Constructors, PE teachers and PE students that participated in the research, without whom these studies and publications would not have been possible. Thank you for giving up your time and providing a supportive and engaging environment to carry out the research. Your faithfulness to PE and constant striving to improve the physical and emotional wellbeing of your pupils is to be applauded.

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To my three boys Samuel, Matthew and Joel, thank you for reminding me to enjoy the process! Thank you for your love, cuddles, cups of tea and for tidying your room! You are all a constant source of inspiration, distraction and fun. To my husband, Gary I couldn’t have completed this PhD without you. Thank you for sending me away to Forest Hills to finish writing, for countless hours of proof reading, for late nights and early mornings at work, for giving me perspective and making me laugh. You are an exceptional role model, husband and father and we all strive to be more like you ...I love you with all my heart.

To my mum and dad, I miss you every day but hope that you would be proud of all I have achieved in my life. Thank you for pushing me, encouraging me never to settle and believing that I could succeed. If I make it to the graduation platform, it will be a recognition of all you have invested in me.

In closing and most of all, I thank God for allowing me to walk in His shadow and take the steps that He has had already created. Thank you for teaching me to be devoted not driven, to value people more than position and to let love lead not agenda.

Justine
## Abbreviations

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BGE</td>
<td>Broad General Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CfE</td>
<td>Curriculum for Excellence</td>
</tr>
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<td>CLPL</td>
<td>Career-long Professional Learning</td>
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<td>EA</td>
<td>Expressive Arts</td>
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<td>HMIE</td>
<td>Her Majesty Inspectorate Education</td>
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<td>HPSU</td>
<td>Health Promoting Schools Unit</td>
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<td>HWB</td>
<td>Health and Wellbeing</td>
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<td>IDL</td>
<td>Interdisciplinary Learning</td>
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<td>ITE</td>
<td>Initial Teacher Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>LTS</td>
<td>Learning and Teaching Scotland</td>
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<td>PC</td>
<td>Policy Constructors (named for the critical review) Individuals from HMIE, ITE, LTS. HPSU, SASS invited by the Government to write the policy text.</td>
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<td>PE</td>
<td>Physical Education</td>
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<td>PET</td>
<td>Physical Education Teachers</td>
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<tr>
<td>QUAN</td>
<td>Quantitative</td>
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<td>QUAL</td>
<td>Qualitative</td>
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<tr>
<td>SBCD</td>
<td>School Based Curriculum Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>SOEID</td>
<td>Scottish Office Education and Industry Department</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for the Social Science</td>
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<td>SSAS</td>
<td>Sports Scotland’s ‘Active Schools’ initiative</td>
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5. **Published Paper 5**: Simmons, J & MacLean, J (2016). PE teachers’ perceptions of factors that inhibit and facilitate the enactment of curriculum change in a high stakes exam climate. *Sport, Education and Society*


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11. Study B PE Teacher Interview Schedule

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16. Study C PE Students’ Questionnaire to BEd(PE) Year 4 (Paper 1)

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the Critical Review

Over the last decade, governments across the world have given precedence to education using policy levers to signal their commitment to improving education (Carnoy, 2016). As with many countries, curriculum policy within the UK has undergone a period of substantial change (Priestley, Minty & Eager, 2014) in an attempt to ‘modernise’ education provision and ‘raise standards’ (Ball, McGuire & Braun, 2012). Educational change however, remains a significantly challenging area for policymakers and practitioners, with educational policies being the focus of considerable controversy and public contestation (Olssen, Codd & O’Neill, 2004). Part of the problem is thought to derive from an insufficient understanding of the complexity of the policy enactment processes, or the need for schools and teachers to respond to policy demands and expectations (Ball, 1997). One way of analysing how teachers engage with these reforms is through the lens of teacher agency, as this provides insight into how teachers relate to policy (Tao & Gao, 2017). Teacher agency has been defined generally as the ability to act (Bandura, 2001), to critically shape a response to a problem (Biesta & Tedder, 2006) and reflect on the impact of one’s actions (Rogers & Wetzel, 2013).

Scotland’s most recent national policy initiative ‘Curriculum for Excellence’ (CfE) typified the international trends in educational reform (Priestley, 2010) and was heralded as ‘one of the most ambitious programmes of educational change ever undertaken in Scotland’ (Scottish Government, 2008, p.8). CfE conceptualised modern day curricular reform with top-down government-led policy, mediated by teachers exercising agency to initiate bottom-up curricular development (Priestley, 2010). The policy moved away from ‘prescription’ towards a flexible curriculum that was to ‘be built in the different learning setting all over Scotland’, (OECD, 2015, p.38). While this was new in Scotland, there is evidence of similar reforms taking place in New Zealand (Ministry of Education, 2007) and England (Department of Education, 2014). Similarly, the Australian curriculum (ACARA, 2015) is a typical example of this worldwide trend and is explicitly designed with inbuilt openness to enable authorities and schools to promote reflective, individualised practice.

The educational reform of CfE impacted the way PE was conceptualised by relocating the subject from ‘Expressive Arts’ to the newly created ‘Health and Wellbeing’ domain - one of
the core learning areas alongside literacy and numeracy. The move responds to calls for reform in PE (Rink, 1993; Lawson, 1998; Cothran & Ennis, 1999; Penny & Chandler, 2000; Kirk 2010) that recommend the re-examination and reshaping of PE, especially within the secondary school programs (Norton, 1987; Loche, 1992; Tinning & Fitzclarence, 1992). Change initiatives and their degree of implementation in PE vary and are frequently unsuccessful (Kirk, 1990), reporting implementation failure or superficial change (Sparkes, 1991; Curtner-Smith, 1999). It may be that governments need to invest more in teachers, as it is the teachers’ commitment to the transformation of policy that shapes the success of initiatives (Humes, 2013).

 CfE recognised ‘the growing body of evidence that teachers are among the most powerful influences on learning and are best placed to determine how to meet the needs of their pupils’ (Donaldson, 2014, p181), reflecting the emerging tendency in global curriculum policy to explicitly construct teachers as ‘agents of change’ (Scottish Government, 2011, p4). Teachers were tasked to translate the policy text and create school-based curriculum development (Scottish Qualifications Authority, 2012) within their unique contextual setting. Involving them in a process that was less about the rigid adherence to policy (as inscribed in texts), and more akin to a process of teachers acting to bring policy intentions into being (MacLean, Mulholland, Gray & Horrell, 2015).

 The introduction of CfE in 2010 provided the unique opportunity to examine the production and practice of the CfE policy processes. This timely juncture allowed the researcher to gather substantial empirical data during each stage of the policy process (Bowe, Ball & Gold, 1992), capturing data in ‘real time’ from the construction of the policy documentation to the enactment of practice. This was important because policy is no longer considered a linear process, but multi-directional, where policy is developed and redeveloped within different contexts (Ball et al., 2012). Considerable attention has been focused on how competently policies are realised in practice (Ball et al., 2012), but less attention has been focused on how schools deal with whole school educational reform; how teachers creatively work to interpret policy texts, reconceptualise their subject and subsequently create school-based curricular development. At the time of this research, the policy process of CfE in terms of its impact on practice or the decisions made by teachers was unknown.
This critical review aims to contribute to the gap in this field by interpreting extensive empirical data to examine the role of key stakeholders in each stage of the policy process and understand how teacher agency was enabled or constrained to respond to the requirements of the CfE policy. This is significant because Scottish teachers are viewed as ‘agents of change’ (Scottish Government, 2011, p4), however, there have been limited attempts to explicitly investigate or develop the concept of teacher agency (Etalapelto et al., 2015a; Vahasantanen, Hokka & Paloniemi, 2015) with empirical evidence scant (Pantic, 2015). Theories of agency have at times been inappropriately applied to educational change models, underestimating the role teacher agency holds in curriculum change and reform (Leander & Osborne 2008). This study therefore has the potential to inform reform initiatives that involve teachers in the design and development of curriculum.

1.2 Theoretical Perspectives on Agency

A socio-cultural perspective of teacher agency is adopted within the critical review, in which agents are viewed as embedded in their contextual conditions yet capable of transforming these conditions (Lasky, 2005; Edwards, 2007; Etalapelto et al., 2015b; Hokka, 2017; Pantic, 2017). Agency is not merely a personal attribute to be applied in professional work (Toom, Pyhalto, & Rust, 2015), but part of an ongoing process that involves experiences from the past, engagement with the present and plans for the future (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). Theories of human agency emphasise the dependence of agency on structures and presents a model that incorporates cultural, structural and agential properties that interweave with one another (Archer, 2000). Applying these theories to the work of teachers Priestley, Biesta & Robinson (2015) consider the structures that are necessary for teacher agency to flourish, arguing that agency is not a capacity which teachers do or do not possess, rather ‘as something that is achieved in and through concrete contexts for action’ (p34). Archer’s (2000) theory of human agency and Priestley et al.’s (2015) theory on teacher agency offers a framework for considering what it means for teachers to use their agency to support the new policy, develop a critical stance or oppose educational change altogether (Sannino, 2010). The critical review explores the theoretical propositions of Archer (2000), Emirbayer & Mische (1998) and Priestley et al. (2015) with empirical evidence about the structures that enable PE teachers to exercise agency during large-scale educational reform. This research offers possibilities for a nuanced investigation of the practical manifestations of the
theoretically complex concept of context-bound agency that is exercised through policy enactment in the relational context of schools.

1.3 Conceptual framework for Critical Review

The ‘policy cycle’ (Bowe et al., 1992) is used as a conceptual framework to guide the overall design of the critical review. Bowe and his colleagues developed the idea of a ‘policy cycle’ to explain the complex and contextualised policy process that encapsulates where and how policy is developed and re-developed within different contexts. They describe three arenas of action within the policy cycle that help capture some of the nuances of the policy process: the context of influence, the context of text production and the context of practice. The ‘context of influence’ is where interested or invited parties construct policy discourse in an attempt to define the purposes of education, or in this case physical education. Policy concepts which emerge from the debates and dialogue are then developed into texts within the ‘context of policy text production’, where the learning experiences and outcomes for physical education are defined. Within the ‘context of practice’, the policy text is translated, interpreted and recontextualised within the local school setting to allow school-based curriculum development in PE. The policy cycle is used as a conceptual framework for the critical review as a way of examining the CfE policy at different stages in the process and its subsequent impact on teacher agency (a detailed discussion on the policy cycle can be found in section 3.1).

1.4 Rationale for selected Published Papers

The six peer-reviewed publications selected for critical review (in figure 1), explore PE teachers’ enactment of CfE in the wider context of the theoretical and conceptual literature of teacher agency and the policy process. The analysis and discussion are set within the Scottish policy context and draw on a sociocultural understanding of the factors that enable and constrain PE teachers’ agency.

The papers do not follow a linear path but can be read as a set of three interrelated research studies. Paper 1 (of Study C) was the first paper to be published (2007), and became the catalyst for the subsequent research. The enquiry focused on student-teachers’ experiences of teaching dance in Scottish secondary schools. The research attempted to understand why
some students felt able and others constrained to teach dance - an activity that was in many ways unfamiliar to them. Examination of factors that enable and constrain teachers practice was initiated in paper 1 but can be traced as a dominant theme in all the published papers. Table 1. provides an overview of the three studies and identifies the titles of the published papers, the context of where the data was collected, the participants involved and the location of each paper in the appendices (a more detailed table of the publications can be found in Appendix 7).

Table 1: Overview of the 3 Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arenas of action</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Paper Nos. (in order of completion date) and Title of Publication</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>App</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Context of Practice</td>
<td>STUDY C: TEACHER AGENCY</td>
<td>5. Simmons, J &amp; MacLean, J (2016). PE teachers’ perceptions of factors that inhibit and facilitate the enactment of curriculum change in a high stakes exam climate. Sport, Education and Society.</td>
<td>Case Study 5 Interviews with PE teachers in one school</td>
<td>5</td>
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The outcome is a collection of six published papers (labelled numerically, in order of date of completion, appendices 1-6) that form three interrelated studies (labelled A, B and C) that review the theoretical and methodological resources employed to explore teacher agency during the enactment of policy, in a period of educational reform.

Within the critical review, the three studies are critiqued, including: the objectives, review of literature, methods, results and conclusions, identifying areas of strength, limitation and areas for further research. The strength of the PhD by research publications lies in the overall synthesis of the three studies that provide a comprehensive account of the policy process in which teachers exercised agency to enact a curriculum policy in physical education.
2.0 Objectives of the Critical Review

The three empirical studies chosen for this critical review present a theoretical definition of teacher agency and provide detail on constraints and possibilities for exercising agency, as well as opportunities for understanding how agency is achieved in different phases and contexts of the profession.

In the main, an interpretive philosophical position (Myers, 2013) was adopted assuming an underlying epistemology in this case, that gathering the perceptions of key stakeholders in the policy process within a particular context will help form an understanding of how agency is exercised during large-scale educational reform. To this end, the following research objectives were identified and addressed;

1. To critically evaluate the policy development process in PE and to analyse the role of key stakeholders in the process.

2. To investigate the factors that enabled teachers to enact policy within a flexible curriculum model and analyse how different individuals and groups of actors were able to interpret and enact policy in various contexts.

3. To understand the factors that enable and constrain teachers to exercise agency during large-scale educational reform.

2.1 Overview of the 3 studies

Considerable attention has been focused on how competently policies are realised in practice (Ball et al., 2012), but less attention has been focused on how schools deal with educational reform; how teachers creatively work to interpret policy texts, reconceptualise their subject and then create school-based curricular development to suit the needs of their local context, as called for by the CfE reform. At the time of this research, the policy process of CfE regarding its impact on practice, or the decisions made by PE teachers, was unknown. The originality and significance of this research therefore, is the examination of CfE within the context of PE, to understand the ideas surrounding policy intentions and justifications in the decision-making (Humes 2003). It was not the intention of the research to analyse, discuss
or measure the fidelity of the CfE policy, nor was it to determine if the policy ‘reformed’ education. Furthermore, this critical review does not attempt to encompass every aspect of the role of the teacher or every characteristic of agency, as this is beyond the scope of the studies. This critical review however will provide a deeper understanding of teacher agency as it manifests during whole school reform and elude to the factors that enable or constrain teachers to enact policy. This will be achieved through theoretical development, through critical review of recent research and existing literature, and through the presentation of the empirical research.

2.2 Study A: Policy Construction (Appendix 4 & 5)

Study A sought to review the policy construction process during the creation of CfE by interviewing the policy constructors who were invited by the Scottish Government to create a vision for Physical Education. Within the Scottish context, the responsibility for curriculum development lies with the Scottish Government (Munn, 1995) commissioned by the First Minister (Humes, 2013). The process of reform begins with a political catalyst for change and is driven forward by individuals representing government quangos such as Learning and Teaching Scotland (LTS), the Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA) and Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Education (HMIE). These bodies collectively work in partnership with the government and represent interest groups to influence policy deliberations. During the initial stages of CfE, representatives from each of the above groups were selected to act as policy constructors to shape and create the ‘policy text’. Bowe et al. (1992) locate this phase of curriculum development within the ‘context of influence’ and the ‘context of text production’. This group were tasked with developing Scotland’s new national policy initiative ‘Curriculum for Excellence’ (CfE) which was first stated in 2004 and introduced into schools in Scotland in 2010. The objective of Study A was to critically evaluate the perceptions of a sample of policy constructors (n=10), to understand the process that led to the inception of CfE and the factors that influenced their decision making. This was important, as the new framework for PE represented a possible change in focus to one where there was more emphasis on the development of pupils’ health and wellbeing (HWB).

The objectives, were expedient in supporting teachers to create a vision for PE within HWB amidst a reported dearth of published papers in CfE at the time (Humes, 2009). The study
captured data in real time and documented a coherent rationalisation of the vision behind PE within the context of CFE to be articulated. This ‘knowledge for action’ study was the first published research with policy constructors in Scotland in CFE that had the potential to inform and improve the government’s efforts to create policy based on consultation and research. ‘Knowledge for action’ studies attempt to develop practice, using relevant theoretical and research knowledge, taking a positive standpoint towards practice and policy (Wallace & Wray, 2015). A potential limitation of this study could be that there was a lack of comparison between the policy constructors interview responses to the actual policy ‘text’ which could have examined their understanding of the text. However, the published papers in Study A overcame this limitation by referring to the policy text implicitly and included many references to policy documentation. The justification of the chosen method of examining policy constructor perceptions is supported by Humes (2003), who suggests this approach permits researchers to dig beneath the surface of official policy statements to expose and understand the ideas that surround intentions and justifications.

2.3 Study B: Policy Enactment (Appendix 3 & 4)

The rationale behind Study B was to investigate the factors that enabled PE teachers (n= 93) to enact policy within a flexible curriculum model and analyse how different individuals and groups of actors were able to interpret and enact policy within the various contexts. This led to an analysis of how teachers were managing CFE school-based curriculum development and provided an understanding of the factors that enabled or constrained practice. Two major principles are reflected in the kind of curricular reform that CFE is conceptualised within; firstly, the acknowledgement that the school is a human, social institution which requires to be responsive to its context and be allowed to develop in a way that suits that environment (Skilbeck, 1976). Secondly, the central role of the teacher to be able to engage in school-based curriculum development (SBCD), (Kelly, 2009). As such, the expectation is that teachers will interpret a flexible curricular framework and exercise agency to recreate policy in their unique setting. Therefore, the policy text is not as prescriptive or as detailed as previous curriculum advice to allow teachers opportunities to create and personalise the curriculum to meets the needs of their pupils, (Scottish Executive 2004). Bowe et al. (1992) locate this phase of curriculum development in the ‘context of practice’.
Within Study B, PE teachers’ enactment of PE in CfE was examined within two specific contexts: Broad General Education (curriculum for pupils aged 12-14, CfE, 2004, detailed in paper 4) and National Qualifications (Pupils aged 15-18, SQA, 2012, detailed in paper 5). Collecting data at these two stages permitted the developmental process that teachers were engaging with at the time to be tracked, as teachers ‘made sense’ of the policy documentation. Within this context, the ‘actual’ or ‘real’ practice of teaching is omitted and in its place ‘teacher perception’ (Myers, 2013) is offered. This idea is supported by Kit (2010) who identifies that an individual’s perception of a situation is more important than the reality of the situation itself.

This critical review concentrates on the CfE policy and its supporting documentation in isolation from any other policy documents that were being enacted in the school at the time, for example, ‘Significant aspects of learning in PE’ (Education Scotland, 2014) or ‘Benchmarks Physical Education’ (Education Scotland, 2017). Of course, the reality was that schools were contending with multiple (and sometimes contradictory) innovations simultaneously. Analysing the CfE reform in isolation could be viewed as a potential limitation of this research as a more realistic and holistic approach to the research could have included a multi-policy approach. This may have unearthed the competing challenges of prioritising different policies as they enter the school and the impact on teacher agency. While reviewing additional policies at the same time may have been useful, it would have detracted and weakened the broad-based analysis of the whole school national reform and its subsequent impact on the local school. This study and the two associated publications (papers 4 and 5), represented the first known published account of how teachers were able to enact policy within PE, amidst a reported dearth of studies relating to CfE, (Humes, 2009).

2.4 Study C: Teacher Agency (Appendix 1 & 6)

Study A and B examined the broader context of the policy process, however, the purpose of longitudinal Study C was to examine decisions, tensions and opportunities within the microclimate of one activity. Physical education (PE) sits alongside physical activity and sport, within the newly created curriculum area of ‘Health and Wellbeing’ (HWB). Dance remains part of the PE curriculum but also, for the first time in Scotland, has the potential to occupy an additional position within the curricular area of Expressive Arts (EA), alongside Drama,
Music and Art. The inclusion of dance in both PE and EA provide the potential for teachers to design curricula that exclude dance from PE or use the opportunity to teach across the two domains. The focus on Physical Education was particularly salient since PE teachers were not only managing the complexities of enacting whole school reform but, at the same time, were wrestling with the reconstruction of their subject between two educational domains. Study C was set within the context of ‘practice’ and located within the activity of dance at secondary school level (pupils aged 12-18).

The rationale behind paper 1 was to ascertain the factors that enabled student teachers (n=88) to teach the activity of dance. The Scottish Office Education and Industry Department (SOEID, 1995) reported that dance had suffered serious neglect in many schools. In response to the SOEID report, paper 1 investigated dance provision in schools and examined how able or constrained our students felt to teach in an area that was in many ways unfamiliar to them. The 4-year longitudinal study highlighted that student teachers’ sense of identity was crucial to their confidence. Additionally, if the students did not receive structural support on their school placement, then their confidence was diminished. The introduction of CfE into Scottish schools created new opportunities for pupils to experience dance in the curriculum, however it was unknown if these opportunities had been realised in schools. This initiated an additional large-scale survey study (Study C, paper 6) to measure dance provision in Scottish secondary schools (n=85) as a result of CfE, providing data that was previously unreported. In addition, eight participants from the original study (paper 1) participated in the follow-up interviews ten years after the original research. This research provided an understanding of the decisions that teachers were making in relation to curriculum design, and at the same time created an opportunity to examine these decisions through the analytical lens of teacher agency. The results of this study were encouraging, presenting an optimistic picture of dance in the current curriculum. However, investigation into the actual rather than perceived practice of teachers is warranted for future research.

In summary, the three interrelated studies review the theoretical and methodological resources employed to explore agency during the enactment of policy, in a period of educational reform. Figure 1 illustrates the interconnected relationship of the three studies, indicating how each published paper helped to inform, develop and initiate the next research paper.
Copyright approval and permissions from all co-authors was obtained to present and archive the 6 publications in their entirety within this PhD thesis.
3.0 Critical Review of the Literature

The three studies employ different theoretical frameworks to explore the factors that enable and constrain teachers to enact large-scale educational reform. Each framework (table 2) is used in all six papers, however, there is an emphasis placed on each particular study that is more substantive. For example, the Policy Cycle (Bowe et al., 1992) is the main theoretical framework for Study A, yet used as a guide in studies B and C. Policy as Discourse (Ball et al., 2015) is central to Study B, yet underpins the research in studies A and C. Analytic dualism (Archer, 1996) is central to Study B and underpins Study C. Finally, agency was explored within each site of the policy cycle to examine the structures that enabled and constrained opportunities for action (Penney, 2001). Therefore, the ecological model of agency (Priestley et al., 2015) is fully explored in Study C, however, implicit in all of the inquiry in the critical review. This section aims to review the contributions of the theoretical frameworks and relevant literature, to consider the advances they offer while being mindful of potential limitations.

Table 2: Critical Review of the Theoretical and Conceptual Models underpinning three studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research objectives of the Critical review</th>
<th>Individual Studies</th>
<th>Theoretical Aims</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To critically evaluate the policy development process in PE and to analyse the role of key stakeholders in the process.</td>
<td>Study A: Policy Construction</td>
<td>Policy Cycle (Papers 2, 3) Agency (Paper 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To investigate the factors that enabled teachers to enact policy within a flexible curriculum model and analyse how different individuals and groups of actors could interpret and enact policy in different contexts.</td>
<td>Study B: Policy Enactment</td>
<td>Policy Cycle (Paper 4) Policy as Discourse (Papers 4 &amp; 5) Ecological Model of Agency (Papers 4 &amp; 5) Analytical Dualism (Papers 4 &amp; 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To understand the factors that enable and constrain teachers to exercise agency during large-scale educational reform.</td>
<td>Study C: Teacher Agency</td>
<td>Policy Cycle (Paper 6) Policy as Discourse (Papers 1 &amp; 6) Ecological Agency (Paper 1 &amp; 6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1 Policy Cycle

The review of literature commences by examining the policy process and compares actions associated with ‘implementation’ versus those associated with ‘enactment’. Researchers (Spillane 2004; Supovitz & Weinbaum, 2008) support a linear, rational articulation of policy which focuses on the generation and the implementation phases. These seek to measure the authenticity and fidelity of policy implementation, where policy is constructed by the elite and then handed to teachers to implement. These authors acknowledge individual, social and environmental factors that influence policy implementation (Spillane, 2004; Supovitz & Weinbaum, 2008), but they understate the role that teachers play in co-producing policy.

Ball (1994) claims that theories of education should not be limited to a state control perspective, describing a process of policy development that begins with legislation and ends with teachers delivering the policy message. This view of policy development is too simplistic (Bowe et al., 1992), as the policy processes are complex and broader than official curriculum texts, departments or curriculum authorities (Brown & Penney, 2018). It is argued that the development of policy is a complex process that involves debate, conflict and struggles for power where teachers engage in the creative process of ‘interpretation and recontextualisation’, by placing policy ideas into contextualised practice (Ball et al., 2012, p3). Bowe et al. (1992) describe the idea of a ‘policy cycle’ to explain a more complex and contextualised policy process. This idea is about both where and how policy is developed and re-developed within different contexts. Bowe et al. (1992) describe three arenas of action that involve privileged interest groups; the context of influence, the context of policy text production and the context of practice (see Study A and B for further details).

Whilst the research uses this cycle to guide understanding of the policy process, the literature also identifies a weakness in the policy cycle in that it contains an overemphasis on individual agency rather than the structures that support actors (Vidovich, 2007), not just in the context of practice, but in all three policy development arenas. This marginalises the power of structures at each level and fails to recognise the ways in which they influence and mediate policy. Vidovich (2007) supports developments in the policy cycle by drawing on the strengths of both conceptions of policy development, linking the global and the national policy contexts to each phase of the policy cycle. He describes a model that is multidirectional, where influences and discourses can move through each arena in both directions. However, the findings from Study A suggest a more nuanced model of the policy
cycle - as a case of many cycles within and between contexts, disputing policy trajectories from the context of influence, moving into production and then into practice. A state-centred (not state-controlled) model is advocated by Vidovich (2007), which means that the power of the policy elite remains greater than those agents who engage in micro-levels of policy development and delivery. What is emphasised is a multidirectional model of policy that involves a ‘jumbled, messy, contested and creative process’ (Ball et al., 2012, p2). This process explains why policies are still ‘in flux’ as flexible frameworks are continually being reproduced and reassembled in ways that meet the needs of the individual pupils.

3.2 Policy as Discourse

Ball et al. (2012) provide a useful distinction between policy as text and policy as discourse. Policy as text explores the ‘processes of interpretation and translation of policy through school actors enacting policy’ (Ball et al., 2012, p. 307). It is argued that this frequently engages teachers in sense-making practices (Weick, Sutcliffe & Obstfeld, 2005) whereby actors’ experiences are made sense of in context, affecting how they respond to policy (Hardy, 2015). All texts convey, endorse, subordinate or exclude particular interests, and the concept of discourse is pivotal in understanding the characteristic of texts (Penney & Evans, 1999). Policy as discourse encompasses policy texts, institutional structures and practices (Ball et al., 2012). This critical review supports the dialogical relationship between key stakeholders dismissing the idea that policy has some pre-existing status but rather is socially constructed through the opportunity it provides agents to speak (Adams, 2011). Policy as discourse approach has been particularly important in recognising that various actors differ in their interpretation of the problem and these different interpretations affect proposed solutions (Goodwin, 2011). In addition, viewing policy as discourse provides an opportunity to examine ‘the interplay between policy creation and response’ (Adams, 2011, p.59). In this sense, policy is considered to have a ‘performative’ function (Gergen, 1995) emphasising the interplay between policy constructors, policy text and the teacher where ‘discourse presents a variety of representations from which action might be chosen’ (Adams, 2011, p.61). This positions teachers as key stakeholders in the change process where they are regarded not merely as technicians delivering prescribed curricula but rather as co-producers and creators, designing and transforming curriculum. This critical review refutes the notion that policy text can simply be ‘implemented’ but rather places emphasises on policy ‘enactment’ as a
dynamic and non-linear process, not completed at any one point in time but part of an evolving journey that brings policy intentions into being. This permits an exploration into how teachers enact rather than implement policy in schools (Ball et al., 2012).

### 3.3 Teacher Agency

The concept of teacher agency was adopted in studies B and C and applied retrospectively as an analytical lens in this review. Although earlier papers have not explicitly explored the concept of agency, it can be linked to other related concepts such as teachers’ identity and sense of self, identified in paper 1 (Study C) as crucial in enabling student teachers to thrive in unfamiliar environments.

Whilst it is commonly stated that teachers are finding policy change challenging, there is little empirical evidence indicating why some teachers felt able to enact policy reform. To address these questions Archer’s (1996) analytical dualism is employed which considers the dependence of agency on structures and the interplay between individuals and cultural and structural systems. Archer (1996) recognises human activity and structural aspects of social reality as intertwined yet believes they can be separated for analytical purposes. This separation allows for judgments to be made regarding the relative causative weight of culture, structure and agency, which can be useful for the identification of inhibitors and facilitators of change processes. Pantic (2015) stresses that ‘agents (our social selves) emerge in a dialectical process in which structural and cultural powers impact upon the human powers of ‘self’ and ‘personal identity’ (p763). Agency and identity can manifest themselves at an individual level or can emerge from a collective enterprise.

The following subsections consider concepts related to the individual, such as identity explored in earlier papers as well as accounts of agency and collective agency, discussed in later papers.

#### 3.3.1 Agency, self and identity

Understanding the distinctions and relationships between self and identity and personal and professional identities is complex (Beijaard, Meijer & Verloop, 2004; Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009). Mead (1935, 1962) connected the ‘I’ with agency, by suggesting agents could
act and react to circumstances while reflecting on the impacts on those situations on the self or the socially constructed ‘me’. A sense of agency connects to identity through the components that make up identity including ideals, interests, and goals and the renegotiation of these implies the exercise of agency (Etalapelto et al., 2015a). Applying this to the teaching context, teachers construct an understanding of who they are (personal identity) and take actions (agency) that they believe align with such identity. The exercise of agency seems to be necessary for the maintenance or renegotiation of work identities, which can be important in the context of reform, where professional identities are frequently reshaped as teachers change their practices (Hokka et al., 2017). Buchanan (2015) suggests that ‘professional agency is carved out’ in the process of identities being reformed and remade (p701).

The connections between agency and identity have been identified as significant for teachers, especially novice teachers (Etalapelto et al., 2015a; Soini, Pietarinen, Toom & Pyhalto., 2015) where they are in the process of constructing their professional identities. Teachers’ identity continues to shift throughout their careers and is influenced by personal experience (the past and present), professional context (opportunities and constraints) and the external political environment (discourses, attitudes, and educational understanding), (Mockler, 2011; Buchanan, 2015). Personal identity was paramount in the early research work conducted with student teachers where their focus was on ‘self’ and ‘performative nature’ of teaching. However, the focus shifted, in the follow-up study with experienced teachers (paper 6), to agency and their collective agency in the relational context of the PE department. The link between agency and identity guided the research into the exploration of teacher agency, however defining teacher agency was not an easy task, with empirical evidence negligible (Etalapelto et al. 2015b).

### 3.3.2 Agency and Collective Agency

Taylor, (1977), described agency as ‘the capacity to identify the goals at which one’s directing one’s action and to evaluate whether one has been successful’ (p169). This is reminiscent of Fuchs’ (2001) description of an individualised understanding of agency, reducing teacher agency to a capacity. Alternatively, Emirbayer & Mische (1998) present agency as a chordal triad, made up by three main influences: from the past (iterational), engagement with the
present (practical-evaluative) and oriented toward the future (projective). The emphasis, therefore, is on the whole person with a focus on past experiences, emotions, commitments and concerns. Biesta & Tedder (2006) developed this model as ecological, with a conception of agency as achievement. Suggesting that the achievement of agency results from an interplay of individual efforts, available resources and contextual factors. Priestley et al.’s (2015) research built on Emirbayer & Mische’s (1998) and Biesta & Tedder (2006) work and applied the ecological approach to teachers’ agency to be ‘achieved in and through concrete contexts for action’ (p34). Agency, unlike capacity, is not something that teachers have, rather something to be achieved in certain situations – ‘it denotes a ‘quality’ of the engagement of actors with temporal-relational contexts for action, not quality of the actors themselves’ (Priestley & Biesta, 2013, p.3). The focus shifts from what teachers have (capacity) to what teachers do (within the means of their environment that they act in and through). Therefore, ‘capacity’ as fixed, is rejected with the dynamic, context-embedded ‘agency’ adopted.

Priestley et al. (2013) notes caution that while teachers may have substantial capacity (skills and knowledge) and strong educational aspirations, ‘innovation may simply prove to be too difficult or risky to enact’ (p189). It is reasonable to assume that teachers may avoid certain situations that they believe exceed their capabilities. This may result in resistance to curricular change or resort to a tokenistic inclusion of the reform (Bekalo & Welford, 2000; Curtner-Smith, 1999; MacPhail, 2007). However, collaborative practice with key stakeholders within and beyond school may help teachers to act strategically and enable teachers to exercise ‘collective agency’. Collective agency is defined by Hokka et al. (2017) ‘as enacted, when professional communities exert influence, make choices, take stances in ways that affect their work and their professional identities’ (p38). Archer (2000) argues that agency is always collective and suggests that united goals, collective action and collaborative influence in decision-making result in collective agency where previous experiences combine, future trajectories seem plausible and current action is shared (see paper 6, Appendix 6) for a detailed discussion). Although there has been considerable interest in identity and agency, relatively few studies have addressed collective agency within professional groups (Hokka et al., 2017). This is remarkable given the inherently collaborative nature of the teaching profession; their situated departmental working environment and their collective response
to creating school-based curricular development. So far, studies have addressed agency at the individual level with collective agency receiving less attention (Hokka et al., 2017).

Analytical dualism dictates that structural and cultural systems provide the context for human activity, though crucially these do not necessarily determine such activity, given that humans are creative and reflexive beings (Kahn, 2009; Priestley, 2011). Kahn (2009) considers the role of reflexive deliberation in the ‘agentive’ process, where the individual evaluates imposing structural and cultural systems through inner conversation, in order to shape the decision-making process. The imperative to engage in reflexive deliberations derives quite simply ‘from the absence of social guidelines indicating what to do in novel situation’, (Archer, 2007, p4). For example, Priestley (2010) supplies evidence that the ‘vagueness of specification’ (p27) associated with CfE led teachers to make assumptions and self-informed decisions. The lack of imposing structure in this stance resulted in the over-use of teacher deliberation and consequently ‘ad hocery’ at the expense of desired circular outcomes. The importance of reflexive deliberation is supported by Archer (2012, p105);

The general intensification of reflexivity...is directly related to mutually reinforcing changes in cultural and social structures. Specifically, it results from an unprecedented acceleration of morphogenesis1 in these two spheres simultaneously, rather than the diminished importance of structure.

Archer (2012) argues that reflexive deliberation is a necessary process that helps guide actions by mediating the effects of circumstances to bring about change. This is important in the case of whole school reform where teachers consider the structural and cultural systems to shape the decisions making process (Kahn, 2009). Reflexive deliberation enables teachers to negotiate structural systems that allow them to exercise agency to be able to imagine and create alternatives in decision-making processes.

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1 Morphogenesis : Archer (2012) uses the term to indicate change and stability in the social environment. Morphogenesis describes the process which tend to elaborate or change a systems given form, structure or state.
3.4 Agency and Policy Enactment

Weick (1979, 2009) describes teachers in schools as *situated beings* where they actively construct and become part of the environment. He describes a distinct relationship between the body, the environment and the situation in which the relation is held and portrays human learning as situated. Weick (1979) suggests that people in organisations understand the environment by playing an active role in constructing their context. This helps explain the importance of the teachers’ role in constructing their environment and reinforces the important distinction between implementation and enactment as teachers’ role as agents is sometimes conceptualised in opposition to that of policy implementers (Villegas and Lucas, 2002; Spillane, 2004). The process of ‘implementation’, suggests that teachers receive externally prescribed policy and work to integrate it into their teaching. In contrast ‘enactment’, involves teachers in the process of constructing and reconstructing their environment around the new policy and this facilitates their learning. Priestley et al. (2015) suggest that ‘agency is not present if there are no options for action or if the teacher simply follows routinised patterns of habitual behaviour with no considerations of alternatives’ (p141). Describing teachers as ‘situated beings’ helps to explain why teachers’ understanding of reform initiatives influences and shapes policy. This goes some way in explaining why flexible policy reforms are unique to the individual school, as teachers reproduce and reassemble their school-based curriculum development in ways that fit with their understanding of the policy (Riveros, Newton & Burgess, 2012). Combining Weick’s, (1979, 2009) and Rivero’s et al. (2012) ideas and applying it to policy reform helps extend our understanding of the role of the teacher in shaping their environment. It goes beyond the conception of schools as static organisations and portrays schools as dynamic, complex environments where teachers make sense of the new policy by exercising their agency within the politically and culturally shaped educational setting (Berliner, 2002; Vongalis-Macrow, 2007; Pantic, 2017).

In summary, this critical review combines concepts and theories of policy enactment with teacher agency in the context of physical education to contribute to an understanding of the conditions for teacher agency as it manifests in a particular policy enactment. A socio-cultural perspective of teacher agency is adopted, which views agents as embedded in their contextual conditions yet capable of transforming these conditions (Lasky, 2005; Edwards, 2007; Etalapelto et al., 2015b; Hokka, 2017; Pantic, 2017).
4.0 Critical Review of the Methods

4.1 Introduction

This research draws predominantly on a sociocultural understanding of the involvement of key stakeholders in the policy process and the factors that enable and constrain teachers to exercise agency during policy enactment. The methodological approaches and choices were carefully considered to address the complexity of the phenomenon and the scarcity of empirical data in this research area (Etalapelto, et al., 2015b). The research studies acknowledge that both the respondents and the researcher form their understanding of the world by and through their experience. Approaches to research, therefore, make certain ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions regarding the nature of the social world (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). This critical review is located in a constructivist worldview\(^2\) (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Schwandt, 2007; Neuman, 2000), employing an interpretative approach to research by advocating that multiple subjective realities consist of meanings that are constructed by individual actors in their natural setting (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). As such this critical review starts with information about the participants and ethical proceedings, thereafter, examines the benefits of using mixed methods research and considers the threats to the quality of the work.

4.2 Participants

Details of the participants are listed in table 3, for each study. Data was gathered in two distinct ways—through questionnaires and interviews. In total 525 questionnaires were received and 50 interviews carried out over the period of the three studies. The research focused on the ‘intentional person’ as this provides fertile grounds for an interpretive approach to research (Taylor, 1989). This perspective views key stakeholders as ‘actors’, where the researcher can access the perceptions of the actors as they interpret, elucidate, negotiate, resist and so forth. However, it is worth noting that there was no attempt or intention to use findings that would create a screening test or other measure of identifying agentic professionals, reducing agency to set of fixed criteria. Rather perceptions were

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\(^2\) Constructivist worldview: Individuals develops subjective meanings of their experiences and the goal of the researcher is to rely on the participants individual views of the situation. Constructivist researchers often address the processes of interaction amongst individuals and focus on specific contexts in order to understand the historical and cultural setting of the participants. (Creswell, 2009).
examined to uncover environments that may or may not foster agency within the educational setting. Perceptions data helped to reveal participants’ thoughts, about the current context of policy as it evolved at any given time. Perceptions are important since ‘people act in congruence with what they believe, perceive, or think about’ (Bernhardt, 1998, p1) although individuals’ perceptions can be vastly different even in the same settings and with similar backgrounds. These differences can be due to previous life experiences, levels of education, and contextual factors that can form attitudes, interests, beliefs and motives (OECD, 2009). However, it is important to understand participants’ perceptions of the policy process to identify areas of miscommunication, lack of understanding, specific areas that require more training and to highlight existing good practice. In addition, perceptions provide some insight into *what is possible* involving dialogue about future visions and plans.

**Table 3: Participants in each Study**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Participants</th>
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</table>
| Study A: Policy Construction | Paper 2 & 3: 10 Interviews (5 on HWB and 5 construction of E’s & O’s for PE)  
Initial Teacher Education (1)  
Learning & Teaching Scotland (2)  
Her Majesty Inspectorate Education (1)  
Health Promoting Schools unit (3)  
Sports Scotland Active Schools Initiative (3)  |
| Study B: Enabling Enactment | Paper 4: 88 PE teachers Questionnaires +17 PE Interviews (F= 8, M=9) 4-33 years teaching experience. Ranging from novice teacher to Principal Teach.  
Paper 5: 5 PE Teachers (F=3, M=2) 2-40 years teaching experience ranging from newly qualified to principal teacher of PE. |
| Study C: Teacher Agency | Paper 1: 88 BEd (PE) students (repeated annually) (F= 46, M=39) 10 Interviews  
3rd Year BEd (PE) students (F= 5, M=5)10 Interviews with 4th Year BEd (PE) students (F=5, M=5)  
Paper 6: 85 PE Teachers F=44, M=41)1-35 years’ experience teaching. 8 Interviews with original participants from longitudinal study (F=4, M=4) |

Each study collected information on participants’ perceptions to provide feedback on past/current experiences and to obtain information for future direction. Each study contained research questions (detailed in the publications and listed in appendix 7 and table 1) relevant to the individual study, however, the following research questions encapsulate the objectives of the critical review.
1. To critically evaluate the policy development process in PE and to analyse the role of key stakeholders in the process.

2. To investigate the factors that enabled teachers to enact policy within a flexible curriculum model and analyse how different individuals and groups of actors were able to interpret and enact policy in different contexts.

3. To understand the factors that enabled and constrained teacher agency during large-scale educational reform.

4.3 Ethical Considerations and Procedures

From the three studies, a total of 5 ethical review board approvals were obtained prior to commencing the research (same ethical review permission for both associated publications in Study A). The University of Edinburgh Ethical Committee granted ethical approval and informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to each study. In the large-scale surveys, approval from each local authority council in Scotland was received prior to the questionnaires being administered. Before each interview, the aims and purposes of the research were explained to participants with an assurance of confidentiality. The option to withdraw from the study at any point was also offered. In addition, at the end of each questionnaire, respondents had the opportunity to volunteer to be contacted to participate in any follow-up studies. Participants who were involved in the interview in Study C were contacted before the start of the follow-up study to ask for permission to use their original interview data to compare findings. In addition, permission was granted by interview respondents to contact potential participants in Study A by means of the snowballing technique (Cohen et al., 2000). This allowed policy constructors to be identified for interview for Study A. All agreements were made via email before any data collection commenced. The timing of each study was carefully considered to fit with teachers availability and planned to coincide with calendar months that were flexible (e.g. avoiding exam time, school holidays, start of a new term). The research also tracked data in ‘real time’ when decisions were being made by key stakeholders. Interviews were recorded and (later transcribed) at a negotiated agreeable time with the researcher travelling to meet the participants face to face in their natural work setting. Ethical procedures and timing of data collection are summarised in table 4.
### Table 4: Ethical and Consent Procedures in Critical review

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethical Review Boards</th>
<th>Study A: Policy Construction</th>
<th>Study B: Enabling Enactment</th>
<th>Study C: Teacher Agency</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Approved by the University of Edinburgh Ethical Committee</td>
<td>Approved by the University of Edinburgh Ethical Committee and local authority app.</td>
<td>Approved by the University of Edinburgh Ethical Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consent Procedures</td>
<td>Signed written consent</td>
<td>Online ‘digital’ consent and written consent for questionnaires signed consent for interviews</td>
<td>Signed consent for questionnaires and for interviews</td>
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### 4.4 Mixed methods

In recent years, mixed methods have grown in popularity – this can be attributed to the complexity of research problems that call for answers beyond words, pictures, narratives in the qualitative (QUAL), and beyond numbers and statistical analysis in the quantitative, (QUAN), (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The rationale for using mixed methods was to allow the overall research project to develop by creating a synergistic\(^5\) effect (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989), whereby the results from one method helped to create, inform, initiate and guide the next research method (Biber, 2010) to accomplish more than one method would

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\(^3\) Sequential: a design in which one method is employed (QUAN) and findings from this method serve as input into the next method (QUAL).

\(^4\) Follow on: where the research conclusions from one study inform and guide the next study e.g Paper 4 created the research design for Paper 5.

\(^5\) Synergistic effect: when synergistic parts works together they accomplish more than they would on their own.
achieve on its own. The conclusion of one study formulated further research questions to be explored in the next. For example, in Study B (paper 4) the findings revealed that teachers were concerned about creating material to prepare their pupils for the new suite of exams, therefore, paper 5 used a case study to explore teachers concerns in depth.

Mixed methods added breadth (questionnaires) and depth (interviews) to the inquiry (Greene et al. 1989). Howe (2004, p54) notes that mixed-method approach ‘actively engages stakeholder participation’ and ensures that ‘all relevant voices are heard’. This was important in the critical review because the lived experience of the key stakeholders required to be listened to, understood and analysed.

4.4.1 Study A: Rationale for study design in Policy Construction

A naturalist research design was adopted in Study A, acknowledging that social reality does not exist in isolation from the social beings’ interpretation of their social context (Pring, 2000). This level of inquiry allowed the respondent's perceptions to be voiced within the scope of the project, illuminating their ‘lived experience’ as they engaged in debates. Focusing on qualitative research methods provided a broader lens through which to look at novel and thorny research problems and issues. This was particularly salient with the policy constructors (Study A) that identified issues of power as central to the policy process. Qualitative approaches permitted the researcher to incorporate aspects of social and cultural change, power and authority into the enquiry, which allowed an understanding of policy decisions to be made within the context of influence and the context of text production to be revealed.

4.4.2 Study B: Rationale for study design in Policy Enactment

This extensive study connected the QUAN to QUAL data and provided results to be compared to Study A. This mixed-method research (Morse, 2003) collected, analysed and mixed forms of qualitative and quantitative data to gain a deeper understanding of the issue than would be provided by one method of data collection. Gathering QUAN data was not enough to address the research questions of the study as a broader understanding of the social context was required to explore the research questions within the ‘context of practice’. This study
was separated into two parts. Study B (paper 4) explores teachers’ perceptions of curriculum change in Broad General Education (BGE) and compared those responses to the data collected in the context of influence and text production in Study A. Thus, the PE teachers were asked similar questions to the policy constructors to enable a comparison to be made (see paper 4 (Appendix 4) for further details). From both data sets, it became clear that teachers were concerned about the pressures of teaching the new exams in PE. This initiated a second research project to explore teachers’ perceptions within the context of developing and initiating curriculum for certificated PE. This research continued within interpretative approaches conducting a qualitative case study of a PE department in a secondary school in Scotland. A common critique of case study design is the limitations for generalising (Sarantakos, 2005; Siedman, 2006). However, this study is based on the premise highlighted by Yin (2003), which posits the single case study to achieve ‘analytical generalisation’ rather than to produce representative data or truly generalisable results. A common misconception noted by Kvale (1996, p103) is that ‘the more interviews, the more scientific’ the research. However, a smaller sample size was chosen to allow more interview time and a greater depth of response; it is noted that the very nature of a qualitative study of this small size is conducive to educational research (Davies, 2007).

4.4.3 Study C: Rationale for study design in Teacher Agency

A mixture of methods was used for longitudinal Study C to identify school provision of dance in Scottish schools and to examine teacher agency over a ten-year period. The researcher did not set out to investigate agency in 2007 however later progressed to recognise agency as significant in enabling teachers to enact policy. The quantitative data was carried out before the qualitative interviews. This allowed the quantitative data to inform, guide and construct the interview questions (Verma & Mallick, 1999). The quantitative data was collected annually over a period of 4 years following a year cohort throughout their 4-year BEd (PE) degree. The follow-up study used the same questionnaire but updated the questions in line with the CfE rhetoric. By collecting quantitative data, a picture of provision in Scotland emerged. In addition, the participants from the original study were tracked and re-interviewed to enable an exploration of agency from an ecological perspective to be examined. Study B and C were based on extensive surveys which will be discussed in the next section noting advantages and limitations of the research design.
4.4.4 Study B and C: Rationale for survey design

In each of these survey designs, mixed methods were used in a sequential explanatory design⁶ consisting of two distinct phases. In this design, the quantitative was collected first, and then the qualitative was collected to elaborate or explain the quantitative results. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and analysis provide a broad-based understanding of the research problem and the qualitative data analysis, refines and explains the statistical results by exploring participant’s views in more depth (Green et al., 1989). This design lends itself to multiphase investigations (Creswell & Clark, 2007) but it is not without limitations. It was problematic to define how many participants would be used in the qualitative data collection since this could not be predetermined until the quantitative data was analysed. All interview participants completed the questionnaire before being purposively sampled for interview, this was time-consuming as the second phase did not begin until the analysis of the first phase were completed. The process is detailed in table 5 with criteria for interview selection (at stage 4 and 10) specified in section 4.61.

Table 5: Explanatory design used for the longitudinal surveys in Study B

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<td>1. QUAN data collection 85 Questionnaires</td>
<td>2. QUAN data analysis SPSS</td>
<td>3. QUAN results</td>
<td>4. QUAL Participant selection 17 PE Teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. QUAL data collection Interviews</td>
<td>6. QUAL Participant selection 5 PE teachers</td>
<td>7. Initiate Case Study</td>
<td>8. Interpretation QUAN - QUAL.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. QUAL results</td>
<td>10. QUAL data analysis Constant comp. method</td>
<td>11. QUAL data collection of Interviews</td>
<td>12. QUAL data analysis constant comparison method</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. QUAL result</td>
<td>14. Interpretation QUAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

⁶ Sequential Explanatory Design – the QUAN component of a research project is collected and analysed first and serves as an input to the next QUAL component (Hesse-Biber, 2010)
Study C was more complicated than Study A and B due to its longitudinal design. Students completed questionnaires at the end of each academic year (Appendices 13-16) and in addition interviews (Appendix 17) were included at the end of their final year. However, an additional set of interviews were used at the end of year 3 to try and explain some of the anomalies that arose out of the year 3 data that had previously not been identified. The follow-up study used questionnaires (Appendix 18) with physical education teachers to examine dance provision and to explore the factors that enabled teacher agency to teach dance. The process is detailed in table 6. Information about participant selection at stage 4 are included in section 4.61 (the same participants were tracked and re-interviewed again at stage 8, Appendix 19).

Table 6: Explanatory Design used for the 2 surveys in Study C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. BED(PE) YEAR 1</td>
<td>QUAN data collection. 85 interviews. QUAN data analysed. QUAN results. Identify results for follow up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. BED(PE) YEAR 2</td>
<td>QUAN data collection. 85 Questionnaires. QUAN data analysed. QUAN results. Identify results for follow up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. BED(PE) YEAR 3</td>
<td>QUAN data collection. 85 Questionnaires. QUAN data analysed. QUAN results. Identify results for follow up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. BED(PE) YEAR 3</td>
<td>QUAL data collection. 85 Questionnaires. QUAL data analysed. QUAL results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. BED(PE) YEAR 4</td>
<td>QUAN data collection. 85 Questionnaires. QUAN data analysed. QUAN results. Identify results for follow up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. BED(PE) YEAR 4</td>
<td>QUAL Data Collection 10 Interviews. QUAL data analysed. QUAL results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. FOLLOW UP STUDY</td>
<td>QUAN data collection. 85 Questionnaires. QUAN data analysed. QUAN results. Identify results for follow up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. FOLLOW UP STUDY</td>
<td>QUAL data collection 8 Interviews. QUAL data analysed. QUAL results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. FOLLOW UP STUDY</td>
<td>QUAL + QUAN connected and interpreted. Results reported and compared to original study.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5 Threats to Quality in Mixed Method Research

Mixed methods were not used as an ‘add-on’ but rather were an integral part of addressing and forming the research questions. Each study’s aims and objectives were carefully considered and methods tailored to create ‘a match’ between the research questions and the study design. In the same way, each study included many phases of piloting and testing of instruments, incorporating the findings from the pilot phase into the final study design. As typical in all research, there are limitations in each study, and as such all discussions on limitations and validity considerations are detailed in the associated published papers.

Validity can be defined as ‘the ability of the researcher to draw meaningful and accurate conclusions from all the data in the study’ (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p146). Validity permeates all phases of the research process including the review of literature, the research design, findings, and the consequences of the findings (Leech & Dellinger, 2010). In a mixed method research design issues of validity are not solely concerned with data collection but are at the forefront of any planning phase. Mixed methods attempt to improve the validity and theoretical propositions and obtain a more complete picture of the phenomenon than would be possible with a narrower methodological approach (Webb, Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest 1966). In addition, mixed methods provide compensatory measures, whereby the weakness of one approach is overcome by the strength of the other to ensure a rich and high-quality study (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

The purpose of this section is to highlight threats to the quality of the mixed methods used in this research when quantitative and qualitative approaches are combined in data collection, analysis and interpretation. Fabregues and Molina-Azorin (2016) suggest that identifying criteria to assess the quality of data demonstrates ‘undeniable sign of maturity’(p1). However, Leech and Dellinger (2013) suggest a degree of caution, since discussions surrounding quality are still in their infancy in mixed methods. To evaluate threats to the quality of the work in the three studies Onwuegbuzie and Johnson’s (2006) ‘legitimation framework’ was applied to the research. All ‘legitimation types’ were
considered in the critical review with eight identified as relevant to the work. These are discussed in the next section and summarised in Appendix 20.

4.5.1 Legitimation Framework

Sample integration was achieved by using the same participants in both the questionnaires and interviews. The researcher was able to accurately present the ‘insider’ view of participants by using more than one researcher to explain and describe the interview data. One possible threat to this legitimation type is the use of ‘an outsider’ – the body of research did not use an outsider to analyse data, but this was minimised by using a researcher to interpret data that was not involved in carrying out the interviews.

Weakness minimisation refers to the extent that one approach was compensated by the other. In the critical review, the linking of methodology allowed the researcher to investigate contradictions in the QUAN data by using the QUAL study to follow up on any unusual event. For example, in Study C after the third year of gathering data, interviews were used. This was not preplanned but necessary to explain some ‘outliers’ that were present in the data. The dataset revealed that some of the females in the study indicated a drop in confidence in comparison to the previous two years. Through interviews, students talked about their placement experience and the expectations that were placed on them. Students reported teaching large numbers of pupils (sometimes three classes at the one time), and this severely reduced their confidence to teach dance. This information would not have become available had the researcher not adopted a mixed method approach.

Sequential data was collected and analysed to allow participants in the QUAL phase to be selected. Information provided in the QUAN phase were built on by using the QUAL phase as significant predictors rather than simple comparing of the data. It would not have been possible to reverse the sequence. For example, the QUAN data in Study B calculated percentages of teachers who were willing to change their curriculum as a result of CfE, however it was the QUAL data that identified the underlying reasons behind their decisions.

Conversion legitimation is the extent to which QUAN and QUAL yield quality meta-inferences. This was achieved by using statistical analyses to count inferences. Counting was not used to
measure the qualitative data, however Sandelowski (2001) suggests that counting is appropriate for some types of data, as this would affect the meta-inference quality. In Study B and C, the statistical analysis tool SPSS was used to count inferences and analyse data which allowed patterns to emerge in the data set and relationships between variables to be identified.

**Paradigmatic mixing legitimation** successfully combines approaches. This was considered within each study and treated as separate but complimentary compatible. Each paradigm that was used and the data collection within, fitted the stated assumptions.

**Commensurability legitimation** was assured by switching between the qualitative and quantitative lens to provide rich explanations that moved beyond traditional viewpoints. For example, challenging linear views on the policy process (Study A) and arguing the case for enactment rather than implementation (Study B).

**Multiple validities legitimation** the extent to which QUAN and QUAL yield collectively high-quality data. The validity of each part of the data QUAN and QUAL and checks for threats to validity in each separate component was considered (this is reviewed separately within the next section). However, it was clear that the extent of the whole was greater than its component parts.

4.6 Threats to quality in the QUALITATIVE parts of the studies

4.6.1 Interviews used in the studies

**Instrument:** Issues of reliability, validity and method of analysis was considered carefully prior to the interviews construction. Focused, face-to-face, individual semi-structured interviews (Gordon, 1999, Cohen et al., 2000) were utilised with themes, questions and probes (Gillham, 2000) deemed appropriate for each of the three studies. Following the standard pattern for focused interviews, the format was not strictly structured with standardised questions, nor was it entirely non-directive (Kvale, 1996). Oppenheim (1992) contests this method by stating that wording is particularly important in interview questions as slight changes in wording between interviews undermine reliability as it ceases to be the same question to each respondent. Silverman (2000) opposes this view and argues for the
importance of open-ended interviews as this enable respondents to demonstrate their unique way of looking at the world. After considering the advantages and limitations of both perspectives, it was determined that open-ended questions addressed the research questions appropriately by enabling the respondent to raise important but unanticipated issues, which was the aim of the interview. It was important that the interview fulfilled its function and did not merely replicate the work of the questionnaire. Therefore, the interview questions were tested by applying the Goldilocks principle to evaluate the strength and depth of each question. The Goldilocks principle describes the amount, type and detail of the information received in an interview. The aim is to maximise effectiveness while minimising redundancy by avoiding "too much" excessive breadth or "too little" inaccurate communication. This involved adjusting questions to engage the respondent in a critical response. As such, each interview schedule was piloted several times and changes made to the structure, length and word use.

**Participants:** In sequential design, a potential threat can be caused by selecting different individuals in the QUAL and QUANT collection. Therefore in Study B and C this risk was minimised by using samples from the same population, drawing the interviewees from the questionnaire sample. The focused interview, therefore, was beneficial to use with subjects who had previously completed the questionnaire as they provided an understanding of response in more depth (Gordon, 1999). In each study, interview participants were purposively sampled (Cohen et al., 2000) to include a cross-section of individuals (e.g. male and female) to increase the internal validity (Silverman, 2000). In the longitudinal study, eight of the ten participants from the original research were re-interviewed in the follow-up research ten years later.

In Study A ‘snowballing technique’ (Cohen et al., 2000) was used to identify and purposely select policy constructors who were actively involved in creating the experiences and outcomes for PE to create rich data from valid sources. The policy constructors were unknown and not listed on any publication therefore snowballing technique (or referral sampling), was used to identify key individuals involved in the context of influence and text production. Snowballing technique is a useful strategy to use whereby existing study subjects identify and recruit future subjects.
Location: Interviews took place in familiar locations to allow the participant to feel at ease. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim to avoid inaccuracy or ‘incompleteness’ of data - a validity concern of the greatest importance (Robson, 2011). There was a concern that recording interviews might limit participants’ responses, however research indicates that this is not the case (Verma & Mallick, 1999; Gillham 2000). During the interviews, detailed field notes were taken and checked with participants in each study for accuracy, akin to Silverman’s (2000) description of respondent validation (returning to respondents with refining results). Within the case study environment, positive, trusting researcher-respondent relationships were nurtured which created an environment that served to reduce reactivity and respondent bias (Robson, 2011).

4.6.2 Data Analysis

In Study A and B the research aimed to objectively bring participant interpretations of curriculum construction to life whilst ensuring that this was not biased by the research teams’ ‘outsider view’ and biographies as ‘physical educators, ‘teacher educators’ and ‘researchers’ (Bell, 1999). To minimise bias, the research team consciously reflected on research assumptions and carefully considered the values, attitudes and concerns that were brought to the analysis (Hesse-Biber, 2010). The interview data was analysed in isolation before comparing and checking the analyses with the research team in an attempt to reduce bias.

Due to the nature of the research, the analysis aimed to proliferate many properties of the category of change using the constant comparative method (CCM) of analysis (initially developed by Glaser, 1965). In the initial analysis, transcripts were read and reread (Dye, 2000) with note taking in the form of memos (Miles & Huberman, 1984) to become familiar with responses. Thus, the first stages of CCM were initiated. This process was repeated as the CCM method is not linear, but moves to and fro’ throughout the analytical process to constantly review and evaluate the data. In this vein, each memo or theme that was identified in the data was compared to previous themes from similar sections. Once themes were deemed exhaustive (Robson, 2011), a coding framework was established and applied to the data. This verified Glaser’s (1965) proposal of codified procedures as significant catalysts in the transition from data to theory. Sadler (1981) sheds light on the various deficiencies of the human as analyst listing inconsistency, data overload and uneven
reliability as pertinent examples. Therefore, attempts to minimise bias include respondent validation and inter-coder reliability amongst researchers.

It is possible that theoretical frameworks may have directed attention towards some aspects of the empirical phenomenon while downplaying other elements that a different theoretical orientation might have picked up, which may have limited the work. This threat was reduced by checking the theories arising from the data and continually evaluating and critiquing through deviate case analysis (Robson 2011) that is the process for refining an analysis until it can explain or account for a majority of cases. This helped counter the inevitability of researcher bias, as Fetterman (1998) identifies that the analysis process is as much a test of the researcher as it is a test of the data. Theories were adjusted to accommodate any deviate cases to explain the apparent contradiction. Study C provides a useful illustration of this process. Interview data revealed findings based on ‘identity’ construction, which was an unexpected finding, but emerged as relevant in the data set.

4.7 Threats to quality in the QUANTITATIVE parts of the critical review

4.7.1 Questionnaires

Instrument: The critical review used a similar questionnaire tool in Study B and C. Each data gathering tool was adapted to fit the context and nature of the participants being surveyed and were created in a way that permitted comparisons to be made between all 3 of the studies. By linking the methods at the data gathering stage, the researcher could review and assess the reliability and validity of the findings. For example, in Study C the researcher asked similar questions in both QUAN and QUAL data which permitted a review of the extent to which research findings, from related items, yield similar responses (reliability) and the extent to which answers seem to discuss the same underlying issues, providing a general agreement in responses (validity through triangulation). In addition, Study A and B contained similar questions to permit the researcher to compare responses between policy constructors and PE teachers. All questionnaires were created collaboratively by a research team (in Study B) and were developed in line with literature relating to the PE curriculum policy (Scottish Executive, 2004a; Scottish Government 2009) and curriculum change (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Humes, 2003; Scottish Executive, 2004a). The data gathering tool was created by the research team and was piloted several times (Study B – 10 pilot phases and Study C - 12 pilot phases), using the ‘Goldilocks’ test to adjust questions.
**Participants:** Each questionnaire began by collecting demographic data on each respondent (sex, age, previous experience). The second section contained attitudinal questions that dealt with teachers’ perceptions of curriculum change with the final section considering future aspirations of the subject. Participants were invited to respond to a range of closed, open and forced choice (Likert) questions on a four or five-point scale. To ensure a high response rate and enable teachers across Scotland to participate in the study, school practicum tutors or students delivered and collected questionnaires from where their students were located for practicum. There was also the opportunity to complete the questionnaire online for both Study B and C. Data from the first part of Study C (reported in paper 1) was collected during student lectures to guarantee a maximum return.

**4.7.2 Data analysis**

The data was analysed using an appropriate statistical test - SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Science) software programme. The advantage of using an application programme is that it reduces the risk of errors in calculations. Descriptive statistical analysis, regression⁷ and multivariate analysis⁸ enabled patterns to be identified in the variables with the questionnaire data. Where the data gathered was predominately nominal /ordinal, descriptive statistics of a univariate nature and inferential statistics were used to test research questions (papers 1, 4 and 6). With parametric data, the following protocol was followed in paper 4 and 6; a Shapiro-Wilks test⁹ was initially used to test for normality and a Pearson’s product-movement correlation¹⁰ coefficient to identify relationships between variable. Preliminary analysis were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. Finally, the coefficient of determination was calculated to explain shared variance between variables.

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⁷ Multiple regression: used to explore predictive ability of a set of independent variable on one continuous dependant measure. The dependant measure in this case was ‘perceived confidence’.

⁸ Multivariate analysis of variance (MANVA) was used to compare the students on a number of different dependant variables, e.g. ability, previous school experience, placement experience.

⁹ The Shapiro-Wilks test for normality is designed to detect all departures from normality. The test rejects the hypothesis of normality when the p-value less than or equal to 0.05. If the tests fails, it is usual to use non-parametric tests.

¹⁰ Pearson product-movement correlation was used to explore the strength of the relationship between two variables e.g. ability and confidence. A positive correlation indicates that as one variable increases, so does the other.
With non-parametric data, descriptive statistics, Mann-Whitney U\textsuperscript{11} tests and Spearman Rank order correlations\textsuperscript{12} were used to check significance and relationship in paper 1. In addition, a parametric multiple regression test was used with the nonparametric data due to a lack of an alternative measure. The multiple regression test allowed determination of the statistical significance of the individual independent variables and the model. At the time of the research, (paper 1) it was recognised that multiple regression is typically used with parametric data; therefore, parametric tests were used throughout as a check to see if there was any difference between the parametric and non-parametric result. In all cases, each test indicated the same significant or insignificant score. Based on the strength of this comparative analysis and the lack of an alternative procedure, the researcher felt it beneficial to pursue this line of enquiry. While acknowledging that assumptions for multiple regression have, to a degree, been violated, there are clear indications in this case that this was not a significant issue. A multicollinearity examination was conducted, to test the level of threat and indicated that the independent variables had a relationship with the dependent variable with the result that was greater than $r = .3$ (Pallant, 2001). The correlation between each of the variables was not excessive - with no score more than $r = .7$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Therefore all values were tolerant, negating the possibility of multicollinearity.

Normal probability plots were identified in a reasonably straight diagonal line, suggesting no major deviations from normality. Outliers were evaluated by checking the Mahalanobis distances. Critical chi-square value and degrees of freedom indicate that the 3 independent variables (used in the test) critical value did not exceed 16.27 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A R-Square score was reported, and the ANOVA table indicated that the multiple regression model reached statistical significance.

In summary, the usefulness of this process allowed a model to be calculated in paper 1. The multiple regression test indicated that a model that includes ‘ability’, ‘placement’ and the ‘University course’ explained 55% (female) and 43% (male) of the variance in the level of perceived confidence to teach dance ($p=0.00$) indicating a significant result.

\textsuperscript{11} Mann-Whitney U: This test is used to test differences between two independent groups or continuous measure. For instance, do male and females differ in terms of their confidence?

\textsuperscript{12} Spearman Rank order correlations: used to determine the strength between two variables (this is the non-parametric alternative to the Pearson product-movement correlation).
4.8 Concluding comments on the Methods

Within this critical review, the mixed methods design allowed the researcher to draw evidence from the different data sets that provided better results than one data set on its own (QUAN or QUAL). In each component of data collection threats to validity were identified and then minimised in the research design/data collection, data analysis and data interpretation phases. The nine ‘legitimation types’ were considered as appropriate in mixed methods research and revealed that design quality and interpretative rigour were present. Certain limitations or weaknesses were detected within the research. Time validity posed a threat to the data gathered. The questionnaire collected perceptions at a certain time and within a particular context - it is acknowledged that if the research was repeated, different results might occur. This was minimised in Study B by using Archer’s (1996) ‘analytical dualism’ as a way of freeze-framing the structural and cultural constrains by separating them for analytical purposes. It is recognised that the results may yield different results if repeated a year later, due to changes in support, increase in knowledge and experience of teachers. In addition, potential threats to environmental validity were identified in relation to the generalisability of the findings across settings. It was acknowledged that the studies were set within the Scottish context, yet similar results are reported in international research suggesting that the findings could be transferred internationally. The researcher acknowledges that statistical laws have progressed since the time of the data collection and recognises now that there is limited evidence that non-parametric tests are more appropriate than parametric tests when sample size is reduced’ (Norman, 2010).

Reflecting on the factors that could be carried out differently, the researcher acknowledges that the inclusion of observational data may have improved the analysis by providing information on the actual practice of teachers. In addition, more interactive data, diary entries and attendance at department meetings may have strengthened the findings on the dialectical relationship between colleagues and the collective nature of agency.
5.0 Critical Review of Findings

Detailed findings from all the studies are included in the corresponding published papers. This section presents the key findings from each study individually, but also integrates results from all three studies in the discussion due to the rounded nature of the critical review.

5.1 Policy Construction

The findings from Study A are summarised in table 8 below.

Table 7: Summary of findings from Study A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paper Nos. and Title of Publication</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STUDY A: POLICY CONSTRUCTION</strong></td>
<td>QUAL: 10 Interviews with Policy Constructors Appendix 9</td>
<td>1. The government controlled the policy construction process. 2. Not all PC had experience or expertise in PE. 3. PCs’ agency constrained, limiting their ability to shape a vision for PE. 4. PC’s unsure why dance relocated to EA. 4. Teachers minimally involved in the process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recommendations: Policy needed to be built around empirical evidence and existing good practice.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Policy constructors were invited by the government through critical friends and as a result conformed to some similar and consistent messages about the nature and purpose of CfE. Humes (2013) calls this ‘discursive capture’ whereby alternative views on the curriculum were never allowed to surface, resulting in a consistent message conveyed about the
purposes of education. This research highlighted that policy constructors’ freedom to interpret the principles generated within the context of influence was restricted to sustain and reinforce the government’s vision of the new curriculum. This was at odds with Bowe et al.’s (1992) pluralistic and democratic policy cycle. The results indicated that although the government acknowledged a process of institutional reinterpretation, in reality the State had a greater weight in controlling the outcomes.

I think some of the questions we had right back at the beginning was has this already been decided...who has decided this? I think it would be fair to say that we never really got an answer. (Policy Constructor 4, Paper 2).

The results indicated that the government significantly controlled the policy process, limiting the extent to which the policy constructors could make a genuine contribution to shaping the vision for physical education. Consequently, not all policy constructors invited by the government possessed the expertise in physical education to be able to create vision and purpose for the subject resorting to using their lived experience to inform and guide their decision making, rather than applying empirical evidence.

I said at the outset that I wasn’t a fan of PE. Now one of the things I wanted to do was, what I liked to do at school, would have been musical theatre. And my argument was that the dance and activity that you might do in a production was more active than playing hockey while you stood in the rain [laughs]. (Policy Constructor 5, Paper 2).

It was anticipated by the research team at this stage in the study that the freedom hoped for in the flexible curriculum framework might be constrained within all contexts of the policy process development and not just within the context of influence and text production. As predicted, stakeholders in each of the three arenas considered their involvement to be ‘tokenistic’, where their consultation was valued more as a public relations exercise than as a genuinely democratic process. PE teachers (in Study B) reported a desire to have a central position in the curriculum decision-making process so they could construct new and relevant ideas about what physical education should represent now and in the future. This constraint is not limited to the CfE reform, the voice of teachers has been reported ‘silent’ in similar educational reforms where teacher opinions have been overlooked or ignored (Fullan, 1999; Ha, Wong, Sum & Chan, 2008). The recommendation that arose out of Study B was to incorporate teachers, researchers and academics as policy constructors to allow them to
have a considerable influence in the role of PE, to recognise and build on existing good practice and to include evidence based research to shape future aspirations for their subject.

Lack of consultation, in the context of influence, led to confusion and partial understanding of policy intentions. An example of this was highlighted through the activity of dance (reported in Study A). The policy constructors did not understand why dance had initially been removed from HWB to EA. Some thought it was to do with PE teachers’ ineffective pedagogy; others claimed it was relocated due to its artistic nature. It was clear that lack of debate and consultation before the policy was created led to policy constructors’ limited understanding of the position and place of dance within the curriculum. As expected, this resulted in confusion amongst PE teachers in relation to the position and ownership of dance in the curriculum. Similarly, in Study B there was evidence of a clear discrepancy between the knowledge of policy constructors and teachers. Teachers’ insufficient knowledge of reasons for changes to the curriculum resulted in confusion about the aims and purposes of PE within HWB. Policy constructors were concerned that given the strength of the health discourse permeating Scottish society, that teachers may interpret the policy text exclusively in relation to improving health and fitness and increasing physical activity levels. Confirming this fear, and despite teachers’ unease with this notion, there was evidence to suggest that teachers understanding of PE under the umbrella of HWB acted as an incitement to improve children’s fitness, distorting policy intentions. It became apparent that without a clearly communicated vision for PE, there was a risk that physical education may be reduced to a vehicle to improve the health and fitness of the nation.

The combined findings from Study A and B indicated that it would be advisable for teachers and policy constructors to work together to view policy as discourse (Adams, 2011). This would align with Teaching Scotland Future (TSF) that places teachers as ‘prime agents of educational change’ (Scottish Government, 2011). It was anticipated that, by the end of Study A, policy would be less likely to impact on teachers practice because, in the absence of opportunities for active participation and influence, the agency of teachers can be reduced (Vahasantanen, 2015). When teachers are not able to contribute to discourse within the context of influence and text production, the result is a form of PE that is decided not by teachers, but for teachers (Penney and Evans, 1999). When this happens, teachers may either
become de-skilled, conforming to the practice demands of the reform, or use their agency to resist change altogether (Olson and Sexton, 2009).

Recommendations from Study A and B are amalgamated together as reported by policy constructors and teachers in interviews – this is summarised in Figure 2 below. Figure 2 illustrates the involvement of key stakeholders in the context of influence and includes important shared objectives.

Figure 2: Shared objectives of key stakeholders (Recommendations from Study A and B)

5.2 Teachers Enactment of Large-Scale Curricular Reform

The findings from Study B, set within the context of practice, are summarised in table 8. However, due to the connected nature of the critical review there are findings from Study A and C integrated into the text.
### Table 8: Summary of findings from Study B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paper Nos. and Title of Publication</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>STUDY B: ENACTMENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. MacLean, J., Mulholland, R, Gray., S. &amp; Horrell, A. (2015) Enabling curriculum change in physical education: the interplay between policy constructors and practitioners. <em>Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy</em> Vol. 20(1): 79-96</td>
<td>SURVEY MIXED METHODS 88 Questionnaire (Appendix 10) and 17 Interviews with PE teachers (Appendix 11)</td>
<td>1. Those who exercised teacher agency valued interdisciplinary learning, collaboration, conversation and professional activity. 2. Teachers who stated they would make no changes to their curriculum expressed feelings of imposition, isolation and the need to increase their capacity. 3. The school context shaped the way agency was exercised. 4. Teachers required a more explicit articulation of the educational purpose of PE. 5. Teachers distorted policy intentions towards a health discourse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STUDY B: ENACTMENT</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Simmons, J &amp; MacLean, J (2016). PE teachers’ perceptions of factors that inhibit and facilitate the enactment of curriculum change in a high stakes exam climate. <em>Sport, Education and Society.</em> <a href="http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13573322.2016.1155444">http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13573322.2016.1155444</a></td>
<td>CASE STUDY 5 Interviews with PE teachers (Appendix 12)</td>
<td>1. CfE documentation was vague and teachers required more specific structured exemplars to enable them to create their own course. 2. Teacher agency was enhanced by internal discussion, collegiality, desire for pupils to succeed. 4. Teachers required more focus on contextual factors to enable them to act as agents of change. 5. The care of the pupils resulted in teachers exercising agency. 6. The intensity and level of work could not be sustained by teachers without more support.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Archer’s (1988) social theory was used as a framework for explaining the processes of change in schools by making an analytical distinction between the cultural system and the socio-cultural interaction. This separation of the various aspects of social reality allowed judgments to be made regarding the relative causative weight of culture, structure and agency (Priestley, 2011) to identify inhibitors and facilitators of change. Archer’s (1996) concepts of morphogenesis (change) and morphostasis (no change) were used to indicate perceived...
change and stability in the social environment. It was acknowledged in the study that structure and agency are inextricably linked and difficult to separate, however, in keeping with Archer’s (1996) analytic dualism they are examined separately below for the purposes of analysis.

5.2.1 Structure

Study B and C investigated the factors that enabled PE teachers to enact CfE within the context of practice. The results from the questionnaire (Study B) indicated that two-thirds (66%) of teachers believed there was a need for change within the Scottish curriculum; however, just over half (56%) anticipated that they would make changes to their PE curriculum. At the time of the data collection, teachers demonstrated a lack of understanding of CfE policy and the catalysts for change. Their insufficient knowledge of reasons for change resulted in a lack of motivation to enact new initiatives effectively. Times of change created feelings of uncertainty for teachers and as such their typical reaction was to resist change and hold onto existing practices. However, crucial to this resistance was not the teachers themselves, but rather the constraining social and cultural pressures placed on their practice, for example: lack of collaboration with colleagues, limited guidance and support from the leadership team and minimal CLPL to develop their knowledge and understanding. In contrast, the results indicated that the schools that possessed distinct structures, before CfE (and as a result of CfE) were able to engage in practices that helped create policy in their schools (paper 4). The structures fit with Priestley’s (2010) practical-evaluative dimension of agency that include aspects of social and material factors that can enable or constrain agency. Figure 3 illustrates the summary of the findings form Study B.

Figure 3 : Enabling Contextual Conditions (Results from Study B)
In Study B and C teachers reported structures that enabled them to initiate, create and form policy. The PE teachers spoke about structures that were already in place that helped support their practice inclusive of: shared office space, team teaching, shared classes, in house training and shared social time (in and out of school), creating a platform for collaboration and mutual trust. In many schools, communities of practice were created and groups of professionals met together, shared ideas and communicated regularly (Bridwell-Mitchell, 2016). Wenger, McDermott & Snyder (2002) define ‘communities of practice’ as a ‘group of people who share a concern, set of problems, or a passion about a topic and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting’ (p4). This interaction was arranged at local and regional level. ‘Social’ structures were a principal theme that dominated the interviews and in particular the relational aspects between key stakeholders. Teachers valued the dialectical aspect of creating policy by engaging in discussions on constructing policy ideas with other colleagues. However, this research (papers 4, 5, 6) emphasised the importance of teacher conversation as crucial in assisting teachers to enact policy. Teachers valued discussions with the leadership team but also placed emphasis on informal conversations between colleagues that took place during breaks.

It’s all the time. It’s during DM’s (department meetings), it’s during lunchtimes conversations, it’s during an episode of team-teaching, it’s after school discussions, its - you know- in our own time if we are out socialising with one another we can still discuss small bits of the curriculum…. there’s constant educational debate going on and ways of making things better. (PE Teacher, paper 4)

This informal, unstructured collaboration so highly valued at local (school) level was preferred to the rigid agendas associated with CLPL (Career-long Professional Learning). Teachers who were actively making changes to curriculum organisation referred to an improvement and increase in collaborative practices throughout the whole school. As a result, individual agency was enhanced in the schools that provided the social structure for innovation. This was evidenced in the case study (paper 5) where teachers working collaboratively were able to provide a structural support and resource for those less experienced in the department. Similarly, in Study C, it became apparent that teachers who possessed strengths in dance created curriculum packages and training for less experienced staff.
5.2.2 High stake exams

Following the curriculum from broad general education (paper 4) to the high stakes exam (paper 5) shed light on a more complex set of issues that enabled teachers to enact policy changes in the curriculum. The results indicated that teachers’ first response to the policy process was to compare the structure of the course with previous policy to evaluate how ‘much space’ was needed for the new course. Teachers recognised that it was necessary to engage with the exams and practices associated with the new course, but difficulties arose when attempting to blend this engagement with previous experience and approaches. As reported in paper 5, teachers chose to merge the new examination structure with the old, in order to make links with the previous policy - reminiscent of Archer’s (1988) form of morphogenesis. Teachers understood that new course documents were to be adapted to their individual school, but were concerned about the vagueness of crucial exemplars and assessment criteria.

Reading the documents, they were so open and vague, which I know is probably the way they should be, but it meant it was open to interpretation from every single teacher who reads it. (PE Teacher, paper 4)

It became clear that there was a fine line between opportunities for teacher agency and engendering insecurity:

I’ve no doubt there will have been creativity produced because of it, but I’ve also no doubt that there will be teachers insecure - feeling they’re a couple of lessons ahead of the pupils - and we know for a fact that’s transmitted across to the children in the last couple of years. That’s not healthy. (PE Teacher, paper 3)

Within the high stakes nature of the flexible policy framework, PE teachers, unfortunately, felt they lacked the necessary tools to be curriculum decision-makers (paper 5). Ironically, teachers stressed that it would perhaps be easier for them to exercise agency within a more explicitly structured course with clearer examples. These results indicate that change was somewhat stagnated by potent inhibitors, such as a lack of collaboration with policy constructors and vague course documentation. The informal, unstructured collaboration so highly valued at a local (department) level was perhaps necessary at an early stage with policy constructors rather than structured CLPL (Career-long Professional Learning) with seemingly concrete agendas. The findings indicated that it was the care of the pupils that drove teachers to success rather than the structure of the school adequately equipping them, indicating that
the relational context within schools and between teachers and pupils might matter more for agency that the national level policy processes (paper 5). The teachers reported that pupils were engaging with the course, but this was as a result of the teachers extending their working hours committed during the school day (and beyond), rather than efficient structural support. The care that teachers felt towards their pupils enabled them to exercise their agency to secure success. However, the amount of work and pressures associated was unsustainable leading to feelings of wariness and indecision among teachers.

I spent my life learning the document – reading it, understanding it and I spent every night after school last year for four months working with pupils after school and working on my own after school. But most of it was done at home. (Teacher, paper 5)

The flexible curriculum and guidance offered by policymakers in the examination element of CfE were insufficient for teachers to confidently participate in curriculum decisions, resulting in a call from the PE teachers for more support. It became clear that when teachers are given responsibility to devise and develop policy, they require support, collaboration and direction to empower their decision-making, particularly when faced with the accountability pressures associated with the high-stakes exam climate.

5.2.3 Teacher Agency

The findings from Study C are summarised in table 10 below and are set within the context of practice. However, due to the focus on teacher agency, relevant findings from all three studies are integrated into the text.
Table 9: Summary of findings from Study C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paper Nos. and Title of Publication</th>
<th>Methods</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. MacLean, J. (2007). A longitudinal study to ascertain the factors that impact on the confidence of undergraduate physical education student teachers to teach dance in Scottish Schools. <em>European Physical Education Review</em> Vol 13(1): 99-106</td>
<td>LONGITUDINAL SURVEY 88 BEd (PE) students (repeated every 4 years) Appendix 13-16 and 10 interviews (Appendix 17)</td>
<td>1. Opportunities lacking to teach dance in schools. 2. Students focussed on constructing their identity. 3. Students require propitious placement, support from staff and opportunities to teach dance in schools. 4. A relevant University dance course that prepares them to teach a variety of dance styles to pupils. Recommendations: Increase dance opportunities in schools. Provide supportive structures for students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. MacLean, J. (2016). Teachers as Agents of Change in Curricular Reform: The Position of Dance Revisited. <em>Sport, Education and Society</em>. Sport, Education and Society. <a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13573322.2016.1249464">http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13573322.2016.1249464</a></td>
<td>FOLLOW-UP SURVEY 85 Questionnaires (Appendix 18) and 8 interviews with PE teachers (Appendix 19)</td>
<td>1. Schools have increased dance provision. Many teaching dance in HWB &amp; EA. 2. Some schools unaware of opportunities to teach in both domains. 3. Teachers valued the pupils’ experience of dance so exercised agency to provide a rich learning experience. 4. Teachers working collaboratively resulted in ‘collective agency’. 5. Teachers engaging in reflexive deliberation allowed them to visualise future possibilities in dance provision. Recommendations: Increase structural support for teachers to increase dance provision. Encourage teachers to work collaboratively to develop collective agency. Opportunities for reflexive deliberation as individuals and as departments.</td>
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</table>

Comparing the data from paper 1 to paper 6 highlighted some critical differences in the findings (see table 12). The student-teachers who avoided teaching dance, or who reported low confidence in dance (paper 1) were preoccupied with their personal identity, focusing on ‘self’ the ‘teaching act’ and how they would be perceived by their class. Their identity,
encompassing their background: beliefs, values, experiences and perceptions were negotiated when placed in the vulnerable position of teaching an activity that may be met with some resistance and received negatively by pupils. Reinforcing the work of Stephen’s (1996) who comments on personal identity being constructed through the ways in which the pupils respond and react to the teacher. This was important because a sense of personal identity depends upon the emergence of a sense of the social self (Archer (2005), especially in the teaching environment. Paper 1 concluded that student-teacher identity was not a fixed, stable entity but rather a constant process of formation and re-formation (Holmes, 2005) within varying contexts. Student teachers’ identity was born from past experiences, shaped by current situations, and was continually being constructed and maintained. Buchanan (2015) states that agency and identity are shaped by macro-level discourses and historical forces, but teachers can actively construct themselves in particular ways (Buchanan, 2015) and within specific contexts.

In contrast, the results from paper 6 indicated that established, experienced teachers were no longer constrained by their personal sense of identity but were occupied with providing rich educational experiences for their pupils. Teachers exercising agency were still influenced by the way that pupils responded to them, but this involved them in the process of maintaining, rather than constructing their identity. Student teachers focused on their socially constructed self to create their identity whereas experienced teachers sought external structures to create meaningful learning experiences. This motivation encouraged teachers to work, learn, team-teach, jointly assess and co-produce teaching materials with other colleagues who possessed strengths in dance. As a result, PE teachers exercised their agency and created an environment that allowed pupils to access and experience dance in the curriculum. Where previously (paper1) student teachers’ identity was threatened if the activity of dance was received negatively by pupils, experienced teachers used their collective strengths to reinforce and support them in practice, emphasising the relational and context-contingent nature of collective agency.

The process of enactment resulted in all PE teachers exercising agency to some degree, however some participants felt that this was constrained by factors outwith their control. Agency that was constrained focused on individual capacity resulting in teachers feeling powerless, unsupported and controlled, whereas agency that was enabled focused on
collective action which resulted in teachers feeling empowered, trusted and autonomous. The results supported the Emirbayer and Mische (1998) model as significant in understanding how agency was constructed and exercised, however, pertinent to the exercise of agency was a process of pre-planned reflective deliberation to identify the structures necessary to support teachers. Study C identified that by guiding teachers through the Emirbayer & Mische (1998) model of agency, reflecting on the aspects of the past (that have provided experience) and considering the present (the factors required to achieve agency) helped teachers to envisage alternatives in the projective element (future possibilities). The findings of study C identified the importance of pre-planned reflexive deliberation to allow the construct of structures to be created and negotiated to enable agency to be achieved. As a result, agency was exercised when teachers reflexively deliberated on the meaning of policy for their practice and were able to negotiate the cultural, social and material contextual environment required to support change. Table 11 provides examples that illustrate the researchers understanding of constrained and enabled agency from the three studies (further examples Appendix 8).

Table 10: Sample of interview quotes representing factors that enabled and constrained agency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraining Agency</th>
<th>Enabling Agency</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Policy Constructors producing policy</strong> (Study A)</td>
<td>• You were given frameworks for everything, so you had headings that you had to complete things under. And then you would send it in and it would get thrown out by the curriculum board. • So that would be all we would do, we would just write and edit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It’s about a celebration of how much contribution PE makes. • This is an opportunity for us to showcase what PE can do. • We could have a fantastically rich and diverse subject.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Teachers as co-producers of policy</strong> (Study B)</td>
<td>• CfE was ‘imposed on us’. • forced on us to change. • we’ve been inflicted. • I need more reassurance. • I’m unsure that what I’m doing is correct. • I felt isolated. • It seems very autonomous – it’s quite a nice thing to have, you can work with your own pupils in your own environment and do what suits the needs of your pupils. • The fact that we had the flexibility to do the course the way we wanted – within certain parameters – then the most important thing was the internal staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students teaching dance</strong> (Study C)</td>
<td>• It was quite intimidating teaching dance initially. • I didn’t know what to do or how to deliver the content. • It’s the horror that it’s all going to fall flat on its face!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I enjoy teaching dance and feel confident. • No-one could say you’ve done this wrong, it was my ideas that I could bring out – it was good. • When they are doing my dance – it’s quite rewarding – best part really.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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</table>
• It feels quite daunting.

| Teachers teaching dance (Study C) | • I would feel exposed or insecure about teaching dance.  
• I have a lack of knowledge – it’s not dance specific ...just don’t feel comfortable teaching it.  
• I know I’m not a great dancer but that doesn’t stop me from being confident teaching dance.  
• I feel proud as a teacher; the pupils start off very timid and then ...they think ‘you know what - this is great’.  
• I learned a lot from other people and hopefully they learned some stuff from me as well. So that helps as well. |

Study B indicated that despite lack of teacher involvement in the context of influence, some teachers were able to exercise agency to co-produce policy within their local school. The flexible nature of the curriculum allowed teachers autonomy to recreate the curriculum to meet the needs of their pupils and this compensated for the tokenistic involvement in the policy process (paper 5). The very process of enacting policy enabled teachers to make sense of the new policy. This was salient in the PE literature (Scottish Executive, 2004) where PE was relocated to Health and Wellbeing. PE teachers were provided with learning experiences and outcomes but were tasked with recreating and individualising policy to suit the needs of their local school. During the process, teachers used their agency to produce school-based curriculum materials that fitted their understanding of the policy intentions, that were situated within their policy discourse and matched the highly contextualised environment of both the PE department and school. Teacher agency was achieved when there were opportunities for actors to shape responses to a given task in a way that involved them in a dynamic socially embedded process. Agency was necessary for policy enactment, but in the same way, the conditions of policy enactment enabled agency. As a result, agency and enactment were viewed as two sides of the one coin.

5.2.4 Collective Agency

The findings of Study B & C indicated that agency was enhanced by the collective experience. That is, the PE department as a whole contained emergent properties not possessed by one individual but by the power of the relationship that bound them together. This was evidenced in paper 6 where collectively teachers could strategically act to design curricula that placed value on shared strengths and collaborative planning.
This led to 96% (n=82) of schools including dance in the curriculum with 35% (n=30) offering dance within HWB and within EA. A total of 68% (n=58) of schools expected all PE teachers to teach dance in the curriculum with only 4% (n=3) employing a dance specialist. This was achieved by the combined efforts of the PE department acting collaboratively, utilising each other’s strengths to create dance courses that all members of the department could teach whether it was their specialism or not (see paper 6, Appendix 6 for further details).

Similarly, in the case study (paper 5), the combination of experienced teachers working with newly qualified teachers enabled teachers to enact policy during high stake exams.

I preferred not having the responsibility of having a class myself, so that if I was struggling, the ownership wasn’t on me. And say, if I felt my lesson didn’t cover as much as it should have, I knew that there were two other lessons with different teachers which might reiterate that or explain it differently. (PE Teacher, paper 3)

Teachers’ collective agency was enhanced by shared strengths: united goals, collective action, collaborative planning and shared accountability. This was further enhanced by a supportive leadership team who could provide: pressure and support, guidance, leadership, feedback and affirmation. Structural support for teachers was negotiated with the leadership team and included: additional preparation time, resources, additional staffing and opportunities for collaboration. However, it is important to note that teachers valued the direction that was provided through informal and formal conversation that took place with the school’s leadership team. The results are summarised (in figure4) as a shared relationship that resulted in teachers exercising agency to enact policy.

Figure 4: Model of teachers enabled to enact policy (results from Study B and C)
6.0 Conclusions of the Research

The critical review and associated publications collectively examined the factors that enabled and constrained teachers to exercise agency in curricular reform. The studies sought to explore the processes that sit beneath the surface of curriculum change and developed an understanding of the ways to support teachers in their current practice and guide their future actions. It is hoped that this critical review has provided a more complex concept of teacher agency than is frequently reported in the literature, in a way that is not just theoretically relevant but empirically significant for informing practice. The conclusions that might be drawn from the findings are summarised as follows;

The government significantly controlled the policy process and this limited the extent to which the policy constructors could make a genuine contribution to shaping the vision for physical education. The research provided an understanding of the policy enactment process and highlighted that policy constructors’ freedom to interpret the principles generated within the context of influence was restricted by the government in order to sustain and reinforce their vision of the new curriculum. Policy constructors were not the only stakeholders whose opinions were overlooked. In the political rush to bring about transformational change in Curriculum for Excellence, teacher concerns were largely dismissed; their opinions neglected or disregarded. This research revealed that teachers wanted a central position in curriculum decision making so that they could construct new and relevant ideas about what PE should represent now and in the future. This resulted in a call from the profession for future policy initiatives to be more inclusive, inviting teachers, researchers and academics as partners in a consultative body who have expertise in physical education. This consultative body could influence the role of PE, recognise and build on existing good practice and use innovative research to shape future aspirations for the subject.

Teacher agency was enhanced by the collective experience in that as a group, the teachers possessed emergent properties not possessed by one individual but by the power of the relationship that bound them together. Teachers who felt powerless, unsupported or controlled tended to talk about their individual capacity and this constrained their sense of agency. By contrast, teachers who felt empowered, trusted, and autonomous centred on
collective action and were enabled to exercise collective agency. The collective experience compensated for inexperience or lack of knowledge in the teaching environment and agency was enhanced by: shared strengths, united goals, collective action, collaborative planning and shared accountability. Schools that embraced change contained a social structure that sought to improve external links to professional learning communities and internal links between teachers. Teachers required dialogue and discussion between colleagues to build knowledge and confidence and diminish some of the feelings of risk associated with changing practice. Teachers valued conversations with school’s leadership team but also placed importance on informal discussions with colleagues during lunch breaks and between classes. This was valued more than the concrete agendas associated with CLPL (Career-long Professional Learning).

**Teachers required facilitative leadership, trust, guidance, support, collaboration and direction to empower and buttress their decision-making during their enactment of policy, particularly when faced with the pressures of high-stakes exams.** Teachers required the school’s leadership team to build support for change by providing: guidance, feedback, affirmation, vision, pressure and support during large-scale reform. The cultural, social and material dimensions of the school offered a productive way of understanding why some teachers were able to enact policy changes and others felt constrained to do so. Within the accountability context of high stake exams, teachers found elements of the flexible nature of the new policy positive in principle, however, they became confused, insecure and exacerbated by the lack of coinciding explicit documentation. Within the high stakes nature of the flexible policy framework, PE teachers felt they lacked the necessary tools to be curriculum decision-makers, resulting in a request from PE teachers for more supportive structures to be established.

**Relational contexts might matter more for teacher agency than the national level policy processes**, however future comparative studies are required. When teachers are not able to contribute to discourse within the context of influence and text production, the result is a form of PE that is decided not by teachers, but for teachers (Penney & Evans, 1999). It was anticipated that policy would be less likely to impact on teachers’ practice because, in the absence of opportunities for active participation and influence, teacher agency can be reduced (Vahasantanen 2015). However, the critical review indicated that despite lack of
teacher involvement in the context of influence, difficulties in understanding course documentation and limited structural support, some teachers were able to exercise agency. The flexible nature of the policy allowed teachers freedom to create school-based curriculum development to meet the needs of their pupils and this compensated for the tokenistic involvement in the policy process. The context of schools helped PE teachers to enact policy in two relational ways: firstly, through the interpersonal relationships formed between PE teachers and secondly through the teacher/pupil relationship. The established social and cultural context of the PE department provided a familiar structure for teachers to exercise agency and this transferred into an environment that enabled them to enact the new policy. The social nature of PE departments and the shared physical environments in which they work positioned teachers in an already secure and familiar context to use their collective agency to enact policy. PE teachers regularly engaged in team teaching and collaborative practice which created a sense of collective agency. In addition, teachers achieved agency by focusing on pupils’ needs. This pupil-centered approach led PE teachers to exercise their agency to ‘get it right’ for every child, but this resulted in them working extended hours to overcome limitations. While this was commendable that teachers cared so much for their pupils and their success, the amount of work and pressures associated were unsustainable.

This research established that policy enactment and agency were two sides of the one coin. The research extended the literature by combining concepts and theories of policy enactment and teacher agency and viewed them as interconnected. The findings indicated that teacher agency was exercised during policy enactment when actors were provided with opportunities to shape responses to a given task, in a way that involved them in a dynamic socially embedded process. School-based curriculum development created opportunities for teachers to exercise their agency, to understand, translate and enact policy – it was this process that allowed them to make sense of CfE. This concept of enactment in schools provided an understanding of the policy process and its relationship with teacher agency. It goes beyond the conception of schools as static organisations and portrays schools as complex, dynamic, social environments where teachers connect with and understand new policy by exercising their agency. Agency was necessary for policy enactment, but in the same way, the conditions of policy enactment enabled agency.
6.1 Recommendations

The critical review contains certain recommendations that may inform and guide future policy initiatives. This current research has implications, not only for national curricula but also for any reform initiatives that involve teachers in the enactment of policy reform. The findings from this critical review raise awareness of the structures that enable and constrain teacher agency during educational reform.

The findings contained within this critical review could inform the development of programs in Initial Teacher Education (ITE) towards a more comprehensive understanding of preparing teachers to exercise their agency in times of change. To encourage teachers to engage in the process of reflexive deliberation, either informally or formally, on their professional journey to enhance their agency. However, the responsibility does not lie solely with ITE, not least because agency cannot simply be learnt and applied. ITE has an influential role to play in developing reflective practitioners, encouraging collaborative practice and in emphasising the importance of clear dialogue. The findings suggest that these aspects need to be intentionally nourished in schools, during CLPL (career-long professional learning) by professional bodies and through the broader network.

The critical review contains recommendations for school leadership as a way of guiding, supporting and arranging structures that enable teachers to recreate policy within their unique setting. To plan and encourage collegiate practice among key stakeholders by creating space for formal and informal conversation to take place. To encourage teachers to consider and negotiate the structures necessary to enable them to enact new policy directives through a process of reflexive deliberation. Future research might consider the inclusion of observational data and notes from departmental meetings to allow the exploration of collaboration and collective agency to be examined at departmental and whole school level.

Finally, the critical review contains recommendations for those tasked with responsibility for policy reforms to include teachers, academics and researchers in the policy process, not just in their local context but in the context of influence and text production. Good practice involves considerably more than the tokenism of inviting into the policy-making process a few like-minded professionals, marginalising the rest. Extensive consultation of a genuine
kind is required to enable those who possess expertise in PE to create policy based on existing good practice and empirical evidence of innovative practice, while guarding against government dominance.

6.2 Concluding Statement

Plans and strategies introduced by the Scottish Government in the form of educational policies are far from new, yet knowledge about progress in achieving educational transformation has been minimal with empirical evidence scant. Tracking educational reform over time provided a significant vantage point to identify factors supporting and inhibiting teachers to exercise agency, at the level of both nation-state and the individual institution. This critical review used the concepts of policy discourse, enactment, and agency to highlight the complex processes of the policy cycle, in particular, the ways in which educational reforms are adopted, ignored or resisted by actors in their local context. The challenge for any reform initiative is for the government to communicate a consistent policy message while encouraging individual local ownership at institutional level.

It is hoped that this critical review will influence future reforms, so that policy reflects a process that is democratic, dynamic and inclusive (Bowe et al., 1992). In this way, teachers and other key stakeholders could be involved in the process, to develop, debate and articulate a clear vision of what physical education should look like now and in the future. This would allow policy to be aligned with the knowledge and practices of teachers, the needs of their pupils and importantly based on empirical evidence. Teachers make a valuable contribution to the curriculum reform process and are strategic in preserving, protecting and safeguarding certain conceptions about what it means to be physically educated. Yet, without a significant understanding of how context-bound relational agency is constructed and exercised through policy enactment, contemporary policy initiatives are likely to fall short of the transformational changes anticipated, a problem noted by Weatherley & Lipsky (1977) forty years ago.

It is hoped that the findings from this critical review and associated publications will inform and empower political authorities, teachers, managers, researchers and academics to make a real and valued contribution to the policy enactment process. In a way that not only
sustains their current level of commitment to the process, but extends and fuels their dedication to both student learning and transformational practice now and in the future.
7.0 Contribution to Research

These research studies, conducted in ‘real time’, are the first and only papers to review teacher enactment of policy in the Scottish curriculum within PE. As specified in the PhD by Publications guidelines, I have either led or made major contributions to all of the work that has been published by more than one author as detailed below;

Study A: Policy Constructors

‘Policy construction’ (papers 2 and 3), were the first of their kind, forming two qualitative research studies involving ten policy constructors invited by the Scottish Government to write the CfE policy text within the context of influence and the context of text production. This research was undertaken by three researchers. This research created a platform for the next research area which reviewed teachers’ perceptions and translation of the policy text, compared to policy constructor intentions.

Study B: Teachers Enactment of Large-Scale Curricular Reform

Papers 4 and 5 examined CfE at the micro-implementation stage of the policy process within the ‘context of practice’. Paper 4 examined PE teachers’ perceptions of change within broad general education and compared their responses to policy constructors. Following the pattern of curriculum development, paper 5 examined teachers perceptions of National qualifications in PE. The research team consisted of 4 researchers for paper 4 and two for paper 5. I was the lead researcher for both papers.
Study C: Teacher Agency

The longitudinal study (papers 1 and 6) top and tail the research in enactment. In paper 1 data was gathered via a questionnaire over 4 years examining the aspects of the University course and practicum that impacted student teacher confidence. In addition, 10 student teachers were interviewed to identify the factors that influenced their confidence. The follow-up research (paper 6) traced the same participants 10 years on to examine teacher confidence and sense of agency to teach dance as part of Health and Well-being and Expressive Arts. I was the sole author of both research papers responsible for all aspects of the research process.

7.1 Impact of the Findings of the Research

In total 525 questionnaires were administered and 50 interviews conducted.

Published paper 1 was internally reviewed and accepted for the University’s 2008 RAE. Papers 2, 3, and 4 were included in the University’s 2014 REF. Papers 4 and 6 are currently being reviewed internally for the 2020 REF. In addition, the findings from the research have been accepted and presented at 14 conferences globally including the UK, Spain, Turkey, America and Canada.

The critical review has had, and continues to have significant implications for practice:

The research has impacted the University courses in the MA(PE) programme. Individual courses have been rewritten to incorporate the findings into the student coursework. Specifically, the perspectives, practicum and pedagogy and curriculum courses. This led to the external examiners commenting that the course was at the ‘cutting edge of research, integrating complex theories that inform and guide pedagogical practice in physical education’. As a result of the findings, we have created a resource that encourages the students to engage in the process of reflexive deliberation through using ecological model of agency, that helps prepare them for placement (see Appendix 21).

Currently, our research group is working with teachers and senior school managers to share the findings from studies A and B during our PERF conference series. The PERF
conference promotes a partnership approach involving cooperation from students, teachers, senior managers and government officials seeking to solve shared problems and address needs that benefit the whole PE community. All conference presentations were recorded live and streamed internationally with course notes disseminated to our international PE audience.

The results from Study C have led to schools in Scotland reconsidering the place and position of dance within their curricular design.
8.0 References Cited in the Critical Review


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APPENDICES
A longitudinal study to ascertain the factors that impact on the confidence of undergraduate physical education student teachers to teach dance in Scottish schools

Justine MacLean University of Edinburgh, UK

Abstract

This paper reports on the complex construct of student teacher confidence and the usefulness of practicum and the ITE course in preparing students to teach dance in their pre-probationary years. A longitudinal study tracked 85 students (f = 46, m = 39) for four years during their undergraduate degree programme in physical education (PE). Students completed questionnaires annually to ascertain the factors that impacted on their confidence to teach dance. In addition, ten student teachers took part in semi-structured individual interviews after their third and final year teaching practicum. Multiple regression results indicated that a model of ‘previous experience’, ‘practicum’ and the ‘university dance module’ explained 55 percent (female) and 43 percent (male) of the variance in level of perceived confidence to teach dance. Comparative analysis of the interviews supported the findings from the questionnaires and revealed that students’ sense of identity was central to producing feelings of confidence to teach dance.

Key-words: confidence • dance • teacher education

Introduction

The unique contribution creative dance makes to the developing child is well documented in the Scottish guidelines for physical education (PE) in both primary and secondary schools (Scottish Office Education Department (SOED), 1992). However, to teach dance effectively, teachers need to construct an environment that encourages pupils to develop creatively, aesthetically, emotionally and physically. Crucially, there is an expectation that creative dance involves pupils in a process that draws on their emotions and ideas in a way that allows communication of the inner self as they develop creative movement responses to a given task. For many pupils, specifically males, this is a totally new experience and, as such, dance can be met with some resistance (Flintoff, 1991; Gard, 2003). Much of the resistance is related to the gender
identities of male pupils and their preconceived ideologies of dance (Gard, 2003). Therefore, in such a climate the undergraduate student teacher requires a degree of confidence to teach dance effectively in primary and secondary schools.

In Scotland, students training to teach PE in either the primary or secondary sector follow a four-year honours degree or a one-year postgraduate diploma. The four-year undergraduate degree is underpinned by the Scottish Office Education and Industry Department policy, where the overall aim is to ‘prepare students to become competent and thoughtful practitioners’ (SOEID, 1998: 1). Each year of the programme is comprised of four components, Physical Education Curriculum, Physical Education Perspectives, Education, and a school-based practicum. Practicum is recognized as a major instrument in programme integration and is designed to ensure that students acquire practical knowledge and understanding of the professional, curricular and pedagogical demands of teaching PE at all stages of primary (pupils aged 5–12) and secondary (pupils aged 12–18) education.

As part of their preparation for the first two school-based practicums, student teachers participate in a twenty-hour compulsory dance module which is presented as two ten-hour units. The first unit, which occurs before the first practicum, prepares students to teach dance in the primary and secondary school with a focus on creativity, choreography and the principles related to the craft of dance composition. The second unit, which precedes the second practicum, covers Scottish dance and a range of dance styles from across the world. Both units are underpinned by pedagogy and curriculum initiatives. It is expected that, by the end of their module, students will be able to plan, teach, assess and create dances for pupils in the primary and secondary school.

**Background**

There is an expectation that all Scottish schools will include dance as part of the PE curriculum at both primary and secondary school level. The recommendation of the 5–14 National Guidelines (SOED, 1992) is for every pupil to experience dance through the expressive arts component of the Scottish curriculum. However, in 1995 the SOEID *Effective Learning and Teaching in Scottish Secondary Schools: Physical Education* stated that dance had suffered serious neglect in many schools, ‘a number of departments, however, fail to provide pupils with an experience of dance and those courses that are provided often lack variety and quality’ (1995: 28).

A similar pattern was emerging in schools in England where research indicated that opportunities to teach dance were lacking for many students (Green et al., 1998; Rolfe and Chedzoy, 1997). This can have serious implications since opportunities to teach dance have been shown to directly correlate with students’ perceived confidence to teach dance (Chedzoy, 2000; Mawer, 1996). In an attempt to understand student teacher confidence, Appleton investigated how confident student teachers were to teach science and reported on the difference in perceived confidence before and after a science unit teaching course. He found that more science knowledge was not
necessary for improved confidence but rather ‘a more positive self-image of themselves as teachers of science and technology’ (1995: 366). His research supported the empirical work of Crane (1974) which identified that those students who have a high degree of self-acceptance and acceptance of others are those that settle into a teaching career successfully.

Consideration of student identity in a teaching situation can help explain the particular tensions that may be experienced in front of a class. Focusing on the teacher as performer highlights the anxieties and hopes that a novice teacher can be pre-occupied with and how this distracts attention from the teaching–learning environment (Anderson and Fraser, 2002). In essence, a student teacher’s concentration is likely to be more focused towards ‘self’, the ‘performance’ and the teaching ‘act’. It is useful to remember that there are degrees of risk and consequent personal vulnerability associated with teaching any activity. Matters such as successful performance, pupils’ response and catering for individual needs arise. For the student teacher teaching dance, however, it is possible that a rather more unique series of concerns emerge. These concerns include pupil acceptance of dance as an activity and pupils’ enjoyment of content. Concerns more specific to the student teacher may include fears surrounding the performance of dance, recall of content and the ability to teach motifs. Consequently, teaching dance requires not just self-confidence but courage also, especially if the activity of dance is met with some resistance. Therefore, it is possible that, given the risks and pressures associated with teaching, the prospect of losing face in front of a class may prevail over the aims and objectives of the teaching episode.

Work by Goffman (1959, 1971) was influential in encapsulating the preservation, attack and defence of self and how this affects ‘face’. Face was seen as a positive social construct that a person chooses for himself or herself in a particular situation in which a strong connection is made between face and feelings.

If the encounter sustains an image of him that he has long taken for granted, he probably will have few feelings about the matter. If events establish a face for him that is better than he might have expected, he is likely to ‘feel good’; if his ordinary expectations are not fulfilled, one expects that he will ‘feel bad’ or ‘feel hurt’. (Goffman, 1967: 6)

Goffman relates the face of others and one’s own face as ‘constructs of the same order’, being determined by the rules of the group and the particular situation in which one finds oneself. The strength of the rules and situation determine the strength of feelings attached. In the situation of a person being ‘in face’, feelings of confidence emerge. Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) make a helpful distinction between positive and negative face, with positive face relating to the claims that people make for a positive, consistent self-image which is approved of by others.

The distinction Goffman, Brown and Levinson make about the importance of being ‘in face’ and ‘positive face’ is crucial in recognizing issues that affect student confidence to teach dance. The distinction emphasizes the necessity for students to
keep their self-image intact in order to maintain identity without losing face in front of a teaching group. If this is achieved self-esteem is more likely to be increased and feelings of confidence should emerge.

**Methodology**

The present study explores the construct of confidence and poses the question ‘What are the factors that contribute to student teachers’ confidence to teach dance?’ The research is guided by the phenomenological approach, based on the assumption that human experience makes sense to those who live it (Creswell, 1998: 86). Ideas are drawn from a phenomenological philosophy and this translates into an approach that, first, examines the issue by entering the field of perception of participants; second, looks for the meaning of the participants’ experiences; and finally, sees how they relate to, experience and exhibit the phenomenon.

This paper reports on the complex construct of student teachers’ confidence in teaching dance in Scottish schools. A corollary to that was a focus on the usefulness of practicum and the ITE course in preparing student teachers to teach creative dance during their concurrent, undergraduate practicums. In an effort to better understand factors that influence student teachers’ confidence, a longitudinal approach was adopted. This involved tracking 85 Bachelor of Education (BEd) honours degree students (f = 46, m = 39) over the four years of their undergraduate PE degree programme at the University of Edinburgh. The student teachers were informed that the purpose of the study was to evaluate their confidence in teaching dance during the practicum. Each student consented to take part in the study.

The following research questions were identified:

- How many student teachers are afforded the opportunity to teach dance in schools?
- How effective is the dance module in preparing student teachers to teach dance?
- How effective is practicum in consolidating student teacher learning?
- What factors contribute to student teacher confidence to teach dance?

When students enter the BEd honours degree programme in PE, they arrive with different kinds of experiences of numerous activities. Therefore, it seemed appropriate to gather information about students’ experiences prior to entering university so as to evaluate whether there was a relationship between confidence levels and previous experience. This information was important as the university dance course does not have as a main aim improvement in personal performance but rather the development of student knowledge and understanding in teaching activities.

Data were gathered by means of a questionnaire that was based on the generic University of Edinburgh evaluation form that student teachers are required to complete at the end of each unit (Newble and Cannon, 1991). The questionnaire was designed to gather facts and evaluate attitudes. The first section contained questions of a factual nature, for example, background information (sex, age and previous
experience of dance) and practicum information (number of dance classes taught in primary and secondary school, support received from staff). The second section involved attitudinal questions that dealt with how well the university dance units prepared students to plan, teach, assess and evaluate dance and how confident students felt teaching dance in schools. Responses were made using a four-point Likert scale.

The questionnaire data were analysed with the aid of the SPSS 10 software package. The data consisted of 16 variables that were predominantly nominal/ordinal, therefore non-parametric measures were utilized, although due to the lack of alternatives one parametric multiple regression test was used at the end of the analysis. The multiple regression test allowed determination of the statistical significance of the individual independent variables and the model. It was recognized that multiple regression is normally used with parametric and not non-parametric data, therefore parametric tests were used throughout as a check to see if there was any difference between the parametric and non-parametric result. In all cases, each test indicated the same significant or insignificant score. Based on the strength of this comparative analysis and the lack of an alternative procedure, the researcher felt it beneficial to pursue this line of enquiry. While acknowledging that assumptions for multiple regression have, to a degree, been violated, there are clear indications, in this case, that this was not a significant issue. In addition, descriptive statistics of a univariate nature and inferential statistics were used to test research questions.

A follow-up interview was then used as an exploratory device (Cohen et al., 2000) to evaluate the factors that contribute to student teacher confidence to teach dance. The interviews were conducted after the questionnaire was analysed in order that the results of the analysis could inform, guide and construct the interview questions (Verma and Mallick, 1999). A focused interview (Cohen et al., 2000; Gordon, 1999) was utilized in a semi-structured format with questions and probes (Gillham, 2000). Ten students, five males and five females, who had all previously completed the questionnaire, took part in individual interviews after their practicum experience in their third and fourth year. Purposive sampling (Cohen et al., 2000) was deemed to be appropriate as it allowed a representative group to be selected from a cross-section of responses, thus increasing internal validity (Silverman, 2000). A cross-section of male and female respondents was selected according to their previous experience and practicum experience.

Results

The following three areas emerged from the analysis of the questionnaires as significant in conceptualizing and explaining the phenomena, namely: previous experience, a propitious practicum and the university dance module.

Analysis of the interviews, using the constant comparative method (Cooper and McIntyre, 1993), supported the findings from the questionnaires but also indicated that students’ sense of identity, constructed and affirmed through the ways in which
the pupils regard and respond to them, was also central in producing feelings of confidence to teach dance. This paper reports on the initial findings of this four-year longitudinal survey study.

**Previous experience**

The previous experience of the student teachers varied between male and females. While all student teachers experienced a similar amount of dance lessons in their school curriculum, more than half of the female student teachers had been involved in extracurricular dance. Nevertheless, there was no difference in the male and female perceived ability mean scores despite the variance in dance experience. A positive significant relationship was found between experience and perceived confidence to teach dance, with female respondents ($r = .45, p = .002$). However, a weak insignificant relationship was found with the male respondents ($r = .26, p = .116$). This is not in line with previous findings (Rolfe, 2001) where it was reported that previous experience improved confidence to teach dance. However, Rolfe’s study contained a gender imbalance with nine females and three males. It is apparent that more research needs to be conducted to develop a complete understanding of this issue. It is further speculated that this finding may have gone undetected in past studies due to the high number of female participants. It is clear that there are questions here that need to be addressed before a comprehensive picture can emerge.

**Practicum**

Table 1 shows, as expected, that the practical experience of teaching dance in primary schools increased student confidence to teach dance (year 1), supporting the work of Mawer (1996), Chedzoy (2000) and Rolfe (2001). In contrast, the school-based practicum in secondary school in year 2 revealed a reduction of teaching time in dance, with only 36.5 percent of students having the opportunity to teach dance. Additionally, male student teachers had less experience of teaching dance than their female counterparts ($p = .01$). This trend was repeated in the third and fourth year practicums, where the male students taught considerably less dance than the females (year 3, $p = .005$; year 4, $p = .001$). These results suggest that dance is still gender stereotyped (Oluko, cited in Downey, 1996). Opportunities to teach dance increased in the third year practicum (84%). Sentiments expressed by the student teachers contextualize the importance of opportunities to teach dance.

It’s all down to practice, isn’t it? If you don’t get out there and practise then you really need to know how it feels. You need to be with a class and practise. (Respondent 5, Female)

More experience, more time teaching dance. I learnt a lot through placement. When the weeks went on I got more confident and more relaxed . . . as time went on I got a whole lot better at it. (Respondent 6, Male)
The subsequent implication of a lack of experience in teaching dance is clearly expressed in the following response to the question ‘Why are you nervous about teaching dance?’

Lack of experience, just having never done it. And I think more nervous now because there is more pressure on the placement and I think it would be pretty tricky to go into a fourth year placement when it counts towards your grades, having never taken a dance class. It’s kind of like being a first year student taking a class for the first time. (Respondent 8, Male)

These results are in agreement with previous studies conducted by Mawer (1996), Rolfe and Chedzoy (1997), Green et al. (1998), Chedzoy (2000) and Rolfe (2001) and reinforce the school context as being of central importance in providing a progressive and purposeful learning experience. Providing student teachers with the opportunity to teach dance allows them the scope to plan lessons in a progressive manner. Teaching dance develops a confidence in student teachers to trust that they can develop movement to music and create an environment that permits pupils to be creative. Observing the progression of both the lesson and pupils’ involvement re-affirms the ability of the student teacher and allows them to adapt where necessary for the following lesson. It is this testing ground that provides a platform for student teachers to evaluate the technical and artistic elements of dance; to foster the creative process and the interrelationships amongst dance (Downey, 1996); to demonstrate their knowledge of music and structured rhythm and to practise using a vocabulary that expresses the qualities of movement.

The centrality of practicum was reinforced through the results of the questionnaire. The findings in primary school (year 1) clearly indicated that the school context provided opportunities for students to consolidate their own learning of dance and as a result had an impact on their confidence. The results indicated teaching dance in primary school positively affected the confidence levels of both male ($r = .46$, $	ext{p}<.05$) and female ($r = .32$, $	ext{p}<.05$) student teachers.
No relationship was found between practicum and confidence to teach dance in secondary school. It is possible that this was due to the low number of student teachers who taught dance in their second year practicum, combined with lack of opportunities for them to practise teaching dance. However, this does not explain the lack of confidence expressed by student teachers after their third year of practicum. Student teachers taught a considerable amount of dance classes throughout their eight-week practicum in third year (male ~14 lessons and female ~19 lessons), yet no relationship was found between confidence and the number of classes taught. The timing of practicum might have had a significant impact on the number of dance classes taught since the students were placed in schools in the winter term when Scottish Country Dance is taught in preparation for Christmas social events. It is usual in Scotland for single-sex classes to be joined together to allow the male and female pupils to dance together and as a result class sizes can be quite large. The students’ experience of teaching dance revealed some interesting factors that impacted on the female students’ confidence. In interviews student teachers revealed that they were expected to teach Scottish Country Dance to class sizes in excess of 50 pupils.

It’s easy enough to get a small group to dance but when there’s a class of fifty all staring at you and forty nine don’t want to be there! (Respondent 5, Female)

It was quite intimidating the first time I taught Scottish Country Dancing. The first couple of weeks I didn’t know what to expect so I went in with the teachers to watch them. There would be fifty to sixty kids in the gym with two class teachers, but it was quite difficult, in the way that one or two people were struggling. Then it was hard to get round everyone . . . you just couldn’t spend as much time as you need to give the pupils the confidence that they need. (Respondent 7, Male)

The fear of teaching large classes could be a threat to any teacher. However, anxiety could become intensified if the activity of dance was met with some resistance. Hastie and Saunders (1991) reported that pupils were reportedly off-task significantly more often in large class sizes, with an increase of 30 percent of time being spent on organizational issues. It is feasible to presume that teaching dance in these circumstances (i.e. large class sizes) could have a detrimental effect on student teacher confidence. There is a concern that this type of experience could eventually neutralize the benefits of the university based dance course, supporting findings by Rolfe (2001: 159) who stated the ‘impact of the university course may be gradually eroded through lack of opportunity to consolidate and develop new learning’. However, acknowledgement must be given to the type of opportunity offered. Student teachers need to experience an effective dance lesson in a manageable environment in order that confidence grows and their identity is reaffirmed. Findings from the present study (practicum year 3) show that in an adverse environment (i.e. large class sizes) student confidence is severely diminished, particularly in females.
Further, the support and advice that a student teacher receives about his/her teaching from members of staff in school is a valuable tool in aiding progression of the teaching and learning process (McNamara, 1995). The support provided by qualified teachers at primary school level was rated highly by 21 percent of students, with the majority (67%) requiring more help. The support provided at secondary school level, in the students’ second year practicum, was interpreted cautiously due to the low numbers of students (8 male and 22 female) who were given the opportunity to teach dance. Support was rated highly by student teachers in their third and fourth year of study, with 91 percent evaluating support as being average to excellent.

They (teachers) took me and taught me how to do a lot of the dances... then I had a basic idea of what each dance was. That gave me confidence.

(Respondent 2, Female)

Students commented on other aspects of their teaching that had impacted on their confidence. Familiarity of content was one aspect that was conducive to a productive environment. Students who were allowed to teach their own dances, previously learnt through the university module, were more confident teaching than those who were asked to teach a new dance.

When you sit at home and you work through the music and the moves and you stand back from the class and they’re doing your dance on their own. It was quite rewarding, I quite enjoyed that. It was the best part, really.

(Respondent 6, Male)

If you’ve planned it well and you’ve got it right in your head what you’re going to do then, if maybe it’s your own dance and you know what’s coming next, it’s a lot easier and it gives you confidence if you know what you’re doing.

(Respondent 7, Male)

The experience of watching a dance progress and providing pupils with the opportunity to contribute their own parts to the dance was particularly pleasing for students.

I couldn’t believe they could adapt my ideas in so many ways.

(Respondent 9, Male)

It’s quite an easy thing to teach once you get going. You can get the kids to make up their own parts of the dance and express themselves through it so you don’t have to be constantly teaching it. Splitting them up into group tasks makes it easier for organizing the class.  

(Respondent 2, Female)

Another key aspect of student confidence related to the content of the dance lesson and the music selected. Initial fears were diminished when pupils responded positively to the task set.

It’s only seeing the kids enjoy the dance that I kind of relax a bit and think, Oh, hey this is not that bad, and I enjoy it more myself.  

(Respondent 1, Female)
The dance module

The Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programme meets the demand of preparing student teachers to teach dance by offering a dance element within the BEd honours degree course in physical education. Each student teacher follows a compulsory dance module in the first two years of their training (ten weeks in each year) followed by the option of selecting dance in their final year as a module elective. University educators involved in teacher education programmes understand the important role of preparing students to teach to the best of their ability. Therefore, any course designed to educate and train a student to teach requires to be monitored so as to measure how effectively it has been conducted. Preparation for planning, teaching and assessing dance along with the provision of resources formed the framework for evaluating the dance module.

Student teachers responded positively towards the module and indicated that, although some students had no prior experience of dance, they felt that the dance module had adequately prepared them for teaching in schools. The largest beta coefficient for males ($r = .55, p = .000$) and females ($r = .60, p = .000$) in the multiple regression test indicates that the dance module makes the strongest unique contribution to student confidence to teach dance during practicum.

What gives you confidence to teach dance?

The fact that I have had good content in university. The fact that I’ve had a fair bit of practice standing in front of a class and delivering dance sessions, and probably the fact that within the dance courses that we’ve done in Uni, we’ve had to make up our own dances. You really don’t have to be the best dancer to enjoy it and that’s what I enjoyed about the dance course in Uni.

(Respondent 7, Male)

Comments were expressed about the student teachers’ lack of ability to assess dance and this is perhaps symptomatic of the module design. Student teachers are required to observe, assess and suggest improvements in an informal teaching environment but time does not permit this to be conducted formally. This is an area that will be looked at fully in future modules and perhaps it needs to be addressed in schools also.

It is possible that the inclusion of micro teaching episodes set up within the dance module could provide opportunities to help students practise teaching dance. This could, to some extent, bridge the gap between content and practice and possibly
compensate for the lack of dance teaching opportunities in schools. Student teachers thought that this would be a helpful process.

If you taught students a dance and then the next lesson they would have to teach other students that dance and get shown how to teach and still have the support of the tutor while in uni. (Respondent 2, Female)

However, it is unlikely that in today’s climate ITE programmes will be allocated more class contact time. Therefore, in order to provide opportunities within the module to practise teaching dance, content and teaching ideas would be reduced. Other aspects of the dance module, as noted in the interviews that helped increase student confidence, included simplistic content ideas and the ability to break down, adapt and differentiate motifs.

Student teacher identity

The issue of identity was central to student teachers’ feelings of confidence to teach dance. Directly and indirectly, student teachers talked about how they would be perceived by a class, ‘I’ll make a fool of myself’, ‘am I going to embarrass myself?’ ‘I need a social mind set change that convinces me it’s not humiliating’. These expressions are indicative of the students’ feelings of vulnerability and exposure and emphasize the role of teacher as performer. The focus on ‘I’ demonstrates clearly the students’ preoccupation with self, their performance and the way they will be perceived by a class. This is in keeping with Goffman’s (1967) research on preservation, attack and defence of self and how this affects ‘face’. One student talked about the prospect of experiencing threats to ‘face’ (Brown and Levinson 1978, 1987) in front of a class:

I think it’s just the horror of ‘is this going to fall flat on its face, am I going to embarrass myself, is it going to end in uproar’ . . . it’s all these kind of fears that I’ve got. (Respondent 3, Male)

In this vulnerable position the prospect of teaching an activity that may be met with some resistance and therefore received negatively by pupils becomes a test of a student teacher’s identity. This reinforces the work by Stephen (1996) who comments on self being constructed and affirmed by the ways in which other people respond. This was evidenced on a number of occasions throughout the interviews when student teachers commented on enjoying teaching dance once the pupils accepted them and the activity.

If it’s something that I feel the kids will enjoy then I feel more confident teaching it, whereas if they can’t relate to the dance then I feel less confident. It’s all about how they are going to react. (Respondent 6, Male)

It became evident from the interviews that the teaching of dance requires a substantial amount of confidence and self-esteem for students to maintain their identity. If, however, the teacher or the activity is met with some resistance then confidence is
severely diminished and student teacher identity threatened. This supports the work by Appleton (1995) who stated that a more positive self-image is required to improve confidence.

An awareness of gender issues was evidenced, particularly with the male student teachers throughout the interviews. One male student teacher commented on the activity of dance being more suited to females. He was a mature student teacher and felt that ‘something in my mind, could be an age thing, tends to pigeonhole dance more towards females’ (Respondent 3, male). This response highlights the cultural and historical development of identity formulated by preconceived notions of dance (Gard, 2003; Stephen 1996) and emphasizes a view held by Giddens (1991) that identity is formulated through a person’s biography.

Further comments were made about male reluctance to express emotion:

If you present dance to children, there is a kind of gender issue. Boys don’t like to give over any emotion and don’t like to get involved as much. I think Scottish Country Dance takes that away. It’s a formula dance and you’re kind of involved in not conveying a message or emotion. (Respondent 8, Male)

The problem of gender as it impacts on dance is a very real concern since the future of dance lies in the hands of PE teachers (Stevens, 1991). Problems are not unique to Scottish schools. Research conducted by Oluko in 1995 investigated Canadian students’ perceptions of sport appropriateness as a function of gender and culture (Downey, 1996). The study examined numerous physical activities and indicated that creative dance was rated more appropriate for females than for males. A more recent study carried out by McCormack (2001) investigated the use of reflective strategies to develop attitudes and skills in teaching dance in PE by a group of first year pre-service teachers in Australia. The study identified significant gender differences in the attitudes expressed by the pre-service teachers towards teaching dance.

The British Arts Council (1993: 4) recognized gender bias in dance by stating ‘popular prejudice aligns dance with femininity and, therefore, dancing for boys is seen by some people to be inappropriate’. It is possible that, for some people in society, dance is generally perceived as the province of females rather than males. There seem to be two main reasons for this: the traditional views that society hold of masculinity (Flintoff, 1991; Gard, 2003; McDonald; 1993; Veri, 1999) and the strong influence sport has had on PE courses in male specialist colleges (Stevens, 1991). Flintoff (1991: 33) stated: ‘not many PE teachers, particularly male teachers, are prepared to offload their prejudices enough to make dance teaching attractive and relevant’. Further, Gard (2003: 220) stated ‘it is this association in the minds of male teachers and students which, more than anything else, keeps dance out of physical education classes’.

One student teacher talked about the schools manifesting gender issues.

You get it (gender issues) in teachers as well. The female teachers taught the dance and the males taught the rugby. Dance is seen as a very much a girl thing to do because men and boys are more embarrassed about giving themselves over to the dance. (Respondent 8, Male)
It would appear from the findings that schools and teacher education institutions need to break down the gender stereotypes surrounding the activity of dance and perhaps a good starting point would be for both male and female staff to get involved in the delivery of dance courses. Attention needs to be focused away from gender issues in order that both male and female pupils and students can feel comfortable participating in an activity that allows them to perform, create, express and appreciate dance in its many forms.

Of the ten student teachers interviewed in this study, half regularly attended the theatre to watch musicals or dance performances (1 female, 4 male). Being part of the audience was a pleasurable activity for them and filled an important part of their recreational time. An openness to the art world and the aesthetic elements of performance indicated receptiveness to teaching dance in schools. Their acceptance of dance as a familiar activity evoked positive attitudes towards dance in the curriculum. This in turn resulted in a confidence and an enthusiasm to teach dance. All currently felt confident teaching dance with the exception of one, who explained:

The reason I’m not confident is because I’ve never done it before. I’m quite into the performance thing. I could get quite into that, given the opportunity.

(Respondent 8, Male)

**Conclusion**

The multiple regression analysis showed a model that includes ‘previous experience’, ‘practicum’ and the ‘dance module’ explained 55 percent (female) and 43 percent (male) of the variance in level of perceived confidence to teach dance. Of the three variables, the ‘dance module’ made the largest unique contribution to perceived confidence, although ‘previous experience’ made a statistically significant contribution for the female cases. Findings suggest a complicated set of factors that contribute to student teachers’ perceived confidence in teaching dance during practicum. The following four areas emerged from this study as elements that would help conceptualize and partly explain the phenomena: student teacher identity, previous experience, a propitious practicum and the experience of the university dance module.

The student teacher’s sense of identity, as teachers of dance, was central to producing feelings of confidence. The historical and cultural context of the students who had a background and interest in the performing arts led to a feeling of confidence to teach dance. Their acceptance of dance as a familiar activity evoked positive attitudes towards dance in the curriculum. This, in turn, resulted in confidence and enthusiasm to teach dance. Each student teacher’s sense of identity was subject to the ways in which the pupils responded to them and in their affirmation and enjoyment of the task set. Gender issues arose as significant to the acceptance of dance and it was suggested that both female and male members of staff should be involved in the delivery of dance courses in order to minimize any gender bias. It became clear that if the student teacher or the activity was met with resistance, then confidence was severely diminished and identity threatened.
A positive relationship was found between previous experience and confidence to teach dance with female student teachers, whereas only a weak relationship was found with males. It is speculated that this finding may have gone undetected in past studies, mainly involving primary student teachers, due to the high number of female students enrolled on primary teacher training courses. Future investigations could examine why experience of dance amongst male students does not seem to have an impact on perceived confidence when the opposite effect is evidenced with female students. It is clear that there are questions here that need to be looked at before a comprehensive picture can emerge.

During practicum the practical experience of teaching dance was crucial to the development of confidence. The primary school context was of central importance in offering a progressive and purposive learning experience, providing opportunities for student teachers to consolidate their own learning. Student teachers reported a substantial level of dance teaching where they taught creative dance, with some having the opportunity to teach other styles of dance. Staff support provoked a mixed response from student teachers; some required more help but others felt the support was adequate. Unfortunately, opportunities for student teachers to practise teaching dance in secondary schools was limited in two distinct ways; first, in providing opportunities to teach dance and second in providing a varied programme of dance. Many student teachers lacked experience in the teaching of dance in their second year of practicum, although this improved significantly in their third practicum. Some student teachers experienced large class sizes that were unmanageable, especially in Scottish Country Dance and, despite some female student teachers having considerable prior experience of dance, in these circumstances they lacked confidence teaching dance and became negative towards dance in the curriculum. It became clear that a positive experience in dance benefits the student teacher and increases confidence.

The student teachers responded positively towards the university dance module and indicated that, although some students had no prior experience of dance, they felt that they had been adequately prepared for teaching in schools. It became evident from the questionnaire data that the university dance module makes the strongest unique contribution to student teacher confidence to teach dance. In light of this it is imperative that ITE programmes continue to prepare students for the task ahead. Schools also need to be prepared to provide an environment that encourages student teachers in a way that allows their confidence to augment. It is clear that the partnership between schools and teacher education institutions requires to be developed in order to create better understanding of the areas that need to be further developed to strengthen and improve student teachers’ experiences of teaching dance. There is a concern that the benefits of the university dance module may be gradually eroded if the students’ practicum experience is counterproductive.

The relationship between teaching dance and student teacher confidence to teach dance is not straightforward. What augments confidence in male student teachers may not apply to female student teachers and recognition needs to be given to the different ways in which people construct confidence to teach dance. This present study
revealed a more complex picture of this area than findings presented in previous research and as a consequence further research is warranted.

Notes

The author would like to acknowledge John Sproule at the University of Edinburgh for his feedback on this article. Further thanks are due to the 85 student teachers who gave their time to complete questionnaires and take part in interviews.

1. Eighty-five student teachers took part in this research (39 male, 46 female, M age = 18.0, SD = 1.4 at the onset of study).

References


**Résumé**

*Etude longitudinale afin de s’assurer des facteurs en jeu sur la confiance en ses capacités à enseigner la danse chez des enseignants stagiaires en Education Physique dans des écoles écossaises.*

Cet article rend compte de la construction complexe de l’estime de soi chez des enseignants stagiaires et de l’utilité de la pratique et des cours d’ITE dans la préparation des étudiants à enseigner la danse durant leurs années de stage.

Une étude longitudinale a suivi quatre-vingt-cinq étudiants (46 filles et 39 garçons) pendant leurs quatre années de formation en éducation physique. Les étudiants ont rempli annuellement des questionnaires pour s’assurer des facteurs en jeu sur leur confiance en leur capacité à enseigner la danse. De plus, dix étudiants ont pris part à des entretiens individuels semi-directifs après leur troisième et dernière année de pratique d’enseignement De
multiples résultats indiquent qu’un modèle d’expérience passée’, de ‘pratique’ et de ‘module de danse universitaire’ expliquait 55 % pour les filles et 43 % pour les garçons des variations dans leur confiance en leur capacité à enseigner la danse. Une analyse comparative des entretiens a confirmé les données des questionnaires et révélé que le sentiment d’identité des étudiants était primordial pour produire des sentiments de confiance à enseigner la danse.

**Resumen**

Estudio longitudinal para comprobar los factores que influyen en la confianza de estudiantes de Educación Física para la enseñanza de la Danza en Escuelas Escocesas.

Este artículo trata sobre el complejo proceso de la construcción de la confianza de los estudiantes de Educación Física y la utilidad del Practicum y del curso ITE en su preparación para la enseñanza de la danza en los años que se encuentran en período de prueba. Un total de 85 estudiantes fueron seguidos a lo largo de un estudio longitudinal de cuatro años de duración coincidentes con sus estudios de grado en Educación Física. Anualmente, los estudiantes cumplimentaron cuestionarios para conocer los factores que influyan en su grado de confianza para enseñar danza. Además, diez estudiantes fueron sometidos a entrevistas individuales semi estructuradas después de su tercer y último año del practicum de enseñanza. Los resultados obtenidos a través de regresión múltiple indicaron que el modelo compuesto por la ‘experiencia previa’, ‘practicum’ y el ‘módulo de danza universitario’, explicaba el 55% (mujeres) y el 43% (hombres) de la varianza del nivel de confianza percibida para enseñar danza. El análisis comparativo con las entrevistas respaldaron los hallazgos del cuestionario y revelaron que el sentimiento de identidad de los estudiantes fue un aspecto clave a la hora de generar sentimientos de confianza para enseñar danza.

**Zusammenfassung**

Eine langjährige Studie zur Determinierung der Faktoren, die Einfluß auf die Zufriedenheit von Studenten des Lehramts für Sport beim Unterrichten von Tanz an schottischen Schulen haben


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The ebb and flow of curriculum construction in physical education: a Scottish narrative

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The ebb and flow of curriculum construction in physical education: a Scottish narrative

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Within Scotland’s new curriculum, a Curriculum for Excellence, physical education (PE) has been relocated from ‘Expressive Arts’ to ‘Health and Wellbeing’. The repositioning of PE could result in a shift in the way PE is conceptualised. In order to understand this shift, we conducted in-depth, one-to-one interviews with 10 participants who contributed to the development of the new policy text for PE. The results from this study provide a narrative that describes the process of developing policy text for PE. Additionally, the participants described a process of consultation and debate, and referred to decision-making based on national initiatives linked to improving children’s health. However, there was also evidence to suggest that the government controlled the process and that this control limited the extent to which the participants could make a genuine contribution to shaping the vision for PE. In making the process of developing curriculum text for PE more explicit, it is hoped that this study will encourage teachers and other key stakeholders to read the documentation that was produced in a critical way and have a greater understanding of the policy development process.

Keywords: curriculum; health and wellbeing; physical education; policy; Scotland

Introduction

Scotland has a new curriculum, the Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) (Scottish Government 2004a). Within this new curriculum, physical education (PE) is set within the area of ‘Health and Wellbeing’, now the responsibility of all teachers alongside the other core areas of the curriculum, literacy and numeracy. In order to support teachers in the delivery of this new PE curriculum, documentation has been provided by Learning and Teaching Scotland (LTS), the government-funded body responsible for education reform, which outlines the ‘experiences and outcomes’ for PE. Experiences are defined as the ‘set expectations for the

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kinds of activities which will promote learning and development’ and outcomes ‘set out what the child or young person will be able to explain, apply or demonstrate’ (Scottish Government 2008, 23). For teachers and other key stakeholders, understanding the nature of the change to the PE curriculum and the way in which the ‘experiences and outcomes’ were developed is important. This will enable them to read the documentation in an informed and critical manner, thus developing knowledge and understanding that is important for professional development and practice. To develop this understanding, it is necessary to go beyond the policy documentation and expose the perceptions and ideas that surround its intentions and justifications (Humes 2003).

Consequently, this article reports on the findings of a study that aimed to explore the policy-makers’ experiences of curriculum construction as they developed a vision of PE within CfE. More specifically, the research focused on the processes that took place as a ‘vision’ of a PE curriculum embedded within the health and wellbeing domain became, in effect, a rhetorical reality.

**Background**

The re-establishment of the Scottish parliament in 1999 resulted in the Scottish government and the Minister for Education having devolved responsibility for educational policy (O’Brien and Christie 2008). Subsequently, National Priorities in Education pertaining to the following five broad areas were approved in December 2000 (Humes 2003, 77–8):

- Achievement and attainment
- Framework for learning
- Inclusion and equality
- Values and citizenship
- Learning for life.

The National Priorities in Education aimed to empower teachers and learners, and ensure that every child in Scotland reached their full potential (Scottish Government 2004b). In order to realise fully the priorities, there was also a call for a more integrated curriculum that placed the pupil at the centre of the learning process (Scottish Government 2004a). This call was, in part, as a result of the National Debate on Education in 2002, where the Scottish government encouraged public debate and feedback about all aspects of education in Scotland. It was against this backdrop that the Scottish government established a Review Group to identify the key principles to be applied in the curriculum redesign for ages 3–18. The outcome of the Review Group’s
work was CfE (Scottish Government 2004a). This ‘document’ outlined a vision for education in Scotland in the twenty-first century, drawing on the successes of past curricular innovations while recognising the need to prepare our young people for an ever-changing future (Scottish Government 2004a). Put simply, this was perceived to necessitate an education system designed to nurture the capacities which have now become the foundation of CfE, namely:

- Successful learners
- Responsible citizens
- Confident individuals
- Effective contributors (Scottish Government 2004a).

Within CfE, PE is located within the domain of health and wellbeing. The key aims of this area of the curriculum are to develop pupils’ knowledge and understanding, skills, capabilities and attributes necessary for mental, emotional, social and physical wellbeing now and in the future (Scottish Government 2009).

**Policy level conceptions of physical education**

Many academics and researchers have vigorously debated the ‘nature’ and ‘purpose’ of PE and these debates are well documented in the literature (Reid 1996; Green 2000; Penney and Jess 2004; Bailey et al. 2008). Prior to the inception of CfE and health and wellbeing, PE was depicted as a subject area charged with the development of movement and affective and cognitive competences across a range of physical activities (Scottish Examination Board 1988, 1993; Scottish Office Education Department 1992). This was the case both for non-certificated PE, where PE was located within the ‘Expressive Arts’ domain of the 5–14 curriculum, and for certificated PE, a programme that pupils can elect to do in their senior school years. The positioning of PE within the domain of health and wellbeing, and the emerging discourse associating PE with notions of health and increasing physical activity levels, could result in a radical shift in the way PE is conceptualised in contemporary times. However, the extent to which the PE profession was involved in the debates surrounding this reconceptualisation of PE within the Scottish context is unclear. Consequently, it could be argued that terms such as ‘health’ and ‘wellbeing’ as part of the natural discourse of PE may be a means by which those in (political) power can construct a new reality for PE (Gard 2004).

Thorburn draws attention to such powers and claims that: ‘official policy has the potential to operate in relatively autonomous ways when making important decisions about the aims, values and future directions
of a subject’ (2010, 2). While official policy discourse may operate at an ‘autonomous’ level, Penney (2008) argues that key stakeholders within PE, including PE teachers, should engage in such discourse, with ‘education’ as the core reference point. Moreover, she suggests that such engagement in policy and political discourse should be approached from a critical stance, thus acknowledging that terms such as ‘health’, ‘wellbeing’ and ‘lifelong physical activity’ are not politically or socially neutral. These concepts and discourses are shaped to fit certain political interests and agendas (Penney 2008), and according to Fernandez-Balboa and Muros (2006) can signify and endorse particular perspectives on PE at the expense of others.

Reshaping the future

It has been argued that the emphasis on health and wellbeing within the new curriculum, and the core role of PE within the health and wellbeing domain, is primarily related to the government’s concerns about health issues such as obesity and heart disease (Scottish Executive Health Department 2003). Moreover, Scotland’s reputation is one that is becoming readily associated with notions of ill-health and the country features prominently at the top of several league tables for mortality (Horrell, Sproule, and Gray 2011). Indeed, such are the concerns over these issues that not only has the government placed health and wellbeing at the core of the new curriculum in Scotland, it has also developed a policy for all those working with children, Getting it Right for Every Child (GIRFEC) (Scottish Government 2010), that aims to improve both children’s and their parents’ understanding of wellbeing.

Another key initiative that influenced the central placement of health and wellbeing within the Scottish curriculum is the White Paper on health, Towards a Healthier Scotland (Scottish Office Health Department 1999). Among other things, this paper drew attention to the important role PE plays in promoting healthy lifestyles. As a result of the White Paper, a national Physical Activity Task Force (Scottish Government 2003) was set up with a view to increasing and sustaining the proportion of physically active individuals in Scotland. The Task Force made a number of recommendations: children should take part in at least one hour of moderate physical activity every day; they should have access to a wide range of physical activities; and they should be provided with two hours of ‘quality’ PE each week. In response to these aspirations, the Review Group on PE (Scottish Government 2004b) was established and charged with developing and implementing strategies that would improve levels of participation, performance and engagement with PE in Scotland. Underpinning the deliberations of this group was the belief that ‘quality’ PE could improve the health and wellbeing of children, which in turn,
could improve their achievement in schools, their confidence and their ‘capacity’ for learning (Scottish Government 2004b). To ensure that children’s experiences of PE were indeed of ‘quality’, the group identified three key areas for development: teaching approaches, facilities and the PE curriculum. It was suggested that of these three factors, the actual ‘curriculum’ potentially had the greatest impact on pupil participation, performance and attitudes towards lifelong participation in physical activity (Scottish Government 2004b). Subsequently, the report by the Review Group on PE played a key role in the development of PE within the domain of health and wellbeing.

Curriculum development
Within the Scottish context, the responsibility for curriculum development lies with the Scottish government (Munn 1995). The process begins with a political catalyst for change and is driven forward by individuals representing government quangos such as LTS, the Scottish Qualifications Authority (SQA) and Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Education (HMIE). Humes (2003, 76) describes such an approach as ‘fairly authoritarian’ where ‘strategies of containment’ are applied in order to ensure that key individuals, for example, academics, teachers and pupils, remain on the periphery of the decision-making arenas. However, the policy process is more complex than this; it is a dialectical process where the events from legislation through to implementation are shaped by the different perspectives and agendas of those individuals with access to the process (Bowe, Ball, and Gold 1992). In order to understand this complex view of policy development, it is useful to refer to the work of Bowe et al. (1992), who use the term ‘policy cycle’ to describe a process whereby policy is developed and redeveloped within different contexts. This process involves debate, conflict and struggles for power, central to which is the question of who dominates the relationship among those involved in the process (Hatcher and Troya 1994). Bowe et al. describe three arenas of action: the ‘context of influence’, ‘the context of policy text production’ and the ‘context of practice’ (1992).

The ‘context of influence’ is where interested parties struggle over the construction of policy discourse in an attempt to define the purposes of education and what it means to be educated (Bowe et al. 1992), and in this case, physically educated. The influences are political, economic and global, and informed by research, consultation and debate. Given the political influences within this context, it is perhaps not surprising that health and wellbeing was prioritised as one of the core areas of the curriculum. Horrell et al. (2011) draw attention to this point, stating that Scotland remains on or near the top of the international league table for major diseases in the developed world, and they highlight the Scottish
government’s endeavours to increase economic growth by improving the health of the nation.

From the debates and dialogue within the ‘context of influence’ emerge policy concepts, which are then developed into texts within the ‘context of text production’. Once again, this process is complex, and conflict within this context can be rife as those involved in the process bring with them different experiences, knowledge and ideas about the purposes of education. The text that is produced, therefore, is the outcome of struggle and compromise, as those involved in the process compete for control of the representation of policy (Bowe et al. 1992). However, since the aim of policy text is to represent policy, often those individuals involved in the writing process are selected because their experiences, knowledge and values ‘fit’ with the priorities of the government (Humes 2003). Consequently, they develop text that sends a strong and consistent message to teachers about the goals of the curriculum. However, policy writers cannot control the meaning of their text as it enters into the ‘context of practice’. Text is interpreted and re-created and subject to ‘interpretation, slippage and contestation’ (Ball and Bowe 1992, 98). Teachers do not engage with policy text as naïve readers; they come with history, experiences and values of their own which enable them to contest, adopt or adapt the policy text (Ball and Bowe 1992) to suit their own unique environment and the needs of their pupils.

Given the complexity and contestation embedded within policy development, it would appear critical to know and understand more about the processes that were involved in the writing of the final experiences and outcomes for PE within the domain of health and wellbeing. Additionally, since the power relations within each arena have been acknowledged as central to the relative freedom of those operating within the policy development process, Penney (2001) suggests that there is a need for research that explores the human agency within each site and the structures and constraints that provide opportunities for action.

**Methodology**

As this study was particularly interested in policy-makers’ interpretation of events leading to the construction of the PE curriculum, a naturalistic research design was adopted. Research of this nature acknowledges that social reality does not exist in isolation from the social beings’ interpretation of their social context (Pring 2000). To gain the insider view of the process of ‘curriculum construction’ within this Scottish context, it was important to access the perceptions of the policy-makers with a view to illuminating their ‘lived experience’ as they engaged in debates that, in reality, could hold the future of PE in Scotland in their hands.
While the perspectives of these ‘policy-makers’ lay firmly at the heart of this study, the researchers were also integral to the unfolding narrative. They were tasked with the challenge of ‘objectively’ bringing participants’ interpretations of curriculum construction to life, and ensuring that this was not biased by their own ‘outsider view’ and biographies as ‘physical educators’, ‘teacher educators’ and ‘researchers’.

Participants
Purposive sampling (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2000) was deemed appropriate as this ensured that participants included a range of policymakers who were actively involved in constructing the PE curriculum. In order to access information about the development of PE within the health and wellbeing domain, it was important to have a sample that included members of the curriculum development group from each of the key stages of the ‘context of text production’. Additionally, as the composition of each group was difficult to ascertain, snowball sampling was utilised to reveal the key individuals who played an active role in the process. This involved the identification of one member from each group, who then provided the names of other group members who, in turn, identified further participants (Cohen et al. 2000). Consequently, 10 participants from the initial, interim and final stages of developing the experiences and outcomes for PE within health and wellbeing were identified for this study.

Five of the participants (participants 1–5) were drawn from initial stages where key discussions took place concerning the nature of health and wellbeing (and PE). A further five participants were involved in the construction of the experiences and outcomes for PE. Two (participants 6 and 7) were involved around the time that the first draft of experiences and outcomes for PE was constructed (interim) and three (participants 8–10) were involved in the finalisation of these experiences and outcomes (final). One group member who was identified from the interim stage and three group members identified from the final stage did not take part in the study for reasons that included retirement, geographical location and professional commitments.

The five participants involved in the initial discussions about health and wellbeing came from institutions such as initial teacher education (ITE), LTS and HMIE. As a group, the areas of expertise brought to their deliberations included policy writing, curriculum design, health promotion and experience of primary and secondary education. The participants who were involved in the interim and final stages of curriculum construction (developing experiences and outcomes) included PE teachers, LTS representatives, individuals aligned to the ‘Being Well Doing Well’ initiative (Health Promoting Schools Unit...
2004) and Sport Scotland’s ‘Active Schools’ initiative (Scottish Government 2003).

Procedure

The University of Edinburgh Ethical Committee granted ethical approval, and informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to the study. Interview schedules were designed specifically to address the following research questions:

1. Within this Scottish context, what processes led from the inception of the Curriculum for Excellence to the construction of the PE curriculum?
2. What were policy-makers’ interpretations of these processes?
3. What factors influenced the decisions made about the development of policy text for PE within the health and wellbeing domain?

A focused interview schedule (Gordon 1999; Cohen et al. 2000) was utilised in a semi-structured format with questions and probes deemed appropriate for a study of this nature (Gillham 2000). Questions aimed to elicit participants’ knowledge and understanding of the health and wellbeing domain in general, and were divided into three specific areas: (a) the curriculum development process specifically in relation to PE; (b) their own involvement in the process; and (c) the key debates that took place during the three phases of curriculum construction outlined previously.

One-to-one interviews lasting between 40 and 60 minutes were conducted at a convenient time for each participant in their place of work and free from any distractions (August–December 2009). During the interview, the researcher summarised participants’ responses to check for understanding and accuracy and took detailed field notes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim within one month of completion.

Data analysis

Analysis of the interview data was conducted in four phases. First, the transcripts were read and reread in order to become familiar with participants’ responses (Dye 2000). The second phase involved grouping the responses according to the interview questions asked. This provided a context-specific and more focused framework for analysis (Taylor-Powell and Renner 2003), which enabled a preliminary process of identifying emerging thematic categories. This entailed considering the ‘text’ and developing phrases that explained key issues within the data.
in order to summarise their meaning and identify the emergence of categories (Glaser 1965; Podlog and Eklund 2006). Reference to the field notes taken during the interviews further supported the initial analytical process. The third phase involved identifying and further refining the categorisation of key issues discussed by individual participants. This categorisation procedure was independently carried out by all three researchers to ensure investigator triangulation. The final phase of this analysis involved testing the authenticity and robustness of these categories across the 10 interview responses. At this point, the features of all categorical instances were discussed at length until appropriate categorisations were agreed by the three researchers (Sproule et al. 2002).

Results

The process of curriculum construction

Globalisation

Health and wellbeing has been placed at the centre of the new Scottish curriculum. All of the participants believed this to be the case because of global concerns over health and obesity. However, it became clear that, for the majority of the participants, their views about this issue were based on assumption, rather than evidence or rationale. For example, participant 6 asserted:

There are various bits of research that have been done internationally and nationally to show that if young people, you know, they need to have good health mentally and physically.

They later revised this view by stating:

There’s probably research, yeah. I mean I can’t remember exactly off the top of my head but there will be research to show that.

One participant mentioned that evidence from other countries was examined, but not in any depth. Two of the participants (participant 4 and participant 7) stated that the decision to include health and wellbeing as a core part of the PE curriculum was made before their involvement in the respective curriculum groups. Moreover, they did not know who had made this decision. One participant (participant 2) described an event where a representative from LTS attended a European conference on health and wellbeing during which a clear message was relayed about the strong relationship between health, wellbeing and attainment. This participant believed that the LTS representative brought this message back to Scotland and that this had a major impact on the role of health and wellbeing within the new curriculum.
National policy
All of the participants referred to national initiatives that they believed had had an impact on the new curriculum. One of the participants (participant 8) listed a number of national policies that they believed influenced the decision to focus on health and wellbeing, including the report by the Physical Activity Task Force (Scottish Government 2003). They made reference to a consultation on education during which issues such as de-cluttering the curriculum, inclusion and citizenship were raised:

Inclusion agenda, getting it right for every child (GIRFEC), citizenship, all the things, all of those things together, they are not add-ons. They are actually built into this curriculum for excellence. So health sits very much at the centre. (Participant 8)

The process of reconceptualising physical education
In relation to the participants’ knowledge about how the experiences and outcomes for PE came about, all of the participants in this study were able to articulate clearly the aspects of the process with which they were personally involved. However, not all of the participants were able to articulate clearly the complete process from the development of the curriculum area of health and wellbeing to the final experiences and outcomes. It should also be noted that none of the participants was involved throughout the whole process. Despite this, there were no discrepancies between participants’ accounts of what took place. The story which follows is an overview of the participants’ views of how the experiences and outcomes for PE were developed.

There was a general consensus among participants that the government set the policy agenda and played a key role in selecting the members of the Curriculum Review Group. This group comprised individuals from LTS, SQA and HMIE. The culmination of this group’s deliberations was a rationale for CfE and the establishment of eight curriculum areas:

- Expressive arts
- Health and wellbeing
- Languages
- Mathematics
- Religious and moral education
- Sciences
- Social studies
- Technologies.
Interestingly, while reflecting on the placement of PE within the curriculum area of health and wellbeing, one participant stated:

I think some of the questions we had right away back at the beginning was ‘Has this already been decided . . . who has decided this?’ I think it would be fair to say that we never really got an answer for that. (Participant 4)

Once these curriculum areas were established, individuals recommended by the HMIE were invited to be part of preliminary working parties. An initial vision set out for CfE was shared during these sessions, and the health and wellbeing group then took this forward. A range of initiatives such as the framework for ‘Health Promoting Schools’ and international definitions of health and wellbeing played a key role in these early deliberations. Subsequently, this group developed a ‘starter paper’ that served as a blueprint for the development of experiences and outcomes specific to health and wellbeing. The group’s raw ingredients were the ‘rationale’ for CfE, but it also drew upon policy documentation such as Getting it Right for Every Child (GIRFEC) (Scottish Government 2010) as well as the experiences and philosophies of the individual members that constituted the group.

From this point in the process, LTS played a central role in developing experiences and outcomes for the domain of health and wellbeing and in shaping the draft experiences and outcomes for PE. During this time an open consultation process was initiated which invited responses from all interested parties through participation in workshops and conferences. The findings from these consultations informed the decisions made by LTS during the finalisation of these experiences and outcomes. For each of the areas within health and wellbeing this consultation provided feedback which was utilised to refine the final experiences and outcomes.

The participants’ interpretations of the process

Guided by the Scottish government

The participants’ perception of the process of curriculum construction within this Scottish context was that it was government-led at every stage. One participant summarised this well, stating that:

Well clearly the ultimate decision would rest with the programme board, or whoever it was that was coordinating . . . but there was a very, very high level strategic group that oversaw the development of Curriculum for Excellence. (Participant 2)

Participant 3 explained that, during the initial stage of the process, the idea that PE should stand alone from health and wellbeing was debated, but that the final decision was taken out of their hands:
We tried very hard in the initial steering group to hang on to PE and make it PE and health and wellbeing. There was lots of debate about the unique contribution of the physical. But that was followed up by higher politics and that’s why it ended up as part of, and not stand-alone.

However, participant 8 described the process as thorough, robust and very open. Moreover, many of the participants believed government control was important because different personnel were involved at each stage. Management of the whole process at government level, therefore, not only provided guidance, but also provided continuity from within each curriculum area and across curriculum areas.

**Limited awareness**

Although participant 8 (seconded to LTS) had a very good understanding of how their contributions were connected to previous events, not all of the participants were aware of the events that preceded or followed their involvement. One participant, for example, said that when working on the final experiences and outcomes for PE, there was no rationale to work from, and indicated their lack of knowledge about what events led to this point. When asked if they knew anything about the development of the draft experiences and outcomes for PE they responded:

Not really, apart from the fact that there seems to have been a team at LTS, well the government and LTS, who kind of said this is what we wanted to cover, this is kind of what we want it to be like, but I don’t know who actually sat down first of all and wrote. (Participant 10)

Another participant also involved in the development of the final experiences and outcomes said that they did not know anything about how the first draft was developed. When asked if they knew how the initial experiences and outcomes for PE were conceived, this participant said:

No, not really. I can make an assumption, perhaps incorrectly, that they came from the LTS team. (Participant 9)

Participant 6 indicated some concern about a perceived fragmentation of the process, but explained that this might be because of the transient nature of the posts held by those seconded by the government to institutions such as LTS.

**Editing role**

In relation to the changes that were made to the documentation, all of the participants involved with the draft and the final experiences and
outcomes described changes linked to wording and progressions. For example, participant 6 explained:

It was almost like an editorial role. . . . So sometimes we’d just say ‘Well actually you’ve said that there so why, why are you saying it twice?’ So it was as simple as that sometimes. Just simplifying the language without losing the point of what the outcome was.

Factors impacting on the policy development process

**Physical education versus physical activity**

All of the participants highlighted the debates that took place in relation to distinguishing between PE and physical activity. The participants in this study represented both sides of this debate. Those participants who had experience of teaching PE in schools in Scotland believed that it was critical to spend time differentiating between the two terms. Those participants who had no experience of teaching PE in schools in Scotland did not believe that this was a pertinent issue. This debate seemed to take place at each stage of the process.

In the early stages, this debate centred around the idea that PE should have a strong, almost stand-alone position within the health and wellbeing domain so that it would not be lost among the other health and wellbeing agendas, for example, reaching the target of one hour of moderate physical activity each day. By contrast, those participants with no experience of teaching PE in Scottish schools did not fully understand why the PE teachers felt so strongly about this. They believed that the key issue was that children were physically active and that this could be in PE or it could be achieved by walking to school:

And there seemed to be, if I could be quite blunt, there was quite a snobbery from PE teachers that physical activity is the poor relation of physical education. And there were those of us that just wanted the children to be happy and active. (Participant 5)

This debate continued throughout the process, even during the meetings intended to finalise the experiences and outcomes:

There was a lot of discussion around physical activity and PE, because at some points [group member] wouldn’t understand fully what we were talking about because obviously his background is physical activity, and he is not a PE teacher. (Participant 10)

Participant 1 believed that some group members simply did not understand PE and this is why there were such intense debates about the difference between PE and physical activity:
I think generally there has been a perception that PE is just running about, it’s not academic, it’s not had the status, the prestige or whatever, it hasn’t enjoyed that, it’s been seen as not academic if you like. (Participant 1)

Dance as an expressive art

Another key issue was that dance is no longer located within the PE curriculum, but is explicitly located within the expressive arts curriculum. It was unclear to the majority of the participants as to the precise reasons for this change, although one participant (participant 3) claimed it was to do with PE teachers’ ineffective dance pedagogy. Another participant said that it was because those responsible for the development of the expressive arts component of the curriculum did not want to lose dance because they ‘recognised how important the movement aspect was of expressive arts’ (participant 7). Interestingly, however, this participant also alluded to the fact that this decision was more technical in nature, stating that the expressive arts group completed their writing before the health and wellbeing group and so was able to include dance.

Quality physical education

Protecting the two hours of ‘quality’ PE (Scottish Government 2004b) was a major objective for the PE participants involved in this study. One participant explained the difficulties they had in attempting to safeguard this allocation of time:

because one of the things that I was pushing for and pushing for was to have this two hours of PE written into the outcomes and protected, and that was just stripped out and taken out. But interestingly when they went out in their finished format it was back in because of things that had happened at government level. (Participant 7)

Other participants also believed that teaching two hours of PE was a real privilege and an opportunity to make an impact:

I think just the opportunity that Curriculum for Excellence has for PE. We have a place in the sun and getting that message across to practitioners that we are the only subject that has an input target. (Participant 8)

Supporting this view, participants claimed that PE’s position within the curriculum would be much stronger as a result of the two-hour allocation:

With the expectation of two hours for all, then its place is quite high profile within health and wellbeing. (Participant 4)
Discussion

Locus of control

Taken together, the results from this study provide a narrative for the process of developing the experiences and outcomes for PE, and in doing so they reveal important detail that cannot be accessed solely by reading the official policy text. In line with Bowe et al.’s (1992) notion of a policy cycle, the participants describe a process of consultation and debate with reference to national initiatives linked to improving the health of children and young people in Scotland. Moreover, they were generally uncritical of the process and perceived it to be open and fair. However, contrary to this view, there was also evidence to suggest that the process of developing the experiences and outcomes for PE was controlled by the government and that this control limited the extent to which the participants could make a genuine contribution to shaping the vision for PE within the health and wellbeing domain. Any attempt to make a contribution to the process in this way was closely monitored by the government and only accepted if there appeared to be a more global and political justification.

The contributions that were made by the participants in this study, particularly those involved in the writing of the experiences and outcomes for PE, were technical in nature, and consisted of making changes to the language and the structure of the text. Interestingly, the participants were very positive about this process and they did not raise questions in relation to the principles that underpinned this new PE curriculum. At this stage of the process, there was an acceptance by group members that this was the pathway that PE in Scotland would take and that government control was, in part, a necessity to ensure that there was some continuity as the policy text evolved.

It could be argued that the absence of any critique or concern about the new framework for PE was because each participant came from an institution that represented a local site of the state (Lingard 1993), thus, to some extent, they represented the government. Lingard highlights this point, suggesting that the state is represented in all three contexts of the policy cycle and argues for a much stronger conception of the state within the policy cycle. Thorburn (2010) describes the control the government has over the process of developing the PE curriculum, by explaining how groups such as LTS and HMIE are formally invited to be involved in policy development. He suggests that key stakeholders such as teachers and academics remain on the periphery of the process:

even though these individuals and groups have various perspectives on the best way forward for PE. (Thorburn 2010, 2)
It appears, therefore, that contrary to Bowe et al.'s claim that the loci of power constantly shift as, 'the various resources implicit and explicit in texts are recontextualised and employed in the struggle to maintain or change the views of schooling' (1992, 13), the participants in the study had little influence on this new vision for PE. This is because, perhaps unknowingly, they already supported this vision for PE.

The lack of power or influence the participants in this study had within the ‘context of text production’, particularly the PE teachers involved, is an important issue. Hargreaves and Evans (1997) state that teachers should be genuinely involved in policy reform, and that the government should not assume that by involving some teachers in the process reform is more likely to be accepted by most teachers. Gilles (2001) describes such involvement as ‘tokenism’, where consultation is valued more as a public relations exercise than as a genuinely democratic process (Humes 2003). All parties affected by the curriculum should be involved in deciding its nature and purpose (Ornstein and Hunkins 1998) and, importantly, teachers should occupy a central position in curriculum decision-making. This will provide teachers with some control over the process of curriculum reform, so that they can create genuine opportunities to construct new and relevant ideas about what PE should be in the future.

The status of physical education

All of the participants supported the repositioning of PE within health and wellbeing and believed that it would increase its status within the Scottish curriculum. Indeed, the issue of the status of PE was prevalent in many of the discussions that took place during this investigation. There was some conflict and confusion about what it meant for PE to be part of health and wellbeing, specifically in relation to the differences between PE and physical activity. Those participants who had a background in teaching PE argued strongly that PE is more than physical activity, and that the government’s commitment to two hours of PE for all schoolchildren in Scotland would demonstrate to others within education the value of PE. However, it is important to remember the government’s rationale for this legislation. The two hours of ‘quality’ PE was endorsed by the government based on the recommendations made by the national Physical Activity Task Force and the Review Group on PE, whose underlying principles were associated with increasing children’s physical activity levels, their health and their capacity for learning. Noticeable by its absence is any reference to what it means to be physically educated beyond being active and healthy. There has long been unease about the status of PE in Scotland and many in the profession have sought for ways of improving its status within the school curriculum (Thorburn 2010).
However, in striving for ‘status’, many would caution that the PE profession does not reinvent itself in such a way that it loses sight of what it is to be physically educated (Whitehead 2001). Undoubtedly, PE can make a valid contribution to the development of pupils’ health-enhancing behaviours; however, this is a narrow view, one which fails to take account of, for example, the cultural aesthetic values of PE (Reid 1996). The PE profession must, therefore, begin the process of articulating exactly what it means to be physically educated so that PE does not lose itself within, or even become known as, health and wellbeing.

Conclusion

The results of the present study provide a deeper understanding of the curriculum development process. In understanding more clearly the process of curriculum construction, it appears that the participants’ freedom to interpret the principles generated within the ‘context of influence’ was restricted and conflict was repressed, thus sustaining and reinforcing the government’s vision of the new curriculum. This conflicts somewhat with Bowe et al.’s (1992) model of a more pluralistic and democratic policy development cycle. Instead, it supports the idea of a curriculum process that, although it acknowledges the process of institutional reinterpretation, ‘gives much greater weight to the ability of the state to control outcomes’ (Hatcher and Troyna 1994, 162).

Perhaps the institutional reinterpretation, ‘slippage and contestation’ (Ball and Bowe 1992, 98), will be more evident in the final context, the ‘context of practice’. Indeed, this is more likely because not only will teachers reconstruct the text based on their own experiences and knowledge, but also when teachers have been minimally involved in the process of policy development, new policy is less likely to impact on their practice. On the one hand, this may not be seen as problematic because it means that ‘good’ teachers can continue to implement effective practice. On the other hand, it could be perceived as a missed opportunity for PE teachers to take control and develop the subject in a way that they deem to be relevant and worthwhile and with education at the core. At the time of writing this article, the implementation of this new curriculum for PE in Scotland was in its first year. Future research, therefore, should consider investigating the ways in which PE teachers engage with the policy text for PE and understand the ‘interpretation, slippage and contestation’ that may, or may not, take place within the ‘context of practice’.

In making the process of developing curriculum text for PE more explicit, it is hoped that the present study will encourage teachers and other key stakeholders to read the documentation that was produced in a critical way. It is also hoped that this study will influence future
developments so that policy reflects more closely Bowe et al.’s (1992) description of a process that is democratic, dynamic and inclusive. In applying this model, teachers and other key stakeholders will be afforded genuine control of the process. They will have opportunities within each context to debate and articulate a clear vision of what PE is and should be for the future, thus developing policy that is more aligned with the knowledge and practices of teachers, and the needs of their pupils.

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References


Physical education within the Scottish context: A matter of policy

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Abstract
In 2010, schools in Scotland implemented a new curriculum, a Curriculum for Excellence, and for physical education (PE), this represented a move from the ‘Expressive Arts’ to ‘Health and Wellbeing’ (HWB). To understand this new position, we explored the thoughts of those who were directly involved in the construction of the policy text for PE within HWB ($n = 10$). All of the participants supported the position of PE within HWB, accepting that PE has an important role to play in improving pupils’ health and wellbeing, although there was some concern that teachers might misinterpret the role of PE within HWB. However, all of the participants believed that this new position for PE would encourage other professionals to value PE more highly. We conclude by suggesting that there should be a greater involvement of teachers in the reform process so that future curricular innovations are more closely aligned with the knowledge and practice of teachers. This may enable them to understand policy more clearly and implement policy more effectively.

Keywords
Health and wellbeing, curriculum, physical education, policy, interpretation

Introduction
In 2010, Scottish schools began to implement their new curriculum, a Curriculum for Excellence ( CfE; Scottish Government, 2004a). Within this curriculum, Physical education (PE) is set within the area of ‘Health and Wellbeing’ (HWB), one of the core areas of the curriculum alongside literacy and numeracy. This new position for PE potentially indicates a shift in the way it is understood. PE may no longer be viewed primarily as a means of developing movement, affective and cognitive competences across a range of physical activities. This new framework for PE represents a possible change in focus, one where there is more emphasis on the development of
pupils’ health and wellbeing, which incorporates mental, emotional, social and physical wellbeing. Thorburn (2010) describes this as an opportunity for PE to demonstrate the ways in which it can connect to pupils’ overall learning through new and imaginative pedagogies. Moreover, teachers can use this as an opportunity to develop their skills of reflection, collaboration and inquiry in order to bring about the necessary changes to their teaching behaviours (Thorburn and Gray, 2010). Thorburn et al. (2011) describe this process as ‘a culture and cycle of experimentation and reflection’. Consequently, for teachers, and other key stakeholders, understanding this new position for PE, the nature of the changes taking place and the impact it may have on their working lives is important.

This paper is set within the Scottish context, where concerns about the health of the nation have played a key role in the shaping of educational policy (Thorburn et al., 2011). However, we refer to Ball’s (2007) notion of the increased ‘colonisation of education policy by economic imperatives’ (p.39); in other words, that political ideas and principles cross borders and permeate national policies. Concerns about the health of the nation, drains on healthcare and human capacity are not exclusively Scottish issues. Horrell et al. (2011) state that:

> Physical and mental health in their widest terms are considered to be central to educational policy in nations competing in the global economy. (p.9)

Changes made to the PE curricula in Australia and New Zealand, for example, saw PE subsumed by the curricular area of Health and Physical Education (HPE), and were said to be politically motivated (Burrows and Wright, 2004; Penney, 1998). This resulted in debate concerning the identity and focus of PE (Penney, 1998). In New Zealand, Burrows and Wright (2004) describe a major shift in the conceptualisation of PE as mental health, which was introduced as one of the key outcomes of the syllabus. They describe how the:

> ...foregrounding of ‘mental health’ marks a new emphasis in the new curriculum compared with the prior syllabus. Reminiscent of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, the HPE curriculum positions self-actualisation, or the capacity to understand oneself and one’s unique potential as the major outcome of physical education schooling. (p.196)

The Australian context is more complex, as each of the states and territories have the freedom to implement the national texts as they see fit (Penney, 1998). However, Penney (1998) believes that the establishment of HPE as a Key Learning Area has the potential make a positive contribution to the health of all young people, although, for many, this would challenge traditional practices in PE. It appears, therefore, that political powers have the capacity to direct educational policy by controlling and legitimising discourse, in this case, health discourse. This, in turn, may impact on the very nature and purpose of the subject, and in this case, PE. Consequently, from a Scottish perspective, but also of interest to the wider PE community, it is important to understand such discourse and examine the impact this has on the design and delivery of PE within the area of HWB.

There is a call for the promotion of all types of educational research, regardless of its utility for policy makers (Whitty, 2006). At its best, policy development is ‘unwieldy and complex’ and at its worst, ‘unscientific and irrational’ (Ball, 1990: 3). It is important, therefore, to dig beneath the surface of official policy statements to expose and understand the ideas that surround their intentions and justifications (Humes, 2003). To develop this understanding, it is useful to view the construction of new policy as a ‘policy cycle’ (Bowe et al., 1992): a complex, non-linear process of conflict, debate and resolution, where policy is constructed, and re-constructed, within three arenas
of action: the context of influence, the context of text production and the context of practice. Consequently, in order to understand more fully this new vision for PE in Scotland and what it means for the future of PE, this investigation aims to go beyond the policy documentation and explore the ways in which the individuals involved in the context of text production understand and articulate PE within HWB. In order to achieve this, three research questions will be addressed. How do curriculum writers articulate the aims of HWB and of PE within HWB? What are the key factors that curriculum writers identify in relation to implementing the PE curriculum within HWB? How do curriculum writers envisage the future of PE within the Scottish context?

**Background**

Almost a decade ago, the Scottish Government identified five National Priorities in Education. They were achievement and attainment; framework for learning; inclusion and equity; values and citizenship; and learning for life. The National Priorities in Education aimed to empower teachers and learners, and ensure that every child in Scotland reached his or her full potential. There was also a call for a more integrated curriculum that placed the pupil at the centre of the learning process. This call was, in part, as a result of the information attained during the National Debate on Education in 2002. It was against this backdrop that the Scottish Government established a Review Group to identify the key principles to be applied in the curriculum redesign for ages 3–18.

The outcome of the Group’s work was a CfE (Scottish Government, 2004a). It outlines a vision for schools in Scotland in the 21st century, highlighting the success of past curricular innovations and builds upon them for the future so that education in Scotland places the learner at the centre of the learning process and nurtures successful learners, responsible citizens, confident individuals and effective contributors. The curriculum describes a ‘totality of experiences’ that are planned for young people, wherever they are being educated, emphasising the role of pupil choice and interdisciplinary learning, thus extending pupil learning beyond the classroom (Scottish Government, 2004a). Within a CfE, PE forms part of a collective alongside physical activity and sport. They are all subsumed by the term ‘Health and Wellbeing’, which has been given a central role within the curriculum alongside literacy and numeracy as a core area of learning.

It has been argued that the emphasis on HWB within the new curriculum, and the core role of PE within HWB, is primarily related to the government’s concerns about national health issues, such as obesity and heart disease (Scottish Executive Health Department, 2003; Thorburn et al., 2011). Scotland’s reputation is one that is becoming readily associated with notions of ill health and features prominently at the top of several league tables for mortality (Horrell et al., 2011; Scottish Government, 2005). A number of health-related reports were already established in Scotland and served as an impetus for the notion of HWB as a core area of the curriculum. For example, the White Paper on Health (Scottish Office Health Department, 1999), amongst other things, drew attention to the important role PE plays in promoting healthy lifestyles. As a result of the White Paper, a National Physical Activity Task Force (Scottish Government, 2003) was set up with a view to increasing and sustaining the proportion of individuals who could be deemed physically active in Scotland. The Task Force made a number of recommendations: children should take part in at least one hour of moderate physical activity every day, they should have access to a wide range of physical activities, and they should be provided with two hours of ‘quality’ PE each week. In response to these aspirations, the Review Group on PE (Scottish Government, 2004b) was established and charged with developing and implementing strategies that would improve levels of participation, performance and engagement with PE in Scotland. Underpinning the deliberations of
this group was the belief that good ‘quality’ PE could improve the HWB of children, which in turn, could improve their achievement in schools, their confidence and in turn ‘capacity’ for learning. To ensure that children’s experiences of PE were indeed of ‘quality’, the group identified three key areas for development: teaching approaches, facilities and the PE curriculum. It was suggested that of these three factors, the actual ‘curriculum’ potentially had the greatest impact on pupil participation, performance and attitudes towards life-long participation in physical activity (Scottish Government, 2004b).

Thereafter, during the development of the CfE, PE became situated within HWB and many of the recommendations made by the Review Group on PE were adopted in subsequent policy writing.

The responsibility for policy development in Scotland ultimately lies with the government. Scottish ministers recruited the members of the group responsible for the initial writing of a CfE, the Curriculum Review Group (CRG), and provided the remit for policy development. A HWB group was subsequently formed, including members from agencies such as Learning and Teaching Scotland (LTS), Her Majesty’s Inspectorate for Education (HMIE) and the Health Promoting Schools Unit (HPSU). Guided by the principles from the CRG, a rationale and a framework for HWB were created. As a result of this process, a starter paper was developed to guide the writing of the experiences and outcomes for PE. Experiences are defined as the ‘set expectations for the kinds of activities which will promote learning and development’ and outcomes ‘set out what the child or young person will be able to explain, apply or demonstrate’ (Scottish Government, 2008: 23). A group consisting of LTS representatives, PE teachers, health specialists and primary specialists was invited to refine the experiences and outcomes for PE. During this time an open consultation process was initiated that invited responses from all interested parties through participation in workshops and conferences. The findings from these consultations informed the decisions made by LTS during the refinement of the experiences and outcomes.

The experiences and outcomes are extremely important for PE teachers, as these are the areas of the curriculum that they are directly responsible for. Successful delivery of the experiences and outcomes will, to some extent, be related to the ways in which PE teachers understand them. It has been argued that, in order for authentic change to take place, teachers must be convinced that the new outcomes will improve student learning. This provides them with the emotional stimulus that encourages learning and a change in values, beliefs and ideology about PE and PE teaching (Dinan-Thompson, 2001).

The policy cycle

Ball (1994) claims that any decent theory of education should not be limited to a state control perspective, one that describes a process of policy development that begins with legislation and ends with teachers delivering the policy message, where power is centralised, unitary and directly linked to national economic interests. This view of policy development is too simplistic. The development of policy is a very complex process that involves debate, conflict and struggles for power. Bowe et al. (1992) describe the idea of a ‘policy cycle’ to explain a more complex and contextualised policy process. This idea is about both where and how policy is developed and re-developed within different contexts. They describe three arenas of action that involve privileged interest groups: the context of influence, the context of policy text production and the context of practice.

The context of influence is where interested parties struggle over the construction of policy discourse in an attempt to define the purposes of education and what it means to be educated and, in this case, physically educated. From the debates and dialogue within the context of influence emerge policy concepts, which are then developed into texts within the context of text production. This process is complex and conflict within this context can be rife, as those involved in the process
bring with them different experiences, knowledge and ideas about the purposes of education. The text that is produced, therefore, is the outcome of struggle and compromise as those involved in the process compete for the control of the representation of policy (Bowe et al., 1992). Policy writers cannot control the meaning of their text as it enters into the context of practice, particularly when teachers have not been involved in the development of policy text. As text is interpreted and recreated, it is subject to ‘interpretation, slippage and contestation’ (Ball and Bowe, 1992: 98). Teachers do not engage with policy text as naïve readers, rather they come with history, experiences and values of their own that enable them to contest, adopt or adapt the policy text (Ball and Bowe, 1992) to suit their own unique environment and the needs of their pupils.

According to Vidovich (2007), one of the main weaknesses of the policy cycle is the over-emphasis of agency over structure, not just in the context of practice, but in all three policy development arenas. This marginalises the power of state structures at each level and fails to recognise the ways in which state structures mediate policy. Consequently, a more sophisticated theory of the state incorporated into the policy cycle is called for (Lingard, 1993). Vidovich (2007) has attempted to develop the policy cycle in this way by drawing on the strengths of both conceptions of policy development, linking the global and the national policy contexts to each phase of the policy cycle. Vidovich (2007) also describes a model that is not uni-directional, where influences and discourses can move through each context in both directions. She stresses that this is a state-centred model (not state-controlled), which means that the power of the policy elite is still greater than those agents who engage at micro-levels of policy development and delivery. For example, the state has the power to select the individuals to be involved in the policy writing process. Often those individuals are selected because their experiences, knowledge and values ‘fit’ with the priorities of the state (Humes, 2003). As a result, they develop text that sends a strong and consistent message to practitioners about the aims of the policy. Importantly, the balance between constraint and agency within each arena of action will vary depending on the policy, the political climate and the local site of policy engagement. In other words, policy development is context specific (Vidovich, 2007). Policy analysis, therefore, must be situated within the specific policy context and take account of the various influences that are mediated by individuals at each level. One means by which this can be achieved is by investigating the views and experiences of the individuals who engage in discourse within each arena. Understanding discourse is critical to understanding policy, because it reflects the values, beliefs, language and practices from which meaning and reality can be established. Understanding the views of those who were involved in the development of the experiences and outcomes for PE may, therefore, help us to better understand this new conception of PE within HWB: how it was developed, what knowledge was privileged and what this means for the future of PE in Scotland.

**Methodology**

As this study was particularly interested in how curriculum writers articulated the new PE curriculum, a naturalistic research design was adopted. Research of this nature acknowledges that social reality does not exist in isolation from the social beings’ interpretation of their social context (Pring, 2000). While the perspectives of these ‘curriculum writers’ lay firmly at the heart of this study, the researchers were also integral to the unfolding narrative. They were tasked with the challenge of ‘objectively’ bringing participants’ interpretations of curriculum implementation to life and ensuring that this was not biased by their own ‘outsider view’ and biographies as ‘Physical Educators’, ‘Teacher Educators’ and ‘Researchers’.
Participants

Purposive sampling (Cohen et al., 2000) was deemed appropriate, as this ensured that participants included the range of individuals who were actively involved within the context of text production. Consequently, the 10 participants who took part in this study were selected to ensure a representative account of deliberations during the initial, interim and final stages of developing the experiences and outcomes for PE within HWB. Five of the participants (participants 1–5) were drawn from the initial stages of the text production process where key discussions took place concerning the nature and structure of HWB. A further five participants were involved in the construction of the experiences and outcomes for PE. Two (participants 6 and 7) were involved around the time that the first draft of experiences and outcomes for PE were constructed (interim) and three (participants 8–10) were involved in the refinement and finalisation of these experiences and outcomes (final).

All of the participants came from institutions that are governed and funded to a greater or lesser extent by the Scottish Government. The five participants involved in the initial discussions about HWB came from institutions that included Initial Teacher Education (ITE), LTS and HMIE. As a group the areas of expertise brought to their deliberations included policy writing, curriculum design, health promotion and experience of primary and secondary education. The participants who were involved in the interim and final stages of curriculum construction (developing experiences and outcomes) included both PE teachers and LTS representatives. They also included individuals aligned to the ‘Being Well Doing Well’ initiative (Health Promoting Schools Unit, 2004), which is a strategy that aims to support schools in becoming health promoting schools, and Sport Scotland’s ‘Active Schools’ initiative, which aims to increase physical activity opportunities for school children.

Procedure

The Institute Ethical Committee granted ethical approval and informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to the study. A focused interview schedule (Cohen et al., 2000; Gordon, 1999) was developed that aimed to further explore the three research questions: How do curriculum writers articulate the aims of HWB and of PE within HWB? What are the key factors that curriculum writers identify in relation to implementing the PE curriculum within HWB? How do curriculum writers envisage the future of PE within the Scottish context?

A semi-structured format with questions and probes was deemed appropriate for a study of this nature (Gillham, 2000). Individual face-to-face interviews lasting around 60 minutes were conducted at a convenient time for each participant in their place of work while free from any distractions (August–December 2009). During the interview the researcher summarised participants’ responses to check for understanding and accuracy and took detailed field notes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim within one month of completion.

Data analysis

Analysis of the interview data was conducted in four phases. Firstly, the transcripts were read and re-read in order to become familiar with participants’ responses (Dye, 2000). The second phase involved grouping the responses according to the interview questions asked. This provided a context-specific and more focused framework for analysis (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003), thus enabling a preliminary process of identifying emerging thematic categories. This entailed considering the ‘text’ and developing phrases that explained key issues within the data in order...
to summarise their meaning and identify the emergence of categories (Glaser, 1965; Podlog and Eklund, 2006). Reference to the field notes taken during the interviews further supported the initial analytical process. The third phase involved identifying and further refining the categorisation of key issues discussed by individual participants. This categorisation procedure was independently carried out by all three researchers to ensure investigator triangulation. The final phase of this analysis involved testing the authenticity and robustness of these categories across the 10 interview responses. At this point, the features of all categorical instances were discussed at length until appropriate categorisations were agreed by the three researchers (Sproule et al., 2002).

**Results**

**The aims of HWB and of PE within HWB**

*Aims-linked policy text.* The participants’ views about the aims of HWB were very closely aligned with official policy text. The issues that were discussed included reference to the four capacities for learning, a curriculum that caters for the individual needs of each pupil, the importance of HWB in relation to achievement and the delivery of HWB as the ‘responsibility of all’.

For example, participant 6 said:

I think the purpose is if you look at the four capacities you won’t be able to develop those four capacities if you don’t develop the health and wellbeing of young people.

Over half of the participants referred to the poor health of the nation and the concerns over rising obesity levels when talking about the aims of HWB. Topics of discussion included the development of healthy bodies, healthy lifestyles and the promotion of life-long participation. Participants 1, 2, 6 and 8 talked specifically about the development of pupils’ mental or emotional health within the curriculum area of HWB. Participant 2 believes that HWB within the curriculum recognises that:

...in particular mental health underpins just about every other aspect of the curriculum.

*Current good practice in PE.* Those participants who had experience in teaching PE all said that experiences and outcomes for PE within HWB simply reflected good practice, and that many teachers were already adopting this good practice. Participant 7 explained that they always thought that PE was much more than just teaching ‘activities’ and participant 10 has always seen themself as a ‘teacher of children’ first, rather than solely viewing themself as a subject specialist. Participant 8 claimed that PE and PE teachers have always had the potential to address broader issues within education, issues linked to the development of affective and cognitive skills, as well as psychomotor skills. They said that PE within HWB allows teachers to showcase what they can do, and encourages them to make learning more explicit. In explaining how PE can encourage children to develop their understanding of relationships, participant 8 said:

Because we do a lot of work in working with others, relationships. And these are skills for learning, life and work.

Participant 4 viewed the experiences and outcomes as being synonymous with the learning outcomes of one of the certificated PE courses in Scotland (Standard Grade PE), again alluding to the notion that PE within HWB is not fundamentally different to other forms of PE:
These key elements of performance, of knowledge and understanding, and of affective development are still there, they are still three key drivers within the experiences and outcomes.

**Implementing the PE curriculum within HWC**

**Change of mindset.** All of the participants in this study believed that many teachers would have to change their mindset about teaching PE within HWC. Almost all of the participants explained that this means that PE teachers would have to think more broadly about PE and pedagogy. Participants 4, 6, 7, 8 and 10 suggested PE teachers would now have to take into account some of the wider issues linked to improving pupils’ HWC when delivering the PE curriculum. Participant 5 explained this change of mindset by saying:

They have to be open to new ideas. They have to link the learning... Thinking not, thinking outwith their own subject.

**Interdisciplinary learning.** In line with thinking more broadly about teaching PE, the participants explained that this meant creating more meaningful links with other PE teachers in their department, other teachers in the school and with teachers from neighbouring schools. Participants 3 and 8 discussed the idea of developing pedagogical practices by improving communication between teachers and developing what participant 8 described as ‘communities of practice’. All of the participants said that this would require increased communication between teachers across departments and schools, and viewed this in a very positive light. There was a general belief that this would be easier to do in the primary context, but that it would take a greater shift of thinking to be implemented successfully within the secondary school context. Participants 4 and 7 indicated some concern that interdisciplinary learning may be poorly organised. They were concerned that it became a ‘tick-box’ exercise and stated that for learning to take place, links between subjects had to be meaningful.

Participant 4 said:

I mean I think probably informally that’s been done in the past, but I guess the thinking here is we have to be clear about, it’s not interdisciplinary learning just to say we can tick the box.

**Time, timetable and resources.** Two of the key principles that underpin a CfE are to be less prescriptive and to give more autonomy to teachers. All of the participants recognised that this would be challenging for teachers in relation to the amount of time and resources this would take. Participant 4 provided some detail as to how the curriculum might be organised, stating that it would have to come from the top down and that schools should not be constrained by the timetable. They said that they should firstly work out what the needs of the learner are and then devise a curriculum that meets these needs. Participant 10 mirrored this comment stating that the curriculum would have to have strong leadership from the head teacher to be organised in a way that would meet the aims of the a CfE, based on the demographics and resources of the school as well as the needs of the individual pupils within the school.

Participants 2 and 5 provided suggestions about how some of the challenges relating to resources and providing two hours of quality PE could be overcome. Participant 5 suggested that specialist coaches could be invited into schools to deliver PE if the teacher did not feel that he/she possessed the experience or expertise to do so. Participant 2 suggested that more primary school
The participants in this study believed that the success of the new curriculum is related to the ways in which teachers interpret the curriculum. Participant 7 understood that the experiences and outcomes could be interpreted in different ways and was concerned that some teachers may choose to create the experiences and achieve the outcomes through a very narrow range of activities, possibly those activities they are more experienced in. He said:

If it’s delivered in the right way we could have a fantastically rich and diverse subject. If it’s not we could end up with everything in PE being delivered through team games, which it could... all the outcomes could be delivered through team games, and providing a very narrow experience.

Participant 8 was concerned that some teachers may interpret the documentation in a way that focuses too much on issues surrounding physical activity and health:

I guess my concerns are people’s interpretation and not looking at the wider issue, for people to have a narrow perception people think that it’s about health and fitness.

Status. Participants 1, 8 and 10 talked about the key role that PE played within the area of HWB and that this position for PE would raise its profile and status within schools. They believed that this raised profile of PE would encourage other professionals to view their subject more favourably, understanding more clearly its value, and thus raising its status within the wider educational context.

Participant 10 indicated that they:

...hoped that it will allow other staff to realise the value of physical education, and to see us as a massive contributor to the overall education of a child, and not just about teaching a child how to play hockey or swim or do dance.

Discussion
The aims of HWB and of PE within HWB
Policy acceptance. In articulating their views about the role of PE within HWB, participants in this study remained very close to official policy text. They talked about PE in relation to developing the four capacities, pupils’ health, placing the child at the centre of the learning process and choice. There was very little, if any, contestation or critique of this text and all of the participants embraced terms, such as individualised learning, choice and HWB, as accepted discourses within the PE context. It is perhaps not surprising that there was no critique of these concepts. It would be difficult for anyone to argue against them as critical components of a young person’s education, particularly in a society where notions of ill health and obesity are prevalent and very public, not just from within Scotland, but from a much wider, global perspective (Horrell et al., 2011; Scottish Government, 2005). Vidovich (2007) argues that globalisation is particularly important in relation to policy development, because it reduces the policy options available to the state. She claims that:
globalization significantly compromises the ability of a nation state to set its own policy directions, it is now difficult to understand education policies and practices without reference to globalization processes (e.g. Crossley, 2000). (p.290)

Although global concerns and directives influence, and can be mediated, at each stage of the policy cycle (Vidovich, 2007), there also appears to be a very strong directive from Scottish Government. This is reflected in the fact that each of the participants selected to be involved in the writing of the policy text came from an institution that represented a local site of the state (Lingard, 1993); thus, it could be argued that they represented the government. When those selected to develop policy within the context of text production hold similar ideologies about education and PE to those in power, debate is limited and, ultimately, political agendas are satisfied.

The curriculum and good practice. Although there appears to be a shift in the way in which PE is being articulated, there was a belief by some of the participants that good teachers would not need to change their practice, that they were already delivering a curriculum that met with the expectations of PE within HWB. The idea of interpreting policy in line with current beliefs and practices is not new. Curtner-Smith (1999) found that PE teachers in England did not change their values or beliefs about PE when the new National Curriculum was introduced. Instead, their interpretations were based on already existing values and beliefs that were strongly influenced by their pre-ITE experiences and biographies. Swann and Brown (1997) reported similar results during the evaluation of the 5–14 Curriculum in Scotland. Teachers were not surprised by the curriculum guidelines they were provided with, stating that it was what they were already delivering. The result of this was that they did not change their practice, rather they simply changed the language they used to make the guidelines ‘fit’ their current practice.

Given the new position of PE within HWB, it is reasonable to suggest that there will be some change in the way PE is defined and delivered. However, if, like the participants in this study, teachers view curriculum guidelines for PE as good practice and, at the same time, they believe their practice to be good, then what incentive is there for them to change, develop or refine their practice? In addition, if teachers view the experiences and outcomes as analogous with previous PE curricula, it is again unclear if any change will take place to the way PE is defined or delivered. In some way, this is similar to the idea presented by Penney (1999a) about the importance of the structure of the curriculum in relation to influencing discursive frames. The activity focus that was preserved during the changes to the National Curriculum in the 1990s reinforced dominant pedagogies in PE and reflected the satisfaction of the profession with the curriculum in its pre-review form (Penney, 1999a). In the case of the present study, by viewing the structure of the curriculum as the same as what has gone before, traditional or current ideas about (good) teaching and learning may be preserved. This has the potential to demonstrate teacher agency within the policy cycle, resulting in ‘slippage’ within the context of practice as the discursive focus shifts from an articulation of what PE means within the context of HWB, to sharing ideas about current good practice.

Implementing the PE curriculum within HWB

Change of mindset. Although the assumption was that good teachers were already delivering a CfE, all of the participants said that teachers would have to change their mindset about PE in order to deliver the CfE effectively. For the participants in this study, this meant thinking about PE more broadly, beyond the notion of a PE that is primarily concerned with the development of activity specific motor skills. However, one of the key issues with assuming that many teachers will have to
change their mindset about teaching PE within HWB, or change the way they deliver PE, is the absence of empirical evidence to suggest that there is a problem with the way teachers currently think about and deliver PE. Indeed, other than statistics that describe the poor health of Scottish school children and adults, there is no evidence to show that the decisions that were made about curriculum reform were informed by any school-based empirical research. Priestley and Humes (2010) claim that there was no mention of the impact of research on the development of the new curriculum and stated that, ‘a reform programme which fails to take account of antecedents, or learn lessons of the past, runs the risk of promoting innovation without real change’ (p.358).

PE teachers have a critical role to play in the reconceptualisation of PE within HWB. There was some consultation with PE teachers in the form of conferences and workshops during the refinement of the experiences and outcomes, but this took place towards the end of the process of text production. Gilles (2001) describes such involvement as ‘tokenism’, where consultation is valued more as a public relations exercise than a genuinely democratic process (Humes, 2003). Hargreaves and Evans (1997) state that teachers should be genuinely involved in policy reform, that the government should not assume that by involving some teachers in the process, reform is more likely to be accepted by most teachers. However, teachers must be provided with the space and authority (Penney, 1999b) to engage with and contribute to this discourse. Often their contributions are subject to ‘slippage’, because their views are constrained or marginalised in each context of the policy process. This allows the discourse of those who have control over the agenda and timescales for policy development to dominate (Penney, 1999b) and thus shape policy to respond to global and political pressures. One of the key problems with this is that the policy that is produced may not fit with the perceptions, experiences and needs of PE teachers, which will impact directly on the way policy is interpreted and enacted.

In supporting the need for school-based research to inform policy, Munn (1995) advocates the role of action research. She believes that if policy makers wish to change what teachers do, they have to give some cognisance to current teacher practice, how they think, and the structural factors that influence their work, for example, the demands of raising attainment and quality assurance (Priestley, 2010). Consequently, lack of school-based, empirical evidence to support the need for change may increase the likelihood that the new curriculum will not elicit any change to teachers’ mindsets or pedagogical practice.

The future of PE within the Scottish context

Teacher interpretation. The participants in this study believed that the success of the new curriculum is related to the ways in which teachers interpret the curriculum documentation. There appeared to be a concern that teachers would either focus too much on activities primarily associated with being fit, or that they would focus on a narrow range of activities that they felt comfortable teaching. However, it is important to reiterate that the participants also said that good teachers would not have to change their practice because they were already delivering PE in a manner that reflected the experiences and outcomes. This lack of clarity about how PE teachers might interpret the new curriculum is somewhat reflected within the policy documentation. On the one hand, there is a drive to improve the HWB of children through the delivery of a new, broad and meaningful PE curriculum, but on the other hand, there is a description of PE in the form of experiences and outcomes that is very closely linked to more traditional views of PE. The links between HWB and PE may well be implicit within the experiences and outcomes; however, this makes the task of identifying them very difficult, one that many PE teachers may not have the time or inclination to undertake.
The ways in which teachers mediate policy reflects their skills, prior experiences, resources, attitudes and values, as well as their social interactions with colleagues about policy (Priestley, 2010). However, given the strength of the health discourse permeating Scottish society, and as alluded to by the participants in this study, teachers in Scotland may interpret the policy text in relation to improving health, fitness and increasing physical activity levels. It is not yet clear how this might be realised in practice, although Thorburn (2010) warns that, with an emphasis on activities for the 21st century, breadth and choice, PE within HWB might result in a curriculum that is more about ‘activity sampling’ than learning. Supporting this view, Horrell et al. (2011) highlight that a PE curriculum centred on ideas about improving pupils’ health and wellbeing runs the risk of becoming managed recreation, where the teacher’s role is reduced to one of setting up and managing activity. Whilst some may call for PE that is focused more on participation, health and enjoyment, this form of PE is much narrower in terms of providing pupils with experiences that are of educational value. To endorse such a position for PE would be to ignore what it means to be physically educated and would be detrimental to the profession in relation to its ubiquitous struggle for increased status within schools (Reid, 1996).

**Status.** All of the participants were generally very positive about the future of PE and believed that its new position within HWB would increase its status within the Scottish curriculum. Indeed, the issue of the status of PE was prevalent in many of the discussions that took place during this investigation. The concern over the status of PE, particularly in relation to how others view it, is not a new concern. The same issue was raised when certificated PE was introduced to the Scottish curriculum in the 1980s and 1990s. Many in the profession believed that Standard Grade PE, and then later Higher Grade PE, would encourage other professionals to view PE as a more academic subject based on the introduction of scientific and examinable knowledge to the PE curriculum. However, although many PE teachers believed that this would raise the status of PE, there were others who believed that this move towards teaching conceptual knowledge over practical knowledge was a move that had the potential to challenge the very nature of the subject (Reid, 1996).

With the repositioning of PE within HWB, a new debate about the very nature of the subject may well ignite and, it could be argued, should ignite in order to fully understand the changes that are being made to the subject, both conceptually and in practice. Teacher engagement in such debate is critical so that they can both understand and influence policy. In order for this to happen, there should be a mechanism whereby the resultant dialogue can be fed back to all stakeholders in the policy development process, thus providing teachers with a voice within contexts other than the context of practice. This engagement and collaboration throughout and beyond the process of curricular reform has the potential to diminish the ‘top-down/bottom up’ perspectives on policy development (Kirk and Macdonald, 2001), and increase teacher status as they become active participants in the process rather than merely passive receivers. However, this level of involvement is difficult to achieve when teachers are made accountable for learning through ‘high-stakes’ examinations or government inspections. In these contexts, teachers demand greater prescription to ensure that they have interpreted, and are delivering, the curriculum as it was intended (Macphail, 2007). This allows the government to maintain control over the process of policy development, ensuring that a clear policy message is transmitted to the context of practice (Lingard, 1993; Vidovich, 2007). In addition, teachers’ own knowledge about the poor health of young people in Scotland may serve to strengthen the perspective that PE’s future lies with promoting ideas and practices that encourage children to adopt health-enhancing behaviours, particularly if, as highlighted by some of the participants in this study, this perspective is associated with increased status.
Conclusion

Scotland has a new curriculum, and for the PE profession, this means a new framework for PE and, potentially, a new way of thinking about and delivering PE. For teachers and other key stakeholders, understanding the nature of the changes that are taking place and the impact it may have on their working lives is very important. Consequently, in order to understand what appears to be a re-conceptualisation of PE, and how it might impact on PE in the future, this investigation explored the thoughts of those who were directly involved in the policy discourse that resulted in the construction of PE as part of HWB.

The participants that we interviewed all spoke about PE within HWB in a very positive light. They clearly supported the key principles underpinning the role of HWB within a CfE and hoped that this new place for PE would encourage other professionals to value PE more highly. They believed that good teachers would not have to change their approach to teaching PE because they were already creating the learning experiences and achieving the outcomes associated with PE within HWB. However, there was concern that some teachers may interpret the documentation rather narrowly and either focus too much on health issues during PE lessons, or aim to teach the experiences and outcomes through the activities they were the most comfortable teaching.

It is difficult for anyone in Scotland to escape the fact that there is a national health problem. We are exposed to this fact, not just through policy directives, but also through various political and media conduits. Consequently, many teachers may well have already begun the process of change, whatever form that change may take. Future research may well consider observing this process to understand just how teachers manage to grapple with a curriculum that, in many ways, reflects their current ideologies and practices, but is set within a very powerful global and political framework for improved health. The potential difficulty of managing these conditions was certainly reflected in the present study, since the participants themselves were not clear about how to articulate the goals of HWB in line with the experiences and outcomes for PE. Indeed, the documentation itself causes some confusion and does not provide teachers with information about the processes that form the basis of the experiences for learning (Priestley and Humes, 2010). This is perhaps the reason why, when the participants were asked to discuss the future of PE within Scotland, although they were very optimistic in relation to its position with the curriculum, they were much less clear on what it would actually look like.

If more teachers had played a greater role in the reform process, then issues of interpretation and modes of delivery would not be so pertinent. Policy should be built upon existing practices, based on teacher knowledge, attitudes and values (Priestley, 2005). When teachers are not able to contribute to discourse within the context of text production, or even the context of influence, the result is a form of PE that is decided not by teachers, but for teachers (Penney and Evans, 1999). When this happens, they either become de-skilled, conforming to the practice demands of the reform, or choose not to change their practice (Oslon, 2002).

By contrast, when they form collaborations with administrators, curriculum developers, researchers and teacher educators, they can challenge existing ideologies of PE and begin the process of constructing new and relevant instructional knowledge. Teacher involvement in policy discourse throughout the policy cycle would enable them to understand policy more clearly and enable them to implement policy more effectively. Perhaps the findings from the present study will encourage those who lead curriculum development to involve teachers in this way so that the next curriculum innovation in Scotland will be more closely aligned with the knowledge and practices of teachers. In the meantime, future research might consider exploring the extent to which PE teachers in Scotland...
understand and interpret current policy. It would be interesting to see how their understandings and interpretations of policy are reflective of what the policy writers envisaged.

References


**Biographies**

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Enabling curriculum change in physical education: the interplay between policy constructors and practitioners

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Background: Curriculum for Excellence, a new national policy initiative in Scottish Schools, provides a unified curricular framework for children aged 3–18. Within this framework, Physical Education (PE) now forms part of a collective alongside physical activity and sport, subsumed by the newly created curriculum area of ‘Health and Wellbeing’ (HWB). This research set out to examine the new curriculum in Scottish schools at the micro-implementation stage of the policy process within the context of practice. Purpose: The primary objective was to understand the factors that enable PE teachers to enact government-led policy in a climate which provided schools and teachers greater autonomy, flexibility and responsibility. The secondary objective was to compare policy constructors’ vision of PE to the interpretation of PE teachers who were currently immersed in initiating curricular development.

Methods and procedures: The research adopted a mixed method survey approach. Eighty-eight secondary school PE teachers responded to a questionnaire that explored teachers’ perceptions of curriculum change. Respondents were full-time PE teachers working in secondary schools across Scotland and represented 16 local authorities. In addition, 17 PE teachers within one local authority took part in semi-structured individual interviews. Comparisons were made with 10 interviews conducted with policy constructors who were responsible for the initial, interim and final stages of developing and designing the PE curriculum.

Main outcomes and results: The results from the questionnaire indicated that 66% of teachers believed there was a need for change within the Scottish curriculum; however, only 54% anticipated that they would change the PE curriculum. When comparing PE teachers’ and policy constructors’ interview responses, a discrepancy between the policy constructors’ understanding of the vision of PE and teacher’s interpretation was evident. The alignment of PE within HWB was seen as an opportunity to build on the strengths of the subject; however, concerns were raised that this shift may result in PE becoming part of a fitness discourse, distorting policy intentions.

Conclusions: The combining factors of teacher agency, culture and social and material structures along with the schools capacity to manage new policy development were seen as crucial in enabling teachers to enact and sustain change. As educational policy draws on teachers’ professional capacity to translate, mould and recreate policy uniquely to fit within the opportunities and constraints of the school, it is important that policy intentions, aims and values are not lost in the process.

Keywords: curriculum policy; curriculum change; teacher enactment; physical education

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Introduction

Curriculum for Excellence (CfE), a national policy initiative in Scottish schools, provides a unified curricular framework for children aged 3–18. Within this framework, Physical Education (PE) now forms part of a collective alongside physical activity and sport, subsumed by the newly created curriculum area of ‘Health and Wellbeing’ (HWB) (Scottish Government 2009). The fundamental aim of the HWB curriculum area is to develop pupils’ knowledge and understanding, skills, capabilities and attributes necessary for mental, emotional, social and physical wellbeing now and in the future (Scottish Government 2009). However, the positioning of schools to play a part in the promotion of children’s HWB is not limited to Scotland. There has been an increasingly systematic approach to the study of effective schools across the globe in the last 20 years, with evidence emerging from research that supports the promotion of health in school contexts. This has led to health promotion becoming a recognisable discourse in educational policy (Allensworth 1994; Clift and Jensen 2005; Kolbe 2005):

As health promotion initiatives become more integral to mainstream educational practice I would predict that it will become more and more evident that the factors that produce effective schools from the viewpoint of educational achievement will be essentially the same factors which produce schools which promote health effectively. (Young 2005, 115)

Prior to the development of the CfE, the Scottish Executive (2004b) set up a ‘Physical Education Review Group’ to identify key principles which would inform the redesigning of a curriculum spanning the 3–18 age range. The message surrounding their recommendations was based on the assumption that good quality PE could improve the health and wellbeing of children, which, in turn, could improve their achievement in school, their confidence and their ‘capacity’ for learning, (Scottish Executive 2004b). The report by the review group played a key role in the development of PE and as such, within the draft and final texts of the CfE, the government recommended that the time allocated to PE be increased to two hours in the school week. The impact of increased time for PE within a curriculum framework of HWB offers promising potential, as the stated experiences and outcomes are not focused on improving ‘fitness’ but rather recognise the contribution that PE can make to pupils’ mental, emotional, social and physical wellbeing.

CfE has been described as Scotland’s ‘new breed of national curriculum’ (Priestley 2010, 23) a process of top-down government-led policy with bottom-up curricular development initiated by teachers. It was anticipated that this radical reform to education would have a fundamental impact on the nature of pedagogy and schooling (Reeves 2008) as ‘one of the most ambitious programmes of educational change ever undertaken in Scotland’ (Scottish Government 2008, 8). However, the ambitions of the Scottish Government (2009) can only be realised by overcoming the long acknowledged problems associated with implementing and sustaining curriculum change (Snyder, Bolin, and Zumwalt 1992; Bekalo and Welford 2000). Contemporary research continues to indicate that there is a complex relationship between policy intentions and practitioners actions in the implementation or transformation of policy (Johns 2003; Priestley 2010; Priestley and Humes 2010; Gray, Mulholland, and MacLean 2012). This paper adds to the discourses on policy and curriculum change by analysing the extent to which teachers translate and enact policy within Scotland’s 32 local authorities. This research takes forward the notion of ‘policy as process’ and investigates the implications that flexible policy frameworks have on teachers’ capacity to recreate policy within the school setting. Enabling curriculum innovation is perhaps less about the rigid adherence to policy as inscribed in texts, as one possible
reading of enactment, but rather more akin to a process of acting to bring policy intentions into being. Enactment in this case requires teachers to be aware of the values and principles of CfE and create curricula that enable children to have educational experiences, which authentically capture the essence of policy intentions. In this sense, policy could be considered as having a ‘performative’ function (Gergen 1995) emphasising the interplay between policy constructors, policy text and the teacher where ‘discourse presents a variety of representations from which action might be chosen’ (Adams 2011, 61). Typically in Scotland, value is placed on the role and professionalism of the teacher and as such CfE was designed in a way to encourage teachers to reflect on their practice and develop curricular approaches that matched the aims of CfE and the needs of the learners. This research is meaningful as it takes forward the international knowledge in the field of policy formation in the way that analyses teachers’ capacity to embrace, translate and enact change within a flexible curriculum framework.

Within this paper and the analysis that follows, Bowe, Ball, and Gold’s (1992) concept of a ‘policy cycle’, recently developed by Horrell, Sproule, and Gray (2012), identifies ‘contexts of influence, production and practice’ to help capture some of the nuances of policy implementation. Previous research conducted by Gray, MacLean, and Mulholand (2012) explored policy-makers’ experiences of curriculum construction as they devised a vision for PE within CfE. The journey began by exploring the ways in which policy constructors involved in the context of text production in CfE understood and articulated the vision for PE. Interviews were carried out with the individuals (n=10) responsible for constructing the policy text and writing the experiences and outcomes for PE as part of HWB. It is interesting to note that the interviewees responsible for writing the HWB section of CfE were drawn from a range of careers and backgrounds; however, operating at a tier above them were civil servants for the Scottish Government, without a background in PE. The findings highlighted that the government controlled the process of development, which limited the extent to which policy constructors could make a genuine contribution to shaping a vision for PE. As a result, PE was made to ‘fit’ into the CfE framework. Accordingly, policy constructors were concerned that teachers may misinterpret policy text, which could result in a narrowing of their vision of the PE curriculum. The research reported in this paper continues the journey into the context of practice to look at teachers’ interpretation and understanding of CfE policy. In effect, we hope to uncover the factors that enable teachers to enact policy and then critique the extent to which there is congruence between the vision of PE expressed by PE teachers and policy constructors.

Policy as ‘discourse’

Policy as discourse provides an opportunity to consider ‘the interplay between policy creation and response’ (Adams 2011, 59). A managerialist view of policy focuses on the generation and then implementation, seeking to discover the effects of policy-making. However, conceptualising policy as a process, rather than a text, a moment or an event, helps to capture the interaction between policy constructors and practitioners. The ‘policy cycle’ when applied to the development of PE within HWB illuminates complex and contextualised policy processes that involve debate, conflict and a struggle for power identified as the ‘context of influence’, the ‘context of policy text production’ and the ‘context of practice’ (Bowe, Ball, and Gold 1992). Horrell, Sproule, and Gray (2012) view the relationship between the ‘context of influence’ and the ‘context of policy text production’ as iterative, reflecting the complex interplay and relationship between stakeholders, and assert that
...the policy cycle is not one moment or turn, it is more a case of cycles within and between contexts and any attempt to consider a policy trajectory in terms of originating solely from the context of influence moving into production and then into practice is a simplistic reading. (167)

The ‘context of influence’ refers to the circumstances which shape the formation of policy, as the policy constructors are immersed in the circulating discourses which influence the role of PE within the curriculum. Research evidence, existing policies, political arguments (influenced by economic, national and global concerns) and consultation with stakeholders all shape the policy that is constructed. From the debates and dialogue within the ‘context of influence’ emerge policy concepts, which are then deployed into texts within the ‘context of text production’. Policy analysis, therefore, must be situated within the specific policy context and take account of the various influences that are mediated by individuals at each level. Utilised in this way the policy cycle provided a useful framework in identifying the various stakeholders involved in the policy-making process and exposed the complexities and struggles within each context. In this case, policy as discourse attends to the interplay between the inscriptions of policy constructors’ and teachers’ response.

Enacting policy

In terms of the enactment of curriculum policy, Supovitz’s (2008) analysis anticipated that there will be ‘gaps’ between what was intended by policy constructors and what ultimately is translated into practice. Almost inevitably the process can bring about unintended results as policy aims and intentions are open to the interpretation of teachers. Policies migrating from one setting to another have been referred to as ‘Iterative refraction’ (Supovitz 2008), which often can lead to a distortion of policy intentions. Priestley (2010) viewed interactive refraction as potentially positive as teachers can actively engage in creatively applying policy ideas tailored to their school setting. Priestley (2010) emphasised that the interaction of teacher’s agency, within the culture and social and material structures of the school, would encourage change and enactment. Individual agency can be constrained or enabled and is in part dependent on a teacher’s prior experiences, knowledge and motivation. Agency has personal, social and structural dimensions which in combination influence the enactment of the curriculum. Within the educational setting, teacher agency is enhanced by collaboration, as ideas are shared within the school and individual departments. In fact, Adams (2011) state ‘that it is the very opportunities for conversation and professional activity that form policy’ (66). The cultural influences refer to the constraints and opportunities that are already in existence that shape the culture of the school. Shared values, knowledge and ideas that are predominant contribute to the school culture. Social and material structures in the school setting offer both opportunities and constraints for teachers. For example, the leadership team in the school may actively encourage curriculum innovation and seek to empower teachers by pursuing specific strategies, which enable them to be creative. Material structures include access to resources, finances and the layout of the school, which will contribute to the form policy takes. These factors together with the capacity of the individual school at the micro-level to engage with new policy will combine and contribute to ‘successful engagement with change’ (Priestley 2010, 32). From this viewpoint, teachers are considered as professionals mediating flexible policy frameworks (Supovitz 2008) and not as technicians carrying out prescribed policy. Teachers are required to exercise professional judgement as they engage in translating, moulding and enacting policy to uniquely fit within the opportunities and constraints of the cultural, social and material structure of the school.
Enabling curriculum innovation, therefore, is perhaps less about the rigid adherence to policy as inscribed in texts, as one possible reading of enactment, but rather more akin to a process of acting to bring policy intentions into being. Enactment in this case requires teachers to be aware of the values and principles of CfE and create curricula that enable children to have educational experiences, which authentically capture the essence of policy intentions. In this sense, policy could be considered as having a ‘performative’ function (Gergen 1995) emphasising the interplay between policy constructors, policy text and the teacher where the discourse offers a variety of options from where action might be chosen (Adams 2011).

Educators and researchers alike have long acknowledged the problems associated with implementing and sustaining curriculum change (Snyder, Bolin, and Zumwalt 1992; Bekalo and Welford 2000). A survey by Penney and Evans (1999) into the effectiveness of the implementation of the National Curriculum of Physical Education in England found that teachers’ practice and pupils’ experience differed from the official aims initially intended in the policy documentation. Swann and Brown (1997) reported similar findings during their evaluation of the 5–14 curricula in Scotland. They revealed that teachers did not change their current practice, but simply changed the curricular language and shaped the guidelines to ‘fit’ around their existing practice. In a more recent study, Marshall and Drummond (2006) evaluated the implementation of the Scottish ‘Assessment is for Learning’ and discovered that only 20% of those practitioners who claimed to have embraced the approach were observed teaching in keeping with the rationale. These issues are not unique to the UK; Johns (2003) embarked on a post-structural case study of the Hong Kong Physical PE curriculum and noted that change could only be achieved by the ‘transformation of the subjective realities experienced by teachers and the willingness of policy makers to understand those realities and include teachers in the process’ (345).

**Transformational change**

Archer (1979, 1982, 1988, 1995) analyses the complex interactions that produce change in a system’s given form or social structure by drawing on and developing Buckley’s (1967) concepts of ‘morphogenesis’ and ‘morphostasis’. Morphogenesis describes ‘those processes which tend to elaborate or change a systems given form, structure or state’ (Buckley 1967, 58) in a way that ‘captures both the possibility of radical and unpredictable re-shaping and the fact that the genus of this reshaping lies in the interplay between structure and agency’ (Buckley cited in Archer 1995, 75). When applying this process to policy enactment, morphogenesis would describe a process whereby a new policy (CfE) entering the school system fully replaces the old processes and ideas previously in place. In contrast, morphostasis describes ‘those processes in a complex system-environment exchanges that tend to preserve or maintain a systems given form, organization or state’ (Buckley 1967, 58) in this case old ideas continue and the new policy is actively (or passively) rejected or resisted (Giles 2006). However, there is a mid-way model, a *form of morphostasis*, where the new ideas merge with the old. Priestley (2011) suggests that this form is more common, particularly where there are either instances of agreement and dissonance in the new policy or when the difference between them is not important enough to cause conflict. Archer (1988), although not specifically concerned with educational innovation, captures the tension that teachers may experience in the face of a discourse that espouses ‘transformational change’ in curriculum and the realities of continuing to work within the same temporal space and concludes that
we can simultaneously feel bound to plod round the cultural treadmill yet also brim over with criticism and creativity – the tension between being conditioned to do things one way but being able to conceive of doing them differently. (Archer 1996, xxiv)

Morphogenesis and morphostasis can only be apparent after there has been a disruption to the social structure and in this case it is the educational policy that forms the structural conditioning designed to bring about change. Archer’s (1998) analysis of the morphogenetic relationship of agency and structure is concerned not only with the identification and elaboration of social structures, but in the cycles of structural conditioning, social interaction and structural elaboration. It is in the analysis of structural elaboration where judgements of morphogenesis and morphostasis or a form of morphostasis are rendered possible. As highlighted previously, the policy cycle is not seen as a ‘moment in time’ but rather a process which at various points will be interpreted, constructed and re-constructed by those engaging with ‘change’. Within this paper, we aim to analyse the processes that enable teachers to enact curriculum, focusing specifically on how the perception of policy in the context of practice plays a significant role. As a theoretical framework for this analysis, we draw on Buckely (1967), Archer (1982, 1998) and Priestley’s (2005) conceptualisation of organisational change and Horrell, Sproule, and Gray’s (2012) development of the policy cycle.

**Purpose**

Our previous study examined the experiences and perspectives of the policy constructors charged with constructing a ‘text’ for PE within HWB. Findings provided some insight into the ebb and flow inherent to this ‘context of text production’; however, the intention at this stage is to take the reader on a journey through the policy cycle as we give voice to PE teachers who are at the heart of the ‘context of practice’, within this Scottish setting. By directly comparing teachers’ experiences of enacting policy and intentions or indeed aspirations for ‘PE’, we hope to examine the interplay between policy creation and response and add to the discourses of policy and curriculum change. In effect, an exploration of the translation of rhetoric into reality may serve to provide a unique insight into the factors that enable policy to be enacted at the micro-level.

The responsibility for the ‘implementation’ of CfE is located with Scotland’s 32 local authorities, with schools and teachers leading the development of curricula. The research study reported here was conducted in the first year of CfE’s implementation at a time where teachers were developing the curriculum to achieve the ‘learning experiences and outcomes’ (Scottish Executive 2004a) within each curricular area. This was particularly salient as it was anticipated that at this stage of enactment, there would be evidence of change being built into the structures of the school through the school policy, budget and timetable (Fullan 1982). The intention, therefore, was not to examine the ‘practice’ of teaching but rather to explore the structures that support change in creating a new vision for PE.

The research adopted a mixed method survey approach underpinned by the following research questions: (1) What are teachers perceptions of recent curriculum change in Scotland and within PE? (2) What are the factors that enable teachers to enact policy within a flexible curriculum model? (3) To what extent is PE teachers’ enactment of policy congruent with the vision of policy constructors?

In order to address the research directives, a questionnaire was designed specifically to gauge general perception of ‘change’ within the school context. Semi-structured interviews provided a means of identifying and exploring further ‘factors’ that enable teachers to enact policy. While a comparison of teachers’ and policy constructors’ interview responses served
to illuminate the extent to which teachers’ enactment of policy was congruent with the vision espoused by policy-makers.

Method

Participants

Teachers
Ninety-six PE teachers from 16 of the 32 local authorities in Scotland were invited to respond to the self-report survey questionnaire. The 88 PE teachers who completed the questionnaire (92% response) were all involved, at varying levels, with mentoring PE students from the undergraduate Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programme. The sample was representative of both rural and urban schools and included male and female teachers with a variety of experience and level of promotion.

In order to provide additional context for this study and to enable a comparison between teachers and policy constructors, 17 PE teachers from the southeast of Scotland, who had previously completed the questionnaire, took part in individual face-to-face interviews. Purposeful sampling (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2000) was utilised to include a range of individuals (male and female) from the context of practice (rural and urban schools) for interview, thus ensuring the credibility of the data obtained (Silverman 2000). Respondents included eight females and nine males with 4–33 years of teaching experience ranging from ‘newly qualified teacher’ to ‘principal teacher’ of PE.

Policy constructors
Snowball sampling (Noy 2008) was utilised to identify key individuals who played an active role during the initial, interim and final stages of developing the experiences and outcomes for PE within HWB. This involved the identification of one member from each group, who then provided the names of other group members who, in turn, identified further participants (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2000). Consequently, 10 participants from the initial, interim and final stages of developing the experiences and outcomes for PE within HWB were identified for this study, 5 of whom were involved in the initial discussions about HWB. They came from institutions such as ITE, Learning and Teaching Scotland (LTS) and Her Majesty’s Inspectorate of Education. As a group, their areas of expertise included policy writing, curriculum design, health promotion and experience of primary and secondary education. The remaining five participants who were involved in the interim and final stages of curriculum construction (developing experiences and outcomes) included PE teachers, LTS representatives, individuals aligned to the ‘Being Well Doing Well’ initiative (Health Promoting Schools Unit 2004) and Sport Scotland’s Active Schools initiative (Scottish Government 2008). One group member who was identified from the interim stage and three group members identified from the final stage did not take part in the study for reasons that included retirement, geographical location and professional commitments.

Procedure

Teacher questionnaire
The questionnaire was developed in line with literature relating to PE curriculum policy (Scottish Executive 2004a; Scottish Government 2009) and curriculum change (Curtner-
The questions were developed collaboratively by the researchers involved in this investigation. The initial draft of the questionnaire was then sent to an independent researcher experienced in the development, administration and analysis of curriculum-related questionnaires. The feedback from this process was discussed by the main researchers and, subsequently, minor changes to the format and wording of some of the questions were made. Additionally, three items that were deemed to lack relevance were removed from the questionnaire. The adapted questionnaire was sent to a sample of 10 PE teachers for further piloting who were informed about the purpose of the study and were invited to comment on language used, meaning, presentation and the length of time it took them to complete the questionnaire.

The final questionnaire comprised four sections designed to gather biographical data, explore participants' perception of curriculum change in Scotland, curriculum change within PE and finally, factors which enabled teachers to enact policy. Participants were invited to respond to a range of closed, open and forced choice (Likert) questions. For example, teachers were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale to the question: to what extent do you support the main aims of CfE? 1 – Strongly disagree, 3 – agree and 5 – strongly agree.

To ensure a high response rate and enable teachers across Scotland to participate in the study, school experience tutors delivered and collected questionnaires from the schools in which their students were placed. A 92% response rate was achieved with the main reason for non-completion being ‘lack of time’. The data generated from the questionnaire were predominantly nominal/ordinal in nature; therefore, descriptive statistics were computed, for example, frequency and percentages of participants supporting the goals of a CfE.

**Teacher and policy constructor interviews**

The teacher interviews that followed adopted a protocol similar to the policy constructor interviews that sought to understand perceptions of curriculum change and teacher enactment (Gray, MacLean, and Mulholland 2012). The questions centred around curriculum change, CfE, PE within the domain of HWB and curriculum organisation. This approach enabled teachers’ experiences of enactment to be placed alongside the views of the policy-makers in an attempt to gauge level of congruence. Consequently, the teachers’ interviews were analysed in the same way as the data previously collected in interviews with the policy constructors.

Focused interview schedules (Gordon 1999; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2000) were developed in a semi-structured interview format with themes, questions and probes (Gilham 2000). During the interviews, detailed field notes were taken and checked with participants in the study for accuracy. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim.

Analysis of the interview data were conducted in five phases. First, the transcripts were read and re-read in order to become familiar with participants’ responses (Dye 2000). The second phase involved grouping the responses according to the research questions to provide a context-specific and focused framework for the analysis (Taylor-Powell and Renner 2003). This enabled a preliminary process of identifying emerging thematic categories. This entailed considering the ‘text’ and developing phrases that explained key issues within the data in order to summarise their meaning and identify the emergence of categories (Glaser 1965; Podlog and Eklum 2006). Reference to the field notes taken during the interviews further supported the initial analytical process. The third phase involved identifying and further refining the categorisation of key issues discussed by individual participants. This categorisation procedure was independently carried out by all
researchers to ensure investigator triangulation. The fourth phase of this analysis involved testing the authenticity and robustness of these categories across the interview responses. At this point, the features of all categorical instances were discussed at length until appropriate categorisations were agreed (Sproule et al. 2002). The final analysis involved identifying commonalities and differences of teachers’ and policy constructors’ responses. This process of data analysis enabled the perceptions of policy constructors and the teachers, tasked with translating and enacting policy, to be compared.

Results and discussion

The following themes emerged as significant in examining the intersection between the context of production and the context of practice: teacher agency, cultural structures, social structure, material structures and capacity. These themes will be discussed under the following subheadings: perceptions of change; good practice; broadening the horizon; enable enactment and flexible policy framework.

Perceptions of change

Understanding teachers’ perceptions of the reasons for change to the Scottish curriculum was important as this can impact on their ability to interpret policy documents in an informed and critical manner. The results indicated that teachers were unclear about the aims and intentions of CfE with 59% of participants rating their understanding of the new curriculum as less than satisfactory. However, despite this lack of knowledge, 77% of teachers reported supporting the goals of CfE. Furthermore, 66% of teachers believed there was a need for change within the Scottish curriculum, although some reflected that the change was ‘forced’, ‘imposed’ or ‘inflicted’ upon them. In terms of understanding the impetus for change, participants cited a diverse range of factors pertaining to economic and political pressures to concerns relating to health and coherent educational experiences. Moreover, there was a consensus that the Scottish curriculum needed to be ‘fit for purpose’ and prepare young people for the future. Teachers’ perceptions of the main factors that influenced current changes to the Scottish curriculum can be summarised under the headings of ‘external’, ‘internal’ and ‘systemic’ factors (Table 1).

Our findings indicated a discrepancy between the knowledge of CfE policy constructors and teachers. Policy constructors closely aligned their thoughts with policy text and had a clear picture of the overarching aims and vision of the new initiative. This was not surprising since they were closely involved in the process of text production. The policy constructors’ views on the aims of HWB were consistent with each other and also closely aligned with official policy text. Reasons for change to the Scottish curriculum were regarded positively, stating that PE within HWB would help teachers ‘showcase’ what they can do:

Table 1. Summarising PE teachers’ responses for reasons to change the Scottish curriculum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External</th>
<th>Internal</th>
<th>Systemic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fit for purpose</td>
<td>Lack of attainment</td>
<td>Transition primary to secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relevance to society</td>
<td>Individualised learning</td>
<td>Coherence/continuity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government driven/political</td>
<td>Inclusion</td>
<td>Dissatisfaction of current curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalisation</td>
<td>Rounded citizens</td>
<td>Cluttered curriculum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased obesity rates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If it is delivered in the right way we could have a fantastically rich and diverse subject. (Policy Constructor 7)

It’s about the celebration of how much contribution PE makes, not just to physical development but the cognitive, social, emotional and mental which to me, makes sense. (Policy Constructor 5)

Teachers were asked to reflect on the extent to which they felt there was a need for change to the PE curriculum in Scotland: 63% reported ‘yes’, 22% were ‘unsure’ and 15% did not feel there was a need for change. Of the 63% who felt change was required, the main concerns were regarding health and lack of participation. Around 80% of participants ‘strongly agreed’ that concerns regarding child/adult obesity, poor health (86%) and a lack of adult participation in physical activity (76%) were behind the drive for change. It was interesting to note that only 39% of teachers ‘strongly agreed or agreed’ that poor results or improvement in performance acted as an impetus to change the PE curriculum.

**Good practice**

In relation to the need for change, it was important to evaluate if teachers understood why the curriculum had changed as this would have a direct impact on the extent to which they would engage with the new curriculum (Fullan 2000). Teachers were then asked if the new position of PE within HWB would change the way the curriculum is organised: 44% reported ‘yes’ with 18% ‘no’ and 38% ‘unsure’. The teachers who indicated that they would change the PE curriculum stated that the following changes had already been enacted: interdisciplinary work across ‘subjects’, increased focus on literacy and numeracy, increase in health-based/fitness courses with a focus on recreation, increased time for PE, improved links with outside agencies and better links to primary schools. However, it is important to note that many reported ‘minimal change’, ‘tweaking’, ‘little’ or ‘no’ change, indicative of Cuban’s (1998) *first-order changes*. The teachers who reported ‘no’ or ‘little’ change also felt they did not have an acceptable level of knowledge and understanding of CfE and were not clear as to why the curriculum had changed:

At the moment we haven’t made any changes… I don’t disagree with it, I don’t think there is very much to it… I don’t think it’s anything different. (PE Teacher, 14)

Good teachers and good lessons probably incorporated all these things anyway. And so I think it was very much about making it more public, making it more quantifiable so that everyone was doing the same thing. (PE Teacher, 12

Similarities were found with the policy constructors’ views who had experience of teaching PE; they stated that the aims of PE within HWB simply reflected good practice, and as a result, many teachers were already adopting good practice; this is in part reinforced by the report produced by the HMIE (2008) prior to the publication of CfE (Scottish Government 2009). In addition, one policy constructor viewed the experiences and outcomes as being synonymous with the learning outcomes of one of the certificated courses in Scotland alluding to the notion that PE within HWB is not fundamentally different to other forms of PE:

These key elements of performance, of knowledge and understanding, and of affective development are still there, they are still three key drivers within the experience and outcomes. (Policy Constructor, 3)
If PE teachers believe that CfE is synonymous with good practice and teachers believe that they are currently demonstrating good practice, then this leaves no incentive to embrace change. However, one teacher was critical of this view and stated:

No-one can argue that the Curriculum for Excellence is sound educationally and should allow pupils more chance to be responsible for their own learning and attitudes. This will all count for nothing however, if the quality of the experience does not improve. The mantra ‘it’s nothing you are not already doing’ is no good! (PE Teacher, 2)

**Broadening the horizon**

All of the policy constructors believed that many teachers would have to change their mindset and ‘broaden their horizon’ about teaching PE within HWB in order to be able to facilitate development in pupils’ health and wellbeing through the practical setting. As a result, many policy constructors were concerned that teachers may adopt a narrower view of PE, reducing it to activities that focus on fitness and health:

I guess my concerns are people’s interpretation and not looking at the wider issues, for people to have a narrow perception and think it’s about health and fitness and where that’s coming from. (Policy Constructor, 8)

Similar concerns were expressed by the teachers:

Although it sits in health and wellbeing as a subject, I am a bit concerned it might lose its focus … I’m concerned that PE might get lost within health and wellbeing. I think sometimes we think too much about the health and wellbeing experience and not enough about the skill development and the improvement as an individual taking part in that activity. (PE Teacher, 17)

Policy constructors valued the holistic development of the individual child and embraced the established values of PE in developing the psychomotor, cognitive, social and emotional domains. When asked, one policy constructor placed value on the broader view of the HWB of the child but equally placed emphasis on three lines of development:

To improve the physical competency of children from three through to eighteen so that they can access practical activities. Develop interpersonal skills, reliance, self-esteem, and confidence, working with others, co-operating, taking a leadership role, respect and appreciating other people. Evaluating, cognitive development, appreciation involving literacy, listening and talking, being able to critically evaluate and suggest how to improve performance. (Policy Constructor, 2)

Policy constructors were concerned that given the strength of the health discourse permeating Scottish society, teachers may interpret the policy text in relation to improving health and fitness and increasing physical activity levels, in keeping with health agendas in New Zealand where fitness is regarded as the core business of PE in schools (Burrows, Wright, and Jungersen-Smith 2002). One policy constructor commented on the opportunities that were available for PE within CfE:

We have a place in the sun … it’s working with practitioners to say that if we don’t get this right; if we don’t take this opportunity to make sure it’s more than just movement skills, what a wasted opportunity that would be. (Policy Constructor, 8)
Confirming this view, the teachers interviewed had in fact interpreted the placing of PE under the umbrella of HWB as a directive to improve children’s fitness. As PE teachers wrestled with ‘fitting’ PE into their translation of the policy text, changes were being made to the PE curriculum to increase time on the health and fitness aspects of physical activity. The danger in emphasising a fitness prescription for PE results in health behaviours becoming the focus, which potentially diminishes the value of pupil enjoyment and meaning from activities (McCaughtry and Rovegno 2001).

This assumption was not surprising as our previous study (Gray, MacLean, and Mulholland 2012) concluded that the government controlled the process of development which limited the extent policy constructors could make a contribution to shaping the vision for PE. The meaning and purpose of PE was not debated prior to these developments and, therefore, was not clearly articulated in the policy documentation. PE, therefore, was being made to ‘fit’ the CfE. What surfaces in the analysis of the policy constructors’ interviews is that there is limited social interaction between them and the teachers, and the policy text that enters the ‘context of practice’ is a poor substitute for extended dialogue. It is evident that morphogenesis requires the teachers and schools to engage in structural elaboration to enact change and this is perhaps only possible if teachers feel that there is a need for change. One factor that might have limited teachers’ perceptions of PE within the context of HWB is the strong message about the role of PE and the development of physical health (Scottish Government 2009). Lack of communication and involvement between the national-level policy constructors and the local-level teachers clearly has the potential to result in a form of PE that is far removed from current good practice/models of PE.

Enabling enactment

When teachers discussed ‘enactment of policy’, it was clear that a range of factors acted as facilitators and inhibitors. In the absence of opportunities for collaboration, teachers acting as agents of change, mediating flexible policy frameworks, became problematic. Teachers required discussion on constructing policy ideas with other colleagues, through the school creating opportunities for collaboration. Supporting the findings of Fullan (2003), Johns (2003), Armour and Yelling (2007) and Bowins and Beaudoin (2011), who emphasise the importance of collaboration to help teachers adapt and embrace change. However, this research takes this notion one step further and reinforces Adams (2011) research which emphasises the importance of ‘teacher conversation and professional activity’ as crucial in assisting teachers to create policy. Individual agency was enhanced in the schools that provided the social structure for innovation, reinforcing Priestley’s (2010) notion of the important role of teacher agency as crucial in encouraging change. Teachers who were actively making changes to curriculum organisation referred to an improvement and increase in collaborative practices throughout the whole school. Schools that embraced change contained a social structure that sought to improve external links to professional learning communities and internal links between subject areas in interdisciplinary work.

Interdisciplinary learning was advocated by policy constructors as an area that would require change in schools, particularly within secondary schools. However, there was a concern that interdisciplinary learning may not be organised in a way that would be meaningful for learners:

I guess the thinking here is we have to be clear about, it’s not interdisciplinary learning just to say we can tick the box. (Policy Constructor, 1)
However, due to a lack of collaboration, the reality of creating communities of practice became problematic and as a result the interdisciplinary learning was reserved by many schools to an annual event:

Yes, interdisciplinary happens once a year and so it doesn’t have an influence on the curriculum running from day to day. (PE Teacher, 4)

It became clear that the cultural influence of the school, already in place before the introduction of CfE, had the potential to place constraints on the teacher to fully embrace interdisciplinary learning as intended in the rationale. In this respect, Archer’s (1996) morphostasis was evident where teachers were rejecting the new policy ideas in favour of continuing with the old. Times of change were generally times of uncertainty for teachers and as such their typical reaction was to resist change and hold onto existing practices (Johns 2003).

Policy constructors envisioned more meaningful links with PE teachers in the department, teachers within the school and neighbouring schools. Policy constructors discussed the idea of developing pedagogy by improving communication between teachers and creating ‘communities of practice’.

Some teachers saw the value of working together but were concerned about the authenticity of the experience:

Yeah there is a big emphasis on cross curricular links and I think done right it could be fantastic. It’ll save time you know if the topics don’t have to be repeated . . . I think it should be delivered in a joined up fashion. But I think we have almost gone too far. And possibly, it’s only in the pilot format, but certain projects that I have heard of are completely contrived. (PE Teacher, 8)

**Flexible policy framework**

Teachers reported a lack of knowledge of the policy document and policy intentions and were confused by numerous interpretations of the policy text. As a result, they required clearer guidelines and direction from the senior management in the school to support them in their development of curriculum policy. Limited teacher knowledge, lack of support and an increase in workload were stated by many teachers. It became evident that teachers felt that they required greater supportive leadership, combined with guidance and feedback on individual curricular design. In particular, they emphasised a need for feedback and support on the courses they had created to reassure them that they were interpreting the text ‘correctly’. Teachers talked about ‘reassurance’, ‘being correct’ and ‘consistency’ with the policy, subject areas and other schools:

There is a lack of steer from our own national authority I think. And it seems very, very autonomous. Now in one hand that’s quite a nice thing to have, you know you can work with your own pupils in your own environment and do what suits the needs of your pupils. But on the other hand there’s something in the back of your head saying ‘am I doing the right thing here, you know and that kind of sits a bit uneasy with me’. (PE Teacher, 7)

Teachers struggled with the notion of policy as ‘performative’, dismissing the idea that policy should not be seen as an accurate portrayal of some pre-existing status, but ‘a social construction given legitimacy through the permission it gives to speak’ (Adams, 2011, 60). Some teachers found the level of autonomy difficult and expressed concern over ‘too much
freedom’, without moderation and feedback and sensed they were ‘stumbling around in the dark’ (PE Teachers, 12, 16):

The main weakness is not necessarily on the concept itself but on the amount of support being given to develop. (PE Teacher, 1)

Black and Atkin (1996) in their analysis of school change reform in mathematics, science and technology found similar findings to our study and revealed that where teacher support is lacking often feelings of failure, conflict and frustration arise. It became clear that teachers require not only support but also affirmation that their translation of policy into practice was appropriate. Fullan (1982) proposed that the translation of policy intentions into classroom practice required multi-dimensional changes in technology, pedagogy and ideology. However, Fullan (2000) added a further requisite for achieving lasting change by suggesting ‘high quality teaching and training materials (combined with) a highly interactive infrastructure of pressure and support’ (2000, 23–24) that would help accelerate and extend the implementation process faster than a change in teachers belief and values. Whilst teachers were willing to change the PE curriculum to align with CfE, there were teachers who were resistant to change. They reported feeling unsupported in their development of PE policy and as a result were meeting the targets of the new rationale by doing ‘a lot of paperwork and auditing ... make sure that everyone is ticking the right boxes’ (PE teacher, 6). Or alternatively, they changed their rhetoric to fit the ‘jargon’ of the new policy:

Where the change will come is when we’re reporting to parents, the jargon, we have to use the experiences and outcomes as an umbrella through which to report to them. (PE Teacher, 3)

Teachers involved in the process of redeveloping curriculum policy in line with CfE reported an increase in their workload and there was a sense that many teachers all around the country were ‘reinventing the wheel’:

I’ve never entered any initiative with so little information, so much, but so little as well in terms of exactly what you’re meant to be doing. It’s been very poor really. And the persuading thing I think, when you’re in the profession, is that everyone in every school all over Scotland is all doing the same. (PE Teacher, 5)

It is perhaps not surprising that the teachers who reported that they felt ‘unsupported’ were not able to transform their practice, as morphogenesis requires not only personal agency but structural support. Enabling curriculum change requires teachers to act; however, simply being able to think that it is possible to do things differently is not enough in itself. The ‘emergence’ of curriculum change requires an interplay between structure and agency for structural elaboration to result in morphogenesis.

Concluding thoughts
This research sought to understand the factors that enable teachers to initiate curricular development and enact government-led policy in a climate which provided schools and teachers greater autonomy, flexibility and responsibility. The teachers who appeared to enact the policy rationale of CfE tended to operate in an environment that placed value on teacher agency within a cultural setting that embraced interdisciplinary learning. The social
structure of these schools provided support, guidance and feedback on teachers’ efforts to engage with and enact new curriculum initiatives. Although this process was time-consuming and involved an increase in workload, teachers felt part of a team developing curricula in an atmosphere of collaboration, where conversation and professional activity helped them to ‘form’ policy. Change in these schools was somewhat reminiscent of what Archer (1996) defines as a form of morphostasis where, rather than the emergence of a transformational curriculum change, rendering what existed before unrecognisable, new policy ideas were mixed with ideas from existing practice. The result is not a replacing of curriculum structures and practice but a pragmatic accommodation of the interaction of teacher’s agency, within the culture and social and material structures of the school setting (Priestley 2010). However, this account only represents half of the data collected. Many teachers reported ‘lip service’ changes to current practice with little or no change, consistent with Archer’s (1996) morphostasis, where the new is rejected for the old. In the climate of change, some teachers expressed feelings of uncertainty, which resulted in individuals clinging onto existing practice (Johns 2003). Despite the Scottish Government’s (2009) and policy constructors intentions of a flexible curriculum framework that recognised teacher autonomy, the teachers who resisted change, expressed a view that the CfE had been imposed on them. Teacher’s insufficient knowledge of reasons for change may have contributed to a lack of motivation to implement new initiatives effectively and as such enactment was subject to first-order changes (Cuban 1998). However, crucial to this resistance was not the teachers themselves, but rather the social and cultural pressures on their practice that limited their capacity to embrace change. Teachers required facilitative leadership, guidance and direction to empower and buttress their decision-making process within a supportive and collaborative culture. As information migrated to the context of practice there were some concerns that without the interaction of individual agency, culture and social and material structures (Priestley 2010) change would be reduced to a tick box exercise or limited to a one-off timetabling event:

The values outlined in a Curriculum for Excellence may not serve as foundations for what will be built in schools but have, perhaps, at best a fenced off plot within which such structures could emerge. (Gillies 2006, 35)

An important factor that seemed to restrict teachers’ attempts to develop PE curricula, which could be considered to be morphogenic, was that there appeared to be a view that there was a ‘correct’ response and reading of policy. Teachers appeared to be wary of the autonomy that the schools had and as a result it may take more time for the social structures to move through cycles of structural conditioning, social interaction and structural elaboration before their new roles in the policy process can be realised. It became clear that the envisioned transformational change would be limited if teachers did not fully support and understand the intricacies of the CfE framework.

The second part of the analysis embarked on a comparison of the data from the perceptions of the PE teachers to the data previously collected from the policy constructors. This was crucial in analysing policy constructor intentions as they were translated into the context of practice. In this stage in the process, clear discrepancies between the knowledge of policy constructors and teachers were identified, particularly in relation to the nature and purpose of PE within HWB. Policy constructors were concerned that given the strength of the health discourse permeating Scottish society, that teachers may interpret the policy text exclusively in relation to improving health and fitness and increasing physical activity levels and as such they emphasised the necessity for teachers to broaden their vision of
PE. The government controlled the process of policy text production, which limited the extent policy constructors could make a contribution to shaping the vision for PE, as a result the meaning and purpose of PE was not debated prior to these developments and therefore was not clearly articulated in the policy documentation. PE, therefore, was being made to ‘fit’ the new curriculum. This was further compounded by the strong message about the role of PE and the development of physical health. There was evidence to suggest that teachers’ understanding of PE’s purpose within HWB was to improve children’s fitness, distorting policy intentions. Lack of communication and involvement between the national-level policy constructors and the local-level teachers clearly has the potential to result in a form of PE that is far removed from current good practice/models of PE. Without a clearly communicated vision for PE, there is a danger that PE may be reduced to a vehicle that attempts, in vain, to improve the health and fitness of the nation.

Scotland has joined the global, relatively dramatic shift, in a worldwide policy to incorporate complex and contextualised policy processes into curriculum design. In the wake of the policy as a process where teachers are actively involved in the design of curriculum innovation, structures need to be put into place to increase the capacity of teachers to take forward the government proposals to create ambitious programmes of educational change (Scottish Government 2008). This research has implications not only for national curricular but also for any reform initiatives that involve teachers in the devise and development of curricula. Enactment in this case requires teachers to be aware of the values and principles of policy and increase their capacity to create curricula that enable children to have educational experiences, which authentically capture the essence of policy intentions. As the educational policy moves from a prescriptive model of ‘a curriculum’ to a model that draws on professional capacity to translate and adapt curricula, it is crucial that policy intentions, aims and values are not lost in the process. As PE teachers’ act as agents of change, translating, moulding and recreating policy uniquely to fit within the opportunities and constraints of the cultural, social and material structure of the school, there is a genuine fear that policy intentions may mutate as they percolate into practice. Transformational change in educational provision may be the aim of governments and policy constructors, and entrusting teachers and schools to enable curriculum change is laudable. This research indicates that there are possibilities and opportunities to make substantial progress to ensure an education that is ‘fit for purpose’. The caveat appears to be that without shared vision, curriculum development is unlikely to move beyond morphostasis or at best a form of morphostasis. It would appear that for curriculum change and development to be considered morphogenic then those concerned with PE at the school and the policy level need to be clearer about the educational ‘purpose’ of PE.

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References


Physical education teachers’ perceptions of factors that inhibit and facilitate the enactment of curriculum change in a high-stakes exam climate

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Physical education teachers’ perceptions of factors that inhibit and facilitate the enactment of curriculum change in a high-stakes exam climate

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ABSTRACT
Policy enactment is a dynamic process, which invites agents to uniquely create and recreate policy as an ongoing process. Few policies arrive in school fully formed and the process of policy enactment involves teachers navigating policy frameworks in a way that provides success for each individual pupil. This research examines the complexities involved in teacher enactment of new policy in schools with the added caveat of investigating the impact that high-stakes exams place on teachers to act as agents of change. The primary objective was to ascertain whether inhibitors and facilitators identified in literature were recurring during the period of change in physical education (PE). The secondary objective was to investigate how PE teachers enact curriculum change utilising a flexible curriculum framework to achieve success at examination level. The research reflects a journey from the broad realms of curriculum studies towards a more in-depth analysis of the realist theory of analytical dualism. Semi-structured individual interviews were conducted with five full time PE teachers working within one secondary school in Scotland. The results indicated that revolutionary change was somewhat stagnated by potent inhibitors such as a lack of collaboration with policy-makers and vague course documentation. These were compounded by an inherent desire for pupils to succeed that induced feelings of wariness and indecision amongst teachers. The flexible curriculum and guidance offered by policy-makers was insufficient for teachers to confidently pose as curriculum decision-makers, resulting in a call for a more explicitly structured course. It became clear that teachers acting as agents of change who help devise and develop policy require support, collaboration and direction to empower and buttress their decision-making, particularly when faced with the high-stakes nature of the examination climate.

Introduction

Over the last few decades, industrialised countries have been subject to what Levin (1998) describes as an ‘epidemic’ of education reform. However, amongst other factors, it has been argued that the concurrent demise of curriculum theory has resulted in the production of ‘mix-and-match’ curricula (Priestley & Humes, 2010) which have proven problematic at implementation level. In Scotland, such criticism has undoubtedly been directed at the recently established Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) (e.g. Priestley, 2010), although this is a policy which has the potential to be a catalyst for

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transformational change in Scottish education. CfE has necessitated a revised examination structure at the senior level of schooling (ages 14–18), which has resulted in the creation of a range of National Qualifications which ‘reflect Curriculum for Excellence values, purposes and principles’ (Scottish Qualifications Authority [SQA], 2012, p. 3). This research is concerned with the transition from the old examination system within the Higher Still framework (SQA, 1999) to National 4 and 5 physical education (PE), the most recent of the National Qualifications (SQA, 2012). Research surrounding the embrace of previous policies and more relevantly CfE itself – provide a literature context which is conducive to identifying the potential facilitators and inhibitors of curriculum change. The area of research is particularly relevant of late, as the recent worldwide increase in status of certificated PE presents a more pressurised, ‘high-stakes’ transition to new policy for teachers.

The theoretical and empirical literature reported in this research provides the context for the study, and is underpinned by two key aims. The primary objective is to identify PE teachers’ perceptions of the inhibitors and facilitators of curriculum change. The secondary objective is to explore how PE teachers enact curriculum change at a certificated level. It is assumed that if light is shed upon those factors which may contribute to the success and fluidity of the change to National 4/5 PE, conclusions can subsequently be formed regarding teacher receptivity to enact new policy both in Scotland and – to a certain extent – globally. Furthermore, an understanding of these tenets will ascertain whether CfE has succeeded in its aim to create a revolutionary curriculum.

**Background**

CfE has been referred to as a ‘new breed of national curriculum’ (Priestley, 2010, p. 23), where top-down, government-led policy is mediated by teachers initiating bottom-up curricular development as agents of change. In other words, teachers interpret a flexible curricular framework and exercise agency in order to enact policy appropriately within their unique contextual setting:

> The framework is less detailed and prescriptive than previous curriculum advice. It provides professional space for teachers and other staff to use in order to meet the varied needs of all children and young people. (Scottish Executive, 2004, p. 1)

In addition, the national certificated courses offer ‘flexibility to provide more time for learning, more focus on skills and applying learning, and scope for personalisation and choice’ (SQA, 2012, p. 3). These aims reflect the needs of a rapidly changing society, and are not dissimilar from those introduced to Finnish education following the 1994 curricular reform (Vulliamy, Kimonen, Nevalainen, & Webb, 1997). Likewise, the Australian curriculum is typical of this worldwide trend, and was explicitly designed with inbuilt openness to enable authorities and schools to engage in reflective, individualised practice (ACARA, 2015). However, whilst ‘ambitious’ (Scottish Government, 2008) in nature, the literature identifies that such attempts to introduce radical curricular changes are often met with resistance (e.g. Bekalo & Welford, 2000; Curtner-Smith, 1999; MacPhail, 2007). The complexity of assessing the enactment of curriculum change has been widely noted (e.g. Eisner, 2005; Fullan, 2001), and a further understanding of inhibitors and facilitators of change is crucial in providing rationale for deeper, more meaningful ‘enabler’ studies, such as that of MacLean, Mulholland, Gray, and Horrell (2015).

This research initially reflects a journey from the broad realms of curriculum studies towards a more in-depth analysis of the realist theory of analytical dualism. Specific attention is paid to the formation of teacher agency, and how an understanding of this concept helps critique the issues which arise from the analysis of curriculum change. Subsequently, a brief insight into the work of Adams (2011) on ‘policy as discourse’ provides further opportunity to consider the interplay between policy creation and response. A linear view of policy focuses on the generation and the implementation phase, seeking to measure the authenticity of policy implementation. However, an alternative view would be to conceptualise policy as process. This stance illuminates the complex and contextualised policy processes that involve debate, conflict and struggle for power identified by Bowe,
Ball, and Gold (1992), in the context of influence, policy text production and practice. This permits an evaluation and exploration into how teachers enact policy rather than implement policy work in schools (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012). Due to the flexible framework associated with this breed of policy, it is key to illuminate the underlying factors which serve to inhibit or facilitate the engenderment of teacher agency. In this vein, the research will discuss literature of a critical realist shade, specifically drawing upon Archer’s (1988, 1995, 1996) analytical dualism and contributions to Buckley’s (1967) concepts of ‘morphogenesis’ and ‘morphostasis’. Such theories have not been used extensively in educational research, though Priestley (2011a) advocates that they provide a relevant conceptual framework for analysis.

**Revolutionary curriculum**

Recent years provide evidence of an ‘epidemic’ (Levin, 1998) of curriculum change worldwide; and in Scotland. Priestley (2011a) identifies a dichotomy trending in contemporary educational policy. One stance poses teachers as inhibitors of the change for various reasons, constructing curriculum change ‘as a matter of the simple implementation of teacher proof curricula’ (Priestley, 2011a, p. 2). In contrast, the ‘new breed of national curriculum’ (Priestley, 2010, p. 23) represents top-down, government-led policy which provides opportunity for bottom-up curricular development, thus offering teachers the role of ‘agents of change’ (e.g. Goodson, 2003; Nieveen, 2011) enacting policy in schools. CfE – along with the New Zealand Curriculum, Australian Curriculum and more recently England’s National Curriculum – displays typical features of this new type of policy trajectory. However, there have been criticisms regarding the lack of theory used to reinforce these new policies. Priestley and Humes (2010) outline the recurring pitfalls of this ‘atheoretical’ approach to curriculum design, showing evidence of the resultant incoherence and tendencies to favour a ‘mix-and-match’ approach with regard to curricular model. This lack of theoretical foundation is reinforced by Priestley (2010, p. 24) who claims:

> Developments such as CfE, through their renewed emphasis on teachers as agents of change, have exposed the current paucity of curriculum theory … and this in turn has led to a lack of capacity to deal with the issues that such curricula throw up as they are translated from policy to practice.

This translation of policy to practice is often discussed in educational change literature, with policy usually framed as something which mutates between contextual settings rather than a fixed entity. This is a process which is well established in educational change literature (e.g. Cuban, 1998; Eisner, 1992), though more recently has been termed ‘iterative refraction’ (Supovitz, 2008). Supovitz and Weinbaum (2008) identify that iterative refraction can be potentially positive, as teachers can attempt to creatively apply policy within their individualised school context – a process clearly recognised and encouraged in the new National 5 course literature in Scotland. However, Ball et al. (2012) criticise iterative refraction, suggesting an overemphasis on the linear process of carrying out policy implementation; rather than emphasising the translation and recontextualisation of the policy process.

Teachers involved in designing this course at school level are encouraged to use methods which are ‘fit for purpose and will promote best practice’ (SQA, 2012, p. 3), within an assessment regime which gives ‘more autonomy and professional responsibility to teachers’ (Scottish Government, 2010, p. 4). However, Priestley (2010) is one commentator who does not view CfE as a policy which has capitalised on this knowledge, contrarily arguing that it ‘fails to take account of these insights, framed as it is in terms of outcomes and products’ (p. 25). Indeed, such a faux pas has been said to have contributed to teachers failing to embrace the values and ideologies of CfE (Priestley & Minty, 2013). An underlying concern here is the lack of collaboration between teachers and policy-makers in the policy construction process (MacLean et al., 2015). This is an inhibitor echoed in the study composed by Dyson, Wright, Amis, Ferry, and Vardaman (2011) investigating PE policy in the USA, where a lack of coordination between key actors, teachers, principals and students resulted in ‘implementation failure’ (p. 376) in schools.
The extent of teacher involvement in the curriculum development process has been the concern of many authors (e.g. Fullan, 1991; Kirk & MacDonald, 2001; Maclean et al., 2015; MacPhail, 2007; Penney & Evans, 1999). Penney and Evans (1999) found that the lack of teacher involvement in the creation of National Curriculum PE in England resulted in decreased enthusiasm amongst teachers. MacPhail (2007) highlights that if teachers are not involved in the curriculum process, it can only be expected that they subsequently require specific knowledge in order to understand and deliver it. Yet, this reinforces a rather linear view of implementation where teachers are seen as recipients and deliverers of a prescribed curriculum. Kirk and MacDonald (2001) envisage policy more as a process that requires to be coproduced, with teachers involved as partners with other stakeholders in the creation of national policy. For example in most Australian states, teachers are considered key stakeholders in the production of new curricula and adopt roles such as policy advisors and participants in school-based trials (Leahy, Burrows, McCuaig, Wright, & Penney, 2016). Priestley (2010, p. 34) outlines that ‘the key point here is that there needs to be a clearly articulated process for engaging with innovation brought about by externally initiated policy’.

One such ‘innovation’ often considered pivotal in assisting those teachers acting under new flexible policy frameworks, is collaborative engagement in continuing professional development (CPD). Studies conducted by Dunscombe and Armour (2004) and Armour and Yelling (2007) have indicated that most often, schools do not readily adopt collaborative approaches to CPD. However, following a large-scale study of PE curriculum change in Hong Kong, it was identified that collaborative CPD amongst university scholars, school teachers and educational curriculum officers engendered greater security and confidence in the face of significant change (Ha, Lee, Chan, & Sum, 2004). This approach to teacher training seems to be a key concern of the new National Qualifications in Scotland and is strongly encouraged in the ‘Building the Curriculum’ CfE documents (Scottish Government, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010). It is thought that appropriate CPD can support the development of ‘robust reflective, discursive, collaborative and inclusive teacher identities in practitioners’ (Kelly, 2006, p. 515). In posing teachers as agents of change, these qualities are indeed of paramount importance, though such a claim warrants deeper analysis of the processes that impinge upon the formation of teacher agency.

**Teachers as agents of change**

There is an emerging tendency in global curriculum policy to oppose traditional reform and explicitly construct teachers as agents of change (e.g. Goodson, 2003; Nieveen, 2011). However, such a tendency has not coincided proportionately with educational research, and there have been few attempts to explicitly investigate or develop the concept of teacher agency. In contrast, agency itself has been extensively theorised and has at times been crudely applied to educational change models, arguably resulting in the underestimation of the role teacher agency holds in curriculum reform (Leander & Osborne, 2008). Biesta and Tedder (2006) describe agency as the ability of an individual to critically shape their responses to problematic situations. However, this smacks of Fuchs’s (2001) description of an individualised understanding of agency, and one which does not provide such fertile theoretical ground for discussion. Perhaps analysis would benefit from the consideration that agency is not a capacity which teachers do or do not possess, but ‘as something that is achieved in and through concrete contexts for action’ (Priestley, Biesta, & Robinson, 2012, p. 7). This assumption that agency is an ongoing process which can be nurtured in certain contexts is reinforced by the work of Emirbayer and Mische (1998), who present agency as a configuration of influences from the past, engagement with the present and orientations towards the future. This tenet is one which is compatible with – and indeed elaborated through – a critical realist understanding of the concept of agency.

Critical realism is a paradigm which is gaining substantial support and is being increasingly preferred to both positivism and postmodernism in explaining human behaviour and social reality (Kahn, 2009). This is perhaps because it combines a depth ontology with epistemological relativism.
(Elder-Vass, 2008), that is, that knowledge is a social product and comes about through human interaction. However, much social theorising (e.g. Bourdieu, 1998; Foucault, 1970) exclusively prizes the latter, and attempts to explain human behaviour exclusively in terms of social structure. This angle rarely considers the interplay between individuals and imposing cultural and structural systems, a premise upon which Archer’s (1988, 1996) analytical dualism is conceived. This separation of the various aspects of social reality allows for judgements to be made regarding the relative causative weight of culture, structure and agency (Priestley, 2011b), a process which can prove useful in the identification of inhibitors and facilitators of change. For example, in claiming that the department is the main locus for the development of teaching (e.g. Knight, 2002), a repercussion of this is the downplaying of the influence of various other cultural and structural systems on agency.

It is noted that Bourdieu’s (1977) notion of ‘habitus’ and Giddens (1979, 1984) theory of structuration also attempt to further unpick the intricacies of agency. However, Bourdieu’s work is often critiqued for its ‘fuzziness’, or lack of empirical specificity (e.g. Bernstein, 1996) and the latter draws criticism for insisting on the inseparability of agency and structure, a tenet which according to Archer (1988) consequently obscures the interactive processes which occur between individuals and their cultural and structural settings.

Analytical dualism dictates that structural and cultural systems provide the context for human activity, though crucially these do not necessarily determine such activity, given that humans are creative and reflexive beings (Kahn, 2009; Priestley, 2011b). Kahn (2009) considers the role of reflexive deliberation in the ‘agentive’ process, where the individual evaluates imposing structural and cultural systems through inner conversation, in order to shape the decision-making process. For example, Priestley (2010) supplies evidence that the ‘vagueness of specification’ (p. 27) associated with CfE has led teachers to make dangerous assumptions and self-informed decisions which go against the proposed values of the curriculum. The lack of imposing structure in this instance has resulted in the over-use of teacher deliberation and consequent ‘ad hocery’ at the expense of desired curricular outcomes – an issue similarly reported by Dyson et al. (2011) in their study of educational reform in America.

It is also crucial to note that teacher decision-making is likely to be affected by existing systems within the school such as the timetable and the attainment agenda, which have the potential to limit the promotion of active learning. However, not all teachers will experience the same degree of structural and cultural influence. Newly qualified professionals are often teaching for the first time in an unfamiliar cultural setting (Musselin, 2004) and therefore the context for teacher agency is perhaps affected even more so by imposing cultural and structural systems and less reflexive deliberation (Kahn, 2009). These are factors which should be considered when attempting to explain teacher behaviour and decision-making, and when analysing the extent of the change in question.

**Transformational change**

Viewing policy as discourse provides an opportunity to consider the interplay between policy creation and response. Adams (2011) succinctly poses that:

> Actions become legitimised through the policy form, created within wider discourses through the moment-by-moment conversations that provide recognisable social, cultural, historical, economic and political possibilities. What we see therefore is not the mediation of policy into the local space but rather the formation of policy at the local level. (p. 66)

In essence, this excerpt concludes that rather than mediate a foreign text provided by policy-makers, teachers are actively involved in the policy formation process through engaging in formal and informal collaboration in their unique contextual settings. However, Bacchi (2000, p. 55) warns of a tendency amongst policy-as-discourse theorists to view certain groups as ‘having power, as the
makers and users of discourse’. She dismisses the use of the theory in this manner, arguing that this overemphasis acts in detriment to the analytical value of viewing policy as discourse. This would suggest that all parties involved in enacting change have power to form the policy through ‘the discursive moments that take place within the professional arena’ (Adams, 2011, p. 66). Such a theory, therefore, applies to educators and policy-makers alike.

When curriculum change is considered as discourse, teacher engagement with new policy is a social process where cycles of change may or may not come about. In this vein, Archer (1995) discusses a concept known as morphogenesis/morphostasis9 – the terms denoting change and continuity. These allude to the processes which affect the extent of the transformation of dynamics within a context, or restructuring of the previous system (Archer, 1995; Buckley, 1967). For example in a school, new courses would replace previous policy and practice, although the extent of its success would perhaps depend upon the interplay of structure, culture and agency.10 Through analysis of these relationships, it is possible to pinpoint prevalent inhibitors and facilitators of the change process, or in other words the key morphostatic and morphogenetic forces (Buckley, 1967; Rees & Gatenby, 2014).

Morphostatic forces serve to reproduce the dynamics of the context, and retain the social structure of the current system (Buckley, 1967). Various literature identifies prominent inhibitors as tensions between teachers and policy-makers (MacLean et al., 2015; MacPhail, 2007); diminishing local and national authority assistance/support (Thorburn, 2010); a lack of effective collaborative practice (Ha, Wong, Sum, & Chan, 2008; Thorburn, Carse, Jess, & Atencio, 2011) and constraints due to prevalent attainment agendas (Biesta, 2004). Whilst not exhaustive, this list provides a plethora of factors which may inhibit the success of policy reform. Contrarily, a knowledge of one’s own responsibilities, a strong, supportive head of department and both formal and informal departmental communication were identified as some key morphogenetic forces in a study conducted by Rees and Gatenby (2014). Further to this, commentators have noted that for the brave vision of CfE to be realised, research must form a collaborative link with policy and practice to achieve sustainable success (Hayward, 2007; MacLean et al., 2015). A study composed by MacLean et al. (2015) found this to be one of several key ‘enablers’ of curriculum change, alongside the creation of a social structure in schools which provides guidance, support and feedback on teacher efforts to enact new curriculum initiatives. Without these influences, it has proven very difficult to sustain real, lasting change.

It has been considered that most often curriculum change manifests as a form of morphostasis (Archer, 1995), with the resultant outcome an amalgamation of previous practice and new policy. Priestley (2010, 2011a) and Priestley and Humes (2010) suggest that in-keeping with global trends, a lack of content knowledge and the tools required may render teachers powerless to fully enact the changes associated with CfE. Conversely, Thorburn, Jess, and Atencio (2009, 2011) suggest there are encouraging signs in Scottish education, and that the current policy context is one which offers PE the opportunity to address ‘political, institutional and epistemological barriers’ (2009, p. 210).

**Purpose**

This case study is located in one secondary school in Scotland and whilst limitations of generalising findings are acknowledged, this is an approach which has proven conducive to prior educational research (Davies, 2007). Through qualitative analysis of individual interviews, the research hopes to shine a modest light upon the most influential inhibitors and facilitators as perceived by PE teachers, in an ever-evolving climate of PE policy. In doing so, it is hoped it will make a substantial contribution to curriculum change literature, as well as proposing areas for future research and consideration that are outside the scope of this study.

The following research aims to ascertain whether inhibitors and facilitators identified by the literature are recurring in this school during the period of transition to the new National 5 PE course
within Scotland’s CfE. The study is based upon the two aforementioned research objectives. In this, the first compulsory year of National 5 in schools, it is a valuable time to identify inhibitors and facilitators to the change, in order to gauge whether teachers will engage with the course effectively. Teachers are on the front line of education and are often identified as the most important agents of policy reform (Hall & Hord, 2001), therefore their perceptions are of the utmost relevance. The range of experience and personalities within the department provided for interesting results as to the agency of the teachers throughout the change. It is thought that through identifying the important inhibitors and facilitators of the change to National 5 PE, future change – both in and outwith education – will benefit from an improved understanding of prominent influences on policy reform.

Working within interpretative boundaries, the research is a qualitative case study of a PE department in a secondary school in Scotland. A common critique of case study is the limitations for generalising (Sarantakos, 2005; Siedman, 2006). However, this study is based upon the premise highlighted by Yin (2003), which posits the single case study as a means to achieve ‘analytical generalisation’ rather than to produce representative data or truly generalisable results. A common misconception noted by Kvale (1996, p. 103) is that ‘the more interviews, the more scientific’ the research. However, it is hoped that a smaller sample size will result in a greater depth of response; it is noted that the very nature of a qualitative study of this magnitude is conducive to educational research (Davies, 2007). Clearly, the aim of the study is not to reinvent the wheel, but as Robson (2011, p. 333) aptly claims: ‘Researchers often seem more interested in paddling their own canoes rather than doing their bit by adding another brick to the grand collective scientific enterprise’. The current stage of enactment dictates the lack of research surrounding the change to National Qualifications, and therefore the study addresses a substantial dearth in the literature. The main focus was to discern whether teachers in this school were engaging with this curriculum change similarly to – or differently from – those in previous research.

Methods and procedures

Participants

The Institute Ethical Committee granted ethical approval and informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to the commencement of the study. Information was gathered from one local authority to identify those schools which fulfilled two main criteria. Firstly, it was crucial that the school was in its second year of implementation of the National 5 course, in order for participants to provide a comprehensive understanding of the change process as a whole. Secondly, for breadth and depth of response it was imperative to the study that each member of the chosen department had some experience teaching the course. From the cohort of schools which met the criteria, a school for the case study was randomly selected. The result was a non-denominational school in East Lothian with a roll of around 1000 pupils, the vast majority of whom were from a white, middle-class background. Respondents included 2 males and 3 females with 2–40 years teaching experience, ranging from ‘newly qualified teacher’ to ‘principal teacher’ of PE.

Interviews

Prior to conducting interviews, a pilot study was an essential consideration in the research methods (see e.g. Sampson, 2004). As a result of this process, some amendments were made to the wording and order of the questions. Subsequently, focused interview schedules (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Gordon, 1999) were followed in a semi-structured format which included six open-ended questions and probes (Gilham, 2000). Questions were developed using the ‘Goldilocks’ test (Clough & Nutbrown, 2007) and encompassed themes of participant background and experience, perceptions of
curriculum change, perceptions of specific facilitators and inhibitors, and emotive perceptions regarding personal thoughts throughout the early stages of change.

**Data analysis**

Due to the exploratory nature of the research, the aim was to proliferate many properties of the category of change and therefore attempt to yield property theory through the use of the constant comparative method (CCM) of analysis (Glaser, 1965). Firstly, transcripts were read and reread, to become familiar with responses (Dye, 2000) and initial analysis took the form of memos (Miles & Huberman, 1984) throughout the data. Thus, the first stages of CCM were initiated. The CCM method is not linear, but flits to and fro’ throughout the analytical process in order to constantly review and evaluate the data. In this vein, each memo or theme which arose from the data was compared to previous themes from similar sections. Once themes were deemed exhaustive (Robson, 2011), a coding framework was established and applied to the data. This verified Glaser’s (1965) proposal of codified procedures as significant catalysts in the transition from data to theory.

**Validity and reliability**

Referring to Maxwell’s (1996) tri-fold typology, it was noted that *description, interpretation* and *theory* could all pose potent threats to the validity and reliability of the study.

**Description**

Interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim to avoid inaccuracy or ‘incompleteness’ of data – a validity concern of the utmost importance (Robson, 2011). Participants also checked transcripts to ensure accuracy (Silverman, 2000). Furthermore, it was noted that the case study environment built positive, trusting researcher–respondent relationships which served to reduce reactivity and respondent bias (Robson, 2011). Both information gathered from the pilot study, and the use of the ‘Goldilocks’ test to form questions, reduce the likelihood of instances where data do not arrive naturally but rather is forced to the surface through the interviewer’s relationship with colleagues (Hargreaves & Dawe, 1990).

**Interpretation**

Sadler (1981) sheds light on the various deficiencies of the human as analyst listing inconsistency, data overload and uneven reliability as pertinent examples. Mason (1996) claims that for validity of interpretation, there must be a clear traceable path from data to ‘end product’ which highlights the importance of charting and justifying the aforementioned steps.

**Theory**

The theories arising from the data were constantly evaluated and critiqued through negative case analysis (Robson, 2011). This helped counter the inevitability of researcher bias, as Fetterman (1998) identifies that the analysis process is as much a test of the researcher as it is a test of the data.

In addition, a study such as this may draw reliability criticism for its lack of method or researcher triangulation. However, Bloor (1997) argues that whilst these are relevant to reliability and validity, they can prove problematic both logically and practically. For example, findings collected by different methods or by different researchers will diverge to an extent which makes their direct comparison less reliable. Furthermore, Denzin (1975) refers to ‘triangulation protocols’ as in the steps which the investigator takes to check alternate meanings and interpretations of the data. This was
indeed considered, and the use of CCM and negative case analysis of the interview data was deemed sufficient triangulation for this study.

**Outcomes and results**

The interview data gave rise to a wide range of perceived inhibitors and facilitators of the enactment of CfE’s new National 5 course. Emergent themes gathered from the interview data were sorted into four main umbrella categories: *policy framework, teacher agency, collaboration* and *school structure*. A brief definition of each category and description of the themes included will prefix an evaluation of the key findings within the section, each time comparing analysis with that of the reviewed literature.

**Policy framework**

This theme encapsulates the structure of the new course, and the extent to which it differed from its predecessor. Course documentation, assessment procedures and the change context itself formed responses sorted under the ‘policy’ umbrella, in order to discern whether the flexible policy framework itself was an inhibitor or facilitator to the change. It was comprehensively adjudged to align with the former, as teachers raised concerns regarding the course structure, the speed of the change and the ambiguous nature of the course documentation.

One inhibitor widely identified by respondents was the structure of the course and the extent of the change from previous policy. Indeed it was recognised that it was necessary to engage with the examinations and practices associated with the new course, but difficulties arose when attempting to infuse this engagement with previous experience and approaches used in past courses: ‘We tried to give them as many different practical experiences as we had done previously and we couldn’t fit that in’ (Teacher 2, Male). Almost immediately it was suggested that a form of morphostasis (Archer, 1995) was evident in the change process, through attempts to make links with the previous policy where there perhaps was minimal opportunity to do so. The main reason consistently given for this lack of compatibility with previous course experience was the vast quantity of written assessment in the new National 5 course. However, it was noted by the interviewees that the new course actually held a very similar body of knowledge to the previous one, something which was said to have eased the change for the subject. In addition, it was highlighted by the participants that this was an exciting opportunity for policy to channel through a positive iterative refraction (Supovitz, 2008) process into the contextual settings of the individual school.

Although elements of the flexible nature of the new policy were indeed praised in principle, the speed at which such a change was introduced was regarded as a key inhibitor to the change process. One teacher displayed concern regarding the effects of a rushed process, and the fine line between opportunities for teacher agency and engendering insecurity:

> I’ve no doubt there will have been creativity produced because of it, but I’ve also no doubt that there’ll be teachers insecure – feeling they’re a couple of lessons ahead of the pupils – and we know for a fact that’s transmitted across to the children in the last couple of years. That’s not healthy. (Teacher 1, Male)

These concerns were perhaps not expressed in dissatisfaction with the lack of time for course planning or preparation, but rather it was conveyed that confusion and insecurities were exacerbated by the lack of coinciding, explicit documentation. Teachers were aware that new course documents were to be treated as blueprints to adapt to their individual school, but were concerned about the vagueness of crucial exemplars and assessment criteria:

> Reading the documents, they were so open and vague, which I know is probably the way they should be, but it meant it was open to interpretation from every single teacher who’s read it. (Teacher 3, Male)
This finding echoes those of previous research (MacLean et al., 2015; Priestley, 2010) which proved that the possibility for numerous interpretations of the ‘vague’ policy text, meant teachers struggled to be sure of their course. Indeed, within a flexible policy framework, it is assumed that teachers will pose as curriculum decision-makers, though in this instance they felt they lacked the necessary tools to do so. Ironically, it was stressed that it would perhaps be easier for teachers to exercise agency within a more explicitly structured course:

I mean, to me if we had ‘this is how it should be done here, here and here,’ you can then adapt it. If you’re creative and you’re a forward thinker, and forward planning and a go-getter, you’ll change it. (Teacher 2, female)

It was evident that this teacher – and indeed several others – required greater course structure as a security, but it was assumed that this would not reduce the possibility for agency. What evidently did reduce opportunity for teacher agency was the insecurity brought about by their perceptions of being ‘kept in the dark’ by policy-makers. Furthermore, this insecurity towards mediating the flexible curriculum was compounded by the high-stakes examination climate and prevalent issues of teacher accountability.

Teacher agency

The second theme emerging from the data relates to the impact of various cultural systems upon the teacher’s sense of agency in mediating the flexible policy framework. Teaching experience, desire to enact change, and values and beliefs associated with both the subject area and the profession were some of the key themes that emerged. In contrast to issues regarding the flexible policy framework, findings purporting to this theme were largely positive, as teacher values, knowledge and experience were deemed key facilitators to the change.

One facilitator which proved refreshingly ubiquitous throughout responses, was the values and beliefs which underpinned teachers’ understanding of their job – in other words their professionalism, dedication and desire to work hard for the benefit of their pupils. Each teacher clearly had their pupils’ best interests at heart, and consistently portrayed their key concerns as relating to the experiences of the pupils on the new course. Several teachers commented on their efforts to ‘protect’ pupils from a negative experience of PE:

I spent my life learning the document- reading it, understanding it and I spent every night after school last year for four months working with pupils after school and working on my own after school, but most of it was done at home. (Teacher 2, Female)

A key factor which evidently assisted these efforts, was the teachers’ knowledge of their own clientele. The teachers took pride in knowing their pupils’ needs and abilities, a factor which enhanced their ability to tailor the course to suit – a fundamental of the new policy.

Interestingly, one teacher raised a valid point regarding the importance of teacher age and experience in the curriculum change process:

It comes down to being – I think – young enough, but just experienced enough that I can come into it with an open mind, that I’m not going to look at any changes … as a negative because the people making these changes know what they’re talking about and they’re trying to do the best for the pupils. (Teacher 3, Male)

Through emphasising the importance of his relative youth and experience, the teacher shows how curriculum decision-making can often be dependent on past experience, or future orientations (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). However, it therefore follows that the effect of experience and identity on the enactment of policy is not always a positive one. It was apparent that the two older members of the department favoured a traditional approach to PE. These teachers talked of feeling constrained in their ability to provide pupils with the practical, experiential learning and also fulfil the written assessment demands of the new course. Despite this, these concerns did not manifest as an inhibitor to change, due to an inherent desire to provide collegial support and guidance, in order to aid the reformation of the policy in school.
Collaboration

Within ‘collaboration’, themes were split between departmental collaboration, collaborating with policy-makers and collaborating with other teachers. Timing, quality and volume of collaboration were all key concerns. Findings unearthed a dichotomy of collaborative practice, as collaboration with policy-makers was identified as a significant inhibitor; whilst intra-departmental collaboration was considered an important facilitator.

Further to the aforementioned lack of explicit documentation surrounding the new National 5 course, all respondents noted the distinct lack of opportunity for quality collaboration with policy-makers throughout the change process. One teacher outlined that to improve the seemingly universal feelings of frustration and uncertainty, assistance had to come from above:

> What we needed, what we were crying out for was for some information to come from the SQA, Education Scotland or someone to say, to get a large group of teachers together and say ‘this is the national standard- this is what our expectation is’ or ‘these are our expectations for the year.’ (Teacher 3, Male)

In reality, teachers again felt separate from policy-makers in the context of text production reinforcing findings from countless previous research studies (e.g. Dyson et al., 2011; MacLean et al., 2015; Thorburn, 2010). It was claimed that the few attempts made to bridge this gap were unhelpful and somewhat false, as policy-makers seemed to have decided upon concrete agendas prior to collaboration. Teachers clearly still feel policy change comes ‘from a narrow belt of opinion and then it’s thrown at the profession’ (Teacher 1, Male).

It was perceived by one teacher as ‘obvious’ that there should be collaborative practice between policy-makers and teachers:

> I certainly feel that there should be a relationship, I mean I don’t know why there shouldn’t be, because really we’re the people that are teaching it and giving the kids the information so if we don’t have proper clarification on what we need to do, how are we meant to do it correctly? (Teacher 4, Female)

MacLean et al. (2015) identified that teachers require facilitative leadership and guidance to buttress their decision-making, a concept which seems to be reinforced by these findings. However, in the absence of opportunities for quality collaboration with policy-makers, problems seem to have again risen from teachers mediating the flexible framework and acting as agents of change. Moreover, these problems were exacerbated by the current high-stakes examination climate and a fear of falling short of the national standards. Among other factors, these have manifested as mismanagements of the timing of the course and resultant negative experiences for pupils. Teachers bemoaned the need for long periods in the classroom towards the end of the year due to an underestimation of the volume of written work associated with the course. It was initially unclear what form of ‘relationship’ or collaboration with policy-makers was desired by the teachers. This became clearer once the collaboration of internal staff was discussed, and the importance of informal discussion highlighted.

On the other side of the aforementioned dichotomy was intra-departmental collaboration. Collaboration between teachers in the PE department was viewed unanimously as one of the most influential facilitators of the change. One teacher commented:

> In each school the fact that we had flexibility to do the course the way that we wanted – within certain parameters – then the most important was the internal staff. (Teacher 1, Male)

This insight highlights the importance of collaborative approaches when working under a flexible policy framework, proposing discussion and collegiality as key factors in refining the course to suit the individual context. Such collaboration was also said to provide a resource for those less experienced teachers in the department who have been said to rely more on colleague support and the structures of the department than their own reflexive deliberation (Kahn, 2009). The frequency of
this formal and informal discussion amongst the teachers was appreciated by several respondents, one of whom claimed:

It’s all the time. It’s during DM’s, it’s during lunchtime conversations, it’s during an episode of team-teaching, it’s after school discussions, it’s – you know – in our own time if we’re out socialising with one another we can still discuss small bits of the curriculum … there’s constantly educational debate going on and ways of making things better. (Teacher 3, Male)

Such a statement, whilst entirely refreshing, is also a crucial tenet of morphogenesis (Archer, 1995), as research continually shows the importance of collaborative approaches to the professional development of teachers (Armour & Yelling, 2007; Dunscombe & Armour, 2004; Ha et al., 2004). Such claims also hint at possible stipulations for the aforementioned ‘relationship’ desired to bridge the teacher–policy-maker gap. Viewing policy as discourse, the day-to-day contextual conversations highlighted here are viewed as crucial to the formation of new policy (Adams, 2011). The value placed on such interaction by the teachers suggests a similar ‘relationship’ was necessary to collaboratively interpret the change with policy-makers at an early stage.

School structure

Finally, ‘school structure’ refers to the incidents in the data where issues regarding whole-school and departmental structures were considered. These include school traditions, departmental environment and departmental practices. All of these key themes were found to facilitate the process of curriculum change in various ways.

It was found that the supportive department environment was a facilitator which was highly valued amongst the teachers, as almost all respondents viewed the department as the main locus for teacher learning and curriculum decision-making (Knight, 2002). One teacher spoke of the individual agency which each member of staff experienced, thanks to the facilitating management of the head of department:

Because each of us are individuals, we all have different teaching styles, we all have different ways of delivering a classroom lesson, a practical lesson here and there and that’s where our principal teacher is brilliant for allowing us that freedom. (Teacher 3, Male)

A strong, supportive head of department has been identified in previous studies as a crucial morphogenetic force (Rees & Gatenby, 2014), and it seems similar findings have arisen here. Through the department head placing value on agency and facilitating a supportive departmental environment, teachers were provided with a concrete context for action (Priestley et al., 2012) and offered guidance, support and feedback on their efforts to enact the new policy and develop the curriculum to suit their pupils (MacLean et al., 2015). In addition to this, the head of department stressed the importance of keeping up tradition:

I have a great department, they work hard, they want to do the best job. In a high achieving school, we are a high achieving department – we have that tradition and we don’t want to let that drop. (Teacher 1, Male)

Through working in a setting which was traditionally hard-working and high-achieving, the cultural systems (Priestley, 2010) of the school evidently served to reinforce good practice and impact positively on teacher decision-making.

A further facilitator which was primarily referenced by the three younger teachers in the department, was that of the department’s team teaching schedule. It was noted that their comparative lack of teaching experience meant such a structure developed confidence in their course delivery, and eased the pressures of accountability:

I preferred not having the responsibility of having a class myself, so that if I was struggling, the ownership wasn’t on me, and say if I felt my lesson didn’t cover as much as it should have, I knew that there were two other lessons with different teachers which might reiterate that or explain it differently. (Teacher 5, Female)
Such a process was deemed both educationally valuable for pupils, and provided greater security and structure to those less experienced, and less able to exercise reflexive deliberation (Kahn, 2009).

Indeed, morphogenesis requires not only personal agency but structural support (MacLean et al., 2015), both of which were arguably present in this department. However, due to the aforementioned inhibitors, complete morphogenesis could not be realised, and at best the change can be described as a form of morphostasis (Archer, 1995). Teachers expressed interest and engagement with the agentive role they were offered, though such optimism was somewhat quelled – primarily by vague documentation and a dissatisfaction with the opportunities for collaboration with policy-makers. Teachers and policy-makers would have benefitted from coming together to collectively view the policy as discourse (Adams, 2011) prior to the introduction of the new course. The informal, unstructured collaboration so highly valued at a local (department) level was perhaps necessary at an early stage with policy-makers, rather than structured CPD with seemingly concrete agendas.

Conclusion

This research sought to examine the complexities involved in teacher enactment of new policy in schools with the added caveat of investigating the impact that ‘high-stakes’ exams place on teachers to act as agents of change. Some of the key inhibitors to change found were noticeably similar to findings from the recent ‘enablers’ study composed by MacLean et al. (2015). In both studies, teachers were wary of the autonomy granted to them by the flexible policy framework. However, in this instance, teachers seemed to appreciate more fully the rationale for such a curriculum, and the new course was largely viewed as a way of channelling a positive iterative refraction (Supovitz, 2008) process into the unique contextual setting of the school. In addition, the teachers took pride in knowing their pupils’ needs and abilities to an extent where this process was facilitated by an ability to tailor the course to suit – a fundamental of the new policy. Despite this, an inherent desire for pupils to succeed caused alarming levels of wariness and indecision – especially due to the high-stakes nature of the examination climate. These concerns were perhaps not expressed in dissatisfaction with the lack of time for course planning or preparation, but rather it was conveyed that insecurities were exacerbated by the lack of coinciding, explicit documentation. Teachers were aware that new course documents were to be treated as blueprints to adapt to their individual school, but were concerned about the vagueness and paucity of crucial exemplars and assessment criteria.

Echoing previous research, it would seem that there remains friction between teachers and policy-makers, as teachers identified policy as conceived of a narrow belt of opinion and subsequently ‘thrown at the profession’. It was claimed that attempts made by policy-makers to bridge this gap seemed false and were neither helpful towards the understanding of the documentation, nor the enactment of the new course. A factor which proved more helpful was the everyday departmental conversation which helped ‘form’ the policy within the school context. Teachers highlighted the importance of collaborative approaches when working under a flexible policy framework, proposing internal discussion and collegiality as key factors in refining the course to suit the individual context. Such collaboration was also said to provide a structural resource for those less experienced teachers in the department who have been said to rely more on colleague support and the structures of the department than their own reflexive deliberation (Kahn, 2009). This informal, unstructured collaboration so highly valued at local (department) level was preferred to the rigid agendas associated with teacher CPD. It was concluded that to collectively adopt a policy-as-discourse approach from an early stage would allow both teachers and policy-makers to form new policy collaboratively, in a discursive manner.

Transformational change may be the aim of the creators of educational policy such as CfE, but as PE teachers’ act as agents of change, translating and adapting curricula uniquely to fit within the unique contextual settings of the school, they require leadership and guidance to buttress their
decision-making (MacLean et al., 2015). Guidance offered by policy-makers was insufficient for teachers to confidently pose as curriculum decision-makers, and ironically, results suggested it would perhaps be easier for teachers to exercise agency within a more explicitly structured course. The results of the introduction of the new policy manifested as a form of morphostasis (Archer, 1995), where revolutionary change was somewhat stagnated by several potent inhibitors. Despite this however, conveying a lack of teacher engagement would be somewhat inaccurate due to the work ethic and desire to succeed demonstrated by each teacher. It was reassuring to find that the three younger PE teachers charged with leading the course in subsequent years were excited, driven and accepting of their roles of ‘agents of change’. It was thought their youthfulness and enthusiasm provided them with an open mind conducive to engaging with the new form of policy, which is testament to the notion that curriculum decision-making can be dependent on past experience or future orientations (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). Furthermore, whilst the more experienced teachers held reservations about the direction of the course, they engaged fully in the interpretation and conversation involved at a curricular level and provided constant support and guidance to aid the reformation of the policy in school.

The aim of this research was to add ‘another brick to the grand collective scientific enterprise’ (Robson, 2011, p. 333), through the analysis of curriculum change in relation to new educational policy. It is acknowledged that there are limitations in using a single case study, however these findings provide a modest platform for further, more meaningful research in this area. This study contributes to the progressive analysis of the stages of curriculum change, and begins to identify patterns in perceived inhibitors and facilitators of various educational change processes. Analysis of inhibitors highlighted the considerable concern shown towards the validity and fairness of the new assessment methods associated with National 5 PE, warranting further investigation into teachers’ perceptions of such, and the resultant implications for practice. The findings of this research have implications, not only for the enactment of national curricula, but for any policy reform which poses individuals as agents of change who help devise and develop the policy. As the education policy model shifts to one which draws on the professional to act as agents of change translating, creating and adapting curricula, it is crucial that supporting documentation is explicit and teachers feel supported throughout the period of change. The challenge for future policy reform research is to consider the circumstances that are required at the appropriate time to allow radical change to be optimised.

**Disclosure statement**

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

**Notes**

1. Introduced in the 2013/2014 academic year; the first year of compulsory implementation across Scotland was 2014/2015 (Education Scotland, 2013).
2. Sometimes referred to as ‘barriers’ and ‘catalysts’ (e.g. Priestley, 2005).
3. In other words, agency which is theorised specifically in respect of the activities of teachers in schools (Priestley et al., 2012).
4. For purely analytic purposes.
5. Used loosely, for example in line with Porpora’s (1998) definition: emergent properties of systems of human relationships.
6. Pertaining to values, beliefs or ideas (Archer, 1988).
7. Largely based on anecdotal recounts.
8. Referring to an evolutionary process as opposed to a fixed moment, text or event (MacLean et al., 2015).
9. Sometimes referred to as the morphogenetic sequence (Archer, 1995).
10. As previously discussed. See also, MacLean et al. (2015).
11. Thus, addressing the dearth of related research at this early stage.
12. In other words, a study for its own sake, and therefore referred to as an intrinsic case study (Stake, 1995, 2003).
13. These will be displayed as morphostatic and morphogenetic forces (Buckley, 1967), as previously discussed.

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Teachers as agents of change in curricular reform: the position of dance revisited

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ABSTRACT
This paper reports findings from a recent large-scale survey of Physical Education (PE) teachers’ perceptions of teaching dance and compares them to results of a study completed 10 years previously [MacLean, J. (2007). A longitudinal study to ascertain the factors that impact on the confidence of undergraduate physical education student teachers to teach dance in Scottish schools. European Physical Education Review, 13 (1), 99–116]. The current position of dance is examined in light of the introduction of Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) in 2010, a national initiative in Scottish schools that provides a unified flexible curricular framework for children aged 3–18. Dance remains part of the PE curriculum but also for the first time in Scotland occupies an additional position within the Expressive Arts (EA). Teachers are positioned as agents of change tasked with greater autonomy, flexibility and responsibility in curriculum design. The inclusion of dance in both PE and EA provides potential for teachers to design curricula that excludes dance from the PE curriculum or alternatively use the opportunity to increase dance provision. Currently, little is known about the impact of CfE on the provision and position of dance or the factors that impinge on teachers’ decisions regarding the inclusion of dance in the curriculum. To further understand this, 85 secondary school PE teachers responded to a questionnaire concerning dance opportunities within the current school context. In addition, the original participants from MacLean (2007) research were re-interviewed to identify and explore the factors that enable teachers to achieve agency when teaching dance. The results indicated that collaborative planning, united goals and collective action had enabled teachers to significantly increase dance provision in schools. Teacher attention had shifted from concerns about individual capacity to a focus on the level of social, cultural and material support in providing valuable educational experiences in dance for all pupils.

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Introduction
Curriculum for Excellence (CfE), a national initiative in Scottish Schools, provides a unified curricular framework for children aged 3–18. Within this framework, Physical Education (PE) forms part of a collective alongside Physical Activity and Sport, within the newly created curricular area of Health and Well-being (HWB). Dance remains part of the PE curriculum but also, for the first time in Scotland, has the potential to occupy an additional position within the curricular area of Expressive Arts (EA), alongside Drama, Music and Art. CfE – along with the recently introduced Australian Curriculum (ACARA, 2012) – displays features of a new trend in educational policy wherein the curriculum is explicitly...
designed with inbuilt openness to enable authorities and schools to engage in reflective, individualised practice, with options to include dance in PE and in the Arts. The recommendation of the previous curriculum in Scotland (5–14 National Guidelines, SOED, 1992) was for every pupil to experience dance through PE. However, in 1995, SOEID stated that dance had suffered serious neglect in many schools. To investigate reasons for this decline in dance, MacLean (2007) conducted a longitudinal survey to discover the factors that affect PE students’ confidence to teach dance and the role played by practicum and the Initial Teacher Education (ITE) course in developing such confidence. A survey was administered annually from 2002–2006 tracking 85 students (F = 46, M = 39) through their four-year degree programme. In addition, 10 students took part in interviews during their final year of study to ascertain the factors that impinged on their effectiveness when teaching dance. The results identified that previous experience of dance, the university course and a propitious practicum enabled undergraduate students to teach dance in schools. MacLean (2007) identified that student teachers felt confident teaching dance but there were concerns that if opportunities for teaching dance were lacking in schools, then teachers’ confidence would be severely diminished. In 2010, the CfE was introduced into Scottish schools in the form of a flexible curriculum framework that was ‘less detailed and prescriptive than previous curriculum advice. It provides professional space for teachers and other staff to use in order to meet the varied needs of all children and young people’ (Scottish Executive, 2004a, p. 1). CfE places value on the professional role of the teacher and encourages teachers to translate and personalise the new policy to meet the needs of the learner and the requirements of the school. Teachers are required to exercise agency as they engage in recreating and enacting policy to fit within the opportunities and constraints of the contextual dimensions of their school (MacLean, Mulholland, Gray, & Horrell, 2015). In this case, the implementation of dance into both PE and EA could potentially cause PE teachers to design curricula that exclude dance from PE or alternatively use the opportunity to increase dance provision by offering opportunities in both HWB and EA.

To date, little is known about the impact of CfE on the provision and position of dance or the factors that influence teachers to include dance in the curriculum. Therefore, to examine these issues, this research sought to examine current dance opportunities created by CfE in the curriculum through a questionnaire. Factors that enable teachers to achieve agency to teach dance were examined by re-interviewing participants from MacLean’s (2007) study to reveal the elements that enable teachers to achieve agency to teach dance. The purpose of using the same participants from MacLean’s (2007) original study was to permit major themes identified in 2007 to be compared to current themes. Given the complexities that surround the enactment of new policy in PE, this paper invites readers to examine teacher agency in the detail of one activity within the PE curriculum. The challenges that PE teachers’ face when enacting new curricular policy in their school setting have been discussed elsewhere (see MacLean et al., 2015). However, it is the purpose of this paper to follow the policy journey into the ‘context of practice’ (Bowe, Ball, & Gold, 1992), to examine the curricular decisions that have been made by professionals as a result of CfE and then explore their perceptions of dance in the curriculum. To provide a background for the current study, the paper will initially consider the significance of teacher agency within the contextual dimensions of the school as an important factor in enabling teachers to include dance in the curriculum. Subsequently, a variety of dance styles and their educational value will be considered by using Mattsson and Lundvall’s (2015) pedagogical discourses as a framework for analysis.

**Teacher agency**

Wilson, MacDonald, Bryne, Ewing, and Sheridan (2008) and Connell (2009), when identifying some of the difficulties in planning, teaching and assessing dance, acknowledge that the practicalities for teaching dance are more demanding than that of other traditional activities. The planning and preparation that are involved in design and delivery of dance can act as a deterrent, which can result in teachers avoiding the activity. In an already congested curriculum with many competing demands
placed on a teachers’ time, the preparation element can prove problematic, leaving traditional activities easier to include in the curriculum. Some studies suggest that a number of PE teachers question the position of dance in their subject and lack the confidence to teach it (Lundvall & Meckbach, 2008; Sanderson, 1996). Certainly, the alignment of dance as a separate subject outside of PE appears to cast doubt on the credibility of PE teachers’ ability to teach dance effectively (Connell, 2009). Accordingly, there is an argument that PE teachers need to be ‘up skilled’ in dance to increase confidence (Blanche, 2007; Morgan & Bourke, 2008). On the contrary, Wilson et al. (2008) suggest that this has no bearing on effective teaching of dance, as research indicates that increased knowledge is not necessary for improved confidence but rather ‘a more positive self-image of themselves as teachers’ (p. 366). Research by MacLean (2007) supported that claim, indicating that a strong sense of identity attributed to feelings of confidence when teaching dance. Identity was an unexpected finding and yet:

The student teacher’s sense of identity, as teachers of dance, was central to producing feelings of confidence. The historical and cultural context of the students who had a background and interest in the performing arts resulted in an acceptance of dance as a familiar activity that evoked positive attitudes towards dance and feelings of confidence in teaching. Each student teacher’s sense of identity was subject to the ways in which the pupils responded to them and in their affirmation and enjoyment of the task set. It became clear that if the student teacher or the activity was met with resistance, then confidence was severely diminished and identity threatened. (MacLean, 2007, p. 111)

Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) suggest that identity and agency are inextricably linked as a realisation of identity, could lead to a heightened sense of agency. Teachers may use their agency to support new policy, develop a critical stance or even oppose educational change altogether (Sannino, 2010). Therefore, an understanding of what contributes to agency provides useful clues into the barriers and opportunities that can add or detract from a teacher’s ability to embrace change. Teacher agency has often been inappropriately associated with capacity, which teachers either do or do not possess. However, Priestley, Biesta, and Robinson (2015, p. 34) argue that agency should be regarded ‘as something that is achieved in and through concrete context for action’. Agency in this sense is considered as an ecological ongoing process which can be increased and nurtured in certain contexts, and exists as a configuration of past influences, present engagement and aspirations towards the future (Erimbayer & Mische, 1998). The important point to emphasise is the temporal nature of agency which focuses on the factors that inhibit or promote a heightened sense of agency. In simple terms, agency, unlike capacity, is not something that teachers have, but rather something to be achieved; ‘it denotes a quality of the engagement of actors with temporal-relational contexts of action, not quality of the actors themselves’ (Priestley, Biesta, & Robinson, 2013, p. 3). Therefore, the emphasis shifts from what teachers have (capacity) onto what teachers do (by means of their environment in and through which they act). This demonstrates why ‘capacity’ is a misleading measure of teacher ability to teach dance as it places value solely on teacher skills and knowledge rather than the interaction of what the teacher brings to the situation and the situation brings to the teacher. Therefore, Priestley (2010) suggests we consider those factors that increase teacher agency within the contextual dimensions of the school as a more productive way of understanding why some teachers are enabled to enact policy changes and others feel powerless to do so. It is reasonable to assume that teachers may avoid certain activities and situations that they believe exceed their capabilities. This may result in dance disappearing from the curriculum completely or by simply have a tokenistic inclusion. However, collaborative practices with other members of the PE department may well help teachers to act strategically and enable teachers to achieve agency. Archer (2000) suggests that shared strengths, united goals, collective action and collaborative influence in decision-making could result in a ‘collective agency’ where previous experiences combine, future trajectories seem plausible and current action is shared. Viewing agency in this way helps to explain how ‘teachers are able to be reflexive and creative, acting counter to societal constraints, but also how teachers are enabled and constrained by their social and material environments’ (Priestley et al., 2015, p. 22).
Contextual dimensions

Priestley (2010) identified certain factors that enable and constrain teachers in their efforts to change the curriculum including cultural, social and material structures. The cultural influences (Priestley, 2010) refers to are the constraints and opportunities that are already in existence that shape the culture of the school. These might include shared values, knowledge and predominant ideas about PE and dance which contribute to the school culture and are communicated to both teachers and pupils. Social structures are those which exist within the school setting. For example, the school’s leadership team may actively encourage the PE department to engage in curriculum innovation by seeking to empower them to teach across the two curricular domains. Social influences could also include the relationships between different key stakeholders, the ethos of the school or the willingness of teachers to be collegial and collaborate with others. Material structures include access to additional PE staff, dance specialists, finance to buy dance packages, the provision of a dance studio or opportunities to attend Career-Long Professional Learning (CLPL). CLPL is a useful way for teachers to maintain and develop their knowledge in all curricular areas. However, there is a well-documented lack of CLPL in dance (Blanche, 2007; Connell, 2009; Murphy, Neil, & Beggs, 2008). This can have an impact on practice as the longer teachers are away from their University training, the less confident they become (Henderson & Rodrigues, 2008). Furthermore, Hennessy, Rolfe, and Chedzoy (2001) emphasise that if teachers lack opportunities to teach activities, the positive effects of ITE will be eroded. The importance of CLPL therefore cannot be overlooked as appropriate support can develop ‘robust, reflective, discursive, collaborative and inclusive teacher identities in practitioners’ (Kelly, 2006, p. 515) which is essential when teachers are acting as agents of change.

The value of dance

Dance can take a variety of forms from simple spontaneous activity to formalised art or from a social gathering to a theatrical performance. Using Bernstein’s (2000) concept of code to examine the function dance serves, Mattsson and Lundvall (2015) examined the position of dance in pedagogical discourse in Swedish steering documents. They noted dominant discourses that tend to represent the form of dance in schools and the transmission of knowledge that is associated as a result. Several distinct discourses were identified: firstly, a public health discourse; secondly, an identity formation discourse; and finally, an aesthetic discourse. The public health discourse emphasises dance as a vehicle to stay fit and healthy. However, McFee (1994, p. 21) points out that this representation of dance is criticised because of its lack of attention to the emotive nature of dance. ‘Dance is not just another way of getting exercise … it is not just one activity among many. Dance offers much in the way of emotional education’. This argument is supported by Gard (2006, p. 238) who proposes that dance is limited within this discourse as ‘simply another context in which skills are developed and a healthier life is lived’. The identity formation discourse espouses national identity and the transmission of traditions of one’s own and other cultures. This type of dance is experienced in Scottish schools because it provides a link to the child’s cultural heritage and forms part of the history of human movement and communication (Brinson, 1991). It is this justification which underpins the teaching of Scottish Country dance and provides pupils with insights into their origins, traditions and contextualised history as transmitted from one generation to another (Henderson, 1990). In this way, dance can act as a medium for expanding the child’s cultural literacy. The aesthetic discourse, which, according to Mattsson and Lundvall (2015, p. 6), valued the ‘embodied experience of feelings expressed through movements’, was the least promoted in Swedish steering documents. In PE, the inclusion of creative and expressive dance facilitates motor creativity development and the pupils’ capacity to think divergently (Torrents, Castaner, Dinusova, & Anguera, 2013). Dance in this realm encourages the release of emotion and can be used as a creative means for communicating the inner self (Payne, 1990).
Crucially, there is an expectation that creative dance involves pupils in a process that draws on their emotions and ideas in a way which allows children to develop creative movement responses to a given task. The creative realm develops not only critical and analytical thinking in pupils as they respond to problem-solving tasks but also requires them to combine ideas whilst cooperating, intervening and modifying those ideas. This helps to develop the child’s aesthetic and artistic appreciation (McFee, 1994) as pupils learn to value dance as a work of art, learning to interpret the movements and understand the emotions conveyed – developing their physical literacy. In Sweden, the public health discourse was foregrounded with the result that its aesthetic counterpart was marginalised (Mattsson & Lundvall, 2015). The challenge for teachers in Scotland, therefore, is to deliver effective dance courses that contribute to both PE and EA through drawing on the complete range of experiences and depth of understandings that the activity can generate. Whilst, dance shares elements that are associated in a number of other physical activities, Stephens (1991) argues that it makes a unique contribution to the educational process. As a result, it is likely that PE teachers have maintained ownership of dance within the PE curriculum because there is a sense that without it, PE loses some of its value, its purpose, its wholeness and its ability to provide unique experiences that ‘add’ to the process of what it means to be ‘physically educated’.

Purpose
MacLean’s (2007) study examined undergraduate PE students’ experiences of teaching dance during a practicums in Scottish schools. Despite data being collected when dance was under-represented in PE curricula throughout Scotland (SOEID, 1995), the study provided insight into factors that enabled PE undergraduate teachers to teach an activity with which they had only limited familiarity. One of the purposes of this research was to track participants in that original study and re-examine, after 10 years, the factors that impinged on their enactment of a newly created curriculum. This was particularly salient as, for the first time, CfE created scope for dance to be included in both PE and EA. Another purpose was to examine dance opportunities created by CfE in the curriculum before identifying and exploring the factors that enable teachers to experience agency when planning, teaching and assessing dance. The intention, therefore, was not to examine the ‘practice’ of teaching but rather to explore the social, cultural and material structures that support teachers in their enactment of policy initiatives and the creation of dance opportunities within their individually designed curricula. Whilst the location of this study is based in Scotland and within a context of curriculum change, there are also some useful insights for the international community.

Methodology
This research adopted a mixed-method survey approach to address three research questions. Firstly, what opportunities have been created for dance in the secondary school curriculum as a result of CfE? Secondly, what were the factors that enable teachers to exercise agency when including dance in the curriculum? Finally, what were the differences between the findings of MacLean (2007) and the current study in relation to dance provision and the factors that enable teachers to teach dance? To address these questions, a questionnaire was designed to gauge dance opportunities within the school context. Factors enabling teachers to teach dance were identified through eight individual semi-structured interviews. Re-interviewing the same participants as those in MacLean (2007) enabled a number of variables to be controlled such as ITE experience and number of years teaching PE. Major themes could be analysed and comparisons made between MacLean (2007) and the current study. This served to illuminate the ecological conceptualisation of agency (Erimbayer & Mische, 1998) encompassing teachers’ past experiences, current practice and future orientations. The Institute Ethical Committee granted ethical approval and informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to the commencement of the study.
Participants

Survey subjects
Eighty-five (58%) of PE teachers invited to be involved in the study \((N = 147)\) responded to a self-report questionnaire. All respondents were involved, at varying levels, with mentoring students from an ITE programme and taught pupils across the secondary age range \((12–18\) years). The sample was representative of both rural and urban schools from 32 local authorities in Scotland and included male \((N = 41)\) and female \((N = 44)\) teachers of a variety of ages \((23–60\) years), years of experience \((1–35\) years) and level of promotion.

Interview key informants
To provide additional context and enable a comparison between MacLean (2007) and the current study, eight PE teachers from the south of Scotland who had taken part in the original study were re-interviewed. The participants in the former study (who were 21 years old at the time and had completed the same ITE programme) were purposively selected to ensure a cross-section of male and female respondents, varying in previous experience and practicum. Those participants were tracked and the same procedure was repeated 10 years later. Each interview was conducted at the participant’s school and lasted one hour. Four females and 4 males with 10 uninterrupted years of teaching in a PE department were interviewed. Two participants from the original study were no longer teaching PE and therefore unable to take part in the interview. The aims of the current research were explained to participants and they were invited to withdraw at any time. All interview participants completed the questionnaire before sharing their experiences through interview.

Procedure

Teacher questionnaire
The questionnaire was developed in line with literature relating to the HWB curriculum, EA curriculum policy (Scottish Executive, 2004a; Scottish Government, 2009) and curriculum change (Curtner-Smith, 1999; Humes, 2003; Scottish Executive, 2004b). The initial draft of the questionnaire was sent to two independent researchers experienced in the development, administration and analysis of curriculum-related questionnaires. As a result of their feedback, minor changes to the format and wording of some of the questions were made. The adapted questionnaire was sent to three PE teachers for further piloting. They were informed of the purpose of the study and invited to comment on language used, meaning, presentation and the length of time it took to complete the questionnaire. No changes were recommended and the final questionnaire was distributed. The questionnaire comprised three sections designed to gather data in line with the ecological concept of agency (Erimbayer & Mische, 1998) and therefore contained a series of questions about their previous experience, current perceptions and plans for the future. Respondents were invited to respond to a range of closed, open and forced choice (Likert) questions. For example, teachers were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale to the question ‘How would you describe your ability in dance?’ where one was Poor and five was Excellent. To ensure a high response rate and enable teachers across Scotland to participate in the study, PE students delivered and collected questionnaires from the schools in which they undertook practicum. A 58% response rate was achieved with the main reason for non-completion being ‘lack of time’ during term time. The data gathered were predominantly nominal/ordinal in nature and, consequently, descriptive statistics were computed. In addition, some open questions were included to allow participants to explain their answer. Finally, SPSS was used to analyse questionnaire data and identify patterns in the variables. A Shapiro–Wilks test was initially used to test for normality and a Pearson’s product-movement correlation co-efficient to identify relationships between variables. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the
assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. Finally, the coefficient of determination was calculated to explain shared variance between variables.

**Teacher interviews**

Teacher interviews followed a similar protocol to that of MacLean (2007). The interviews sought to explore participant background, experience and achievement of agency. The questions centred on curriculum design, perceptions of dance and the context that increase teachers’ sense of agency. Focused interview schedules (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Gordon, 1999) were developed in a semi-structured interview format with themes, questions and probes (Gilham, 2000). During interviewing, detailed field notes were taken and checked with participants for accuracy. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Analyses of the interview data were conducted in five phases. First, transcripts were read and re-read in order to become familiar with participants’ responses (Dye, 2000). The second phase involved grouping responses according to the research questions to provide a context-specific and focused framework for the analysis (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003). This enabled a preliminary process of identifying emerging thematic categories which entailed considering the ‘text’ and developing phrases that explained key issues within the data in order to summarise their meaning and identify the emergence of categories (Glaser, 1965; Podlog & Eklum, 2006). The third phase involved identifying and further refining the categorisation of key issues discussed by individual participants. The fourth phase of this analysis involved testing the authenticity and robustness of these categories across the interview responses. At this point, the features of all categorical instances were analysed at length until appropriate categorisations were formed (Sproule, Kinchin, Yelling, McMorris, & McNeill, 2002). The final analysis involved identifying commonalities and differences in teacher responses. This enabled teachers’ experiences of teaching dance to be placed alongside their perceptions 10 years previously in an attempt to gauge the level of congruence. This enabled common themes from both data sets to be compared and contrasted.

**Discussion of results**

The results deal with each research area identified previously, firstly curricular dance opportunities, secondly, the factors that enable teachers to achieve agency to teach dance and finally, a comparison between current results and those identified by MacLean (2007).

**Curricular dance opportunities**

The implementation of CfE raised concern about whether the introduction of dance into both PE and EA would cause PE teachers to exclude dance from the PE curriculum or use the opportunity to increase dance provision within their school context. Blanche (2007), before the introduction of CfE, discussed the tension between dance as an art form (EA) and dance within Sport (PE). However, this research, post implementation of CfE, presents a different picture. Questionnaire results indicated an increase in dance provision with 96% (N = 82) of schools including dance in the curriculum with an additional 35% (N = 30) offering dance in EA in addition to PE. In these schools, pupils experienced increased opportunities and exposure to dance as a result of CfE. This result indicates an increase in dance provision in education since the SOEID (1995) report and the introduction of CfE into schools. Only a small minority (2% N = 2) of the schools provided no dance in the curriculum. Dance in most schools was designed as part of the core element of PE programme with 82% (N = 70) of schools offering dance in Years 1, 2 and 3. Dance as part of a national exam was offered by 33% (N = 28) with higher level dance being offered by 26% (N = 22) of the schools. In addition, 62% (N = 53) of schools offered dance in an extra curricular programme either during lunch times or in an after-school club. To identify the types of experiences that pupils were experiencing in dance was important, as Mattsson and Lundvall (2015) identify that dance can serve different functions and transmit associated knowledge. The results from the questionnaire indicated that
the styles of dance experienced by pupils were wide and varied, including Hip hop, Street, Jump, Bollywood, Scottish Country dance, Jazz, Interpretive, Ethnic, Contemporary, Breakdance, Ballroom, Ballet and Tap. The interviewees revealed that teachers redesigned the curriculum to include more contemporary forms of dance and as such boys were participating more and resisting less.

With every activity there is always a small minority that really didn’t (want to take part) but again I always tried to make dance as relevant and as contemporary as I could. So I taught breakdance, not because I thought it was a good idea but because the kids would be able to relate to it and maybe that’s what helped dance to be more popular. (Male Respondent 7)

This is the strength of a flexible curricular framework that allows teachers to exercise agency to translate and adapt curricular ideas to fit the cultural, social and material structure of their individual school (Priestley, 2010). Dance styles could be selected and personalised to accommodate individual preferences across schools. Using Mattsson and Lundvall (2015) paradigms, ‘identity formation’ (Scottish Dance) was offered in 74% (N = 63) of the schools, and the ‘aesthetic’ discourse (creative dance) was offered by 69% (N = 59) of schools. The ‘public health’ (dance for fitness) element was offered by 18% (N = 16) of schools. MacLean (2007) noted ‘identity formation’ in the form of Scottish Country dance to be the most common form of dance experienced in schools. However, this research provided more balanced results. Furthermore, this also contradicts Mattsson and Lundvall’s (2015) findings of the discourse analysis of steering documents which favoured the public health discourse as the main knowledge domain in Sweden.

To identify the level of expertise in the PE department, schools were asked to indicate the teacher(s)/specialist(s) who took responsibility for teaching dance. A total of 68% (N = 58) of schools expected all PE teachers to teach dance in the curriculum, with 7% (N = 6) of schools electing female teachers only to teach dance. In 21% (N = 18) of schools, one PE teacher took responsibility for all dance. Only 4% (N = 3) employed a dance specialist who was not a qualified PE teacher to teach dance in their school. Whilst there was an expectation for PE teachers to teach dance as part of the curriculum whether it was their specialism or not, this expectation diminished during the senior years of schooling where the teaching of dance became the responsibility of those who were either more confident or more experienced. Frequently, this was limited to one or two members of the PE department. This has led to some criticism in the past (Sanderson, 1996), calling for PE teachers to be up skilled in certificated dance (Blanche, 2007; Morgan & Bourke, 2008). However, the effectiveness of any PE department lies within their capacity to work to their strengths and match their expertise to activity in certificated classes. Teachers showed a willingness to learn new skills and receive training to be able to teach dance to certificated level. This research seemed to be the catalyst teachers required to compare their curricular design to other schools by raising awareness of the possibilities the curriculum holds for increased dance provision. This study indicated that in many cases, teachers were interested in reviewing their curriculum to include dance in both HWB and EA in the future.

Factors that enable teachers to achieve agency to teach dance

Teacher agency
In reviewing teacher agency and the factors that contribute to a teacher’s sense of agency, many of the participants mentioned ‘feelings of confidence’ and a sense that they perceived themselves to be ‘able’. Feelings of confidence formed a large part of MacLean’s (2007) findings as a factor that would enable teachers to teach dance. Exploration of teacher confidence is not new. Research studies carried out by Appleton (1995), Mawer (1996), Chedzoy (2000), Rolfe (2001) and MacLean (2007) have provided useful insight into this phenomenon. The questionnaire data in this research indicated that 75% (N = 64) of PE teachers rated themselves as feeling confident to teach dance, with no significant difference in the confidence scores between male and female teachers [r = .42, N = 85, p < .000]. Similar results were uncovered in ability in dance with 73% (N = 62) of the respondents
rating their ability as average to excellent. Furthermore, there was no significant difference in males and females’ perceived ability in Dance \( r = .49, N = 85, p < .000 \). The relationship between perceived ability in dance and perceived confidence was investigated using Pearson product-movement correlation coefficient. There was a strong, positive correlation between the two variables \( r = .826, N = 85, p < .000 \) with high levels of confidence associated with high level of perceived ability. The coefficient of determination was calculated and helped to explain 68% of shared variance. The results indicated the ‘perceived ability’ helps to explain nearly 68% of the variance in respondents’ scores on the ‘perceived confidence’ score. Teachers indicated (59%, \( N = 50 \)) that their perceived confidence to teach dance since leaving ITE had increased. Reasons for this were mainly their CLPL and opportunities to teach dance in a supportive and collaborative climate. A small amount of teachers (16%, \( N = 2 \)) reported a decrease in confidence this was attributed to limited opportunities to teach dance in schools since leaving ITE, reinforcing Chedzoy and Burden’s (2007) and Hennessy et al.’s (2001) ideas on the importance of CLPL and practice.

Comparisons from past to present, from student to experienced teacher, highlighted some key differences. The reasons provided for those participants who avoided teaching dance in (MacLean, 2007) were in connection with ‘self-preservation’, where student teachers were preoccupied with self, their performance and how they would be perceived by their class. This current study indicated a change in perceptions where the experienced teacher was now concerned with the value of children’s education.

I’m not an amazing dancer myself. I am not very rhythmical but I can see the value of dance in the curriculum and what it can offer, what is gives to the kids and it does lend itself fantastically well to some of the expectations of the curriculum for excellence and that is why we include it in the PE curriculum. (Participant 5: Male)

Established, experienced teachers were no longer influenced by their own sense of identity (MacLean, 2007) but were preoccupied with providing rich educational experiences for their pupils. This was the motivation that led them to learn from their colleagues, attend CLPL or refer certificated classes to those in the department who possessed particular strengths. Teachers reinforced their role as teachers of children and all that this embraces;

I don’t see myself as someone that teaches activities. I see myself as someone who teaches kids. I see myself as someone who goes to teach a class of kids rather than teach children some basketball content. I sort of try and look at the kids’ perspective all the time and what they need and what their abilities are rather than thinking, I’ve got this dance to teach or I’ve got this content in basketball to get across. So I see myself as being able to teach kids rather than teach a range of different activities. (Participant 2: Male)

This research indicated that PE teachers perceived that they were able to provide rich, meaningful learning experiences and knew how to create an environment that allowed children to access and experience dance in the curriculum. Where previously student teachers’ identity was threatened if the activity of dance was received negatively by pupils (MacLean, 2007, p. 109), experienced teachers knew how to overcome weaknesses and used specific contextual dimensions in the school to reinforce and support them in their practice.

**Contextual dimensions**

In examining the opportunities and constraints within the contextual dimensions of the school, this research identified strong associations with the social and cultural aspects of the school. Participants valued the social and cultural setting of the school as facilitators that enabled them to change the curriculum to include dance. The cultural influences and opportunities that helped to promote dance in Scottish schools were situated around the value that the school and teachers placed on the educational worth of dance and as a result, this created a level of expectation amongst their pupils. The majority of schools regarded dance highly, contrasting reports by Smith and Parr (2007) who stated that traditional type activities are given precedence in PE with the result that
activities such as dance were ignored. There was a sense that dance added to the holistic development of the child and helped to 'complete' what it meant to be 'physically educated'.

It’s probably the best activity where most pride comes as a teacher because you’ll see the pupils going on a journey from starting off very timid and being very reverse about it, to thinking, you know what, this is actually great. They (the pupil) are able to put their own stamp on the dance and they genuinely have fun. (Participant 5: Male)

The cultural expectation of the schools was that dance should be viewed positively and as such, they expected all pupils to take part in dance as a compulsory part of the curriculum. In describing the cultural ethos of the school, respondents commented:

There is an expectation from the school that they (pupils) would be doing dance. It’s just always been on the curriculum and we just used to teach it like any other activity. We didn’t make a show about ‘oh we’re doing dance today’. It would just be another activity that the boys did and most of them got involved in it. (Participant 6: Female)

There was an expectation that everyone just did dance and because the first year boys came in and knew at some point they would be doing dance because their brothers had done dance before them, maybe that expectation took away any sort of mystery about what we were going to be doing in dance. (Participant 1: Male)

Some schools did not provide dance in first and second year due to the number of activities already included in the curriculum. Alternatively, dance was offered as an optional course in third year, when pupils seemed to show a great interest in dance. This supports Youngman (2007) who reported that when new, non-traditional activities such as dance are introduced into the curriculum, engagement may increase due to heightened interest levels, as the activity is fresh. However, as dance was optional in this instance, it would therefore need to be considered whether this only caters for those who have a previous interest in dance rather than allowing all children to experience a wide variety of activities (Scottish Executive, 2004b). Pupil acceptance of dance as an activity was credited to an increase in media attention that was mirrored in the cultural ethos of the school. All teachers agreed that at one stage in their career they had witnessed a higher female to male ratio opting for dance. However, five of the eight teachers mentioned that boys were now becoming more interested and involved.

If you had asked me that a few years ago I would have said maybe there is (a gender bias) but I think there is so much exposure to the positives associated with dance on the TV. For example that there is as many male dance groups and male dance individuals out there as there are female as far as I can see. I think maybe attitudes are changing. (Participant 8: Female)

Gard (2006) reported limited interest in dance by male pupils. However, it appears that there is a shift in male perceptions towards dance supported by the ethos of the school. Teachers linked the positive response of male pupils to the influence and promotion of male involvement in dance through media, where dance was no longer portrayed purely as a feminine activity. Street dance and breakdance were particularly appealing to the young male generation, which espouse a masculine form of dance. This is supported by Blanche (2007) who stated that breakdance is very appropriate in schools and particularly interests boys. Breakdance was highlighted as a key tool in decreasing resistance from male pupils.

… they (boys) think it’s exciting, if they’ve seen it on TV, … it’s not frowned upon for a first year boy to be doing breakdance cos its quite a strong dance as opposed to any other. (Participant 1: Male)

Using dance as a vehicle to maximise participation in PE was not limited to the boys alone. Girls who were previously disengaged in PE found a renewed sense of ownership in PE through dance.

Girls that were really disengaged in Physical Education came right on board because there was something for them now to the extent where we started having dance leaders and things like that through our core PE. (Participant 3: Female)

The flexible curriculum framework allowed teachers to either offer dance in the PE curriculum, offer dance as part of EA or include dance within both curricular domains. Within this framework, teachers
were able to individualise the curriculum to allow the cultural and social prominence of the school to dictate dance styles that promoted inclusion and engagement. MacLean (2007) highlighted many gender issues as barriers to children participating in dance. However, dance was presented in the curriculum at a time when The British Arts Council (1993, p. 4) recognised gender bias in dance by stating ‘popular prejudice aligns dance with femininity and, therefore, dancing for boys is seen as inappropriate’. However, the media’s influence and increased exposure of dance, changed pupils’ mindset and granted permission for them to access dance as a familiar activity. Teachers embraced the change and tailored the dance course to match the contemporary aspirations of the pupils within the cultural environment of the school. As a result, teachers created a climate of expectation and pupils experienced dance as ‘the norm’.

The social structure of the school was seen by teachers as a key factor in facilitating dance within the curriculum and was seen as a support for teachers. In keeping with recent research (Armour & Yelling, 2007; Bowins & Beaudoin, 2011), a social structure within the school which placed value on collaborative practice helped teachers to adapt to the changes being presented in the curriculum. All the schools that incorporated dance into the curriculum mentioned collaboration in one form or another, for instance, team teaching, internal CLPL, teacher conversation, shared plans, and team teaching. One respondent stated that her department had detailed a successful block of plans available for dance; therefore, ‘planning time was decreased and confidence increased and teachers felt positive about teaching dance more often, with reduced anxiety’ (Respondent 7: Male). Many teachers noted a lack of CLPL in dance; therefore, they used other types of support to increase their knowledge of dance.

I learned a lot from other people and other people hopefully, I’m not sure, learned some stuff from me as well. So that helps as well but most teachers were happy to do dance, learn from each other doing dance. Maybe some people don’t do dance at all but it is certainly a big thing in our school and it is certainly something that everyone does most of the time really well and seem quite confident with it. (Participant 7: Male)

Adams (2011) notes the importance of ‘teacher conversation and professional activity’ as crucial in assisting teachers to adapt to change. This was certainly the case in planning and teaching dance.

We used team teaching, not all the time, but a lot of team teaching and that just used to help to make the dance a bit more fluid. It wasn’t … ‘well one person would have a plan, would lead one week and then the person would the next week’ we would have a plan and would both lead it. (Participant 6: Female)

Collaboration, conversation and professional activity together with a heightened sense of collective agency resulting from group planning and team teaching became crucial to the success of developing confidence to teach dance. Planning became a collective activity and all teachers benefitted from using a pre-planned programme. This in turn fostered a climate of shared responsibility, confidence, organisation and positivity.

Yeah, everyone just gets on with it when it comes up on their timetable. Don’t get me wrong we’ll have internal CLPL. You know everyone in our department has a specialty, mine is dance, and we will help each other out when we need to. But we have a pretty good course set in line for the past number of years and everybody is happy with it and we just keep following that same course. So I would say all the staff are really good and they all enjoy teaching dance. (Participant 8: Female)

It was clear that a range of factors acted as facilitators and inhibitors for teachers when teaching dance. It became problematic for teachers to act as agents of change and mediate flexible policy in the absence of opportunities for collaboration. Teachers required discussion on constructing ideas with other colleagues, through the school creating opportunities for collaboration. This supports the findings of Fullan (2003), Johns (2003), Armour and Yelling (2007) and Bowins and Beaudoin (2011), who emphasised the importance of collaboration to help teachers adapt and embrace change. However, this current research reinforces Adams’ (2011) research which stresses the importance of ‘teacher conversation and professional activity’ as crucial in assisting teachers to develop. Individual agency was enhanced in the schools that provided the social structure for innovation,
reinforcing Priestley’s (2010) notion of the important role of teacher agency in encouraging change. Teachers who were actively working together to plan and teach dance lessons referred to an improvement and increase in confidence and a growth in both individual and collective agency, which resulted in a positive working environment that placed value of the educational significance of dance.

**Conclusions**

The introduction of dance into EA seemed an apparent manoeuvre to increase the status of dance in schools (Blanche, 2007; Connell, 2009). CfE created opportunities for dance to be included in PE curriculum but also as an independent subject within EA. Previous studies have indicated that dance is lacking in schools. However, this current study presents a more positive picture. Analysis of the questionnaire and interview data showed that, contrary to a number of studies (Chedzoy & Burden, 2007; MacLean, 2007; Wilson et al., 2008), dance currently forms part of the curriculum in a wide number of schools. The results indicated a significant increase in dance provision with 96% of schools including dance in the PE curriculum. In addition, 35% of schools were offering dance in both HWB and the EA domain. Furthermore, 53% of schools incorporated dance into their extracurricular programme.

Within the CfE framework, teachers were able to individualise the curriculum to allow the cultural and social prominence of the school to dictate dance styles that promoted inclusion and engagement. This is the benefit of a flexible curricular framework that allows teachers to exercise agency to translate and adapt curricular ideas to fit the cultural, social and material structure of their individual school. The most popular forms of dance taught in schools included Scottish Country dance and creative/aesthetic dance with very few schools using dance as a medium to get fit. This is a change from the previous research (MacLean, 2007) that identified Scottish Country dancing as the most popular form, and sometimes only form, of dance experienced in schools. Male perception of dance seemed to have experienced a positive shift and this was attributed to the increased media influence, pupil exposure towards dance and the cultural structure of the school that regarded dance as a familiar activity in the curriculum.

Teachers’ perception of teaching dance contained a complex combination of individual agency, confidence and ability as a configuration of past experience in dance (ITE course and teaching dance in schools), present engagement (creating valuable experiences for pupils) and shared future ambitions (increasing dance opportunities). Teachers’ sense of confidence differed depending on their perception of competence, past experiences and resources available. In this situation, it would be reasonable to expect teachers to avoid activities that exceed their capabilities. However, this was not the case. In contrast, teachers created a ‘collective agency’ through collaboration. Teachers were able to act strategically and design curricula that encompassed their collective agency, placing value on shared strengths, united goals, collective action and collaborative planning. The knowledge gained through the experience of teaching dance proved a crucial element in developing confidence. The majority of teachers in this survey perceived themselves to be confident teaching dance, coupled with high perceived ability levels. In almost all cases, teachers who said that their confidence had decreased since the last survey attributed this to a lack of opportunities to teach dance in school. CLPL was lacking and to compensate, teachers increased their collaboration, conversation and professional activity in terms of planning and team teaching. Planning became a collective activity and all teachers benefitted from using a pre-planned dance programme. This in turn fostered a climate of shared responsibility, confidence, organisation and positivity.

Comparison of the data from past to present, from student to experienced teacher, highlighted some key differences. The reasons provided for those participants who avoided teaching dance differed from the original reasons of ‘self-preservation’ identified by MacLean (2007). Where previous responses were concerned with the performative nature of the teacher and pupils’ resistance to the activity, the factors were now based on how to improve the value of children’s education. Established, experienced teachers were no longer influenced by their own sense of identity but were
preoccupied with finding ways to provide rich educational experiences for their pupils. Whilst these findings are encouraging and present an optimistic picture of dance in the current curriculum coupled with positive teacher attitudes, further investigation into the actual, rather than the perceived, practice of teachers is warranted. For instance, many teachers commented on planning and teaching, but evaluating for assessing dance was not included in their responses.

Looking to the future, CfE is still ‘in flux’ as flexible frameworks are continually being reproduced and reassembled in ways that meet the needs of individual pupils. In the current landscape of evolving curriculum policy, where teachers are positioned as ‘agents of change’, tasked to create individual curricular programmes that meet the needs of the learner and the needs of the school, PE teachers are strategically placed to create learning environments that permit children to fully enjoy dance within the curriculum. It is likely that PE teachers have maintained ownership of dance within the curriculum because there is a sense that without it, PE loses some of its value, its purpose, its wholeness and its ability to provide unique experiences that add to the process of being physically educated. This research seemed to be the catalyst teachers required to compare their curricular design to other schools by raising awareness of the possibilities the curriculum holds for increased dance provision. This study indicated that, in many cases, teachers were interested in reviewing their curriculum to include dance in both HWB and EA in the future.

**Acknowledgements**

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**Disclosure statement**

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**References**


Appendix 7: Pathway and Progression in Publications within the context of influence, text production and practice (Bowe, Ball & Gold, 1992).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POLICY CONSTRUCTION</th>
<th>POLICY ENACTMENT</th>
<th>TEACHER AGENCY</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Context of Influence</strong></td>
<td><strong>Context of Text Prod</strong></td>
<td><strong>Context of Practice</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Context of Practice</strong></td>
<td><strong>Context of Practice</strong></td>
<td><strong>Context of Practice</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MacLean, J., Mulholland, R., Gray, S., &amp; Horrell, A. (2015). Enabling curriculum change in physical education: the interplay between policy constructors and practitioners. Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy 20(1):79-96.</td>
<td>1. To identify PE teachers’ perceptions of the inhibitors and facilitators of curriculum change at certificated level. 2. To explore how PE teachers perceive their own capacity to enact curriculum change. 1. Opportunities to teach dance in schools 2. How effective is the University dance module 3. How effective is practicum in consolidating learning? 4. What factors contribute to student teacher confidence to teach dance? 1. To evaluate dance provision in Scottish secondary schools. 2. To determine how teachers have enacted changes to curriculum with dance in new position. 3. To understand the changes in teacher agency over the ten years.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Method</strong></td>
<td><strong>Research Questions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Main Findings</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Interviews with policy constructors</td>
<td>1. What are teachers’ perceptions of recent curricular change? 2. What are the factors that enable teachers to enact policy within a flexible curriculum model? 3. Is PE teachers’ enactment of policy congruent with the vision of policy constructors?</td>
<td>1. PC views closely aligned with CfE Policy Text. 2. Lack of school-based empirical evidence used in decision making. 3. PC good teachers would not need to change their approach to teaching PE. 4. PC’s concerned PE interpreted narrowly – too much emphasis on health. 5. Cc’s unclear about future of PE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Interviews with policy constructors</td>
<td>1. Change : exercised teacher agency, valued I.D.L., collaboration, conversation and professional activity. 2.No change; feeling of imposition, isolation and need to increase capacity. 3. Agency was exercised within the contextual structures of the local school. 3. Required a clearer articulation of the educational purpose of PE. 4. Teachers distorted policy intentions to fitness.</td>
<td>1. Change : exercised teacher agency, valued I.D.L., collaboration, conversation and professional activity. 2.No change; feeling of imposition, isolation and need to increase capacity. 3. Agency was exercised within the contextual structures of the local school. 3. Required a clearer articulation of the educational purpose of PE. 4. Teachers distorted policy intentions to fitness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88 Questionnaires and 17 Interviews with PET</td>
<td>1. Documentation vague and teachers required more explicit structured exemplars to enable them to create their own course. 2. Teacher agency was enhanced by internal discussion, collegiality, desire for pupils to succeed. 4. More focus required on contextual factors to enable teachers to act as agents of change.</td>
<td>1. Opportunities lacking to teach dance in schools. 2. Students require, increased sense of identity. 3. Students require propitious placement with opportunities to teach 4. A relevant University dance course 1. Opportunities lacking to teach dance in schools. 2. Students require, increased sense of identity. 3. Students require propitious placement with opportunities to teach 4. A relevant University dance course</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1. Documentation vague and teachers required more explicit structured exemplars to enable them to create their own course. 2. Teacher agency was enhanced by internal discussion, collegiality, desire for pupils to succeed. 4. More focus required on contextual factors to enable teachers to act as agents of change.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>85 Questionnaires and 8 interviews with PET</td>
<td>1. Documentation vague and teachers required more explicit structured exemplars to enable them to create their own course. 2. Teacher agency was enhanced by internal discussion, collegiality, desire for pupils to succeed. 4. More focus required on contextual factors to enable teachers to act as agents of change.</td>
<td>1. Opportunities lacking to teach dance in schools. 2. Students require, increased sense of identity. 3. Students require propitious placement with opportunities to teach 4. A relevant University dance course 1. Opportunities lacking to teach dance in schools. 2. Students require, increased sense of identity. 3. Students require propitious placement with opportunities to teach 4. A relevant University dance course</td>
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1. **POLICY CONSTRUCTION**

2. **POLICY ENACTMENT**

3. **TEACHER AGENCY**

4. **Context of Influence**

5. **Context of Text Prod**

6. **Context of Practice**

7. **Method**

8. **Research Questions**

9. **Main Findings**

10. **Context of Practice**

11. **Appendix 7**

12. **Pathway and Progression in Publications within the context of influence, text production and practice (Bowe, Ball & Gold, 1992).**
Appendix 8: Sample of Interview Data Representing Factors that Enabled and Constrained Agency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constraining Agency</th>
<th>Enabling Agency</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy Constructors producing Policy</strong></td>
<td><strong>Enabling Agency</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• you were given frameworks for everything so you had headings that you had to complete things under. And then you would send it in and it would get thrown out by the curriculum board.</td>
<td>• It’s about a celebration of how much contribution PE makes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• And so it’s ultimately it’s the Scottish Government that drives the decisions about the curriculum.</td>
<td>• We have a place in the Sun!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• we put in the hour target for physical activity - every child should be doing one hour of physical activity…..that was thrown out three times by government.</td>
<td>• This is an opportunity for us to showcase what PE can do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• So that would be all we would do, we would just write and edit.</td>
<td>• We could have a fantastically rich and diverse subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teachers as co-producers of policy</strong></td>
<td><strong>Students teaching dance</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• stumbling around in the dark</td>
<td>• They (pupils) will spot flaws in my teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• CfE was ‘imposed on us’</td>
<td>• I find it quite tough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• forced on us to change</td>
<td>• It was quite intimidating teaching dance initially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• we’ve been inflicted</td>
<td>• I didn’t know what to do or how to deliver the content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I need more reassurance,</td>
<td>• It’s the horror that its all going to fail flat on its face!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• need more guidance,</td>
<td>• It feels quite daunting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I’m unsure that what I’m doing is correct,</td>
<td>• I think I have a lack of experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• felt isolated</td>
<td>• I would be awful (teaching dance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Everyone sitting in the department reinventing the wheel,</td>
<td>• I enjoy teaching dance and feel confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Is what I’m doing correct?</td>
<td>• No-one could say you’ve done this wrong, it was my ideas that I could bring out – it was pretty good.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Students teaching dance</strong></td>
<td>• When they are doing my dance – its quite rewarding – best part really.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• They (pupils) will spot flaws in my teaching</td>
<td>• I didn’t ever see myself teaching dance, but I really enjoyed it and its one of my more favoured subjects to teach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I find it quite tough</td>
<td>•</td>
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<tr>
<td>• It was quite intimidating teaching dance initially</td>
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<tr>
<td>• I didn’t know what to do or how to deliver the content</td>
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<tr>
<td>• It’s the horror that its all going to fall flat on its face!</td>
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<tr>
<td>• It feels quite daunting</td>
<td>•</td>
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<tr>
<td>• I think I have a lack of experience</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• I would be awful (teaching dance)</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Teachers teaching dance | • I would feel exposed or insecure about teaching dance  
• I wouldn’t want people to laugh at my dodgy skills  
• I have a lack of knowledge – it’s not dance specific ...just don’t feel comfortable teaching it.  
• I couldn’t believe they could adapt my ideas in so many different ways  
• I will always be confident now (teaching dance)  
• I know I’m not a great dancer but that doesn’t stop me from being confident teaching dance.  
• I enjoy teaching dance  
• I teach dance because I want to engage boys in dance so that they enjoy it.  
• I feel proud as a teacher, the pupils start off very timid and then ...they think ‘you know what - this is great’.  
• I like being able to put my own stamp on the dance  
• Relaxed / inspired / love teaching / relaxed alertness, pupils all engaged, brilliant / motivated / I look forward to it. |
Appendix 9: Study A Policy Constructor Interview Schedule

1. Biography

1.1 Could you explain who you are and what your current job is and entails?
1.1.1 How long have you been in that position?
1.1.2 What job were you in at the time of your involvement in the development of health and well-being and PE with in health and well-being?
1.1.3 What is your background?
1.1.4 What do you believe are the key reasons/experiences that led to your involvement in the development of health and well-being and PE and health and well-being?

2. Health and Well-Being

2.1 In your opinion, where did the idea of health and well-being within the Scottish curriculum emanate from?
   2.1.1 What was the process leading to this decision?
   2.1.2 What evidence were decisions based upon?

2.2 Did you make any contribution to the discussions that took place about the rationale or aims of health and well-being within the Scottish curriculum?
2.3 What do you think the main aims of the health and well-being curriculum are?
2.3.1 To what extent do you support these aims?

3. Health, Well-Being and Physical Education

3.1 What do you believe were the main debates surrounding this repositioning of PE?
3.1.1 What were the outcomes of those debates?
3.1.2 What evidence was drawn upon to come to conclusions about those debates?
3.2 What are your own personal views about the repositioning of PE within the domain of health and well-being?
3.3 What was your contribution to the notion of PE within Health and well-being

   3.3.1 What was the starter paper? What was its purpose?
3.3.2 Can you explain the processes that took place during the development of the starter paper?
3.3.3 Who was involved in this group?
3.3.4 What was the remit?

3.3.5 What evidence, research and resources did you draw upon in the development of the starter paper?

3.3.6 What were the key debates that emanated from the professional involved in the development of the starter paper?

3.3.7 What was your contribution?

3.3.8 Were there any issues you either fully agreed with or rejected?

3.3.9 What were the outcomes of those debates?

3.3.10 To what extent did you support the outcomes of those debates?

3.4 What do you believe to be the main purposes of PE within health and well-being?

3.4.1 To what extent do you support this view of PE?

4. Physical Education Experiences and Outcomes

4.1 Did you have any involvement with the construction and/or development of the draft or final experiences and outcomes?

4.2 How were the final experiences and outcomes arrived at?

4.2.1 To what extent do the experiences and outcomes reflect the issues within the starter paper? What is similar/different? Opinion?

4.3 What are your views about the final experiences and outcomes?

5. Physical Education – Curriculum Design/Organisation

5.1 Were you involved at any stage in discussions about how PE curricula might be organized within health and well-being? When, who with and what were the outcomes?

5.1.1 If you were not involved, what do you know about the discussions that took place in relation to a how PE curricula might be organized within health and well-being?

5.2 What do you think will be the main challenges for the schools and teachers in relation to curriculum design?

5.2.1 How you think these will be overcome?

5.3 Do you have your own personal vision about how schools and teachers should deliver PE within Health and Well-Being?
6. Physical Education Curriculum Delivery

6.1 Were you involved at any stage in discussions about how PE curricula might be delivered within health and well-being? When, who with and what were the outcomes?

6.1.1 If you were not involved, what do you know about the discussions that took place in relation to how PE curricula might be delivered within health and well-being?

6.2 What do you think will be the key challenges for the schools and teachers in relation to implementation?

6.2.1 How you think these will be overcome?

6.3 Do you have your own personal vision about how schools and teachers should deliver PE within Health and Well-Being?

7. Concluding Questions

7.1 From your perspective, what was the most significant event, process or debate that took place as PE has moved to its new position within health and well-being?

7.2 What impact do you think the place of PE within health and well-being will have on physical education in the future?

7.3 Is there anyone else you would suggest we talk to that might be able to help us with this investigation?
Appendix 10: Study B Physical Education Teachers’ Interview

Purpose of research

This research forms part of a larger study that follows, and analyses, the pathway of curriculum development - from the ideas that formed a Curriculum for Excellence, to the implementation of the new curriculum by physical education (PE) teachers. The main aims of this study are to examine teachers’ views on both a Curriculum for Excellence and curriculum change. Consequently, you will be asked questions in relation to:

- the curriculum
- physical education and curriculum change
- professional development and consultation

Summary of results

If you would like us to send you an email with a summary of our results, then please provide us with your email address

Email Address

Anonymity and consent

All of the information gathered from this questionnaire will be treated entirely confidentially. The only people who will have access to your completed questionnaire are the three researchers leading this study. A research assistant will be used to transfer the data on to a database, however he/she will not have access to the personal details you provide. Additionally, all information/data and resulting publications will remain anonymous.
Questions about the study

If you have any questions about the study please do not hesitate to contact Shirley Gray, Justine MacLean or Rosemary Mulholland at the University of Edinburgh on 0131 651 6681 or email:
Section 1

About you...

1a. What is your position in the school? (Please place an X by clicking in appropriate box.)

☐ Depute Head
☐ Head of Faculty
☐ Principal Teacher
☐ Full-time Teacher
☐ Part-time Teacher
☐ Full-time Supply Teacher
☐ Part-time Supply Teacher
☐ Probationary Teacher

1b. Are you male or female? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box.)

☐ Male ☐ Female

1c. What age range do you fall into? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box.)

☐ <25 ☐ 26-35 ☐ 36-45 ☐ >45
1d. How many years have you been teaching? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box.)

☐ <2 years  ☐ 2-5 years  ☐ 6-10 years

☐ 11-15 years  ☐ >15 years

1e. How many years have you been teaching PE in your present school? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box.)

☐ <2 years  ☐ 2-5 years  ☐ 6-10 years

☐ 11-15 years  ☐ >15 years
Section 2

A Curriculum for Excellence

2a. Do you agree that there was a need for curriculum change in Scotland for the 21st century? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box).

☐ Yes   ☐ No   ☐ Not Sure

2b. In your opinion, what were the main factors that influenced current changes to the Scottish curriculum? (Please list. Max. 500 characters)

2c. In your opinion, what are the main goals of a Curriculum for Excellence? (Please list. Max 500 characters)
2d. To what extent do you support the goals you have identified in question 2c? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box)

1=Do not support  3=Partially support  5=Fully support

1  2  3  4  5

2e. Please read the following statements and indicate the extent to which you agree that the implementation of the Curriculum for Excellence will contribute to each. (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box on each row.)

1=Strongly Agree  5=Strongly Disagree

The implementation of a curriculum for excellence will contribute to...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>developing responsible citizens</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>promoting cross-curricular opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>providing pupils with meaningful learning experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing better learners</td>
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<tr>
<td>providing for pupils with diverse needs</td>
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<tr>
<td>improving educational/work transitions</td>
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<tr>
<td>promoting lifelong learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing confident individuals</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing effective contributors</td>
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</table>

2f. How would you rate your understanding of a Curriculum for Excellence? (Please place an X by clicking the appropriate box.)
A Curriculum for Excellence: strengths and weaknesses

2g. In your opinion, what will be the main strengths of a Curriculum for Excellence? (Please list. Max. 500 characters)

2h. In your opinion, what will be the main weaknesses of a Curriculum for Excellence? (Please list. Max. 500 characters)

Section 3

Your view of physical education (PE)
3a. To what extent do the following statements support your own personal beliefs about the purpose of PE? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box in each row.)

1= Do not support 3=Partially support 5=Fully support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I think Physical Education is about...</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>improving performance in a variety of physical activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing positive attitudes and values towards participating in physical activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>providing enjoyable learning experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing knowledge and understanding of a variety of physical activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>gaining qualifications</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>providing recreational opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>improving health and fitness</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing life-long physical activity behaviours</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing evaluating skills to enhance learning and performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>taking part in a variety of practical learning experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other (please state)</td>
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</table>

Curriculum change and PE

3b Do you think that there was a need for change to the PE curriculum in Scotland for the 21st century? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box.)

[ ] Yes  [ ] No  [ ] Not sure
3c. Please read the following statements and indicate the extent to which you agree that current changes to the Scottish PE curriculum occurred as a result of each. (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box in each row)

1= Strongly disagree  
3=Agree  
5=Strongly agree

Changes to the Scottish PE curriculum arose as a result of...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>poor results/performance in sport at an elite/national level</td>
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<tr>
<td>lack of pupil participation in PE/ physical activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>lack of adult participation in physical activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>childhood/adult obesity and poor health</td>
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<tr>
<td>poor attainment in PE</td>
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<tr>
<td>lack of relevance of activities within PE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other (please state)</td>
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Section 4

PE and Health and Well-Being

4a. In your opinion, what are the main goals of physical education within the Health and Well-Being domain? (Please list. Max. 500 characters)
4b. To what extent do you support the goals you have identified in question 4a? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box)

1=Do not support  3=Partially support  5=Fully support

1  2  3  4  5

4c. Read the following statements and indicate the extent to which you agree that each is reflective of what **PE is primarily about within the Health and Well-Being domain**. (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box in each row.)

1= Do not support  3=Partially support  5=Fully support

I think Physical Education is about...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>improving <em>performance</em> in a variety of physical activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>developing <em>positive attitudes and values</em> towards participating in physical activities</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>providing <em>enjoyable</em> learning experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing knowledge and understanding of a variety of physical activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gaining qualifications</td>
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<tr>
<td>Providing recreational opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Improving health and fitness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing life-long physical activity behaviours</td>
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<tr>
<td>Developing evaluating skills to enhance learning and performance</td>
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<tr>
<td>Taking part in a variety of practical learning experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other (please state)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
PE, Health and Well-Being: strengths and weaknesses

**4d.** In your opinion, what will be the **main** strengths of locating physical education within the Health and Well-Being domain? (Please list. Max 500 characters)


**4e.** In your opinion, what will be the **main** weaknesses of locating physical education within the Health and Well-Being domain? (Please list. Max. 500 characters)


**Section 5**

Implementing change

**5a.** In your opinion, will the new position of physical education within Health and Well-Being change the way the curriculum is organised within your department? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box.)

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ Not Sure
5b. If any, what do you think the main changes to curriculum organisation in your department will be? (Please list. Max. 500 characters)

5c. In your opinion, will the new position of physical education within Health and Well-Being change your approaches to teaching PE? (Please place an X by clicking in the appropriate box.)

☐ Yes  ☐ No  ☐ Not Sure

5d. If any, what do you think the main changes to your approaches to teaching PE will be? (Please list. Max 500 characters)
Section 6

Professional development and consultation

6a. Please read the following statements and indicate which of these helped you develop your understanding of a Curriculum for Excellence (CfE) and physical education within Health and Well-Being (PE, HWB): (Please place an X in the box for all the statements that apply to you.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>CfE</th>
<th>PE, HWB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I attended seminars linked to...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I attended conferences linked to...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I attended local authority meetings linked to...</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I carried out my own personal reading linked to...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I took part in school/departmental discussions linked to...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I attended lectures/seminars during my ITE studies linked to...</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other (please state)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6b. Please read the following statements and indicate the ones that reflect your contribution to the curriculum development process. (Please place an X in the box for all the statements that apply to you.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I contributed to the National Education Debate in 2002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was a Curriculum Review Group writing team member</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Curriculum Review Group consulted with me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was a PE Review Group writing team member</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The PE Review Group consulted with me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was a Health and Well-Being writing team member</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Health and Well-Being writing team consulted with me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was a member of the national PE experiences and outcomes writing team</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The national PE experiences and outcomes writing team consulted with me</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
My department trialled the draft experiences and outcomes

I completed the LTS ‘Draft Experiences and Outcomes’ questionnaire

I took part in a LTS focus group to discuss the ‘Draft Experiences and Outcomes’

I contributed at Local Authority level

I contributed to curriculum planning at whole school level

I contributed to curriculum planning at departmental level

Other (please state)

Follow-up interview

Once we have gathered and analysed the data from this questionnaire, we plan to conduct a series of follow-up interviews to gather more in-depth information about your perceptions of curriculum change. Please provide the following information if we can contact you:

Name: ____________________________________________
Telephone: ________________________________________
Email: ____________________________________________

Many thanks for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Please print your completed questionnaire and place in the envelope provided.
Appendix 11: Study B PE Teacher Interview Schedule

The aim of the teacher interviews is to probe some of the answers from the questionnaire in more detail, particularly in relation to PE and curriculum change. We want to investigate how teachers understand a PE within health and well-being, whether they think that there was a need for curriculum change, and how this relates to their own views about PE and the curriculum. We are also interested in the extent to which they feel they have been involved in the process of curriculum change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Background</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Could you tell me something about who you are, what you do, what your background is in relation to teaching PE? (Post, age, years teaching, years in current school)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Curriculum Change (general – nation-wide – big picture)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your understanding of the reasons for curricular change in Scotland?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that there was a need for change?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you think are the main changes to the curriculum? (just one or two)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there any aspects of the new curriculum that you either agree or disagree with (positive or negative thoughts?)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PE and curriculum change</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your own personal view about the nature and purpose of PE (broad then narrow)?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your understanding of the notion of health and well-being? (what does the term health and well-being mean to you in relation to the curriculum?)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your understanding of the place of PE within health and well-being?</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>What do you think the main changes to the PE curriculum (general – not specifically your PE curriculum) are as a result of this new</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>position? (Do you think that there was a need for change?)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is your view about the experiences and outcomes (positive and negative)?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the position of PE within health and well-being fit or conflict with your own personal view of PE?</td>
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</table>

| **Impacts on YOUR PE curriculum** |
| What changes are being made/will be made to your PE curriculum in order to meet with the demands of Health and Wellbeing? |
| If no changes are being made, why? |
| What do you think will be the strengths/weaknesses of the changes that are being made to the way your PE curriculum is being organised? |

| **Impact on YOUR teaching** |
| Do you think that the new curriculum will change the ways in which you deliver PE? |
| If so, in what way? What has been the key factor in initiating this change? |
| If not, why not? |

| **Teacher involvement in the process of curriculum change (general)** |
| What do you know about how a Curriculum for Excellence came about (what was your involvement?)? |
| Do you think that the voices of teachers were heard in the process of curriculum change (the development of a Curriculum for Excellence)? |
| Do you think that it is important that teachers are consulted in such matters? Why? |
| What is the role of the teacher in the curriculum development process? |

<p>| <strong>Teacher involvement in the process of curriculum change (specific)</strong> |
| To what extent were you involved in the process of the development of PE within HWB? |
| If you were involved, what was this involvement? |
| If you were not involved, why do you think you were not involved? |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What events have you taken part in that have developed your knowledge and understanding of a curriculum for excellence and PE within health and well-being? (CPD opportunities) What are your thoughts, both positive and negative, about these events? (CPD opportunities) What could be done to improve CPD in this area?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Future of PE What impact do you think the place of PE within health and well-being will have on physical education in the future?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anything else?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 12: Study B Case Study PE Teacher Interview Schedule

Interview Questions:

1. Can you tell me some background information on yourself?
   Probes: years teaching, qualifications, place of study?

2. How well do you feel your school/department implemented the new National 5 PE course?
   Probes: Has it been an overall positive/negative experience? Much change from before? Slow process?

3. What do you feel are the main factors which made the change easier for your department to deal with?
   Probes: Helpful CPD? SQA Guidelines? Teacher Collaboration- in dept. and with other schools?

4. Are there any factors which acted as barriers to the change, making it a more difficult or less effective process?
   Probes: Time to collaborate? SQA guidelines?

5. How did you feel when you taught your first few lessons of the new National 5 course?

6. If you felt uncertain or unsure about the course- or your teaching- at any time, was there any factor which made a significant improvement to this uncertainty?
   Probes: How did it you improve your understanding? Support / collaboration / leadership / accountability.

7. If the curriculum were to completely change again (new courses etc), how would you personally prepare yourself and the department differently to react to the change?
   Probes: Read more documentation/literature? View the change in a different light? Sign up for CLPL? Join working parties?
Appendix 13: Study C PE Students’ Questionnaire to BEd PE Year 1 (Paper 1)

BED(PE) YEAR 1

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate how you feel the University course has prepared you to teach dance in schools. For the purpose of this study dance will be used in a global sense to encompass all forms of dance e.g. Scottish, Social, Contemporary, Ballet, Tap, Modern, Ethnic and Multicultural.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Female  Male

2. Age

18-20  21-23  24-26  27-29  30+

3. Have you experienced dance as a pupil in secondary school?

Yes  No

4. Approximately how many hours?

0  1-5  6-10  11-15  15+
5. Have you been involved in an extra-curricular dance club or dance school prior to attending the University?

- Yes
- No

6. How would you describe your ability in dance before coming to the University?

- Excellent
- Good
- Average
- Poor

SECTION 2: PLACEMENT INFORMATION

The following questions relate to your previous experience as a student teacher on placement.

1. During your 1st year placement approx. how many dance lessons did you have the opportunity to teach?

- 0
- 1-2
- 3-4
- 5-6
- 7-8
- 9-10
- 11 or more

4. If you tick the 0 box can you explain why you didn’t teach dance?

5. If you did teach dance specify the styles of dance that you taught?

- Scottish
- Social
- Modern
- Multicultural
- Contemp.
- Other specify
6. How would you describe the level of support that you received from the school when teaching dance in secondary school?

☐ Excellent     ☐ Good     ☐ Average     ☐ Poor

7. Explain your answer

________________________________________________________________________

8. Was the member or members of staff who provided support male / female?

☐ Male     ☐ Female     ☐ Both Male and Females offered support
Appendix 14: Study C PE Students’ Questionnaire to BEd (PE) Year 2 (Paper 1)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate how many opportunities you had to teach dance during your second year placement. For the purpose of this study dance will be used in a global sense to encompass all forms of dance e.g. Scottish, Social, Contemporary, Ballet, Tap, Modern, Ethnic and Multicultural.

SECTION 1 : BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Female  Male
   
   2. Age
      
      18-20  21-23  24-26  27-29  30+

SECTION 2 : PLACEMENT INFORMATION

The following questions relate to your previous experience on placement

3. During your 2nd year placement approx. how many dance lessons did you have the opportunity to teach?

   0  1-2  3-4  5-6  7-8  9-10  11 or more

4. If you tick the 0 box can you explain why you didn’t teach dance?
5. If you did teach dance specify the styles of dance that you taught?

☐ Scottish  ☐ Social  ☐ Modern  ☐ Multicultural  ☐ Contemp.  ☐ Other specify

6. How would you describe the level of support that you received from the school when teaching dance in secondary school?

☐ Excellent  ☐ Good  ☐ Average  ☐ Poor

7. Explain your answer

8. Was the member or members of staff who provided support male / female?

☐ Male  ☐ Female  ☐ Both Male and Females offered support

SECTION 3: THE UNIVERSITY TWO YEAR DANCE COURSE

The following questions relate to the University two-year dance course.

1. The University course has prepared me to construct and plan a dance lesson?

☐ Agree Strongly  ☐ Agree  ☐ Disagree  ☐ Disagree strongly
2. The University course has prepared me to teach a dance lesson?

   Agree Strongly   Agree   Disagree   Disagree strongly

3. The University course has prepared me to assess a dance lesson?

   Agree Strongly   Agree   Disagree   Disagree strongly

4. The University course has provided adequate resources?

   Agree Strongly   Agree   Disagree   Disagree strongly
Appendix 15: Study C PE Students’ Questionnaire to BEd (PE) Year 3 (Paper 1)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate how many opportunities you had to teach dance during your third year placement. For the purpose of this study dance will be used in a global sense to encompass all forms of dance e.g. Scottish, Social, Contemporary, Ballet, Tap, Modern, Ethnic and Multicultural.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Female  Male

2. Age

   18-20  21-23  24-26  27-29  30+

SECTION 2: PLACEMENT INFORMATION

3. During your 3rd year placement approx. how many dance lessons did you have the opportunity to teach?

   0  1-2  3-4  5-6  7-8  9-10  11 or more

4. If you tick the 0 box can you explain why you didn’t teach dance?
5. If you did teach dance specify the styles of dance that you taught?

☐ Social  ☐ Modern  ☐ Multicultural  ☐ Contemp.  ☐ Scottish  ☐ Other specify

6. How would you describe the level of support that you received from the school when teaching dance in secondary school?

☐ Excellent  ☐ Good  ☐ Average  ☐ Poor

7. Explain your answer

________________________________________________________________________

8. Was the member or members of staff who provided support male / female?

☐ Male  ☐ Female  ☐ Both Male and Female PE teachers offered support
Appendix 16: Study C PE Students’ Questionnaire to BEd (PE) Year 4 (Paper 1)

The purpose of this questionnaire is to evaluate how many opportunities you had to teach dance during your third year placement. For the purpose of this study dance will be used in a global sense to encompass all forms of dance e.g. Scottish, Social, Contemporary, Ballet, Tap, Modern, Ethnic and Multicultural.

SECTION 1 : BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Female  Male
     [ ]     [ ]

2. Age
     18-20  21-23  24-26  27-29  30+
        [ ]     [ ]     [ ]     [ ]     [ ]

SECTION 2 : PLACEMENT INFORMATION

3. During your 4th year placement approx. how many dance lessons did you have the opportunity to teach?

     [ ]     [ ]     [ ]     [ ]     [ ]     [ ]     [ ]
     0     1-2     3-4     5-6     7-8     9-10     11 or more

4. If you tick the 0 box can you explain why you didn’t teach dance?

______________________________________________________________________________

______________________________________________________________________________
5. If you did teach dance specify the styles of dance that you taught?

☐ Scottish ☐ Social ☐ Modern ☐ Multicultural ☐ Contemp. ☐ Other specify

6. How would you describe the level of support that you received from the school when teaching dance in secondary school?

☐ Excellent ☐ Good ☐ Average ☐ Poor

7. Explain your answer

__________________________________________________________________________

8. Was the member or members of staff who provided support male / female?

☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Both Male and Females staff offered support
Appendix 17: Study C Students’ Interview Schedule BEd (PE) Year 3 and 4

1. What experiences do you have of dance?
   Probes Performance / Production / Theatre / School show / spectator?

2. Have you had the opportunity to teach dance on placement?
   Probes: Primary / Secondary / Styles of dance?

3. How confident do you feel teaching dance?
   Probes: In a variety of dance styles or just certain types? Team / teaching

4. What gives you confidence to teach dance? Or why do you think you feel unconfident teaching dance?
   (No probes to avoid leading the respondent)

5. Can you identify future needs in developing greater confidence?
   (No probes to avoid leading the respondent)
Appendix 18: Study C PE Teacher Questionnaires (Follow-up study, paper 6)

Dance within the Curriculum for Excellence: provision in Scottish Secondary Schools

Name of Student collecting data: ________________________________

This questionnaire forms part of a longitudinal study into the provision of dance in Scottish secondary schools. Confidentiality is ensured, as names are not required.

**Background Information of PE Teacher**

1. Sex  M  F  Age  Years Teaching

2. How would you describe your ability in dance?
   - Very poor
   - Poor
   - Average
   - Good
   - Excellent

3. How would you rate your confidence in teaching dance?
   - Very Poor
   - Poor
   - Average
   - Good
   - Excellent

4. Has your level of confidence increased or decreased since ITT?
   - Increased
   - Decreased
   - N/A

Can you explain why?
5. How would you describe your experiences of teaching dance?

Curriculum Design

6.a) Does dance currently form part of PE curriculum?
   Y ☐ N ☐ If not can you explain why?
   ________________________________

b) At what level?

   S1 ☐ S2 ☐ S3 ☐ S4 ☐ National 4/5 ☐ Higher ☐ Extracurricular ☐
   ________________________________

   c) What type(s) of dance is offered? E.g. Dance for fitness, Scottish, Creative?

   ________________________________
   ________________________________

   d) Who has responsibility for teaching dance?

   ________________________________
   ________________________________

7) Under CfE will Dance be offered as part of Expressive Arts?
   Y ☐ N ☐ If not can you explain why?
   ________________________________
b) At what level?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S1</th>
<th>S2</th>
<th>S3</th>
<th>S4</th>
<th>National 4/5</th>
<th>Higher</th>
<th>Extracurricular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


c) What type(s) of dance is offered? E.g. Dance for fitness, Scottish, Creative?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

d) Who has responsibility for teaching dance?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

8) Are there any issues that you would like to mention in teaching across the 2 domains of HWB and EA?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Many thanks for your time. Please return your questionnaire to the student. If you would like a copy of the questionnaire results please contact:
Appendix 19: Study C PE Teacher Interviews (Follow up study, paper 6)

Interview Schedule

1. What experience have you had in dance since completing the BED(PE) course? (Probes: Performance, CPD, outside agencies, school productions, teaching in PE or after school club?).

2. Have you had many opportunities to teach dance within the curriculum? (Probes: Years / certificated / extra Curricular)

3. How has the introduction of CfE impacted pupil exposure to dance? (Probes: IN HWB and EA? For male/female, pupil/teacher)

4. Do you value the place of dance within the curriculum? (Probes: Dance within PE / HWB / EA Certificated? Who teaches / prepares / assess dance?)

5. How confident do you feel teaching dance and has this changed since the last interview?

6. What contributes to your sense of confidence (or lack) to teach dance? Probes: Experience? Pupil response? Ability? Subject knowledge? Observation / CLPL / planning and preparation (in groups)? Team teaching

7. Can you identify future needs in developing greater confidence?
### Appendix 20: Legitimation Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Legitimation Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Critical review</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample Integration</td>
<td>Relationship between QUAN and QUAL sampling quality meta-inferences.</td>
<td>Same participants; in paper 1 &amp; 2; paper 3 for QUAN and QUAL; paper 5 &amp; 6.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inside-Outside</td>
<td>The extent to which the researcher presents insider views and observers views for description and explanation.</td>
<td>3 researchers used to analyse interview transcripts in paper 1 and 2 (one researcher not involved in data collection). Two researchers involved in paper 3 (one not involved in data collection). No outsiders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weakness minimization</td>
<td>Weakness from one approach is compensated by strengths from other approach.</td>
<td>Paper 3: Interviews revealed aspects of teacher agency that was undetected in QUAN data. Paper 5: QUAL data collected to explore outliers in the data set. Paper 6: permitted exploration into agency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequential</td>
<td>If meta-inferences could be affected by reversing the sequence.</td>
<td>QUAN data examined predictors and headlines QUAL data explored attitudes, behavior, contextual settings and power dynamics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversion</td>
<td>The extent to which QUAN and QUAL yields quality meta-inferences.</td>
<td>QUAN data analysed by SPSS. Potential threat to validity is lack of counting of instances with QUAL data – its is argued in the main body text that this does not improve strength of analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paradigmatic Mixing</td>
<td>Successfully combined approaches to be utilized.</td>
<td>Each QUAN AND QUAL component contained a paradigm that fitted stated assumptions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commensurability</td>
<td>The extent of the meta-inferences made reflect a mixed worldview.</td>
<td>Data analysis was interpreted by switching between QUAL and QUAN lens to provide rich explanations that moved beyond and challenged traditional viewpoints e.g. linear view of policy process; implementation versus enactment; agency versus capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Validities</td>
<td>The extent that both QUAN and QUAL yield collectively high quality meta-inferences.</td>
<td>Both QUAN and QUAL was checked for validity, reliability, objectivity and bias before going through a process of checking for legitimization. The extent of the whole critical review was larger than the individual component parts of each study.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>The extent to which consumers value both aspects of QUAN and QUAL</td>
<td>Both QUAN and QUAL have been reported in published papers and during CLPL training days and support a generalizability in the findings.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appendix 21: Ecological model of Agency MA(PE) Student-teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Previous Experience</th>
<th>Support Mechanisms</th>
<th>Aspirations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life Histories (Your own education/ experience/ qualifications as a child)</td>
<td>Cultural Support (ideas, values, beliefs, discourses)</td>
<td>Short and Long term goals (not longer than 5 years ahead)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Histories (the accumulated experience of being a teacher – what do I bring to this placement)</td>
<td>Structural support (relationships/ roles etc.)</td>
<td>What would I like to achieve at the end of this placement?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family members:</td>
<td>Material support (resources, teacher support)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Noticed I was good with children</td>
<td>What do I need to help me be successful?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I was able to explain things well</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I was able to teach well</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I cared about wanting to make a difference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Recognised that I was good at PE</td>
<td>Cultural Support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- That I wanted to help others achieve</td>
<td>- What do I think PE is about? (What discourse sits well with me? Achieving potential / lessons for life/ improving performance / improving K&amp;U of HWB)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- That I had insight into the benefits of being physically educated</td>
<td>- How can I make lessons fun? (If I don’t want to take part in the lesson then rewrite - make lessons fun – balloons in b’ton or cups in swimming, safety mats out to teach Rugby)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I was given more responsibility</td>
<td>- How do I get the disengaged to engage?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>- How do I get difficult classes to behave – be organised (red team, blue team, referee, key to the cupboard holder etc)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I achieved my Highers to get into Uni</td>
<td>- Pace and Timing (easy to manage Ball between 2 and then 4 avoid too much management)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I have coaching qualifications in an activity</td>
<td>Structural Support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I have experience working with kids</td>
<td>- Parents: washing, cook tea (what will U do 4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>- Girlfriend / Boyfriend: manage expectations</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I have been hand picked by the University</td>
<td>- Boss: reduce working hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I have passed all my exams up until now</td>
<td>- Teachers Dept at the beginning - expectations are of you at break, lunch time, observation, lessons planning in school, collect data for invest.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- I have passed all previous placements</td>
<td>- University: we are releasing you on placement but have the same amount of care and responsibility.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The university think I’m good at this</td>
<td>Material Support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other relevant experience: voluntary work / musician / skier / D of E leader</td>
<td>Course descriptors, mentors, regents, PT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Level of info after each lesson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Car Pool: how are you getting there?</td>
<td>Do the dance!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>