

SOCIALIZATION OF FULL PROFESSORS IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION TEACHER
EDUCATION

BY

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DISSERTATION

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Abstract

Professors in a tenure track position are promoted from assistant to associate and then full professor. Being promoted is significant as it means a significant contribution to teaching, research and service. Research has suggested that becoming a full professor has substantial organization meaning and comes with increased salary, status, influence, and prestige. Despite the benefits not all professors achieve the rank. The purpose of this investigation was to understand how professors at masters and doctoral institutions in physical education teacher education achieved the rank. A total of 25 participants were interviewed for an hour to hour and a half through a semi structured interview guide via Skype, over the phone, or in person. Prior to interviews the participant's curriculum vitae were emailed to the primary researcher. Methodological rigor applied in this study included (a) peer-debriefing, (b) constant comparison, (c) triangulation of qualitative data through interviews and vitae, and (d) an audit trail. Data analysis of transcripts utilized a four-stage process of data generation, data reduction, data display, and data and theme analysis. Results indicated scholarship was the most salient role of participants at doctoral institutions and differences in organizational supports between doctoral and master level institutions.

Dedication

To Raymond and Shirley Trendowski

and my amazing advisor Dr. Amy Woods

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Professors assume various roles such as teacher, researcher, colleague, reviewer, and presenter. Balancing these roles can be challenging as immense pressure can be placed on research (Jongbloed & Vossensteyn, 2001) and productivity by the university (Wolf-Wendel & Ward, 2003). With this ever-present strain to produce, the fanciful stress-free lifestyle of a professor quickly proves to be a mirage. For some, it is the option of “tenure” that inspires them to enter and continue in the profession. Tenure is an incentive granted by a college that guarantees professors a position for life. Subsequent descriptions for obtaining tenure and ranking systems for professors are subject to change by individual institutions, and a generalization is provided from a synthesis conducted by Darley, Zanna, and Roediger (2004).

Critical differences exist between tenured and non-tenured positions (Darley et al., 2004). A non-tenured track position generally indicates that an individual is responsible for teaching students and has only temporary job security. Conversely, a tenured position ensures ongoing job security, but also entails more responsibilities to uphold (Darley et al., 2004). Professors in tenure-track positions are given a timeframe of six years to demonstrate service, research, and teaching before their contract is terminated (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

Educators in higher education have varying ranks: adjunct, lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor (Darley et al., 2004). Each of these ranks has their own unique characteristics and may alter occupational perceptions and expectations. An adjunct professor is usually paid by the university to teach courses and is paid per class. Lecturers are hired in non-tenured positions to teach and perhaps engage in administrative duties; however, they typically are not required to conduct research. In the tenure-track system, the initial rank is assistant professor, but this is contingent upon the institution and the field. Tenure-track assistant

professorships are typically more sought by educators in any field compared with other institutional introductory positions such as lecturer, instructor, or non-tenure-track assistant professorships. Professors in a tenure-track position are usually promoted systematically, from assistant to associate to full professor. An award of the title of associate professor or full professor indicates significant contributions have been made in research, teaching, and/or service/outreach. Professors may be awarded the title of distinguished professor for exceptional work; however, these titles vary among universities (Darley et al., 2004). Endowed professorships or endowed chairs are positions financed by revenue from a fund. These accounts aid with salary and/or finance associated with research, teaching, or service activities (Darley et al., 2004).

The relative importance of teaching, research, and service on a professor's potential tenure is contingent on the university's expectations (Buch, Huet, Rorrer, & Roberson, 2011; Crawford, Burns, & McNamara, 2012; Long, Allison, & McGinnis, 1993; Perna, 2002). Advancement in rank often suggests a high degree of prestige, salary, influence, and respect from colleagues. For professors employed at teaching institutions, for example, emphasis is placed on educating students and committee work (McCormick & Zhao, 2005). In contrast, research universities value scholarship, quality of publications and grant funding as more salient to the promotion process (McCormick & Zhao, 2005). The Carnegie Classification of Institutions, established in the early 1970s, developed the most common framework for recognizing and describing institutional diversity (Indiana University, n.d). This classification has been utilized in research "as a way to represent and control for institutional differences, and also in the design of research studies to ensure adequate representation of sampled institutions, students, or faculty" (Indiana University, n.d, para. 7). The system classifies institutions based on

a range of measurable categories such as research, amount of doctoral degrees conferred, program size, diversity in programs offered, degree type (associate, bachelors, etc.), and enrollment (Indiana University, n.d). The 2015 edition classifies institutions into categories: doctoral universities, masters' and college universities, baccalaureate colleges, baccalaureate/associate's colleges, associate's colleges, Special Forces institutions, and tribal colleges (Indiana University, n.d). Categories typically have subgroups to delineate between and among institutions within each grouping. For example, the category of doctoral universities utilizes a research activity scale to create subdivisions, including R1 (highest research activity), R2 (higher research activity), and R3 (moderate research activity) (Indiana University, n.d). R1 institutions often have significant research expectations associated with professorships (McCormick & Zhao, 2005).

Achieving the title of professor or full professor is characterized as an elusive construct (Nevill & Bradburn, 2006). About 83% of academic institutions have time stipulations to achieve tenure (Nevill & Bradburn, 2006); however, there is typically no existing timeframe to obtain the rank of full professor (Mabrouk, 2007). In fact, after being promoted once, some professors remain at the associate level for the remainder of their careers. Various credentials are required for promotion to full professor, such as evidence of national and/or international reputation, established leadership in the research community, stellar teaching practices, and demonstration of service in the academy and in the community (Geisler, Kaminski, & Berkley, 2007).

The competition and competence models are the two primary methods that exist in regard to promotion for full professors (Crawford et al., 2012). In the competition model, individuals compete with each other for a limited number of vacancies for the rank of full professor (Olsen, Kyvik, & Hovdhaugen, 2005). Conversely, the competence model allows professors to achieve

the rank of full professor based on individual merit, regardless of the existence of openings in the rank (Crawford et al., 2012). A majority of United States universities use the competence model. Olsen and colleagues (2005) noted that a switch to a competence model in Norway increased the percentage of full professors, perceptions of academia as a career choice, academic achievement of younger faculty, and number of women full professors.

Studies have targeted full professors in various disciplines such as finance (Fishe, 1998), science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013); social sciences (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013); humanities (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013); and economics (Tasiran, Veiderpass, & Sandelin, 1996). Various scholars, however, note that additional research exploring full professors is warranted (Buch et al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2012; Geisler, et al., 2007), as issues such as unclear criteria when being promoted from associate to full (Buch et al., 2011; Youn & Price, 2009), time ambiguities for seeking promotion (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006), gender imbalance within rank (Easterly & Pemberton, 2008; Long et al., 1993; Misra, Lundquist, Holmes, & Agiomavritis, 2011), and lack of motivation to pursue the title (Wolfinger, Mason, & Goulden, 2008) are prevalent in the profession from moving from associate to full professor. There is no common pattern for the length of time in rank as an associate professor before transition to full professor (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Although universities typically emphasize the importance of service, publications, and excellence in teaching, the classic work of Long and colleagues (1993) determined that, when being promoted from associate to full professor, “Time in rank and the number of publications in rank are the most important factors determining rates of promotion” (p. 719). In addition, research has examined the disparity between male and female full professors. In 2003, women received 47% of PhDs (National Center for Education Statistics, 2005), but only 26% of full

professors are women (American Association of University Professors, 2001). One explanation has attributed this to women's traditional responsibilities of raising children (Marcus, 2007). Research has also noted that in some cases, when women have young children, there are fewer opportunities to attain a tenure-track position (Wolfinger et al., 2008). With the absence of children, however, women have a 16% higher chance of acquiring tenure-track positions than male counterparts without children (Wolfinger et al., 2008). The system has shown a clear tendency to promote males at a faster rate than females (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013).

Professors such as physical education teacher educators and their academic rank have not been studied as extensively as other constructs. McEvoy, MacPhail and Heikinaro-Johansson (2015) authored a literature review of Physical Education Teacher Education (PETE) over the past 25 years. McEvoy and colleagues (2015) identified 96 papers related to PETEs that included topics of (a) demographics, (b) biographies and careers of PETE, (c) knowledge and understanding of the profession, (d) varying perspectives on physical education, (e) professional role expectations, (f) pedagogical practice, (g) work with teachers, schools and communities, and (h) physical education teacher-educators as researchers. Graber (1993) explored the occupational socialization of PETE faculty members, discovering that each individual educator in a program had an impact on decisions made by the program. Teacher-educators utilized compromise for decision-making and depicted coworkers as family. Other PETE research has focused on induction faculty members and their experiences when grappling with the complexities of being a new professor (Williamson, 1993). Little PETE data exists in relation to socializing factors for women professors, however; Dodds (2005) researched the impact of mentoring on female PETE faculty members throughout their careers. Few studies in PETE have focused on faculty promotion through the ranks of the professoriate. Cutforth (2013) conducted a self-study in

which he explored his passion for the field and his experience of attaining the title of full professor, and found difficulties in meeting the institutional demands on him; throughout his career he felt a pressure to publish. Finally, various studies have discussed the difficulties of being a faculty member in PETE (Cutforth, 2013; Graber & Schempp, 2000; Melnychuk, Robinson, Lu, Chorney, & Randall, 2011). This research has shown that PETE faculty members' priorities are often incongruent with their institution's expectations (Cutforth, 2013; Melnychuk et al., 2011). Becoming a full professor is an arduous path, as an educator must demonstrate excellence in research, teaching, and service. Obstacles exist in the promotion process which lead some professors to remain at the associate level for their careers. Despite these complexities, few research studies in PETE have solely focused on individuals attaining full professorships.

Organizational Socialization

Much of the research on PETE faculty is grounded in socialization theory (McEvoy et al., 2015). Lawson (1986) defined occupational socialization as “all of the kinds of socialization that initially influence a person to enter the field, and that are later responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers” (p. 109). Occupational socialization theory is divided into three categories: acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization (Richards, Templin, & Graber, 2014). Each phase has been studied extensively in relation to physical education (Richards et al., 2014). Acculturation occurs from early childhood until entry into pre-service training, indicating that an individual obtains knowledge of the profession through observation and interaction with parents, physical educators, and coaches (Richards & Templin, 2011). Following acculturation, official teacher education training ensues, and professional socialization commences. In various instances, teacher-educator programs do not support pre-service teachers' preconceived values and ideas obtained through acculturation.

During professional socialization, some pre-service teachers reconstruct existing ideas about the profession (Schempp & Graber, 1992), as it has been established that PETE programs may exert low socializing influences over students (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). After professional training, organizational socialization ensues as the educator enters the field. Teachers learn responsibilities, culture, and roles that exist within education through their working environments. Organizational socialization may strengthen the practitioners' ideas and values adopted during the PETE program (Lawson, 1983), or a washout effect may transpire as the educator encounters the realities of the profession (Richards & Templin, 2011). In addition, Lee and Curtner-Smith (2011) noted that a second professional socialization can occur during the pursuit of a graduate degree.

In higher education, organizational socialization is divided into two phases: initial entry and role continuance (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Initial entry ensues when an educator begins the profession, typically as an assistant professor, and is learning about the department in which he/she teaches as well as his/her discipline, institution, and profession. Anticipatory socialization may occur near the end of graduate school as well as during the initial months in the profession. Through the anticipatory and introductory phases, an educator can form new attitudes, actions, and values. Role continuance, the second phase, is characterized by a period of time in which the individual is more comfortable with his or her role in the university or college (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996).

Socializing factors in physical education settings such as washout, burnout, marginalization, and role conflict can inhibit or promote success in an organization (Richards et al., 2014; Stroot, Faucette, & Schwager, 1993). Other socializing influences are mentors and marginalization (Richards et al., 2014). Among PETE professors, these constructs have not been

researched extensively. Therefore, some of the literature explaining factors that promote or inhibit success within the individual draws upon relevant physical education teacher literature. The K–12 practitioner literature may provide insight into the complexities of assimilating into a profession. Lawson states that socialization is “problematic, not automatic. While institutions try to typecast individual actors and actions, people also try to transform institutions. This suggests a social tug of war between institutions and people; each has the capacity to shape the other” (1983, p. 4). In K–12 physical education, Christensen (2013) conducted a case study on an induction teacher named Millie who did not feel comfortable speaking out in relation to appropriate PE practice and subsequently chose “going with the flow and not rocking the boat” as her best option (Christensen, 2013, p. 77). This led to some of the skills and beliefs espoused during her preservice program to become “washed out.”

Washout. Millie’s behavior demonstrates the construct of washout. According to Zeichner (1987), the washout effect occurs when ideas and beliefs developed in university-based education programs are not utilized when students enter the field. Transition into a genuine setting is often accompanied by a significant amount of anxiety (Banville & Rikard, 2009; O’Sullivan, 1989). In addition, teachers such as Millie adopt an organizational philosophy, skills, and attitudes to appease coworkers (Christensen, 2013). Research on professors and washout in PETE is limited, as only a handful of studies exist that analyze induction into PETE (Casey & Fletcher, 2012, Williamson, 1993; Williamson & Stroot, 1994). Casey and Fletcher (2012), however, suggested that learned skills and beliefs from their doctoral program and teaching in a K–12 setting changed after self-reflection throughout their first year.

Reality Shock. Depending on an individual’s preparation, the transition into teaching in a collegiate setting can result in reality shock, which is the degradation of beliefs formed by an

educator during training due to the arduous and strenuous reality of everyday classroom life (Lortie, 1975). Reality shock may occur because new teachers are expected to be accountable for the same responsibilities as coworkers who are experienced teachers (Lortie, 1975; Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). In higher education, the ambiguity of roles, lack of support, and the nature of the student population all influence reality shock (Lizzio & Wilson, 2004). For induction PETE faculty, reality shock occurs when professional preparation does not adequately prepare educators to deal with the complexities of teaching in a higher education setting (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). Williamson (1993) depicted several PETE faculty members experiencing difficulty in acclimating to their role as a professor.

Role Conflict. If workload does not align with occupational expectations role conflict may occur. Role conflict can lead to stimulation in adverse emotional reactions, a decrease in occupational effectiveness and job satisfaction, and facilitate an employee's intention to leave an organization (Allen & Mellor, 2002). Role conflict is a construct in role theory. Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) stated "when the behaviors expected of an individual are inconsistent, they will experience stress, become dissatisfied, and perform less effectively than if the expectations imposed do not cause conflict" (p. 170). Role conflict in PETE can occur when professors' perceptions of teaching and research are incongruent with some institutions' mission (Karp, Williamson, & Shifflett, 1996).

Marginalization. Lawson (1983) contends that there are varying levels of status among school subjects. Rewards are given to classes such as science and math because they correspond to an academic mission. Other subjects such as physical education may be marginalized, with less emphasis placed on the subject by administrators. In higher education, marginalization may transpire when departments within the same university are ranked against one another (Scott &

Mitias, 1996). Some universities allocate more resources (funding, equipment, etc.) to the areas that are more productive in scholarly work (Scott & Mitias, 1996). This means majors at the same institution may have varying degrees of resources, which may make it more difficult to pursue the academic mission of the university. Such marginalization impacts the way in which educators view themselves and their work (Eldar, Nabel, Schechter, Talmor, & Mazin, 2003).

Burnout. Emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment are characteristics of burnout (Maslach & Goldberg, 1998) and are shown to be negatively related to work satisfaction (Burisch, 2002). In a study of five induction PETE faculty members, the educator who was characterized as having a lack of support and substantial workload had switched universities by the time the study was published (Williamson, 1993). Furthermore, research indicates that a prolonged response to chronic job-related stressors can have a significant impact on one's health, especially psychologically, emotionally, and physically (Beckstead, 2002).

Conclusion. Socializing constructs including washout, burnout, marginalization, and role conflict are powerful agents that can inhibit or promote success within an organization (Richards et al., 2014; Stroot, Faucette, & Schwager, 1993). These factors have the potential to impact induction PETE faculty members' outlook toward work (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). In some instances, the socializing agents may cause a person to switch jobs altogether (Williamson, 1993).

Purpose and Rationale for Research of Full Professors

The purpose of this study is to understand the complexities of organizational socialization in higher education by examining physical education teacher education full professors' (PETE FPs) interactions with various socialization factors that inhibit or promote success. A full

professor is marked by having established a reputation in his or her field of scholarship, being a leader in the research community, having established stellar teaching practices, and having provided service in academia and in the community (Geisler et al., 2007). The way in which full professors navigate socializing factors, evolve over their careers, and have specific dispositions that are conducive to success in the field warrants systematic investigation. Better understanding excellent scholars can contribute to new faculty members' achievements by facilitating essential knowledge, skills, and attitudes to be successful.

In addition, various researchers have called for research on full professors (Buch et al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2012; Geisler et al., 2007). This is especially salient when studying women full professors, as women do not attain full professorships at the same rates as men (Wolfiger et al., 2008). Understanding the way in which women in the PETE profession attain this status may promote more women in achieving full professor status.

Scholars have noted that the theory of socialization warrants further investigation because of its complexity (Richards et al., 2014). In addition, it is essential to develop a more comprehensive understanding of teacher socialization in PETE, as it can have an impact on teacher performance and student learning (Richards, Templin, & Gaudreault, 2013). Richards and colleagues (2014) contend that "while the current body of literature provides important insight into the lives and careers of PE teachers, important questions remain unanswered" (p. 3). Investigating the socialization process of full professors is an area that requires more methodical examination.

According to McEvoy and colleagues (2015), although the literature on higher education has increased, no studies exist that focus solely on multiple full professors in physical education teacher education. Over the past 25 years, one-third of the articles published in PETE have had

three or fewer participants (McEvoy et al., 2015). Larger qualitative data sets should be studied to enhance generalizability in PETE faculty. Furthermore, Zeichner (2007) suggested that a practitioner inquiry into PETE should contribute to a broader research agenda, especially since self-studies in the past have not been generalizable to other PETE programs. This line of inquiry will assist PETE professors in navigating the field and aid teachers in other content areas in achieving such status. Zeichner (2007) also noted that a research agenda should guide professional learning and improve practice of PETE.

The following questions guided this study:

1. To what extent did PETE FPs' induction experiences as a faculty member influence their career trajectory? What roles facilitated promotion?
2. What extrinsic and/or intrinsic factors impacted job satisfaction among PETE FPs, and what strategies have been utilized to enhance this disposition?
3. To what extent did PETE FPs' perceptions of status and responsibility change according to their professional ranks, and what strategies were adopted to meet these demands?

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Chapter 2

Review of Literature

An overview of PETE research in higher education through career stages, barriers to full professorship, and organizational socialization factors will be provided to better comprehend how PETE and other academic professors matriculate and evolve over their careers. These sections will provide an in-depth analysis of expectations placed on PETE faculty, barriers that exist when progressing from associate to full professor, and socializing factors that inhibit or promote success.

Expectations of PETE

The aim of this section is to discuss PETE roles that exist within higher education such as teaching, research and service/outreach. Increased knowledge of role saliency will assist in understanding how faculty members dealt with expectations. In addition, the literature will focus on the extent to which PETEs are trained, as professional preparation may ultimately impact induction experiences (Casey & Fletcher, 2012) and influence career trajectories. Demands, ideology, and coping mechanisms that pertain to PETE socialization will be examined through three sections: (a) doctoral preparation; (b) initial entry; (c) role continuance.

Doctoral Preparation

The United States has 25 doctoral programs that specialize in sport pedagogy (Van der Mars, 2011). However, PETE programs are experiencing difficulties in recruiting highly qualified candidates (Boyce & Rikard, 2008). Students in doctoral programs may graduate in three to four years, but within that time frame there is much variability (Ward, Parker, Sutherland, & Sinclair, 2011a). Programs differ based upon core content areas, research classes, and scholarship expectations (Ward et al., 2011a). As Casey and Fletcher (2012) stated, this

variability may exist because there is no “one size fits all” in PETE, and some graduate students conduct research and generate funding, while others focus on teaching undergraduate students (2012, p. 377). These researchers also noted that some institutions provide doctoral students with authentic and intentional learning experiences that primarily focus on teacher education and learning to be a teacher-educator (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). However, even if institutions have similar intentions regarding teacher training, students’ learning experiences can vary greatly. Within the same institution, PETE students’ experiences can range tremendously depending on research interests, courses taught, and classes taken. PETE doctoral programs “follow the accepted operating model for doctoral education in the United States which has been substantial in coursework, some engagement in research, and the use of apprenticeship and modeling” (Parker, Sutherland, Sinclair, & Ward, 2011, p. 158). Once graduating from these doctoral programs, around 90% of professionals enter positions in higher education (Boyce & Rikard, 2008). The way in which professors prepare students to meet the research demands of higher education is inadequate, according to Ward and colleagues (2011b), as students acquire few publications during their doctoral years. Ward and colleagues (2011a) described the problems that exist in higher education as follows:

... attrition rates of students in doctoral degrees, graduates who are educated and trained too narrowly, a lack of readiness to teach for those entering higher education, a lack of preparedness for the workplace for those entering the public arena, and the quality of mentorship that doctoral students received in their programs. (p. 146)

This suggests insufficient training of preservice PETE to fulfill organizational duties. Despite variability among programs that may allow organizational cohesiveness, some scholars argue that graduates are not adequately prepared for PETE (Ward et al., 2011a).

Initial Entry

Entry into PETE is dissimilar to other professions. There is no “honeymoon” phase, as practitioners are considered to be competent, often fulfilling duties from the first day and are also expected to know the intricacies of the department, conduct research, and teach (Williamson, 1993). Educators frequently experience uncertainty and contemplate readiness (Williamson, 1993). These feelings prompt uneasiness during induction years, as teachers are still learning the skills, attitudes, and values needed for success at their institutions. Induction physical education teacher-educators have been studied only minimally.

Williamson (1993) conducted a study of five women induction PETE faculty. Data collected throughout the study were generated to discover the participants’ views of their initial faculty roles. These participants all had K–12 teaching experience, were either first- or second-year PETE faculty members, had a minimal teaching load (one to two classes their first semester) and little committee work. As an acknowledgement of the complexities of induction years in the academy, each participant’s university offered several retreats and workshops for orientation, grant writing, and research. PETE faculty that lacked experience utilized the programs. Despite university support of new faculty, these PETE experienced challenges in transitioning from doctoral students to professors. As Ella explained: “It’s amazing how I can get in the car and drive a few hundred miles and suddenly be regarded as an expert. I thought God I am going to fall on my face” (p. 290). In addition, professors were overwhelmed by their teaching, as they were constantly rearranging their material. Teachers felt stressed and lonely and sought emotional support. Anne was working 12–14 hour days and living in a town where she knew no one. Beth contemplated the hours and amount of work her job demanded:

My concern is this is my second year. I don’t even go up for tenure until my sixth—that’s

four more. I like my job a lot. I like the people I work with, but on Sunday afternoons when the sun is shining, I sit and think, ‘What am I doing here?’ (p. 198)

Williamson’s (1993) research indicated that having support systems within colleges for academic success might not reduce the challenges that induction teachers encounter.

Casey and Fletcher (2012) discussed their PETE induction years. Before becoming professors, Ashley taught in the United Kingdom for fifteen years, while Tim taught for five years in Canada. Being graduates from different PETE programs, Ashley and Tim had dissimilar experiences. Ashley achieved a research-based master’s degree and was exempt from being enrolled in any courses as part of his doctoral program. This is common for doctoral programs in the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. Ashley worked as a full-time high school teacher for 15 years and had no experience as a teaching assistant by the time he received his first PETE position. Tim was a teacher for 5 years before transitioning into a PhD program. Tim’s doctorate included extensive coursework, but his PhD was in curriculum studies and teacher development. Ashley and Tim reflected on practices through professional diaries and found that K–12 teaching strategies needed to be unlearned to teach pre-service physical education students. Both participants expected to transfer knowledge, experiences, and innovative teaching experiences to their pre-service teaching, but they found that prior knowledge of teaching practices needed to be altered to meet university demands. Ashley stated:

I need to unlearn my teaching pedagogy and try to understand how the new environment works. In fact, on reflection, it is more about adapting my pedagogy to fit the University. I need to know how the “world” works and how to develop my teaching to fit the university and the students I teach. (p. 370)

As a result of the study, Casey and Fletcher (2012) noted that PETE doctoral programs should

create structured classes in which doctoral students learn best practices to teach pre-service physical education teachers. In addition, these researchers indicated that having authentic experiences, working with mentors, and exploring theories may support the transition to a doctoral student's first full-time teaching position.

Williamson and Stroot (1994) examined collaborative relationships among induction PETE faculty and found that there were benefits and disadvantages when induction faculty collaborated. Advantages included creating networks and collaborative relationships with other induction PETE scholars, reduced feelings of isolation, collective ownership in the study, sharing resources, and attaining more publications. Some disadvantages were detailed such as a lack of trust, concerns of authorship, and difficulties with communication across distance. Williamson and Stroot (1994) concluded that it is beneficial to collaborate among induction PETE faculty, but one should be aware of issues that may arise.

Dodds (2005) explored women PETE faculty mentees' perceptions of mentors during induction years. Mentors were characterized as having the mentees' best interests at heart, being enthusiastic, and making mentees feel valuable from the start. In addition, mentors help build collaborative relationships among other faculty members and were open to answer questions. One participant stated about two mentors: "I used to kid [mentor 1] and [mentor 2] that my first year here they had signs above their doors that said '[mentee's] questions answered here'" (p. 356). The quote is salient, as it shows the uncertainty of being a new professor and the necessity of senior faculty members in easing the transition.

Summary

Studies found that there may be challenges in transitioning from a graduate student to teacher-educator, primarily related to navigating the complex life of academia (Williamson,

1993). Dodds (2005), however, showed that having a mentor could provide support in this transition. Williamson and Stroot (1994) determined that building strong collaborative relationships might also help induction teachers.

Role Continuance

After the initial entry, the professional transitions into the role continuance phase (Tierney & Rhoads, 1996). An individual begins to feel comfortable at the institution during this period. Karp, Williamson, and Shifflett (1996) asserted that throughout role continuance, faculty members are required to balance research, teaching, and service, although equal importance is rarely placed on all three (Cutforth, 2013). These obligations are influenced by career stage, personal work orientation, and organizational climate (Yang & Elliott, 1999).

Research. Similar to other fields in higher education, individuals in PETE are expected to have productive lines of inquiry. Williamson (1990) examined the extent to which institutional priorities were changing toward a scholarly and research orientation in PETE. Williamson explained that younger academics were better able to make the adjustment to conduct research because of better professional training and open-mindedness. In another line of inquiry, Karp and colleagues (1996) found that institutions are focused on obtaining grants and publications in PETE. Merit of publications in PETE is based on criteria such as referral, acceptance rates, and confidence levels in other content in the journal (Silverman, Kulinna, & Phillips, 2009).

Increasing the frequency of publications can lead to many of benefits for professors and PETE. Mitchell (1997) postulated that scholars want to publish more because of interest in various research questions, enjoyment of the process, desire to learn, and because of the necessity of obtaining tenure. In addition, due to an increasing number of collaborators in PETE research projects (Rhoades, Woods, Daum, Ellison, & Trendowski, 2016), researchers have more

access to both participants and resources; this allows for thorough analysis on a wide variety of topics. Mitchell (1997) stated that collaboration is excellent for sharing intellectual experience and lines of inquiry. Furthermore, Woods, Phillips, and Carlisle (1997) established that males are more likely to collaborate than females (70.1% to 52.4%). Furthermore, attaining publications is a substantial responsibility, indicates achievement in higher education, and is a significant factor in attaining tenure in PETE (Woods et al., 1997).

To secure tenure at most institutions, one must be a productive scholar. PETE research has suggested that a scholar must have several publications to be promoted (Cutforth, 2013). However, measuring productivity is complicated, as an exact number of publications may not be specified (Cutforth, 2013). Productivity in terms of publications, as Mitchell stated, is a “magic formula” (1997, p. 295). The terminology represents the complexities of achieving tenure in higher education. Expectations for publication rates is contingent upon other roles the educator needs to fulfill such as teaching and service, which may hinder their ability to be a productive researcher. However, the requirement of publication often supersedes teaching and service, creating an environment in which publications take precedence over other job roles (Cutforth, 2013).

Teaching. Teaching is another expectation educators experience in PETE during the role continuance phase. Graber (1990) noted there is mediation between the professors’ and students’ agendas. This is an example of a dialectical approach to teaching in higher education, as the actions of students have an impact on the teacher (Graber, 1990). In the case that a professor succumbs to low expectations because of an interplay with students, his/her teaching will suffer. Teaching disposition is understood as important in the role continuance phase, as students are aware of subtle clues given by the professor (Graber, 1991). For instance, if a teacher places a

low emphasis on a class and displays apathy, students will not be invested in the class. Nevertheless, having PETE professors devoted to the education of their students is not always an administration's top priority. Karp and colleagues (1996) specified that teaching was of particular importance to PETE participants in their study. However, the university placed less importance on teaching and emphasized research. This shows a discrepancy of role importance between higher education and professors in PETE.

In addition, while universities tend to emphasize scholarship, some scholars have argued that important aspects of teaching are consequently overlooked. Lund, Wayda, Woodard, and Buck (2007) posited that PETE faculty members assess students less often because of other professional commitments. Other research has suggested that minute but significant details are being overlooked. For example, individual dispositions that make for an excellent physical education teacher, such as being a good leader, being on time, and being courteous are not being assessed (Lund et al., 2007). Dowling (2006) explained another component, asserting that PETE faculty members are not concerned with developing pre-service teachers as “democratic citizens with an interest in social justice” (p. 247).

Collaboration in PETE teaching and curriculum development is also essential. Graber (1996) discovered that having collaborative relationships with other PETE faculty members is the marker of a stellar PETE program, as it will allow for congruency in curriculum. This cohesiveness will ensure that preservice teachers are learning the same significant constructs from a program. A collaborative approach to the curriculum will also yield results if individuals utilize this strategy with their teaching, as they can learn innovative ideas from their colleagues. In a self-study, Fernández-Balboa (1998) stated that a collaborative approach enabled him to become a better teacher through:

Reading and re-reading mine and my co-learners' journals and class notes, listening carefully to what we all say, analyzing what we all do throughout a semester as a community of learners, trying to understand what and why we learn and when and why we fail, has helped me understand a little more about what and how I want (and need) to teach. (p. 51)

A collaborative orientation may not transpire in higher education, as professors have other priorities in the role continuance phase.

Educators have a finite amount of time, making it difficult to develop their teaching and evaluate a programmatic curriculum. Lorente and Kirk (2013) contended that teachers are not likely to change student assessment because it is time-consuming and challenging. These assessments, then, are outdated and make some concepts in class more ambiguous because of the discrepancy of assessment and constructs conveyed. Similarly, another factor that may hinder the ability to educate are guidelines for teacher preparation. Mordal-Moen and Green (2014) asserted that teachers felt constrained to teach because national standards were not updated to reflect the current ideology of the profession. PETE faculty did not have adequate time to address the standards at a national level; hence, teaching practices remained stagnant to meet the demands of the national standards. A constraint on curriculum in PETE may also transpire at the department level. Smith (2012) noted that their department had to integrate many of their classes with sports science classes, which influenced their ability to effectively teach physical education to pre-service teachers.

Teaching is a significant role for PETE professors for a variety of reasons. Despite students advocating for easier classes, educators must maintain high standards (Graber, 1991). In addition, PETE must continue to revise the curriculum to reflect contemporary practice (Mordal-

Moen & Green, 2014) and collaborate with colleagues to encourage innovation. Even with time constraints in disseminating knowledge, educators should enhance positive individual disputations of students (Lund et al., 2007).

Service. Service in higher education can be characterized as giving time and knowledge to better the community or school. Service also may be unappreciated in PETE, as it includes participation in a vast array of professional associations, editorial boards or journals, committee participation, community talks, and faculty advisory roles (Pearson, 2011; Whicker, Kroenfeld, & Strickland, 1993). These roles often hold little prestige within a program (Pearson, 2011; Whicker et al., 1993). Williamson (1990) suggested that there is minimal support or recognition for service, especially related to the supervision of pre-service teachers.

With progression in academic rank, there tends to be an expectation of increased service on committees, advising, and/or projects to support the community (Karp et al., 1996). Pearson (2011) detailed that, in the early stages as a professional, PETE faculty members are focused on teaching and research. This is amplified during the induction stages, as faculty are not usually placed on committees (Williamson, 1993). However, as the individual progresses in the role continuance phase and learns the intricacies of becoming a faculty member, they may choose to become a mentor.

Pearson (2011) argued that once a career is established, an educator should consider becoming a mentor. Dodds (2005) conducted an intensive study on women who were mentored in PETE, ranging from faculty in beginning assistant professor positions to full professors, and found teachers had mentors from an early age. These PETE professionals had mentors guiding them through the complexities of higher education, including: (a) induction into postsecondary culture, (b) tenure and promotion, (c) writing and research, and (d) teaching. Participants chose

certain professionals as mentors because they were characterized as having innate personal values, attitudes, and dispositions for achieving success within the field. Finally, the participants' mentors instilled notions of working to achieve high standards, invigorated participants to engage in regular physical activity, and displayed their own individual integrity and strength as role models.

Research has postulated a need for department chairs to initiate a mentoring relationship with first-year faculty (Bower, 2007). Much research on mentoring in PETE is outdated, and a need to understand contemporary mentoring practices is warranted. However, early studies found that mentors were not assigned in the area of PETE. Despite the crucial role of mentors in professors' development, Karp and colleagues (1996) discovered that only 6% of mentors were assigned to faculty members. In addition, when departments assign mentors, the selection process is often from a homogeneous sample, as faculty mentors tend to be Caucasian males (Karp et al., 1996; Yang & Elliott, 1999). Mentors either in or outside the university are males 61% of the time (Karp et al., 1996); likewise, there is a lack of female mentors in PETE (Yang & Elliott, 1999). Boyce and Rickard (2011) contended there is a need to recruit mentors who are not Caucasian; however, recruiting minority candidates to become mentors may prove difficult, as faculty at doctoral granting institutions are predominantly Caucasian (89%) (Boyce & Rickard, 2011).

Attending conferences and providing professional development for physical education teachers can be another service provided by PETE faculty. Patton and Parker (2014) established that the PETE faculty members they studied were able to empower physical education teachers to improve their teaching and provide opportunities for practitioners to guide their own professional development. In addition, Patton, Parker and Neutzling (2012) conducted

professional development with K–12 school teachers; PETE connected previous learned information from professional preparation at the collegiate level and had physical education teachers collaborate with other educators that had similar student populations. Studies indicated positive anecdotal evidence among the impacted PETE faculty members have on the professional development of PE teachers (Patton et al., 2012; Patton & Parker, 2012).

Service is not always portrayed as prestigious, however; this task is significant to aid in the induction process (Dodds, 2005), achievement of tenure and promotion (Dodds, 2005), and is essential to hone educational practices in PE teachers (Patton et al., 2012). Service is an area that should be researched more extensively, as it provides an abundance of avenues that can assist an individual's career and advance the field of PETE.

Summary. Institutions want productive faculty members in teaching, research, and in service. Woods and colleagues (1997) stated that, depending on the institution, productivity could occur in diverse forms. Institutional size and expectations can influence the roles an individual assumes (Woods et al., 1997). For example, smaller schools have PETE faculty involved in coaching, physical education administration, and athletic administration (Woods et al., 1997). PETE educators involved in academic administration (86%) had 5,000 students or less (Woods et al., 1997). Therefore, success may be contingent upon the school's mission through research, teaching, and service. If one upholds expectations and attains the rank of full professor, pay often significantly increases. Of 50 PETE faculty members earning over \$50,000, six were associate professors, and 43 were full professors (Woods et al., 1997). Although the research is outdated, the correlation between rank and pay proves significant. Professors recognizing the goals of their program is important if advancement in rank is to be achieved.

Although expectations vary among institutions, universities tend to encourage faculty

members to publish. A case study conducted by Cutforth (2013) documented his journey to attain the title of full professor. A search for balance, integration, and opportunity within academia took place throughout his career. During his promotion to associate professor, the committee was hesitant to grant tenure because of the quantity of publications, despite his stellar teaching and service. Tenure was granted, but the repercussions of this experience lingered when trying to achieve full professor, as research took precedence over other roles. He elaborates by discussing the process of attaining full professor; Cutforth recognized that he needed to increase the quantity of his publications to be considered for promotion. Hence, he took a sabbatical and placed his teaching and service to community programs on hiatus. Once he achieved the title of full professor, he was able to continue with his service to the community and enjoy his love of teaching. This narrative is significant, as it shows that despite a professional's contributions in terms of service and teaching, research still tends to assume precedence in relation to promotion.

In PETE literature, the noted tug of war between teaching and research remains unresolved, as educators in PETE believe teaching to be the most salient role while institutions advocate research. This conflict suggests a dissonance between PETE and institutions. Studies have indicated that the departments in which educators worked had a slight or strong research orientation (67%) (Karp et al., 1996). However, PETE professors' own beliefs in terms of role supremacy reflected that teaching was the most important (71%). Overall, teaching is viewed as salient to PETE professors; however, more mundane topics like pre-service teacher character attributes (Lund et al., 2007) may not be focused on because of the many other roles teachers are required to fulfill. In addition, teachers in the role continuance phase may not place much importance on teaching and service, as they are viewed as less prestigious than research (Karp et al., 1996; Williamson, 1990). Nevertheless, service is vital in preparing the next generation of

PETE to become successful in academia (Dodds, 2005). With little recognition and prestige at some universities, more PETE teachers need to be aware of the valuable contributions to the field in the areas of teaching (Lund et al., 2007) and service (Dodds, 2005). Teachers in the role continuance phase may not prioritize teaching and service, especially if they are seeking promotions or because of institutional demands (Cutforth, 2013).

PETE is a dynamic profession with the educator fulfilling many roles. These responsibilities are determined by the administration to meet the university's needs (Woods et al., 1997). Being promoted in PETE may be contingent upon adhering to institutional tasks (Cutforth, 2013), although more research is needed to clarify the extent to which educators are able to balance teaching, service, and research throughout their careers.

Full Professor

Research, teaching, and service constraints during the role continuance phase have been shown to be problematic in PETE. However, these are not the only barriers that exist. A broader research agenda focuses on obstacles when trying to achieve the rank of full professor in other fields. Studies on full professors are limited (ex: Buch et al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2012; Geisler et al., 2007). Barriers such as motivation, lack of clarity, timeframe, and gender discrimination can hinder an educator's chances of being promoted from associate to full professor. These hindrances can appear insurmountable, thereby promoting complacency among individuals who have already achieved the associate professor rank (Mabrouk, 2007).

Achieving the Full Professor Title

Achieving the title of full professor can be the most significant experience in an educator's academic career. Promotion from associate to full professor has been suggested as "...perhaps even more important than tenure" (Mabrouk, 2007, p. 987). Similarly, Wiese and

colleagues (2007) noted “the decision to recommend a faculty member for rank promotion is one of the most important decisions made by a college committee” (p. 527). The rank entails increased status, prestige, influence, and higher salary (Long et al., 1993; Perna, 2002). Research has revealed that becoming a full professor has a substantial organizational meaning because it suggests an “elder status” (Crawford et al., 2012, p. 43). Green (2008) posited that the balance between teaching, service, and research is different for assistant, associate, and full professors. Once status is secured, institutional responsibilities such as mentoring younger faculty and serving on committees increase (Crawford et al., 2012). This title exemplifies success, as it is associated with expertise in a particular field (Finnegan & Hyle, 2009; Gardner & Blackstone, 2013). Gaffney (2001) suggested that the status indicates that a professor has made a significant contribution in teaching, service, and research, and achieving promotion implies that the faculty member was able to balance the demands of all three areas.

Teaching and Service. Teaching and service may be significant factors in the promotion decision to full professor, as committees expect faculty members to be interested in more than their own research. Evidence of effective teaching can be demonstrated through a variety of methods. Letters from former students, peer observations of classroom teaching, success of graduate students, student evaluations, and teaching awards can provide evidence of exemplary teaching (Mabrouk, 2007). Evidence of service according to a university may include, but is not limited to, professional associations, review activities, community talks, committee participation, journal editorial boards’ membership, and faculty advisory roles (Mabrouk, 2007). Crawford and colleagues (2012) suggested that teaching and service are crucial aspects of higher education. However, research has indicated that professors’ perceptions of positive teaching evaluations and service activities such as chairing a dissertation or master’s thesis committee were only

moderately important for promotion to full professor (Crawford et al., 2012). Studies have shown that expectations of research increase when attaining the rank of full professor, with less importance being associated with teaching and service as one progresses through the ranks (Green, 2008). Unfortunately, little empirical evidence exists on the importance of quality teaching and/or the extent to which quality and quantity of service are needed when attaining the rank of full professor (Buch, Huet, Rorrer, & Roberson, 2011).

Research. Studies have suggested that promotions within academia are based on the quantity of publications and the significance of the research within the discipline (Long et al., 1993; Mabrouk, 2007; Miller, 1987; Tien & Blackburn, 1996; Wankat, 2002). This leads professors to make “value judgments concerning what constitutes evidence as well as the quantity” (Wiese et al., 2007, p. 527). Professors are constantly seeking lines of research that warrant promotion.

As envisioned by the university, productivity is traditionally measured by the number of publications and the number of times those publications have been cited (Mabrouk, 2007). In addition, the quality of publications is taken into account. A study of business finance full professors found that, in the top 20 business schools, their full professors had one in every three publications in top-tier journals, compared with one in every six publications for schools outside the top 20 (Fishe, 1998).

One way in which universities measure scholarship is the impact factor of journals. An impact factor is a score given to a journal based upon the average amount of times any given article in the journal is cited (Garfield, 2006). The more often an article is cited, the higher quality the manuscript is considered. When assigning academic ranking to programs, the impact factor of manuscripts is taken into consideration (Adler & Harzing 2009). This puts added

pressure on the faculty member not only to publish in top tier journals (Adler & Harzing 2009), but also influences scholars to cite the work of their colleagues and reference their previous publications (Case & Higgins, 2000). Often, committees may consider only articles published above a certain impact factor as publications that count towards promotion (Garfield, 2006).

In addition to quality, other studies point to the number of publications as an objective measure of promotion (Britton, 2010; Long et al., 1993). In one study, professors in criminal justice were found to have been published an average of 16 times before being promoted to full professor (Crawford et al., 2012). The pressure to publish can induce stress and be problematic to some professors (Buch et al., 2011). Furthermore, the way in which the number of times an article is cited also can be open to interpretation. Kulkarni, Shams, and Busse (2009) stated that universities often use Web of Science, Scopus, and Google Scholar to measure the times a scholarly work has been cited. Depending on the criterion the database uses (peer-reviewed, books, etc.), the number of citations changes (Kulkarni et al., 2009).

Opponents of the use of impact factors and identification of specific journals in which a scholar should be published to attain tenure have generated arguments against the system. Seglen (1997) posited that impact factors can be biased; for example, the first half of a journal is generally 10 times more cited than the second half of any given journal. This negates any average of the number of citations the journal claims. In addition, a high impact factor may be given to research that can appear to a general audience and appeal to multiple scholarly fields, as it will be cited by multiple areas. Finally, Saha, Saint, and Christakis (2003) asserted that some publications might be in direct conflict with philosophical differences in an editorial board. This simply means that any publications contradicting evidence or advocating an alternative to the journal's philosophy may be ultimately rejected.

Researchers do agree, however, that, as a scholar, one needs to publish. Perhaps the most salient study of publishing was conducted by Green (2008), in which only 17% of deans reported that teaching was the most important work role for assistant professors, 10% for associate professors, and 6% for full professors for master's degree granting programs. Among master's and doctoral degree granting programs, this number was even lower, as only 8% considered teaching to be the most important role for assistant professors, 3% for associate professors, and 2% for full professors. These numbers indicate altered expectations for various classifications of universities and demonstrate the extremely low importance of teaching.

In addition, to attain the rank of full professor scholarship was considered the most important (45%), followed by teaching, service, and research (25%), teaching and scholarship (23%), and teaching (6%). Furthermore, there were different expectations for master's degree programs and master's and doctoral granting program such as scholarship importance (36% to 56%) and teaching importance (10% to 2%). Evidence suggested that master's programs with doctoral programs are expected to emphasize research more than programs with only master's degrees. Overall, this study shows that as one progresses through the ranks, more research is expected, as the equal emphasis on teaching and research drops significantly (41% as assistant to 23% as a full professor).

Impact factors are synonymous with the quality of a publication, and can ultimately influence university academic standing (Adler & Harzing, 2009). Scholars investigated the impact factor and have suggested that some bias may exist with citations based upon the type of research conducted (Last et al., 2003). Nevertheless, Green (2008) established that research is imperative if one is to be promoted in rank. Despite flaws when assigning a score to a manuscript, publishing in top-tier journals is a significant contributor to attaining the rank of full

professor and increasing a faculty member's academic status within the university (Fishe, 1998).

External Funding and Research. External funding for research is awarded either through industry or government grants (Gulbrandsen & Smeby, 2005). Anecdotal evidence exists related to the importance of generating revenue in terms of industry and/or grants from the government to attain the rank of full professor (Mabrouk, 2007). However, no empirical research exists to suggest the quantity of monetary funds needed to attain the rank, which is not surprising given the diversity in higher education promotion requirements. Research has nonetheless noted the importance of funding through the association between funds received and rates of publications (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2007; Gulbrandsen & Smeby, 2005), revealing a substantial relationship between industry funding and publication rates. Specifically, professors who had procured industrial funding defined their research as more generalizable, had increased collaboration with other researchers in academia and industry, and disseminated an increased amount of scientific publications. Bozeman and Gaughan (2007) found that grants and independent organizational contracts facilitated researchers' tendency to work with industry. The numbers of grants and contracts were also associated with an increased propensity to work with industry and amount of publications.

Grants provide a crucial source of universities' fiscal support, as they can help defer costs of projects through buying equipment needed to conduct studies, compensate participants, hire staff, and contribute to the indirect costs of conducting experiments. Kirschner, Tilghman, and Varmus (2014) noted that indirect cost recovery funds (ICR) are often provided in conjunction with grants, and are used as monetary compensation to the university for services and overhead needed to conduct projects by the university (Kirschner et al., 2014). In addition, due to the rise in costs of conducting research, grants are needed (Kirschner et al., 2014); however, recently

available grant funding has not kept pace with the demand for scientific research (Kirschner et al., 2014). This has been highlighted in other studies; Buch and colleagues (2011) discovered that men and women STEM faculty reported difficulties in obtaining research funding. A lack of funding may make it difficult for scholars to conduct innovative research outside of the current trends in science (Buch et al., 2011). Grants generate resources in the forms of money, staff, and equipment, and universities consider these assets when promoting a professor (Youn & Price, 2009).

Grants are a determining factor in promotion (Kirschner et al., 2014). Resources in the form of money, participants, and equipment are obtained when securing funds. In addition, there is a propensity to publish more once a grant is procured (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2007). Despite the importance of this funding, scholars feel unprepared when seeking it (Buch et al., 2011).

Barriers to Achieving Full Professor Rank

Securing the title full professor can be difficult as various barriers exist, such as absence of individual motivation (Wolfinger et al., 2008), lack of clarity related to expectations (Buch et al., 2011), the unclear time frame for the duration an individual should be in rank (Mabrouk, 2007), and gender discrimination (Misra et al., 2011). These barriers can be perceived as overwhelming, and many associate professors become content with their current rank, thereby never attaining the status of full professor (Mabrouk, 2007).

Motivation. Once promoted to associate professor, educators are guaranteed a job for life (Wolfinger et al., 2008). Afterward, motivation poses a barrier to achieving the title, as complacency may arise and/or there is a lack of encouragement from other professors (Crawford et al., 2012). After their promotion, educators may focus more on family (Wolfinger et al., 2008). Research suggests that an increased level of salary encourages some individuals to work toward

promotion (Tien & Blackburn, 1996). In fact, Tien (2008) established that Taiwanese professors perceived salary as the most significant reward when moving from associate to full professor rank. Once the title of full professor is achieved, however, motivation may again decrease (Docheff, 2014). Titles such as *distinguished professor* can be achieved, although this is not common to all universities (Darley et al., 2004). Docheff (2014) suggested creating another rank, called *master professor* beyond full professor to entice educators to stay motivated and avoid complacency. Another common strategy utilized by universities to motivate faculty is the use of merit rewards (pay incentives) based on productivity (Tien, 2008).

Lack of Clarity. Despite many universities' efforts to make the promotion process more transparent (Diamond & Adam, 2000), research suggests that there is a lack of clarity throughout the process from assistant to associate to full professor (Buch et al., 2011; Youn & Price, 2009). Tierney and Bensimon (1996) noted that in attaining associate professor, "although the goal is clear – to achieve tenure – the process one should follow to achieve this goal is ambiguous" (p. 39). Ward and Wolf-Wendel (2004) contend that if a certain level of vagueness characterizing the tenure process for assistant professors is present, then when moving from associate to full, a similar process exists. Mabrouk (2007) asserted that an associate professor should understand expectations before applying for full professorship. Other investigations indicated that expectations are not well understood by associate professors, and that more feedback is needed from the administration (Buch et al., 2011).

The organization's mission may not directly align with the professor's ethos and thus cause a misunderstanding of expectations (Youn & Price, 2009). Discontinuity can then transpire for time allocation of organizational tasks (Youn & Price, 2009). In addition, professors may believe that teaching has more saliency in some departments (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013).

Contributing to the lack of clarity is the uncertainty of the specific journals in which one should publish and the quantity of citations one should have acquired (Fishe, 1998). The terms *national and international reputation* have been debated in research as being subjective and variable in different contexts (Britton, 2010; Miller, 1987). Finally, one can apply for the title of full professor multiple times. An individual may start and then stop the promotion process with the knowledge that multiple attempts are possible. Coworkers' opinions are the primary reason that professors may stop the process once the review has started (Miller, 1987; Youn & Price, 2009). Therefore, a lack of clarity exists through misinterpretation of expectations (Youn & Price, 2009), scholarly productivity (Fishe, 1998), developing a reputation (Britton, 2010), and overall understanding of the process (Youn & Price, 2009).

Time. Approximately 83% of academic institutions place time parameters on tenure-track positions (Nevill & Bradburn, 2006). The time in rank for full professor can vary greatly (Mabrouk, 2007). However, some literature has suggested that individuals who are promoted to full professor typically spend seven to eight years to reach the rank (Crawford et al., 2012). Frost, Phillips, and Clear (2007) report that faculty who had reached the rank of full professor completed this feat within an average of 7.25 years, although there is a delayed timetable of “perhaps after ten, twelve, or fifteen years” after job commencement (Clark, 1987, p. 212). Unlike the common timeframe of six years in rank to be promoted from assistant to associate professor, the timeframe estimate transition from associate to full professor leads to some uncertainty (Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

Additionally, the timeframe is also convoluted because, although the system is predicated upon being merit-based, there are those who specify a timetable based on the number of years as an associate professor. Drawbacks to having a timeframe have been found throughout the

literature with rhetoric such as “wait your time” (Clark, 1987, p. 215) or you “put in your time” (Finkelstein, 1984, p. 60). Gardner and Blackstone (2013) conducted in-depth interviews regarding this time characteristic. One participant was quoted:

When I was approaching the beginning of my fourth or fifth year I talked to a few people, mostly in my department and my department chair at the time, about going up for full. He said, ‘I don’t see any problems with you going for full, but I would really encourage you to wait until the requisite time interval.’ I said, ‘There isn’t a requisite time interval for full.’ (p. 420)

The concept of time is a substantial factor in the promotion to full professor and is emphasized in the existing sparse literature (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013; Long et al., 1993; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). The research summarized: “time in rank and the number of publications in rank are the most important factors determining rates of promotion” (Long et al., 1993, p. 719).

Although time in rank impacts promotion to full professor (Long et al., 1993), the exact number of years is ambiguous (Mabrouk, 2007). A general sense of uncertainty has been established in terms of the timetable one follows before attaining the title of full professor. This uncertainty perplexes some individuals as they ponder whether they have spent enough time in the rank of associate professor (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013).

Gender Discrimination. Finally, gender has been identified as a barrier to the obtainment of the rank of full professor, as many scholars have researched this imbalance between men and women (Easterly & Pemberton, 2008; Long et al., 1993; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). Currently men and women acquire PhDs at equal rates, yet only 26% of full professors are women (American Association of University Professors, 2001). The classic study of Long and colleagues (1993) examined promotional activities at research universities, focusing

specifically on sex differences, and determined that “all else being equal, women are promoted more slowly” (p. 720). This has not changed in recent years, as Heijstra, Bjarnason, and Rafnsdóttir (2015) proved that women are promoted at a lower rate than men. Men are about twice as likely to achieve the rank of full professor, and women take around 25% longer to attain the rank (Buch et al., 2011). At one private research-oriented university (R2), 48% of women associate professors with 13 or more years since their highest degree had yet to be promoted compared with 21% of men (Geisler et al., 2007). This may be partially because at the associate professor level, women are likely to spend more time on teaching and service than on research (Link, Swann, & Bozeman, 2008; Misra et al., 2011).

In addition, women are often assigned more committee work, especially in the STEM fields. Gardner and Blackstone (2013) had one participant explain, “You know, I don’t need to be on 12 search committees [*laughs*]. So it would help if when they ask you for names you don’t give them mine!” (p. 422). Britton (2010) reported high teaching and service obligations for both men and women. However, women had heavier student service loads and were not able to participate in the same service opportunities. One example given of a missed opportunity was traveling to conferences to establish a reputation, as women often felt compelled to remain home and not travel (Link et al., 2008).

Women place more emphasis on family life, while research has not indicated the same conclusion for men. Britton (2010) suggested that women might feel obligated to play a significant role in the parenting of children. Females more frequently identify work/family issues as factors that slowed down their careers compared to men (Marcus, 2007). Marcus (2007) argued that deadlines for grants are unsympathetic to women who have children because agencies will not extend due dates. Moreover, Wolfinger and her colleagues (2008) proposed

that women progress at a slower rate due to fewer opportunities. The authors substantiated this claim by noting that women who have a child under the age of six years are 22% less likely to attain tenure-track positions.

There also may be double standards in the evaluation of those who apply for full professorship in that women are typically held to higher standards in teaching, research, and service when assessed for promotion (Ginther, 2006). A Swedish study found that women needed to publish two-and-a-half times more than men to attain the same competence rating (Wenneras & Wold, 1997). Fear of not being marked “competent” may inspire hesitancy in some women qualified to seek promotion. This hesitancy is one factor that contributes to women remaining as associate professors for a longer time (Zakian et al., 2003). One study reported that only 10% of the male professors reported hesitancy when seeking promotion to full professor compared with 30% of females who reported hesitancy (Buch et al., 2011). Furthermore, the lack of female full professors may cause feelings of uncertainty as well. Gardner and Blackstone (2013, p. 421) report a female participant as stating, “I saw one woman who had tried three times to get promoted and didn’t get it every time ... I saw the men getting promoted only”. The lack of role models can have a detrimental impact on a women’s confidence to be promoted and can lead to hesitancy.

Overall, women are half as likely as men to be promoted to full professor at doctoral granting institutions (Curtis 2007) and stay at the rank of associate professor longer (Zakian et al., 2003). However, promotion to full professor may depend on context, as some institutions have policies that are more conducive to women becoming full professors. Berheide and Walzer (2014) found that women in two different liberal arts institutions with the same classification had varying experiences with promotion. The department in one college was more understanding and

did not appear to have policies discriminatory to women. For instance, it was not seen as negative if the mother took a maternity leave after having a child. These participants characterized the process as “fair” between men and women, with both having equal teaching and service loads. The women at the other liberal arts university were less satisfied because of the amount of committee work and characterized their relationship with their department as “poor”. These findings imply that the relationship with the department was a significant factor in promotion of female scholars.

Summary

Gaining recognition and receiving the title of full professor may be the most significant experience in one’s academic career (Mabrouk, 2007), and the title is often obtained through scholarship (Wiese et al., 2007). Barriers such as lack of motivation (Wolfinger et al., 2008), lack of clarity (Buch et al., 2011), timeframe (Mabrouk, 2007), and gender discrimination (Misra et al., 2011) are all significant obstacles to attaining the title.

Theory: Socialization

Socialization factors may influence PETE’s progression through the ranking system. Research on PETE and full professors has suggested that educators are constantly interacting with their environment, determining the essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes to achieve the title of full professor (Cutforth, 2013; Garder & Blackstone, 2013). There is a dialectical nature of socialization, suggesting that individuals play a dynamic role in their socialization process (Richards et al., 2014). Specifically, there is an exchange of beliefs and ideologies between individuals and socializing agents, enabling these agents to influence professors’ perceptions. An understanding of these socializing agents and their dynamic interplay can support an understanding of factors that prohibit or promote success in terms of organizational socialization.

Furthermore, Richards and colleagues (2014) describe all three phases of occupational socialization: acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization.

Acculturation and Professional Socialization

Acculturation is the first phase of socialization and includes the experiences an individual has before formal training commences (Veenman, 1984). Through years of exposure, subjective warrants are formed (Lawson, 1993). Subjective warrants consist of “each person’s perceptions of the requirements for teacher education and for actual teaching in schools” (p. 6), and these subjective warrants will determine if a student enters the physical education profession (Lawson, 1993). A person needs to believe they have the basic ability and aptitudes to pursue the profession. For example, a person who is lacking expertise in sports will most likely not become a physical education teacher because they would not be able to teach the necessary skills.

Lawson suggested that recruits in physical education are more likely to be male, have participated in a competitive traditional sport, and have attended schools where sports took precedence over PE. Experiences during acculturation generally have the strongest influence on the beliefs and ideologies of the profession (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011).

After acculturation, professional socialization begins, whereby students are formally trained. Subjective warrants are often challenged throughout this phase, as students learn new information about the profession (Schempp & Graber, 1992). In physical education, one subjective warrant could be that a teacher must be an athlete to be an effective physical education teacher. However, a program can project their belief of what an effective PE teacher is, thereby challenging this preconceived notion. The student then can internalize and either accept or ignore the information being conveyed. Research has shown that PETE programs may have a low socializing influence over students (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011); ultimately, the brief four-year

period in college may not be effective in changing beliefs held about the profession. However, it also has been noted that professional socialization during doctoral programs can influence teaching and coaching orientations (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011).

Organizational Socialization

The process by which an individual obtains the social competency and essential skills to undertake an organizational role is defined as organizational socialization, a constant and life-long process (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). New faculty members are taught policies about desired behavior of the faculty (teaching, research, and service), stipulations for promotion and tenure, and various customs during the initial years with an organization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) remarked, “since such a process of socialization necessarily involves the transmission of information and values, it is fundamentally a culture matter” (p. 235).

During induction, a professor will learn to navigate everyday realities and challenges of the profession (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Professional, individual, and environmental knowledge gained through professional socialization may not fit the values of the organization, and “washout” may occur (Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1983). Washout is when skills and beliefs learned in organizational socialization take precedence over professional socialization. In physical education teachers, this has been shown through either maintaining professional socialization ideologies (Lux & McCullick, 2011) or gaining new ideologies held by the organization (Christensen, 2013). For instance, if a professor keeps beliefs such as maintaining a research orientation learned in professional socialization when acquiring their new job, then the characteristics portrayed are not washed out. In order for washout to occur, a person would need to reconfigure their ideas and beliefs. When organizational socialization factors are absent, then a

teacher's personal beliefs (developed through acculturation and professional socialization) establish appropriate activities (Langley & Woods, 1998) and curricular goals (Kulinna, Brusseau, Ferry, & Cothran, 2010). In other words, if there is a gap of knowledge from organizational socialization, educators will revert back to learned and past experiences.

As an individual's career develops in the role continuance phase, he or she often accepts and reduces uncertainty, learns from feedback about performance, and interprets evidence that indicates alterations in the environment (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Dill, Hilton, & Reitman, 1962). Occupational performance throughout an individual's career is impacted by work, group membership, and support structures (Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Van Maanen, 1976). The role continuance phase characterizes through a professional's career until retirement (Van Maanen, 1976).

Before discussing factors that prohibit or promote success in organizational socialization, it is essential to understand the concept of socializing agents (Richards et al., 2014). Within each factor that prohibits or promotes success, socializing agents exist; these are people, groups, and institutions that generate the social context in which socialization takes place (Richards et al., 2014). In academia, colleagues, the environment, and expectations can all shape the context in which socialization occurs, and an individual's behavior may change accordingly (Richards et al., 2014). These factors can have an impact on the way in which a person perceives his or her occupation. Students have been widely known to be strong influences for PETE (Graber, 1990); in fact, teachers have been known to alter curriculum because of students' impact (Curtner-Smith, 1997). Other factors such as professional development may be limited to PETE, even though he or she is extremely important to new faculty (Williamson, 1993).

Factors Inhibiting or Promoting Success

This study will seek to understand physical education teacher education full professors' (PETE FPs') interactions with washout and reality shock, burnout, marginalization, and role conflict. Because many of these factors have not been studied extensively with professors in PETE, some literature on physical education teachers will be discussed.

Washout and Reality Shock. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981) refer to washout as the degradation of principles learned throughout pre-service training. Etheridge (1989) defines washout as when educators begin to lower or alter their standards. Some influences leading to washout are lack of facilities, prestige, and respect, or a teacher's need to feel accepted (Blankenship & Coleman, 2009). Smyth (1992) affirmed similar findings and adds the culture of students as an additional contributor to washout.

The institution itself can be a socializing agent as Lawson (1983) contended: "Custodial bureaucracies employ both formal and informal mechanisms to perpetuate themselves, even if it means preventing innovation and change" (p. 6). The organization will often neglect change either in a positive or negative manner, meaning that institutions tend to remain stagnant in terms of ideas and beliefs. In this context, Lawson discusses the negative aspects of washout. However, washout also can be positive as described by Richards and colleagues (2014) in that if teachers are subjected to poor pre-service training and are introduced to improved practices through their occupation, then washout is perceived as positive. The transition process for an occupation is upheld if values are similar at both pre-service and organization institutions (Blankenship & Coleman, 2009; Graber, 1998; MacDonald, 1995). Casey and Fletcher (2012) suggested that ideologies of teaching in a K–12 setting had to be altered when entering the field as PETE. The study depicted a washout effect of learned values through K–12 teaching experiences, as teachers

were not adequately trained for their specific context.

Transition into an authentic setting from preservice may result in reality shock, defined as the collapse of beliefs developed during teacher preparation resulting from the turmoil created by everyday classroom activity (Veenman, 1984). The significance of reality shock is usually determined by a combination of personal and environmental factors. Teachers often have a significant amount of stress and anxiety when they begin full-time teaching duties (Banville & Rikard, 2009; O'Sullivan, 1989). Induction teachers may often feel unprepared when facing the day-to-day challenges of teaching, as shown in physical education literature (Hebert & Worthy, 2001). Often, teachers are asked to bear the same responsibilities as their more experienced colleagues (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004).

Reality shock also may transpire when an organizational work environment does not align with professional socialization (Stroot & Whipple, 2003). Having an authentic and challenging pre-service program with diverse experiences may help prevent this construct from transpiring in physical education (Stroot & Whipple, 2003). Blankenship and Coleman (2009) found that when teachers are not prepared sufficiently, they revert back to traditional practice. If this occurs, educators may leave their job or profession altogether (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Stroot and Ko (2006) found that teachers who had innovative teaching strategies and were teaching in custodial environments also found reality shock transpiring. However, when theories align with the programs in which educators teach, reality shock does not appear to be prominent (Macdonald, 1995; Napper-Owen & Phillips, 1995). In higher education, it also has been said that ambiguity of roles, lack of support, and student population have an impact on one's perceptions (Lizzio & Wilson, 2004). For induction PETE faculty, this can ensue when professional preparation does not adequately prepare educators to deal with the complexities of

teaching in a college setting (Casey & Fletcher, 2012).

Washout and reality shock are important socializing agents in induction PETE (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). Often, transition into a new environment can prompt these factors to either prohibit or promote success (Banville & Rikard, 2009). It is imperative to have authentic pre-service experiences to aid in the transition process and reduce negative instances where induction teachers revert to acculturation experiences.

Burnout. Maslach and Leiter (1999) suggested that burnout transpires when workload is combined with lack of personal control, inadequate rewards, lack of fairness, the degradation of the working community, and/or opposing values. To put it simply, it is emotional exhaustion and cynicism toward one's work (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Work-related factors have been found to be associated with burnout among teachers, including excessive time burdens, poor interactions with colleagues, large classes, lack of resources, behavioral problems with students, role ambiguity, role conflict, lack of opportunities for promotion, absence of support, and a lack of autonomy in the decision-making process (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993).

Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs were shown to predict levels of this construct (Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004); in addition, workload and time pressure have been identified as precursors (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Therefore, it can be inferred that environment, workload, and support can impact the way a professor perceives their job.

Burnout in professors can occur when moving from associate to full professors. Often, after being guaranteed a job for life, scholarly productivity may decrease as focus can shift to family (Britton, 2010). Jackson (1993) found significant differences in levels of burnout relative to factors such as gender, age, marital status, and tenure status. Jackson explained that faculty members who had tenure were less burned out than people trying to achieve tenure. Furthermore,

being male and being married contributed to a professor being less burned out. Research has suggested that professors suffer fewer symptoms than lecturers (Azeem & Nazir, 2008) and educators with exceptionally high work motivation are at an increased risk early in their career because of unreasonable beliefs or expectations (Oro & Ursua, 2005; Schaufeli & Baker, 2004). Exploration of this construct has revealed that professors who experienced it were not able to effectively or efficiently cope with the various academic and personal issues of students (Azeem & Nazir, 2008). In a study of five induction PETE faculty members, the educator who was characterized as having a lack of support and substantial work load switched jobs by the time the study was published (Williamson, 1993).

Burnout is significant, as educators may experience negativity towards one's job. Creating environments in which faculty members have the utilities and convictions to be successful is imperative. Often, professors will have these feelings before attaining tenure (Jackson, 1993) or if educators hold the rank of lecturers (Azeem & Nazir, 2008). Universities try to reduce burnout through reduced teaching loads, orientation programs, and writing and grant workshops (Williamson, 1993).

Marginalization. Marginalization can be considered a lack of respect for the profession or the individual teacher. If a program is marginalized, there may be perceptions of a lack of teacher effectiveness (Sparkes, 1990), reduced program quality, (Sparkes, 1990), and lower perceptions of student learning expectations (Schempp & Graber, 1992). This develops as an educator has inferior beliefs about their subject's merit in his or her school; often, there is a perception of academic superiority in science, technology, engineering, and math (Britton, 2010). Administrators can contribute to a teacher's perceptions of marginality as well by sending implicit and explicit messages to other faculty members (Eldar et al., 2003). Marginalization can

even prompt some faculty members to switch the type of class they teach (Lynn & Woods, 2010). In physical education literature, it has been noted that the subject may have to advocate for legitimacy within the organization (Macdonald, 1995; Wright, 2001). Marginalization also may have a detrimental effect on curriculum as spatial and equipment issues may arise, making it more difficult to teach (Lux & McCullick, 2011).

Studies in higher education have discussed marginalization across various disciplines. This often occurs when departments within the same university are ranked against one another, which can create turmoil and friction (Scott & Mitias, 1996). Universities can rank programs in a variety of ways, although it is mainly through scholarly productivity (Scott & Mitias, 1996). One study found that prestige within a school was based upon the amount of publications (Mabrouk, 2007). Garfield (2006) supplemented this notion by identifying that the publications should be in high-impact journals and cited for prestige to increase within a department. The extent of publications has been shown to trickle down to the Ph.D. level, as doctoral students' publications are taken into consideration when assigning ranks to departments at some institutions (Masuoka, Grofman, & Feld, 2007). Schools tend to give more resources to areas that are viewed as more productive in scholarly work (Scott & Mitias, 1996). This competitive nature, especially when funding and other resources are involved, can cause conflict (Masuoka et al., 2007). If a subject becomes marginalized or is seen as less important, he or she often has less administrative support (Masuoka et al., 2007).

In physical education, several studies have been published that outline strategies to combat marginalization. Lux and McCullick (2011) advocated several strategies to promote a program, such as fostering relationships with administrators to secure tools and resources needed for classes, developing diplomatic relationships with colleagues, and creating relationships with

parents, students, and community members. Similarly, Curtner-Smith (2001) noted that educating colleagues about the significance and purpose of content is also important. There are ways to offset a lack of administrative support. The personal disposition of a teacher seems to be a strong determinant in developing a program influence within the organizational context (Lux & McCullick, 2011).

Having a valued discipline is important in terms of access to resources (Scott & Mitias, 1996) and administrative support (Masuoka et al., 2007). Furthermore, marginalization can cause conflict within a department, as resources are allocated based upon scholarly productivity (Mabrouk, 2007). However, professionals are able to advocate for their content to augment support (Curtner-Smith, 2001).

Role Conflict. Perceptions of one's behavior and perceptions of performance are explained by role theory (Hindin, 2007). Often, roles are filled because of social identities and personal situations (Biddle, 1986; Conley & You, 2009). For example, a person may be called a professor because they teach a class; they may also be called an advisor because of their role with a specific student. Teachers may often face role conflict, role overload, and role ambiguity (Conley & You, 2009; Hindin, 2007). Role conflict is split into intrarole conflict and interrole conflict. Intrarole conflict can transpire when an educator perceives that various expectations are not congruent with one another (Biddle et al., 1966). Interrole conflict is when one's own perception of his or her role is challenged, particularly when two roles conflict. Role overload occurs as teachers take on a number of responsibilities regarding the function of one's classroom, institution, and community (Richards et al., 2014). Finally, role ambiguity is characterized by circumstances in which expectations are uncertain or unspoken (Conley & You, 2009). These constructs shape the way a professor identifies and devotes themselves to their job.

Role conflict can be characterized as a lack of congruent job expectations and demands. In physical education, the roles of coach and teacher often clash (Kwon, Pyun, & Kim, 2010). In higher education, roles are characterized by research, teaching, and service (Karp et al., 1996). Frequently in PETE programs, professors seek to balance the needs of the university and public schools (Williamson, 1990). The university often disregards service in terms of aiding community development through physical education programs (Cutforth, 2013). Deans predicate the success of full professors upon scholarly work (Green, 2008), which increases pressure to publish and forces professors to focus less on teaching and service (Cutforth, 2013). Often, the professor's perceptions of the most valuable outcomes for their occupation do not align with the school's expectations (Karp et al., 1996). Conflict also may arise when teachers try to fill the numerous roles presented to them such as mentor, friend, leader, teacher, collaborator, and advisor (Hushman & Napper-Owen, 2012).

Summary

Occupational socialization is a complex process that takes place through socializing agents throughout the length of a professor's career. Understanding interactions between socializing agents and factors that inhibit or promote success within the theory of socialization is essential. Washout, reality shock, burnout, marginalization, and role conflict may influence perceptions and ideologies perceived by the professor.

Conclusion

PETE and higher education research has exhibited multiple barriers when achieving the rank of full professor. The genesis of the issue may be the result of undeveloped pre-service PETE experiences. According to research, graduates entering the field need additional publications and are not yet prepared to teach at the college level (Ward et al., 2011a).

Furthermore, issues arise when an educator enters the field such as workload, role conflict, and reality shock (Williamson, 1993) and can extend throughout the role continuance phase (Cutforth, 2013). PETE professors have to overcome initial barriers and then meet the demands of research, service/outreach, and teaching (Cutforth, 2013). The extent to which teachers can accomplish these three areas are contingent upon each individual university (Woods et al., 1997). The demands of colleges are not universal; hence, Carnegie Classification exists. Once a person is promoted to associate professor, numerous concerns arise that include motivation, lack of clarity, timeframe, and gender discrimination. Navigating these barriers and demonstrating significant contributions to research, service/outreach, and teaching will allow educators to reach the rank of full professor.

The following research is important because it will provide an in-depth understanding of how full professors' interactions with socializing factors may inhibit or promote success. Studying these interactions will aid future assistant and associate professors to recognize and gravitate towards factors that stimulate success. Accomplishing the demands of research will advance the field through best practices and increase the prestige of the PETE (Crawford et al., 2012). In addition, through service, teachers are able to aid in the development of PE teachers in the field (Patton et al., 2012), create community outreach programs (Cutforth, 2013), and mentor new faculty members (Dodds, 2005). Lastly, PETE is training the next generation of teachers that will have direct interactions with K–12 students. Learning how teachers have mediated the socializing agents of pre-service students (1990), learned best practice (Fernández-Balboa, 1998) and met standards (Lorette & Kirk, 2013) all have a direct impact on future PE teachers. The aim of this study is to discover how educators met the demands of research, service/outreach, and teaching in relation to their individual contexts when attaining the title of full professor.

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Chapter 3

Methods

Purpose and Guided Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to understand the factors that inhibited or promoted success through occupational socialization of full professors in physical education teacher education. The specific constructs examined were washout, reality shock, burnout, marginalization, and role conflict. Achieving the rank of full professor indicates exemplary work in research, teaching, and service (Gaffney, 2001). In addition, there are associated benefits such as increased status, prestige, influence, and higher salaries (Crawford et al., 2012; Long et al., 1993; Perna, 2002). A full professor is marked by having established a national and/or international reputation in his or her field of scholarship, is a leader in the research community, has established stellar teaching practices, and has devoted time to service in academia and interaction with the community (Mabrouk, 2007). Research has suggested that a need to study full professors is warranted (Buch et al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2012; Geisler et al., 2007). Examining quality professors will help future teacher educators to navigate the complex life of academia and perhaps facilitate more productive researchers, lead to better teaching of pre-service educators, and enable professors to engage in service to assist both the community and their institution.

Another contribution of this study included a more robust understanding of socialization. This theory states teachers learn strategies, beliefs, and attitudes associated with the teaching profession and can be very context specific. The way in which professors are trained and demands of the occupation can be vastly different from K-12 physical education. Socialization has been studied in K-12 physical education; recently, a published book synthesizing the

research conducted in this area was released (Richards & Gaudreault, 2016). Research in higher education has not had the same depth and scope. Therefore, investigating similar transgressions of workload, burnout, and other factors is warranted in higher education as it can contextualize differences. For example, in physical education burnout has led to high attrition rates (MacDonald, 1999). In higher education, no such study exists that associates burnout and educators leaving the field. Discovering how socialization theory is divergent from K-12 physical education literature can enhance the theory.

Despite a need for research for higher education and an increasing amount of literature published in PETE, there is no study in existence that solely focuses on multiple full professors in physical education teacher education programs (McEvoy et al., 2015). Furthermore, over the past 25 years, one-third of the articles written in PETE have had three or fewer participants (McEvoy et al., 2015). Utilizing more participants will enhance qualitative generalizability for PETE faculty. Being able to extrapolate data and apply the study to similar contexts will contribute to a broader research agenda (Zeichner, 2007). This line of inquiry will assist PETE professors to navigate the field and allow educators in other content areas to achieve such status. This study will supplement the full professor literature, and as Zeichner (2007) noted, guide the development of professional learning and improvement of PETE practice.

Scholars indicate that the theory of socialization should be further investigated (Richards et al., 2014). It is essential to develop a more comprehensive understanding of teacher socialization, especially in PETE, as it can have an impact on both teacher performance and student learning (Richards, Templin, & Gaudreault, 2013). Richards and colleagues (2014) contend that, “while the current body of literature provides important insight into the lives and careers of PE teachers, important questions remain unanswered” (p. 3). Studying the

socialization process of full professors is therefore warranted.

The following questions guided this dissertation:

1. To what extent did PETE FPs' induction experiences as a faculty member influence their career trajectory? What roles facilitated promotion?
2. What extrinsic and/or intrinsic factors impacted job satisfaction among PETE FPs, and what strategies have been utilized to enhance this disposition?
3. To what extent did PETE FPs' perceptions of status and responsibility change according to their professional ranks, and what strategies were adopted to meet these demands?

Qualitative Methods Rationale

Qualitative data should be thorough, describe a social phenomenon in depth, and generate an in depth understanding of a topic (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In the current study, PETE FPs are the unique phenomenon under investigation because they represent some level of accomplishment. In order to understand the phenomenon, the instruments utilized aim to comprehend the context, capture salient quotations, and provide a comprehensive description of the people and environment through investigation (Patton, 2015). Therefore, using qualitative data enabled the researcher to gain an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon, whereas quantitative data would have provided an analysis that lacks context. Transcribed interviews and document analysis were utilized in order to understand the context of the study (Patton, 2015). The methods of this investigation aimed to better understand the complexities of becoming a full professor.

Cresswell (2012) discussed the four philosophical assumptions of a qualitative study as (a) ontological, (b) epistemological, (c) axiological, and (d) methodological. Ontological means

that researchers try to reproduce the multiple realities of a story. This study will interview participants because they can offer scenarios and context that a quantitative study may not otherwise provide. Epistemological means the researchers often try to “get to know” participants through firsthand information (p. 22). Attempts to interview participants will be made along with the utilization of multiple qualitative data-collection methods. Axiological means that there is bias when conducting a study, as the researcher will “place” him or herself in the study. Qualitative rigor intended to prevent this from happening are member checks (Patton, 2015) and an audit trail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). That last assumption is the methodology “characterized as inductive, emerging, and shaped by the researcher’s experience in collecting and analyzing the data” (p. 23). This means that research questions may change during the study, and that researchers are constantly evaluating data. Various qualitative methods such as constant comparison were utilized accomplish this (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Qualitative Instruments

Qualitative instruments aided in triangulation (Patton, 2015). The methods of collecting data were document analysis of participants’ curriculum vitae (Dodds, 2005) and semi-structured interviews.

Curriculum Vitaes. To increase triangulation and reliability, curriculum vitae were obtained to help ensure the accuracy of the interviews and enhance findings. In document analysis, it is important to verify the accuracy of texts and link documents to other sources (Patton, 2015). The curriculum vitae were emailed to the primary researcher before each interview. Similar techniques have been used in previous research (Dodds, 2005). Documents were individually coded and linked together for salient themes. In addition, information found in the vitae provided context for the interviews and enhanced questions asked. The researcher used

curriculum vitae to discover factors of success at each level such as: publication rates, teaching/research awards, the scope and saliency of service (chairing committees, advising, forming partnerships etc.), external or internal grants, and to inform the research questions. An example of informing research questions was describing a hiatus in publications. A question was: “List three factors that contributed to your gap in publishing?” In addition, other common trends can be discovered through constant comparison (Patton, 2015).

Interviews. Semi-structured open-ended interviews were conducted with professors via an interview guide. Each interview lasted approximately 60 to 90 minutes and were one session or two 45 minute sessions. These interviews were conducted via phone or in person; this was contingent upon preference to the person being interviewed. Many of the prospective participants attended a national conference of physical education that transpired the week of March 13th-March 18th, 2017. Every effort was made to interview participants at this conference in person. However, if the participant was not attending the conference, a phone/Skype interview was suggested. Questions were based on socializing agents and factors that inhibited or promoted success throughout the participant’s career. An example interview question is: “List three significant experiences as an induction professor that have had a profound impact on the way you teach, conduct research, and/or are involved in service?” For additional questions, see Appendix D. Member checking was utilized (Patton, 2015) as interviews were recorded, transcribed, and returned to participants to increase internal validity. Additionally, each participant was given a pseudonym and identifying information such as graduate school institution will not be mentioned.

Identification of Participants

Participants were selected from a database of PETE in the United States. This database

included more than 600 schools and 250 prospective full professors with the names and ranks of teachers. Prospective participants were individuals with the rank of full professor and were contacted individually by email to determine willingness to be involved. Prior to emails being sent, Institutional Review Board approval of the project was obtained. After permission was granted, the researcher sent an initial email inquiry concerning participation in the study. The email included information outlining the purpose of the study along with an attached informed consent. If the individual declined to be interviewed when responding to the email, they were not be contacted again. However, if there was no response, the primary researcher sent follow up emails every two weeks for a total of two months..

By responding to the email and stating that they were willing to be interviewed, consent was granted. The email of the informed consent explained the study and discussed the professors' rights as participants in the study. Participants were free to stop participation at any time without any recourse. No monetary compensation was given to the participants and hence they should have felt free to withdraw at any point without any negative consequences. Prior to the interview, participants were asked if they were willing to be audio recorded. In the case of consent was not being given, participants could have still been interviewed and the researcher would have taken notes. There were no instances of this transpiring.

A homogenous sample of the full professors were taken so the research can “describe some particular subgroup in depth” (Patton, 2002, p. 235). In addition, the participants were selected based on the “criterion” of having attained the rank of full professor (Patton, 2015). To increase generalizability of the findings, participants were placed in stratified fields based on Carnegie Classification to have an equal number of participants from each category. The stratified group incorporates institution ID numbers 15-22; this includes 99% of prospective

participants with the title “full professor” in PETE. The corresponding number reflects the type of institution selected: (15) doctoral/research universities (very high research activity), (16) doctoral/research universities (high research activity), (17) doctoral/research universities (moderate research activity), (18) master's colleges and universities (larger programs), (19) master's colleges and universities (medium programs), (20) master's colleges and universities (smaller programs), (21) baccalaureate colleges (arts and sciences), and (22) baccalaureate colleges (diverse fields). Purposeful random sampling was utilized by assigning every prospective participant a number 1 through 10. Those who are assigned the numbers 3 and 8 were e-mailed. A purposeful random sample enhanced credibility of results (Patton, 2015). A total of 25 full professors were selected (Patton, 2015).

Data Analysis

After data were collected, coding and theme generation emerged and utilized the process, as recommended by Miles and Hubberman (1994). This is a four-stage process consisting of data generation, data reduction, data display, and data and theme analysis when analyzing transcripts. The transcripts were examined inductively for underlying themes (Patton, 2015). In addition, documents were examined for congruencies between vitae. Documents were written without intervention from the primary researcher (Patton, 2015) and can serve as a reflection of professors’ salient roles. Bowen (2009, p. 28) states “...selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesizing data” is important in document analysis; similar techniques were used when analyzing vitae. In addition, comparison of interview themes and curriculum vitae themes transpired and aided in triangulation (Patton, 2015).

Trustworthiness

Methodological rigor was used in data analysis to increase the credibility, validity,

confirmability, and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Techniques implemented ensured internal and external validity; therefore, trustworthiness of data were established.

Credibility and Validity. Multiple data sources were employed to confirm the findings and enhance credibility (Merriam, 2009). Transcripts and vitae were analyzed simultaneously to triangulate data (Patton, 2015), negative cases that could challenge emerging themes were identified (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and the researcher utilized constant comparison when investigating between and among interviews and documents (Patton, 2015). Triangulation included using multiple data methods in order to validate findings. Prominent qualitative data techniques include observations, interviews, field notes, and document analysis. Qualitative research postulates triangulation will ensure a narrative that is well-developed and robust. A single methodology rarely encapsulates phenomenon and therefore using multiple methods can help ensure a more thorough understanding. Furthermore, a negative case is when the researcher considers data that do not support themes or contradicts a pattern in the data. This can help the researcher adjust, extend, and confirm the patterns emerging from data analysis. Constant comparison is a method when new data are compared to previous. This technique is an ongoing procedure throughout the study as ideas and themes are constantly being formed. Lastly, a research team conducted transcription and coding, and an independent audit was conducted to enhance validity of transcripts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This consisted of an independent researcher listening to a random sample of five audio files and comparing them to transcripts. Member checking, or sending written transcripts back to participants to confirm validity, also transpired.

Confirmability and Transferability. In addition, other qualitative data analysis techniques were used to increase trustworthiness. An audit trail specifying the steps involved in

the methodological procedures occurred and a peer debriefer was used to enhance confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). An audit trail is an explanation of the research procedures from the start of a research project through the dissemination of data. Specifically, records are retained outlining the steps taken during the investigation. Peer debriefing can be described as “a process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytical session and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). It will ensure data is valid as it prevents biases and assumptions made by the primary researcher. The results found will be transferable to instances with similar contexts as trustworthiness will be upheld (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, full professors in comparable Carnegie Classifications may have similar experiences and dispositions.

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Chapter 4

Manuscript 1: Attaining Full Professorship at Doctoral Universities for Physical Education

Teacher Education

Abstract

Background/Purpose: In a tenure track position, educators progress through a ranking system from assistant to associate to full professor. The purpose of this study was to investigate how 14 physical education teacher education (PETE) faculty members at doctoral granting institutions met organizational demands to achieve the rank of full professor. **Method:** Open-ended 90 minute semi-structured interviews were conducted. Curriculum Vitae (CVs) were collected prior to interviews in order to triangulate data and better inform interview questions. Methodological rigor applied in this study included the following: (a) an audit trail; (b) constant comparison; (c) triangulation of qualitative data through interviews and CVs; and (d) peer-debriefing. **Findings:** Results indicated scholarly productivity was the most salient role responsibility contributing to promotion to full professor. In order to meet research expectations professors needed to: (a) be aware of the high research expectations; (b) have high publication rates; (c) be first authors early in their career; (d) publish data driven papers; (e) write books and chapters; and (f) collaborate with other scholars. Teaching and service were viewed as secondary roles. **Conclusion:** The ability to publish research was the most significant factor linked to achieving promotion, and future scholars should consider these findings when attempting to meet organizational tasks in academia.

Introduction

Faculty in tenure track positions are usually promoted systematically through the professor ranks from assistant to associate to full. Award of the title “full professor” indicates that significant contributions have been made in research, teaching, and/or service/outreach (Mabrouk, 2007; Perna, 2002). This terminal rank can be the most significant experience in an educator’s academic career, and promotion to this status has been deemed, in some cases, as “... perhaps even more important than tenure” (Mabrouk, 2007, p. 987). Similarly, Wiese and colleagues (2007) noted that the decision to recommend a faculty member for rank promotion is “one of the most important decisions made by a college committee” (p. 527). Full professorship often affords increased status, prestige, influence, and higher salary (Long, Allison, & McGinnis, 1993; Perna, 2002). Research has revealed that this faculty ranking has substantial organizational meaning because it suggests an “elder status” (Crawford, Burns, & McNamara, 2012, p. 43). Once full professorship is secured, institutional responsibilities, such as mentoring younger faculty and serving on committees, increase (Crawford et al., 2012). Ultimately, this title exemplifies success as it is associated with expertise in a particular field (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013). Furthermore, Finnegan and Hyle (2009) suggest that the status indicates a significant contribution in research, teaching, and service, and achieving promotion implies that the faculty member was able to successfully balance the demands of all three areas.

Scholarship

As with any profession, faculty are evaluated on various aspects of their jobs. Research is the first and perhaps most important role professors may have to fill. Studies have long suggested that promotions within academia are based on the quantity of publications as well as the significance of the research within the discipline (Crawford et al., 2012; Kulkarni, Aziz, Shams,

& Busse, 2009; Mabrouk, 2007). This leads professors to autonomously construct “value judgments concerning what constitutes evidence as well as the quantity” (Wiese et al., 2007, p. 527). Ultimately, faculty typically seek lines of research that warrant promotion.

As determined by each university, scholarly productivity is traditionally measured by the number of publications and the number of times those publications are cited (Mabrouk, 2007). Additionally, the quality of publications, measure through impact factors, is often taken into account. These are scores assigned to journals based upon the average amount of times articles are cited (Fishe, 1998; Garfield, 2006; Netter et al., 2018). The more often manuscripts are cited, the higher quality the journal is considered. One recent study asserted assistant/associate professors at top 10 business schools needed significantly more manuscripts published in elite journals in their field in order to be promoted, and on average, at least three papers published in “A” journals were required for promotion (Netter, Poulsen, & Kieser, 2018). Additionally, when assigning academic rankings to programs, the impact factor of manuscripts is often taken into consideration (Adler & Harzing 2009). This adds pressure to the role of faculty members not only to publish in top tier journals (Adler & Harzing 2009), but also to influence scholars to cite the work of their colleagues and reference their previous publications (Case & Higgins, 2000; Moher, Naudet, Cristea, Miedema, Ioannidis, & Goodman, 2018). Often, a university’s promotion committee may consider only articles published above a certain impact factor as publications that “count” towards promotion (Garfield, 2006).

Aside from quality, other studies point to the number of publications as an objective measure of promotion (Crawford et al., 2012; Netter et al., 2018). Professors in criminal justice were found to publish about 16 times before promotion to full professor (Crawford et al., 2012). However, measuring productivity as far as quantity can be complicated as an exact number of

publications may not always be specified (Cutforth, 2013). Therefore, pressure to publish can induce stress and be problematic for some faculty (Buch et al., 2011)

Service and Teaching

Research is not the only factor for promotion. Service and teaching have been identified as two significant factors in the promotion process as committees expect faculty members to contribute to these areas in addition to research. Evidence of the former may include but is not limited to contributions to professional associations, review activities, community talks, committee participation, journal editorial boards', and faculty advisory roles (Mabrouk, 2007). For the latter, letters from former students, peer observations of classroom teaching, success of graduate students, student evaluations of teaching, and teaching awards can provide evidence of exemplary teaching (Mabrouk, 2007). Crawford and colleagues (2012) suggested that both teaching and service are crucial aspects of higher education. Research has indicated, nonetheless, that professors' perceptions of positive teaching evaluations and service activities, such as chairing a dissertation or thesis committee, were only believed to be moderately important for promotion to full professor (Crawford et al., 2012). Furthermore, in DI (doctoral institution) settings, excellence in teaching is less salient for promotion as one advances towards full professor (Green, 2008). Unfortunately, little empirical evidence exists related to the overall importance of quality teaching and/or the extent to which quality and quantity of service is needed to attain the rank of full professor (Buch, Huet, Rorrer, & Roberson, 2011).

Theory: Occupational Socialization

As previously discussed, the three main roles of faculty are research, teaching and service; however, the saliency of each is dependent on the institution. Therefore, as professors begin their career, they are continually interacting with their environment to determine the

essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes to achieve promotion (Cutforth, 2013; Garder & Blackstone, 2013). This dynamic process within the environment in order to meet promotion requirements can be explained by socialization theory. It describes the nature of personal interactions within the professional environment, and hence, much of the research on physical education teacher education (PETE) faculty is grounded in socialization theory (McEvoy, Heikinaro-Johansson, & MacPhail, 2015). Lawson (1984) defined occupational socialization as those factors “that initially influence a person to enter the field, and that are later responsible for their perceptions and actions as teacher educators and teachers” (p. 109). The concept is further divided into three categories: acculturation, professional socialization, and organizational socialization (Richards, Templin, & Graber, 2014).

This present study focused solely on organizational socialization, the process by which an individual obtains the social competency and essential skills necessary to undertake an organizational role that is considered a constant and life-long process (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). New faculty members are “taught” formal and informal policies related to desired behavior (in areas such as teaching, research, and service), stipulations for promotion and tenure, and various customs during the initial years with an organization (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) remarked “since such a process of socialization necessarily involves the transmission of information and values, it is fundamentally a culture matter” (p. 235). Consequently, organizational socialization may serve to strengthen the practitioners’ ideas and values adopted during the PETE program (Lawson, 1983) or lead to a washout effect as the induction educator encounters the realities of the profession (Richards & Templin, 2011).

In higher education, organizational socialization is further subdivided into two phases: initial entry and role continuance (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). The former begins when an

educator enters the profession, typically in a role as an assistant professor. Learning about the department, institution, and profession is a foundational task as part of this process. Throughout this introductory phase, an educator may form new attitudes, actions, and values. Role continuance, the second phase, is characterized by a period of time in which the individual becomes more comfortable with his or her role in the university (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996).

Methods

Purpose and Rationale

Research has suggested that a need to study the promotion process to full professorship is warranted in order to better understand the complexities of the process (Buch et al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2012; Geisler et al., 2007). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate how 14 physical education teacher education (PETE) faculty members at doctoral granting institutions met organizational demands to achieve the rank of full professor. This is often characterized by: (a) establishing a national and/or international reputation in his or her field of scholarship; (b) demonstrating leadership in the research community; (c) establishing stellar teaching practices; and (d) devoting time to service in academia and interaction with the community (Mabrouk, 2007). In order to examine this phenomenon, curriculum vitae (CVs) and interview data were gathered to provide details related to context, capture salient quotations, and offer a comprehensive description of the individuals and their environments (Patton, 2015).

Identification of Participants

Participants were selected from a database of PETE in the United States that includes more than 600 schools and listings for 250 full professors. Prospective recruits were individuals with the rank of full professor at research-intensive universities according the Carnegie Classification of Institutions. For this study, categories used were doctoral universities with the

highest research activity, higher research activity, and moderate research activity (Indiana University, n.d.).

After Institutional Review Board approval was granted, potential participants were forwarded an initial email inquiry inviting participation in the study. Emails were sent every two weeks until data saturation occurred. The email included a description of the study and an informed consent. Ultimately, 14 PETE full professors agreed to participate, including five female and nine males. Four were from highest research institutions (R1), nine from higher research institutions (R2), and one from a moderate research institution (R3). Efforts were taken to purposely recruit high and moderate programs; however, fewer full professors are employed at those institutions. A summary of the participants is listed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Descriptions of PETE Professors

Participant	Carnegie Classification Research Activity	Years as Assistant	Years as Associate	Years as Full Professor
Abraham	Higher	6	6	15
Barney	Highest	8	7	7
Bart	Higher	2	5	13
Edna	Moderate	6	21	2
Helen	Highest	5	15	6
Homer	Higher	6	7	12
Kent	Higher	7	6	21
Lisa	Higher	6	7	4
Nelson	Higher	6	6	12
Patty	Highest	8	8	5
Selma	Higher	6	6	3
Seymour	Higher	3	14	6
Todd	Highest	6	8	15
William	Highest	7	8	24
Mean		5.86	8.86	10.36

Note. Edna and Helen served in the associate professor rank much longer than the others as they were concurrently employed and raising children. Seymour taught overseas which delayed his advancement. Aside from these three outliers, average promotion to full professorship occurred after 6.73 years in the associate professor rank.

Data Sources

To increase triangulation and reliability, the CV of each participant was obtained prior to interviews to help confirm and enhance the accuracy of the collected data. An imperative task during document analysis was verifying the accuracy of texts and linking documents to other sources (Patton, 2015). Initially, CVs were individually coded and categorized by congruent themes such as publication rates/types, service within the profession, classes taught, and awards received. This information provided supplementary prompts for the interview guide and provided details related to perceived successes, such as publication rates, percentage of first authorships, teaching/research awards, and the scope and saliency of service (chairing committees, advising, forming partnerships) at each rank. In addition, interviews were conducted via a formal guide.

Each lasted 60 to 90 minutes, and were conducted by phone, Skype, or in person, contingent upon personal preference of the individual participant. Pertinent follow-up questions that arose related to the CV were also addressed during the interviews.

Data Analysis

Interview data were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. The interview transcripts were sent via email to participants to ensure accuracy through member checking, and participants were allowed to adjust their comments. Once transcripts were verified, coding and theme generation progressed through the process recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994) consisting of data generation, data reduction, data display, and data and theme analysis. In addition, the transcripts were examined inductively for underlying themes and congruency with CVs. Comparison of themes among the data sources aided triangulation (Patton, 2015). In the end, no discrepancies between interviews and CVs were identified, and all themes were verified by an independent researcher.

Trustworthiness

During data collection, several techniques were implemented to ensure internal and external validity. First, multiple data sources were employed to confirm findings and enhance credibility (Merriam, 2009). Second, transcripts and CVs were analyzed simultaneously to triangulate data (Patton, 2015), negative cases that could challenge emerging themes were identified (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), and constant comparison between and among interviews and documents transpired to ensure credibility and reliability (Patton, 2015). Third, an independent audit, consisting of an impartial researcher listening to a random sample of three audio files and comparing them to transcripts, was conducted to enhance validity of transcripts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Fourth, member checking, sending written transcripts back to participants to

confirm validity, transpired for verification of statements and clarification in the case that transcriptions were unclear. Fifth, an audit trail specifying the steps involved in the methodological procedures was created. Lastly, an independent researcher also acted as a peer-debriefer to enhance conformability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and challenge emerging themes and biases.

Results

In the current study, participants navigated the dynamics within their environments, met instructional guidelines, and attained full professorship. Results indicated scholarly productivity was the most salient role responsibility contributing to promotion to full professor. In order to meet research expectations and build a reputation professors needed to: (a) be aware of the high research expectations; (b) have high publication rates; (c) be first authors early in their career; (d) publish data driven papers; (e) write books and chapters; and (f) collaborate with other scholars. Teaching and service were viewed as secondary roles.

The Importance of Building a Reputation

To begin, the primary criterion for attaining full professorship was building a national/international reputation through scholarship. As Nelson explained, “You have to have you[r] name on things as a first author to show that you have been involved in scholarship.” This demonstrates the ability to be a top scholar in the field. Todd noted:

They say, ‘Todd—he’s got (sic) a personal preparation grant,’ so you’re kind of making a name for yourself. At that time, I’m thinking, I’m feeling good about myself. I’m doing well. They see that I’m being productive with my research, and so I’m doing the things that I wanted to do.

Establishing a reputation in the field also meant that participants felt they had more autonomy with their research direction. This, in turn, allowed them more latitude with developing lines of inquiry and undertaking projects that would aid younger colleagues or cultivate outreach programs. Patty explained, “It has changed over the years. I think at first [my goal], was to make a name and to be big in the research.” This quotation suggests the pressure she perceived in developing her research line. Currently, Patty publishes very little as a full professor, and instead focuses more on her outreach program. Similarly, Seymour stated, “people ought to know who you are outside the university.” To summarize, the process of gaining a national/international reputation, for these scholars, required them to establish their status and credibility within the field. Participants did this, in part, by establishing a consistent research line, delivering presentations, and writing invited articles.

High Research Expectations

As a whole, professors indicated that their universities provided clear guidelines for rank advancement in relation to a need for an established research line and quantity of publications. The expectation at most universities was for these participants to be excellent scholars. For example, at her institution, Helen explained that faculty members “need to do service, and they need to be good teachers, but the primary emphasis is on research.” For the most part, this expectation to produce scholarly work was consistent throughout one’s career. As Lisa stated a “consistent line of inquiry” was needed. Abraham provided details:

One of the issues that arises as they [faculty] go up for associate professor is they don’t have a real clear research agenda, and it’s [the research] pretty diverse. I would still argue today being on the university tenure promotion committee, if I look at a packet where a

faculty member has a well-developed research agenda in a particular area, and most of the publications they do [are] related, that's looked at very positively.

In contrast, skepticism develops when this consistency is not present. As Troy explained:

If you think you want to be successful at a research university and you have a lot of publications that are other people's work or not in line with your work, people start wondering, "Are you guys putting your names on each other's paper[s] or what?"

In addition, the quantity of publications also plays a role in the assessment of candidates striving toward promotion and tenure; however, the number needed was context-specific. As Barney explained, "Getting promoted at one institution is not the same as getting promoted in another. Even within the institution the expectations could change." This was apparent at the university at which Seymour was employed. He stated:

The [associate professors] now want a little bit more concrete evidence of what it takes to become a full professor. Then it gets to, are you on a 2x2 load or 3x2? Then, does it need to be in top-tier journals? That is a little bit more nebulous right now. One of the things I love is [that] you have the option of a 2x2 load or a 3x2 load, and the expectation is either [to publish] two or one a year, respectively.

The quantity of needed peer-reviewed publications appeared to be clear and guided these professionals with publishing expectations. Seymour was a negative case as he was the only participant with unclear expectations related to publishing in top tier journals. As Nelson explained, "You know what type of... publications carry the most weight in the system. We are told we have to publish in top-tier journals." Participants were able to identify these top tier journals through knowledge gained during doctoral preparation, conversations with colleagues, individual investigation, and communications directly from the journals themselves. In addition,

participants indicated that they also needed to publish in a variety of journals, and that impact factors may influence the promotion process. For example, Lisa contributed:

So I see people publishing in the top journals, whether that be within physical education, or within general education.... I'll go and Google Scholar somebody, and see who's citing you. And you have this publication you claim is great but nobody's ever cited it. Not so great now. I don't look at impact factors. Like, some people get really worked up over impact factors.

To this end, many of the participants also noted that PETE journals do not have high impact factors because they are context-specific. Some even contended that strategies to publish in general science journals may provide more appeal to a wider variety of academic content areas.

Furthermore, publishing in state journals or the same journal repetitively could reduce the merit of their research. Todd explained, "Somebody might be a pretty prolific researcher, and they might have, let's say they have 20 articles, but 19 of the 20 [are] in JTPE, and that's a red flag." Similarly, Lisa elaborated:

Is there evidence that you are making an impact beyond who's citing your work? Where are you being published? We had somebody come up this year, and she had published in only state journals. I'm like, 'This is ridiculous. This is not full professor research.' You need to be publishing in the top journals in your field.

Across the cohort, publishing criteria shifted depending on class load and institutional demand, but clarity existed at the individual level as to the amount and type of publications required. In general, multiple, impactful publications across a variety of high-quality journals each a year were required.

Participants summarized the aforementioned expectations as “publish or perish.” All participants acknowledged that they had to be productive researchers early in their careers or risk being terminated. Homer discussed his experience as a beginning faculty member:

The first faculty meeting I [attended] came to the end, and the department head said: “We have two new faculty members; we got them the usual gifts.” So there were these two cardboard boxes, with wrapping and bows, like a Christmas present. So they made us go up and open up the box. They were our school color t-shirts, and on the front, it had our university name and on the back it had *publish or perish*.

The previous evidence conveys the importance that Homer’s Department Head placed on publishing. Similarly, Bart described scholarship as “part of the DNA that’s built into the system.” A mission of doctoral granting institutions is for faculty to produce books, chapters, and manuscripts that add significant contributions to the field. To that end, Edna indicated that she knew the expectations by stating, “Well, the extrinsic motivation is publish or perish. You’ve got to do it.” In the same way, Todd postulated that he could not have gaps between publications. He said, “Publish in quality journals, and do good work, and publish regularly. You cannot have three publications one year and then go two years without one. You have to publish on a regular basis in reputable journals.” As Troy remarked, “I think you know it’s what we do. We work at a research university, and that’s part of [our] job. You need to do the scholarship; you need to do research and publish in high-quality journals.” These faculty members, similar to the majority in this study, understood the expectations for promotion and tenure at their institutions and were clearly able to meet those demands.

Publication Rates

Publication rates in terms of quantity, authorship, types of publications, and books/chapters were all significant for promotion. For the purpose of this study, only peer-reviewed journal articles were considered publications. Books and chapters were not included in the publication rates and were calculated separately, and of additional note, these researchers primarily engaged in qualitative research. Overall, publication rates remained consistent through the assistant and associate years; however, they increased when individuals reached full professorship, a result of their work with graduate students. However, as publication rates increased, the percentage of first authorships decreased. Participants published at mean rates of 1.98 ($SD = 1.18$), 1.89 ($SD = 0.91$), and 2.78 ($SD = 2.01$) as assistant, associate, and full professors, respectively (see Figure 4.1). Additionally, participants who mentored graduate students published 3.78 ($SD = 2.11$) times a year as full professors, compared to 1.47 ($SD = 2.60$) for those without graduate students. Therefore, it can be surmised that without graduate students, research productivity declined with rank.

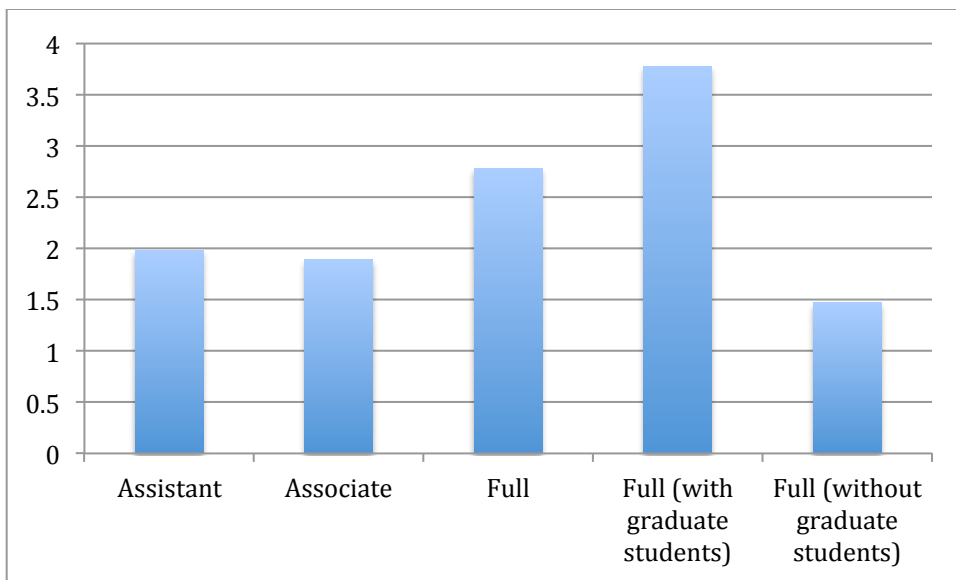


Figure 4.1. Mean Number of Manuscripts Published per Year by Faculty Rank

First Authorship

As individuals worked to establish reputations and progressed in their careers, they tended to accept fewer leadership positions on publications. In these instances, this was often demonstrated via author order on publications with first authors providing the greatest contribution. These research participants were first authors on 78% ($SD = 13.49$), 57% ($SD = 15.12$), and 44% ($SD = 16.67$) of their publications as assistant, associate, and full professors, respectively (see Figure 4.2). For those who mentored graduate students, most sought to have their students serve as lead authors on publications in order to increase their (the student candidates') marketability for future faculty positions. As Homer stated, "I do not care if my name is first on a paper ever again. At this point in my career, it is about helping my students succeed." In fact, the percentages of first author publications among professors with doctoral students was 39% ($SD = 13.36$) versus 47% ($SD = 16.23$) among professors who did not mentor doctoral students as a full professor. This demonstrates a tendency for graduate students to be first author more often when the mentor was a full professor.

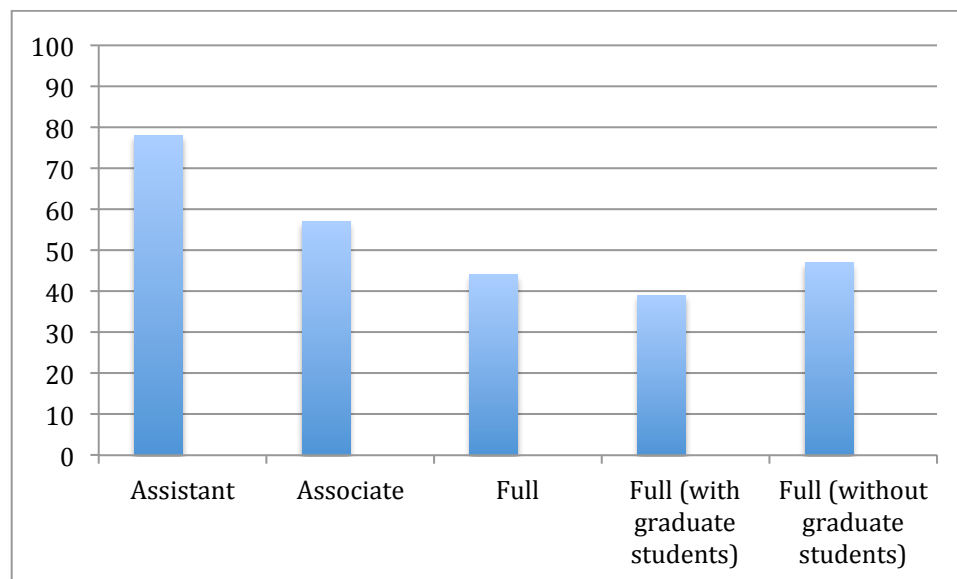


Figure 4.2. Mean Percentage of 1st Author Manuscripts Published by Faculty Rank

State or Practitioner Journals Publications

State-level journals typically have high acceptance rates and tend not to be as valued by tenure and promotion committees when compared to other peer-reviewed practitioner journals. Participants in this study had a propensity to publish at lower rates in state or practitioner journals throughout their careers. This included 26% ($SD = 28.16$), 28% ($SD = 23.32$), and 30% ($SD = 23.28$) for assistant, associate, and full professors, respectively (see Figure 4.3). There was a slight increase across rank for full professors with graduate students ($M = 33\%$ with graduate students $SD = 21.22$; $M = 28\%$ without graduate students $SD = 24.12$).

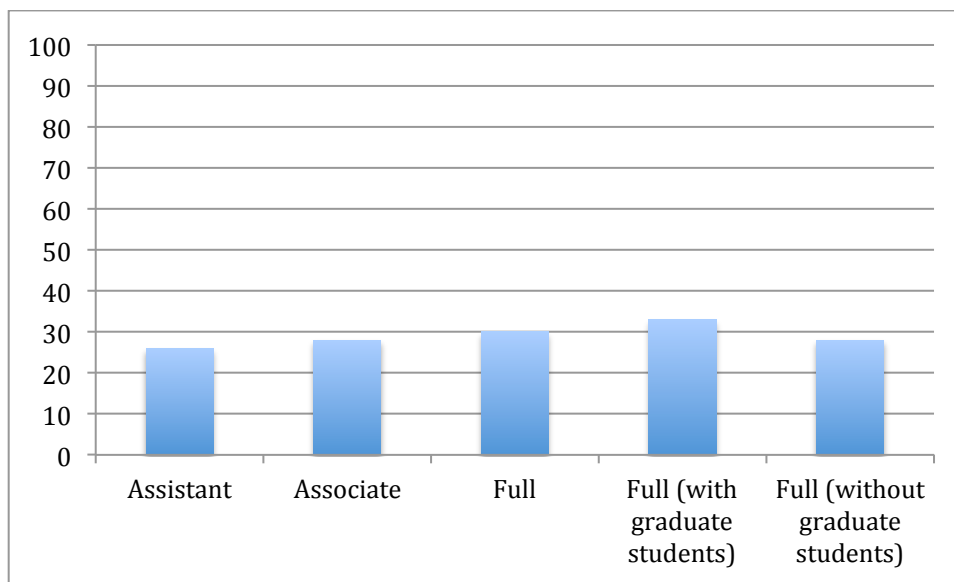


Figure 4.3. Mean Percentage of Publications in State or Practical Journal Papers by Faculty Rank

Books and Chapters

Most of the professors in this study had published books and chapters as part of their scholarship. Participants indicated that writing a book was a long, arduous process. If faculty could manage the workload, the results were positive. Kent indicated that he and his collaborators had been successful in selling their books, as he said, “If I can be honest. I think we’ve been very good. Knowing our market, our audiences and knowing what our voice is and

writing a book. I think sometimes people don't get that." Participants also wrote books because they thought there was a need. Patty explained,

I taught the only [specific course] for the department because of my background. And every book I had, or I looked at, they had maybe one or two sentences in a chapter. Never a whole chapter about how [the subject] applied to PE.

Because of the extensive amount of time that writing books required, some participants noted that beginning scholars should wait until they were established in their careers to pursue writing an entire book. Helen explained that one book she wrote took three years to complete and advised future practitioners: "A book is a lot; it's not something you want to do as a first-year professor." Most professors were wary to write books as CV data indicated as 43% of participants published books as assistant professors compared to 79% as associates. As evidence of their commitment to this process, though, participants averaged 0.92 ($SD = 1.39$), 1.93 ($SD = 1.77$), and 2.07 ($SD = 2.77$) books as assistant, associate, and full professors, respectively (see Figure 4.4). As rank increased, there was a slight increase in the number of books published. Only a marginal difference between full professors with and without graduate students existed in regards to publishing books 2.18 ($SD = 2.33$) compared to 1.91 ($SD = 3.11$). Relatedly, writing chapters for books was another form of scholarship that could be completed in considerably less time. Participants published 1.40 ($SD = 1.62$), 3.00 ($SD = 2.77$), and 6.64 ($SD = 6.01$) chapters while assistant, associate, and full professors, respectively (see Figure 1.4). Moreover, there was no major difference between those with or without graduate students ($M = 6.51$, $SD = 6.81$ compared to $M = 6.83$, $SD = 5.89$, respectively). The increase in rank, again, meant more chapters published.

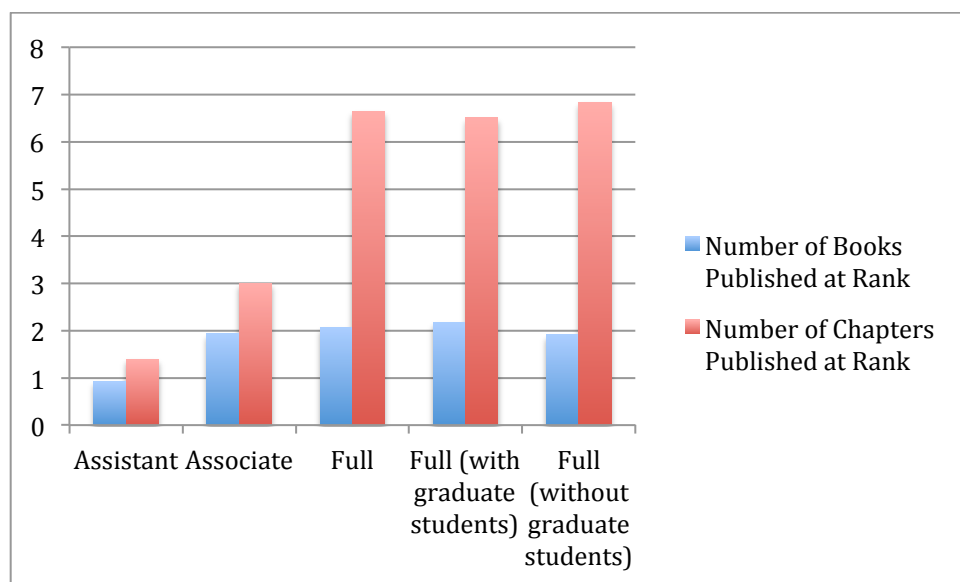


Figure 4.4. Mean Number of Books and Chapters Published by Faculty Rank

To summarize, overall, the number of articles published was augmented as a full professor because of access to graduate students. The presence of these relationships with full professors tended to increase the participant's total number of publications but had no major impact on the quantity of books or chapters (see Table 4.2). An inverse relationship existed as an increase in rank, led to a decrease in the number of first authorships. Conversely, a direct relationship was present between authoring book chapters and books and increases in rank.

Table 4.2

Summary of Publication Rates

	Number of Publications per Year	Number of Books Published at Rank	Number of Chapters Published at Rank	Percentage First Authorship	Percentage of Papers in State or Practical Journals
Assistant	1.98	0.92	1.40	78%	26%
Associate	1.89	1.93	3.00	57%	28%
Full	2.78	2.07	6.64	44%	30%
Full (with graduate students)	3.78	2.18	6.51	39%	33%
Full (without graduate students)	1.47	1.91	6.83	47%	28%

Importance of Collaboration

In general, productivity, across these participants, increased because of collaboration with graduate students and faculty members outside their universities. William undertook an administrative role for several years and stated, “I’d have to say the savior [of] my productivity has been the doc students.” Troy explained how graduate students expedited the process of writing by stating, “I do like writing, and I’ve been very fortunate in having a lot of very good graduate students who have helped make the process a little easier.” Barney, too, equated some of his success to his students. He said, “Everyone around me is why I have been so successful... I have been fortunate to have had a good group of graduate students.” Most other participants with graduate students espoused similar beliefs. As Todd explained, “If you need something done in data collection, graduate students are always willing to help.” This allowed him more time to write and required him to spend less time with monotonous and time-consuming tasks. He delegated the teaching of some of his classes to graduate students as it was “good practice” for them.

Participants also collaborated with other faculty members. Selma described working with peers in other states by asserting, “There were not collaborators in [my] school, and so I made my own damn sandbox and found people to play in it with me.” Selma even developed research interests with others outside of the country, but many participants gravitated toward the situations wherever they had the most opportunities. For Selma, it was outside the United States; however, as Seymour contrastingly articulated, “Once I was in the States, I was able to find more people [with whom] to publish.” With modern technology, collaboration and formation of

research teams have become easier. Barney benefitted from the creation of an international team. He stated,

I can tell you we have a research team in China. We have one in Japan. We have one in Korea. We have one in Turkey, one in Belgium. We have one in Israel, and we have several in the U.S.A. We have over 25 researchers.

In short, these researchers sought opportunities for collaboration. When working with other faculty, some participants spoke of seeking research partners who had strengths in areas in which they had weaknesses. Helen explained, “Everybody has something [that] you can learn from them, and everybody makes contributions.” Additionally, individuals collaborated with scholars at their own institutions as well as former graduate advisors. Nelson explained, “One of my colleagues was a health educator, and another one was in nutrition. That offered the opportunity to go after some big grants.” This was especially important, because as Todd explained, “Grants are difficult to get in pedagogy.”

Members often benefitted from establishing groups to help answer research questions as Lisa described, “You do need to do get on research teams.” Over time, however, participants adapted their research team membership. Selma explained that the older faculty with whom she worked began to slow their research productivity as they approached retirement. She stated,

A lot of the faculty at the time, well, were still aging faculty. So 14 years ago, there was no one for me to play with, and so I finished the work I was doing, and then started working with colleagues abroad.

Ultimately, membership in a network of researchers allowed participants to engage in multiple projects as all their time was not consumed by the tasks of being a primary investigator.

Importance of Other Role Responsibilities

Teaching

As with scholarship, quality teaching was another expectation that these individuals sought to meet in order to receive promotion. In general, participants were evaluated through visits from Department Heads and feedback from students, and they typically appreciated the aspects required of the work of both research and teaching. Barney stated, “I have enjoyed teaching as much as I have research. I am very passionate about both.” While Homer explained, “Well, I really like it all, but the committee work, I suppose.” Likewise, Lisa said “Oh, I love to teach. And I like to teach, because I like to watch students grow... The teaching is what keeps me going, and I enjoy the research, too.” When describing their job satisfaction, participants included both teaching and research as part of the satisfaction they felt related to their jobs.

However, despite their affinity for teaching, most participants indicated that they did not need to be outstanding teachers in order to be promoted. Todd explained, “You don’t have to get all excellence [evaluation scores] in your teaching, and students don’t have to be drooling over you. You just need to be showing, you know, you’re a conscientious instructor.” This indicates that a teacher could be merely proficient and still be promoted. Troy expanded:

I was a department chair. I served on my college-wide tenure and promotion committees.

For 10 years, it has been very clear if you don’t have the research or scholarship, no matter how good your teaching and service are, you will not get promoted.

Across all institutions, the process of promotion as it pertained to teaching aptitude consistently referred to the terms “average” or “mediocre.” This signified that participants did not need to be a highly regarded instructor by their department, peers, or students. Homer summarized his

understanding of the relationship between teaching and research in the promotion and tenure evaluations at his research-higher intensive institution with these words:

I don't think people are comfortable judging teaching. I wouldn't say it's a dereliction of duty. You could be an average teacher and tremendous researcher and make it; however, you could be a tremendous teacher and average researcher, and you wouldn't. That's a fact.

These quotes indicate that, in the view of these participants, teaching is not the most salient faculty role required for promotion to full professor. Most participants also clarified that with smaller teaching loads, more research was expected.

Service

Service was a third professional responsibility participants addressed. For the participants in this study service responsibility evolved over time as they initially had very little committee work and less obligations related to reviewing manuscripts for journals. During the induction years, or the first few years of teaching, their workload required minimal service; departments supported participants by allowing them to concentrate on their research and in turn, this led to more propensity to establish clear research agendas. Bart explained,

We protect our assistant professors vigorously from things that aren't going help them be successful, like my boss doesn't let them be on any committees. Now, they might be on a couple little departmental task force committees or something, but they're not on any college or university committees.

Abraham, who was a department head, stated similar expectations, "For example, we just don't allow first-year faculty, well the first three years, to get onto a university-wide committee. They don't need to do that at that point in their life." Patty said that her department head chose

“meaningful service” that “...will be good, it’ll get you involved, but it won’t take a lot of time.”

The service early in the socialization process was aimed not to be intensive in time, yet enough to be promoted.

As such, participants primarily served on editorial boards reviewing manuscripts early in their careers. Bart was upset that he was not included in this typical process as a new professor. He expressed his displeasure:

. . . I only got put on the [PETE journal] editorial board like two, three years ago, and there was lots of, like, beginning assistant professors and non-tenured people on there....But see, I put that down to the fact that I’m nobody’s boy [graduate student].

Having a specific advisor was thought, by Bart and others, to help procure the most meaningful types of service early in a participant’s careers. Often, this translated to serving on state/national committees or becoming a reviewer for a highly regarded journal. Generally, as individuals advanced through the ranks, they accepted increased quantities of service at the national level. Nelson described how he started navigating this process:

Early on, I was a section chair with the state association. After [that] I was a division chair. Then I got involved in NASPE, as it was, as one of the people who evaluate the NCATE reports. I got involved with that [NCATE] and through that [NASPE], got more involved.

These types of service opportunities, however, were often viewed as an obligation that needed to be fulfilled in order to earn promotion at the university and department level. Rarely did participants speak favorably about service. Homer said, “Someone asked me if I would like to be on the committee on committees. This is a committee that decides what committees the university has. I thought well, that’s just ridiculous....”. Other participants used terms like

“garbage” to describe the time spent on service and noted that a need existed to “guard” their time. Kent specified, “You know you have to do enough” so one does not want to upset individuals at their institution. Seymour was on a few committees that took an extraordinary amount of time; he remarked, “The advice I always give is to be really careful with the things you say yes to, particularly for your service.” Most service was depicted as a subtraction from other primary roles, such as the teaching and research tasks that most participants enjoyed.

Selma and Helen, however, were two exceptions to the aforementioned desire of individuals to “protect” their time from service. One was employed in a prominent role within her university and another was employed at a national institution. Both believed service aided their ability to establish relationships. They also further clarified that service afforded them opportunities to collaborate with individuals within their university and other PETE faculty members at conferences.

In the end, to some extent, many participants indicated that they enjoyed serving as reviewers or journal editors because it forced them to maintain awareness of relevant literature being considered for publication. These same individuals, however, proceeded with caution regarding their service commitment so as to not hinder their own ability to publish. Todd stated, “...[it’s] good to be a manuscript reviewer for some good publications. You don’t need to be [an] associate editor to start, but start reviewing, [and] be a reviewer for two, three, four journals.” This was the trend reflected in participants’ CVs as they were rarely associate/head editors of major journals early in their careers. Nevertheless, all participants consistently served as reviewers throughout their careers, typically for at least two or more journals simultaneously. Later, in the associate stages, most tended to become associate editors and accept more responsibility within a given journal. Once promoted to full professor rank, several participants

were presidents of national physical education organizations, in charge of planning committees for conferences, on promotion committees at their universities, and engaged in college-wide committees. Overall, the amount of service progressed over time as participants advanced in rank and built a reputation.

Discussion

To summarize, this study provides valuable insight into the institutional demands for promotion at doctoral-granting universities. Results indicated scholarly productivity as the most salient role responsibility contributing to promotion for full professor. Individuals acknowledged that teaching and service were important roles, too, however, as Homer stated, a professor needed to be a “tremendous researcher” first and foremost. Therefore, as results suggested, it was an environment of “publish or perish.” To that end, the participants needed to build a reputation through publishing.

Building a Reputation

To begin, establishing an international/national reputation was cited by the participants as a necessary requirement for promotion. The terms *national and international reputation*, though, have been debated in research as subjective and variable in certain contexts (Britton, 2010). For these participants, however, it meant having recognition for a specific line of inquiry, publishing in high-quality journals, and being engaged in service at the national/international level. Although the degree to which each is required as part of the promotion process is somewhat ambiguous, it is clear that scholars need to possess a highly-regarded reputation.

To this end, participants remarked that specific expectations, as evident in the base of literature, were dependent on institutional demands (Buchet et al., 2011). For many full professors, including these participants, research productivity played the most significant role (in

relation to promotion) throughout their careers (Green, 2008). As Homer, and several other participants remarked, it was either “publish or perish.” As such, participants focused heavily on research and were skeptical of spending too much time with service. In these cases, participants were fortunate to be provided with clear expectations which promoted adherence to the demands of scholarship, teaching, and service. However, as is often the case with higher education promotions, these guidelines are not necessarily well-defined (Buch, et al., 2011; Youn & Price, 2009). For example, Cutforth (2013), in a self-study, explained that ambiguous expectations led to the need for him to take a sabbatical in order to concentrate on research, and even after he assumed that strategy, he was initially rejected for promotion. This, consequently, had a profound impact on his service to the community as he had to place his outreach service program on hiatus during his time away. Overall, the majority of participants in this study indicated that they each understood the promotion guidelines at their individual institutions and therefore, knew how to balance their efforts related to primary tasks to advance in rank.

Publication Rates

Comparable to building a reputation, having a consistent line of inquiry and publishing in high-quality journals were also viewed as important criteria necessary for promotion. Ultimately, the specific number of publications needed varied depending on the university and content area. No current investigations exist related to the exact quantity PETE faculty have to publish in order to be promoted. However, in Public Affairs and Administration, 86% of faculty have to publish one or two papers a year (Coggburn & Neely, 2015). This amount is similar to the average number of manuscripts (1.98 per year) published by participants during their assistant professor rank in the current study. Other fields in academia have required the number of

published manuscripts to be significantly higher, and as a result, papers with very little merit or scientific data are often published (Thatcher, Gupta, Goes, Rai, & Tremblay, 2016).

In addition to the quantity of publications, quality is also an important variable. Garfield (2006) stated that some universities consider only publications above a certain impact factor for promotion. In this study, however, many of the scholars did not deem impact factors as significant when determining the merit of their work. This was advantageous, in turn, as PETE journals generally have lower impact factors in relation to other disciplines in the academy. Instead, as Lisa stated, participants validated the significance of their manuscripts by verifying citations and gauging the prestige each certain journal has within the PETE community. This corresponds with Crawford and colleagues' (2012) findings that manuscripts should be published in highly-respected, prestigious outlets or journals. For example, in physical education, these can include *Journal for Teaching in Physical Education*, *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, *Quest*, and *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport* (Hopkins, 2015). In addition, results asserted that these scholars acknowledged the limitation of publishing articles in state or practical journals and the need to produce data-driven papers.

Besides journal publications, other forms of scholarship, such as books and chapters, were considered valid for promotion. As O'Meara, Eatman, and Peterson (2015) explained, "scholarly work in almost every field will include written documents (articles, chapters, and books as well as evaluation reports, grant proposals, etc.)" (p. 4). The extent of the quantity of books and chapters varies widely and is rarely the sole criteria for promotion (Taylor, 2018). However, as Taylor (2018) suggests, it can be time consuming and daunting, so "your chapter or book should be something you would like to read" (p. 238). Similarly, in the current study, Helen's admonition suggested not attempting to publish books too early in one's career as it [the

process] can be extremely time-consuming. Many participants had the same realization as only 43% of participants published books as assistant professors. While the number of required books and/or chapters is often ambiguous, nevertheless, scholars do mention that these are important for promotion. Hollister (2016) noted the percentage of faculty that perceived books (59%), chapters (68%), and refereed journal articles (89%) as being “important” or “very important” within institutions to be considered for promotion. Therefore, scholars should consider writing books and chapters in order to advance in rank if their current environment can support a potentially successful outcome.

Lastly, in terms of authorship, research suggests this element is pivotal for promotion, tenure, awards, funding, and professional prestige (Tschardtke, Hochberg, Rand, Resh, Krauss, 2007). In higher education, the listing for authorship, similar to publication rates, is dependent on both content and context. For example in Mathematics, Economics, or High Energy Physics, alphabetical order of authors is followed (Costas & Bordons, 2011). However, within the field of PETE, the first author is the lead author, or person who was primarily responsible for the work being published. As assistant professors, these participants were lead authors for 78% of their published manuscripts, a percentage that declined to 47% after the rank of full professor was attained. No current investigation in PETE has discussed first authorship rates.

Collaboration

Collaboration was also a contributor to scholarly productivity. Participants, such as Barney, intentionally expanded his research team over time. Rhoades, Woods, Daum, Ellison, and Trendowski (2016) contended there has been an increase over the past twenty-five years in PETE to publish papers with multiple authors. As pressure increases for publishing, the trend will continue toward multiple authorship papers. Nabout et al. (2015) stated that it is either

“publish in a group or perish alone” (p. 102). Furthermore, another form of collaboration was utilizing graduate students. This has been shown, both in the literature and in this study, to increase the number of publications (Svider et al., 2014). As Todd stated, graduate students aided with data collection and allowed him to devote more time to writing. The trend to collaborate with graduate students in PETE serves to help the profession advance by pursuing academic inquiries and increasing productivity in early career years (Pineiro, Melkers, & Youtie, 2014).

Other Role Responsibilities

From a negative standpoint, the roles of service and teaching were not perceived to be as significant as research in terms of promotion. In fact, several individuals discussed service as a distraction from the roles they enjoyed and insisted on “guarding their time.” In contrast, however, individuals did express an enjoyment of reviewing journal articles as it allowed them to stay current with research. Promotions allowed participants to serve on more committees and have a larger role in contributing decision-making at the department level. In addition, many of the individuals adopted leadership roles, such as becoming department heads or serving on the faculty senates, within the department/university. As Crawford et al. (2012) suggested, an “elder status” is applied once full professor status is achieved. Participants had more institutional knowledge and were able to make complex decisions within their environments. Furthermore, results were congruent to existing research related to engagement in mentoring young faculty (Crawford et al. 2012) and adding other responsibilities such as chairing committees (Perna, 2002).

In a similar negative light, mediocre teaching was perceived as sufficient for promotion. This directly contradicts literature that indicates participants need to be excellent teachers in order to be promoted (Mabrouk, 2007; Perna, 2002). However, in these studies, the sample sizes

were low and the types on institutions (i.e., doctoral granting vs. master's granting) were not discussed; both of these factors may very well explain this contradiction. Regardless of its significance, teaching was a role many of these teachers enjoyed despite it not being regarded as prestigious within their university contexts. Other PETE research espouses a similar ethos for most professors (Karp et al., 1996). Perceptions of positive teaching evaluations and service activities, such as chairing a dissertation or master's thesis committee, are that these types of tasks are moderately important for promotion to full professor (Crawford et al., 2012).

Limitations

Several limitations of this study exist despite the stringent methodological rigor that was implemented. Participants' perceptions have been reflected over the entirety of their careers. A potentially more accurate depiction could be gained if future research utilizes longitudinal analysis to determine the significance of teaching, research, and service demands. Furthermore, many of these professors are in the latter stages of their career. If professors viewed their careers as successful and enjoyable, responses to interview questions could have reflected a more positive tone than what would have occurred in real-time. Anecdotes regarding these participants' socialization experiences as induction professors could be considered antiquated as new demands for promotion become the norm (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2007; Albets, Kirschner, Tilghman, & Varmus, 2014), and as new expectations become commonplace, faculty may be forced to alter the time they allocate toward certain roles at research institutions. In closing, these experiences also encapsulate only a handful of PETE faculty at doctoral granting universities, and caution should be utilized when making generalizations.

Future Research and Significance

Research, specifically the ability to produce publications, was viewed as the most important factor in promotion, a point that has been substantiated throughout the literature (Long et al., 1993; Mabrouk, 2007; Wankat, 2002). Research productivity increased, in part, because of collaboration with graduate students and research teams, but this is not unique to PETE (Svider et al., 2014). Future studies should seek to discover factors that hinder productivity of scholars and outline relevant organizational support strategies, especially as they relate to the induction years. Other lines of inquiry such as seeking additional female perspectives is warranted as literature notes a discrepancy among the promotion rates between male and females to full professor status (Misra et al., 2011; Wolfinger et al., 2008).

Moreover addressing publishing specifically, the research clarifies the saliency of responsibilities required for promotion to full professor. To summarize, one must develop an international/national reputation, establish a research line, consistently publish in high-quality, data-based journals, and produce books/chapters. Participants stated that the environment in academia is “publish or perish”, and initially, responsibilities within the university setting must be selectively pursued. The individuals in the current study desired to be effective educators. However, merit within their positions was neither valued in terms of evaluation scores nor by the amount of committees on which they served; their ability to publish in high-quality journals was considered more important.

Finally, this study establishes the extent to which professors require the appropriate prioritization of teaching, service, and scholarship and provides relevant information related to attaining promotion. For beginning professors, utilizing tracks similar to those implemented by these participants may enhance the promotion process at doctoral institutions. Future

practitioners should be aware that at doctoral granting institutions, the primary role responsibility is to publish. In order to be most successful one must: (a) be aware of the high research expectations; (b) have high publication rates; (c) be first authors early in their career; (d) publish data-driven papers; (e) write books and chapters,; and (f) collaborate with other scholars.

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Chapter 5

Manuscript 2: Initial Supports for Full Professors in PETE

Background/Purpose: The purpose of this study was to investigate the organizational supports within universities that contribute to successful achievement of promotion. Twenty-five full professors at doctoral-granting/master's-level institutions in Physical Education Teacher Education were interviewed. Methodological rigor was applied through the lens of Miles and Huberman's (1994) four-stage process for data analysis with corresponding transcriptions. Curriculum vitae were also collected in order to aid triangulation. **Findings:** Organizational supports and career preparedness were vastly different between doctoral-granting institutions (DIs) and Master's-level institutions (MIs), leading to documented episodes of reality shock at MIs. Positive interactions with department heads/chairs facilitated successful promotion. When participants felt unsupported by administration/colleagues, feelings of marginalization transpired and often motivated individuals to leave their institutions. The presence of a mentoring relationship was considered the most significant factor leading to promotion. **Conclusions:** The study indicates positive interaction, in the form of mentoring relationships with administration/colleagues has the greatest potential to influence the achievement of rank promotion.

Introduction

The word “tenure” in higher education typically means job security, although it is not ubiquitous across all faculty positions. As such, this status is generally more sought by educators compared with other institutional introductory positions such as lecturer, instructor, or non-tenure-track assistant professorships. Professors in tenure-track positions are usually promoted systematically from assistant to associate to full professor.

With a promotion in rank, a professor has increased status, prestige, influence, and higher salary (Long, Allison, & McGinnis, 1993; Perna, 2002). Wiese and colleagues (2007) noted “the decision to recommend a faculty member for rank promotion is one of the most important decisions made by a college committee” (p. 527). Once status is secured, institutional responsibilities typically increase. These may include mentoring younger faculty and serving on committees (Crawford, Burns, & McNamara, 2012). Green (2008) suggested that promotion signifies the individual was able to balance teaching, service, and research. For some, initial promotions to the associate professor rank may last an entire career. An award of the title full professor, the highest rank, indicates significant contributions have been made in research, teaching, and/or service/outreach. In fact, as a result of promotion to full professor an “elder status” is granted, and that may result in more respect (Crawford et al., 2012, p. 43). This designation also implies expertise in a particular field (Finnegan & Hyle, 2009; Gardner & Blackstone, 2013). Despite its importance, professors in physical education teacher education (PETE) and their academic rank have not been extensively examined. McEvoy, MacPhail, and Heikinaro-Johansson (2015) authored a literature review of PETE over the past 25 years and identified 96 papers related to such topics as: (a) demographics; (b) biographies and careers of PETE; (c) knowledge and understanding of the profession; (d) varying perspectives on physical

education; (e) professional role expectations; (f) pedagogical practice; (g) work with teachers, schools and communities; and (h) physical education teacher-educators as researchers. As a whole, though, these aforementioned manuscripts rarely examined the rank status of PETE faculty (McEvoy, MacPhail & Heikinaro-Johansson, 2015). Even given the scarcity of published manuscripts, existing research does indicate that faculty with early career productivity are more likely to achieve status as full professors (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013). During the induction years (the first few years in the profession), focus on initial research productivity aids in establishing a research agenda (Long et al., 1993; Perna, 2002), but because only a few recent studies in PETE have been dedicated to induction professors (e.g., Casey & Fletcher, 2012; Fletcher & Casey, 2014; Richards & Dressler, 2017). The purpose of this study was to investigate the organizational supports within universities that fostered successful achievement of promotion.

Initial Entry

PETE is dissimilar to other professions as practitioners are required to be immediately competent, often required to fulfill duties from the first day, expected to know and understand the intricacies of the department, conduct research, and teach (Cutforth, 2013). Unfortunately, though, uncertainty when entering the field, such as how to interact with students, determining what type of curriculum to implement, and the problematic integration of experiences across K-12 settings have been noted in the literature (Casey & Fletcher, 2012; Richards & Dressler, 2017; Ward, Parker, Sutherland, & Sinclair, 2011; Williamson, 1993). This lack of career readiness often prompts uneasiness during induction years as faculty are still learning the skills, attitudes, and values needed for advancement at their institutions.

In 1993, Williamson conducted a study of five female induction PETE faculty. Data were collected to discover the participants' views of their initial faculty roles. These first- or second-year PETE faculty members all had K–12 teaching experience, minimal teaching loads (one to two classes their first semester), and little committee work. As an acknowledgement of the complexities of their induction years, each participant's university offered several retreats and workshops for orientation, grant writing, and research. Despite university support of these new faculty, they experienced challenges in transitioning from doctoral students to professors. As Ella explained, "It's amazing how I can get in the car and drive a few hundred miles and suddenly be regarded as an expert. I thought, 'God, I am going to fall on my face'" (Williamson, 1993, p. 290). Findings such as these affirm that the types of support systems available to new faculty may not entirely reduce the challenges that induction professors encounter (Williamson, 1993).

In another example, Casey and Fletcher (2012) discussed their PETE induction years. Being graduates from different PETE programs, they had unique doctoral preparation. The former achieved a research-based Master's degree and was exempt from being enrolled in any academic courses as part of his doctoral program (a common practice for doctoral programs in the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand). Fletcher, the latter, worked as a full-time high school teacher for 15 years but had no higher education teaching experience at the time he received his first PETE position. However, both participants, Casey and Fletcher, expected to transfer knowledge, experiences, and innovative teaching practices to their induction teaching. Ultimately, they found that their prior knowledge of teaching practices needed to be altered to meet university demands. Casey stated that he needed to "unlearn [his] K-12 teaching pedagogy and try to understand how the new environment [worked]" while "adapting [his] pedagogy to fit the University" (Casey and Fletcher, 2012, p. 370). As a result of the study, the researchers noted

that PETE doctoral programs should create structured classes to learn best practices related to teaching undergraduates. In addition, having authentic experiences, working with mentors, and exploring theories may support the transition to a doctoral student's first full-time teaching position (Casey & Fletcher, 2012).

In a similar study, Dodds (2005) explored female PETE faculty perceptions of mentoring engagement during their induction years. For them, mentors were characterized as having the participants' best interests at heart, being enthusiastic, and making mentees feel valuable right from the start. In addition, their mentors facilitated the building of collaborative relationships among other faculty members and answered questions. One participant stated, "I used to kid [mentor 1] and [mentor 2] that my first year here, they had signs above their doors that said '[Mentee's] questions answered here'" (p. 356). This quotation is salient as it shows the uncertainty involved with being a new professor and the necessity of cultivating a relationship with senior faculty members to help ease the transition in the field of PETE.

Initial Entry into the Academy

Research in other academic areas yields similar results to PETE including such difficulties as balancing research, service, and teaching. Disparity among these variables may lead to a sense of feeling overwhelmed. Misra, Lundquist, Holmes, and Agiomavritis (2011) even had one participant state feelings of frustration that "...having good judgment [and] being thorough [meant] more work" (p. 23). During the induction years, a professor will need to learn to navigate the everyday realities and challenges of the profession (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). To further complicate matters, Green (2008) determined that the balance between teaching, service, and research is different for assistant, associate, and full professors. For example, the most important role task as an assistant professor is often research (Green, 2008).

Studies have suggested that promotions within academia are based on the merit of research within the discipline and number of publications (Long et al., 1993; Mabrouk, 2007; Wankat, 2002). Other institutional responsibilities, such as mentoring younger faculty and serving on committees, increase with promotion (Crawford et al., 2012). Crawford and colleagues (2012) posited that teaching and service are integral aspects of higher education, but professors' perceptions of positive teaching evaluations and service activities, such as chairing a dissertation or Master's thesis committee, were only moderately important for promotion.

In addition, in higher education research, procuring grants can also be a determining factor in promotion (Alberts, Kirschner, Tilghman, & Varmus, 2014). Resources in the form of funding, participants, and equipment are often obtained through this route. Furthermore, a propensity to increase publications once a grant is procured exists (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2007). Despite the importance of this task, induction scholars may feel unprepared (Buch, Huet, Rorrer, & Roberson, 2011). Melkers and Xiao (2012) postulate that participants in their study were not comfortable engaging with the interdisciplinary or industry research that often awards grants. In the social sciences and humanities, some professors have minimal experience and/or have very few colleagues with whom to collaborate (Wiebe & Maticka-Tyndale, 2017). Inquiries into saliency of faculty roles indicates an importance of research and grants with less emphasis on teaching and service (Alberts et al., 2014).

Theory: Socialization

As individuals enter the profession, clarification regarding job responsibilities becomes necessary. Dodds (2005) noted that mentors often have a significant influence on induction professors' assimilation. Other socialization factors may also influence PETE professors' progression through the ranking system. Research has suggested that educators are constantly

interacting with their environments to determine the essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes to achieve promotion (Cutforth, 2013; Garder & Blackstone, 2013). The dialectical nature of socialization suggests that individuals play a dynamic role in their personal socialization processes (Richards, Templin, & Graber, 2014). Specifically, an exchange of beliefs and ideologies between individuals and socializing agents enables these considerations to influence professors' perceptions. Awareness of these effects and their dynamic interplay can potentially minimize episodes of reality shock and marginalization that may inhibit success or provide an impetus to seek support structures, such as mentoring, that may enhance assimilation into the field (Richards et al., 2014).

Reality Shock. To begin, the transition into an authentic setting for some faculty can be difficult and may result in reality shock, defined as the collapse of beliefs developed during teacher preparation resulting from the turmoil created by everyday classroom activity (Veenman, 1984). The significance of its impact is usually determined by a combination of personal and environmental factors. Teachers often have a significant amount of stress and anxiety when they begin their full-time duties (Banville & Rikard, 2009; O'Sullivan, 1989). In fact, they often feel unprepared when facing the day-to-day challenges of teaching (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). Richards and Dressler (2017) indicated that induction faculty experienced issues with establishing appropriate pedagogy, developing and maintaining relationships with students, and managing their personal identities as educators. One such instance, for example, left the participant, Kevin, questioning his tactics. He stated, "I have been stuck in the role of 'clinical cop' and 'edTPA czar' for the past several weeks, and that is all that they see me as now" (p. 18). To help mitigate concerns such as these, additional opportunities to engage in undergraduate teaching experiences within the doctoral preparation program may produce increased confidence

during student interactions. These types of authentic pre-service experiences may aid the transition process and reduce negative outcomes (Casey & Fletcher, 2012).

Marginalization. A similar assimilation barrier, marginalization, can occur due to a lack of respect for the profession or the individual teacher. In physical education if this occurs, perceptions of a lack of teacher effectiveness, reduced program quality (Sparkes, 1990), and decreased student learning expectations may ensue (Schempp & Graber, 1992). These issues develop as educators begin to internalize the inferior beliefs and attitudes in those around them related to the merit of the classes they teach. Often, a perception of academic superiority in higher education in science, technology, engineering, and math exists within the educational system (Britton, 2010).

As previously stated, in higher education, marginalization across various disciplines surely occurs. For example, departments within the same university may be ranked against one another, especially as it relates to scholarly productivity, and this creates turmoil and friction (Scott & Mitias, 1996). To that point, Marbrouk (2007) linked program prestige to the number of publications. Similarly, Garfield (2006) posited that manuscripts should appear in high-impact journals and have high citation counts in order for prestige to increase within a university department. This trend especially exists at the PhD level as doctoral students' publications are taken into consideration when administration categorizes their perceived value to a department (Masuoka, Grofman, & Feld, 2007).

Support from administration can also serve as an influential factor in feelings of marginalization. Research indicates a propensity to allocate additional resources to areas viewed as more productive in terms of scholarly work (Scott & Mitias, 1996). This competitive dilemma, especially when funding and other resources are limited, can cause conflict (Masuoka

et al., 2007). If a content area becomes marginalized, a professor may anticipate less administrative support (Masuoka et al., 2007). In addition, administrators can also contribute to a teacher's perceptions of marginality by sending implicit and explicit messages to other faculty members (Eldar, Nabel, Schechter, Talmor, & Mazin, 2003). For example, administration may claim that P.E is not "academic" and eliminate the undergraduate physical education programs from their colleges. Blankenship and Templin (2016) suggested that this form of marginalization is having resounding impacts on these undergraduate programs at the local and national level. To that end, faculty will have an increasingly difficult time meeting the demands of teaching, research, and engagement (Blankenship & Templin, 2016). In higher education, marginalization also has a significant impact on teacher productivity and attrition rate. One such example featured an anonymous professor stating, "I considered just skating through for the rest of my years, not really caring and just doing the bare minimum until I retire" (p. 422). Unfortunately, when marginalization does occur, some faculty members may display this exact type of attitude and disposition (Gardner & Blacktone, 2013).

Mentoring. Informal (unprompted) or formal (assigned) mentoring has been widely studied in higher education. Typically, informal mentoring is ongoing and results in evolving relationships, whereas formal mentoring defines specific expectations for the mentor and mentee relationship (Johnson, 2016). In cases of the latter, formal mentoring can exert a positive influence (Johnson, 2016) and assist in the achievement of role expectations and responsibilities (Gagen & Bowie, 2005). Smith (2005) noted that mentors in higher education should be utilized to aid mentees' understanding of hidden curricula (Feiman-Nemser, 2003). Murray and Owen (1991) established that formal mentoring programs led to increased productivity, improved recruitment efforts, enhanced motivation for senior staff, and increased services offered by the

organization. Douglas (1997) identified benefits for the mentor, including increased confidence, personal fulfillment, and assistance on research projects. As an added benefit, Buch, Huet, Rorrer, and Roberson (2011) found that this process could actually serve to revitalize the mentors' careers as it allows them to assist and shape professional and personal development of mentees. In Dodds (2005) study, mentors had been especially prominent throughout the introductory years in the careers of the female faculty members. One participant stated, "Working with [my mentor], I learned some things that will always be a part of me" (Dodds, 2005, p. 358). Unfortunately, not all mentoring interactions are positive. Some females recounted negative experiences. For instance, Buch and colleagues (2011) described a case in which a mentee was told she had to "wait her time", and publishing more would not create a faster pathway to tenure (p. 428). Ultimately, though, the mentoring relationship, when approached correctly, can consequently provide a salient resource for new professors as they begin to understand organizational requirements (Johnson, 2016).

To summarize, current literature indicates that reality shock, marginalization, and mentors are influential organizational factors that may impact an induction professional. Reality shock and marginalization can lead to more anxiety and stress (Masuoka et al., 2007) while in contrast, having a mentor can ease the transition into academia (Smith, 2005). Synergistically, these factors have a dynamic role in a professor's assimilation. While socialization theory has widely been studied in PETE, more research is warranted related to the induction process (McEvoy, Heikinaro-Johansson, & MacPhail, 2015). The purpose of this study was to investigate the organizational supports within universities that contributed to successful achievement of promotion to associate. Questions that guided this study were as follows:

1. What barriers existed for beginning faculty members?

2. What were the most beneficial supports?

Methods

Identification of Participants

After permission was granted from the Institutional Review Board, the primary researcher sent an initial inquiry concerning participation in the study. The email included information outlining the purpose of the study along with an attached form of consent. If the recipient declined to be interviewed, communication ended. Participants were requested to participate based upon a PETE program database in the United States that comprises more than 600 schools and 250 full professors. All individuals with the rank of full professor employed by doctoral/master level institutions were considered.

In total, 25 participants (9 females and 16 males) from a variety of Carnegie research classifications were selected. This categorization (Carnegie) is based on quantifiable variables such as research productivity, number of doctoral degrees conferred, size of program, variety of programs offered, degree type, and number of students enrolled (Indiana University, n.d). In the end, 14 participants were employed at doctoral institutions (DIs), and 11 were employed at Master's institutions (MIs). The demographic data related to the participants is listed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Description of Participants

Participant	Carnegie Classification	Years at Assistant Professor Rank	Years at Associate Professor Rank	Years at Full Professor Rank	Geographic Region
Abraham	DI: Higher	6	6	15	West
Barney	DI: Highest	8	7	7	Midwest
Bart	DI: Higher	2	5	13	South
Carl	MI: Large Programs	3	4	4	Northeast
Charles	MI: Large Programs	5	7	2	West
Edna	DI: Moderate	6	21	2	Northeast
Eleanor	MI: Medium Programs	5	6	4	Northeast
Elizabeth	MI: Large Programs	6	4	10	Northeast
Helen	DI: Highest	5	15	6	South
Homer	DI: Higher	6	7	12	South
Kent	DI: Higher	7	6	21	Midwest
Lenny	MI: Large Programs	5	4	23	West
Lisa	DI: Higher	6	7	4	West
Maggie	MI: Large Programs	11	6	6	South
Marge	MI: Large Programs	7	6	8	Northeast
Martin	MI: Large Programs	7	4	20	South
Moe	MI: Large Programs	6	7	13	South
Nelson	DI: Higher	6	6	12	Midwest
Patty	DI: Highest	8	8	5	Midwest
Ralph	MI: Large Programs	4	9	11	Northeast
Selma	DI: Higher	6	6	3	Midwest
Seymour	DI: Higher	3	14	6	Northeast
Todd	DI: Highest	6	8	15	Midwest
Tony	MI: Medium Programs	6	7	5	Northeast
William	DI: Highest	7	8	24	Midwest
Mean		5.88	7.52	10.48	

Note. DI= Doctoral-Granting Institution, MI= Master's-Granting Institution

Interviews

Semi-structured, open-ended interviews utilized a formal guide. Each lasted approximately 60 to 90 minutes, and questions sought to gain perceptions of context, supports offered at each institution, and barriers participants encountered. Interviews were contingent upon participants' preferences and were conducted in person, by phone, or via Skype. Sample

interview questions were as follows: (a) “Have you had mentors throughout your career?”; (b) “Were people who you considered mentors formally or informally selected?”; and (c) “What were your mentors’ individual dispositions?”.

Curriculum Vitae

To aid triangulation, participants emailed current copies of their Curriculum Vitae (CVs) to the primary researcher before the interview process began. This step served to enhance the quality of the interview questions. For example, one such question asked, “Can you explain three supports at (institution participant first worked) and compare them to (second university the participant worked)?”. This dynamic form of data collection allowed the researcher to more objectively analyze participants’ careers across items such as teaching loads, publications, and types of service. Moreover, CVs provided support for the information elicited during the interviews and offered additional insights into various faculty roles.

Data Analysis

To increase generalizability, participants were placed in stratified fields based on the Carnegie Classification system (described previously) that included ID numbers (15-20) as follows: (15) doctoral universities with highest research volume; (16) doctoral universities with higher research volume; (17) doctoral universities with moderate research volume; (18) Master’s colleges and universities with larger programs; (19) Master’s colleges and universities with medium programs; and (20) Master’s colleges and universities with smaller programs.

In an ongoing effort to collect data, prospective participants were contacted every two weeks until it was determined data saturation was met through analysis of major themes. Interviews, transcripts, and document analysis comprised the qualitative methodology for this study as per Patton’s (2015) guidelines, and Miles and Huberman’s (1994) four-stage process of

data generation, data reduction, data display, and data and theme analysis was utilized for analyzing transcripts. CVs were also examined for congruencies and linked to corresponding interview questions (Patton, 2015). Mentoring programs, forms of scholarship, and research/teaching/service percentages (e.g., 40% research, 40% teaching 20% service) indicated in the vitae content were all examined. Finally, CVs were coded and linked for significant themes.

Trustworthiness

In order to ensure trustworthiness, multiple data sources were utilized to corroborate the findings and enhance credibility (Merriam, 2009). Triangulation consisted of interviews and CVs, both to aid verification of themes. Negative cases, a piece and/or multiple data that contradicts themes, were identified and explained (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Constant comparison with other researchers in regards to theme generation was used throughout the interview process as emerging data was analyzed through the lens of previously-collected data. An independent audit was conducted, establishing the validity of transcripts by a researcher listening to each of six different audiotapes for 30 minutes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Transcripts were sent to participants for member checking. In addition, the researcher provided an audit trail, with specific steps identified in the methodological procedures, to a peer debriefer in order to improve conformability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). After methodological procedures were confirmed, the peer debriefer discussed findings and challenged any biases and assumptions asserted by the primary researcher.

Results

Returning to the theoretical framework of socialization and the dynamic influences of certain variables, results will now be presented through the lens of the following themes: (a) the

influence of career preparation; and (b) the influence of supports. The former will identify how participants were prepared to meet the demands of their jobs. The latter, the influence of supports, will identify institutional resources, such as monetary start-up packages, easily attained internal grants, release time, colleagues, administration, and mentors, available to the participants.

Influence of Career Preparation

Early Success at Doctoral Institutions

To begin with examination of the first theme, the influence of career preparation, participants at DIs felt more equipped during their entry into the profession compared to their counterparts initially employed at MIs. In general, these individuals asserted that their doctoral preparation prepared them to meet initial duties as induction professors at DIs because they were equipped to conduct research, the primary role responsibility. In addition, participants employed at DIs identified no perceived barriers while participants employed at MIs described a lack of external support during their early career years. Furthermore, educators at DIs stated that they believed they were successful during their induction years because of the specific training within their doctoral programs. For example, Abraham explained, “I knew exactly what was up in front of me...Through course work in my doctoral program, I was keenly aware of what it took to be [employed] at a research institution.” There, doctoral degree programs conveyed professional expectations directly through graduate school coursework and mentoring by faculty. Barney added, “I would argue all my socialization occurred in my doctoral program. I graduated pretty much socialized. I don’t actually consider myself socialized through the profession.” To that point, he believed he had already had acquired all the necessary skills to be a quality researcher and had adequate knowledge of the field he anticipated joining. Similarly, all of the other

participants felt well-trained and believed they had adequate skills to be successful. Homer elicited that his doctoral program taught him to balance research and teaching and thought his program “was good for [him].” All participants discussed the importance of the ability to balance teaching, research, and service.

In addition, their graduate training established high standards and expectations for conducting research. Helen articulated, “Well, coming out of my doctoral program, I always knew that those were the expectations... to research and write.” William, and many others espoused feelings that they were prepared to conduct research from the beginning. He stated, “The driving force behind [being successful]... I attribute to my preparation at my doctoral school. I think I was very well-prepared in research methods and statistics and qualitative research.” Selma stated that her doctoral program established lofty goals to ensure full professorship would be achieved. To further validate these perceptions, CV data indicated that participants met the demands of research activity at their institutions. During the assistant professor years, participants employed at DIs were, on average, first authors 78% ($SD = 28.16$) of the time, tallied 1.98 ($SD = 1.18$) manuscripts and 3.13 ($SD = 1.88$) presentations per year, and wrote a total of 0.92 books ($SD = 1.39$). Even though the focus of publications were vastly different (45% less research-based manuscripts were produced by participants at MIs), participants employed at MIs during their assistant professor years (excluding Lenny as an outlier because of his propensity to publish in larger quantities than his peers) were first authors 72% ($SD = 28.21$) of the time, tallied 1.30 ($SD = 0.75$) manuscripts and 2.23 ($SD = 1.71$) presentations per year, and wrote 0.10 ($SD = 0.30$) books. These statistics indicate that professors at DIs (and MIs alike even though the means were lower) were able to meet the high research expectations imposed by their institutions.

Lack of Preparedness at MIs

In contrast to early experiences of success reported related to preparedness for conducting research tasks, participants employed at MIs did not characterize their graduate training as significant for their career preparation. In particular, as a whole, they did not feel equipped to teach large course loads or handle accreditation. Concerning his faculty workload, Moe explained, “It was just a lot [the amount of classes]. I was not used to it.” To his point, many participants alluded to similar experiences. A few of the individuals did not teach graduate-level courses, but those who did explained that the level of teaching was far more rigorous than what they anticipated. For example, Ralph described,

There I was. Teaching a 4x4. I thought it would be doable. However, it’s not like P.E class. You do not teach the same thing all day. Instead, it’s 4 preps. That means a lot of time spent on prep. You really have to be organized. I once gave an assignment due on the same day for all four classes, my weekend was spent being an inky jockey. [I] never did that again.

For the most part, participants employed at MIs were overwhelmed with their teaching loads, and this resulted in many documented cases of reality shock. Similar instances transpired among participants who were not familiar with processes such as accreditation. As Eleanor explained,

All this stuff with accreditation, you do not get this [during doctoral coursework]. I spent hours looking at each rubric and had to figure out how we aligned our program with it. It was a nightmare, and I felt like a sheep thrown to the wolves.

In addition, some participants carried responsibilities that were considered by their institutions to be more important than research. For example, Marge explained a similar feeling when talking about the complexities of classes and aligning to standards: “I just wish someone

would have sat down with me during grad school and told me you need x, y, z.” Part of tenure at her school was aligning courses with best practices, and this task could be considered scholarship. However, Marge, like many, felt unprepared when designing courses to align with appropriate methods and national accreditation standards. In total, the CVs of those employed at MIs mentioned being required to formulate accreditation reports 81% of the time compared to a mere 43% of those participants employed at DIs. In cases such as these, the combination of a lack of preparedness from doctoral training programs (specifically related to completing accreditation reports) and large teaching loads contributed to the aforementioned cases of reality shock.

The Influence of Supports

Early Resource Supports at Doctoral Institutions

Similar to adequate preparation, the presence (or absence) of proper support structures can heavily influence a beginning professor’s career cycle. To begin, these scaffolds were characterized in various forms by the participants. Bart categorized these as “more the exact opposite of barriers.” In his eyes, it was “everything put in place for you to be as successful as you want to be.” Most individuals at DIs did not have a sense of reality shock because of the environment. For example, Helen stated, “I just did what I needed to do. I didn’t feel neglected. I didn’t feel overwhelmed.” For these participants, support came in a variety of forms including a reduced teaching load, monetary start-up packages, and grants to support research. To that point, Abraham expressed,

Typically, someone coming in new here for their first year would only teach half of [what a] typical teaching load would be. So, if you came in on a two-and-two, two courses [in] fall, two courses [in] spring, you would actually for the first year only teach one of those

courses each semester to allow yourself to get your feet on the ground and get your research going.

As a current department head, Abraham acknowledged the importance of having individuals teach fewer classes. Participants unanimously identified reduced teaching loads as a way to aid scholarly productivity during the early portion of one's career. Lisa, for example, was required to teach fewer classes and was provided with research funding. She added,

We had a reduced teaching load the first year, and there were a lot of internal grants. I got \$2,000 every year that [I] was there to support my research, and then they had summer money, too. I think I got a \$5,000 grant once. [One school] had internal funding that we could apply for regularly, so I think I ended up with maybe \$15,000 in funding that came from the institution.

Internal funding, such as the type provided to Lisa, was a way to pay for resources necessary for research and provide equipment for the department's PETE program. In fact, of the 14 participants employed at DIs, 9 reported receiving internal grant funding within their first six years of employment, mostly in the form of summer research grants.

In addition, monetary compensation often accompanies the hiring process, and individuals may receive "start-up packages" for research supplies. For example, Barney was given a yearly budget and \$100,000 to start a P.E. lab. He stated, "I was king of the hill—I could do anything I wanted there. [I was] incredibly fortunate." This start-up package facilitated research for Barney, and that, in turn, provided financing for resources, such as P.E. equipment and technology, for his students. In another example, Tony described funding for his research program at a DI with these words, "We actually got \$1,000 a year just to spend on technology... It was nice at my new school. It wasn't that much of a teaching load, and I got money." Similar

to Barney, he found the funding to be useful, in particular, with providing equipment for his PETE students. Comparably, Bart, speaking about his administration, said,

You need money? We'll find a way to get it. You need release time? We'll find a way to work it out. If you need some flexibility in this [class], we'll do what we can. Doesn't always happen, but we'll put in an effort.

Bart's quotation epitomizes the nature of supports often provided within organizations to facilitate faculty success at DIs. As a whole, the doctoral institutions represented in this research study provided, in the opinion of these participants, ample supports to enable induction professors to succeed, especially within their primary role responsibility related to research.

Lack of Supports at Master's Institutions

At master's institutions, the situations were often quite contrary to those described in the preceding content. Despite categorizing their colleagues and administration positively, individuals often perceived little institutional support to meet the demands of their multiple roles and responsibilities. Eleanor elaborated, "For the most part, I was on my own, but the colleagues I developed friendships with helped. I always felt like I could ask for things." However, in her case, even the most basic tools to conduct research were not provided. Eleanor said, "I have to take you back to 1995 when I was an assistant professor. We had to petition the Dean in order to get a computer." Other participants alluded to a lack of available summer grants. Most individuals stated that there was limited funding, if any, for their programs. In fact, in the CVs of professors employed at MIs, only two participants noted the receipt of internal grant funding not associated with travel. In another applicable case, or for those who aren't as fortunate as the DI counterparts previously mentioned, Moe explained, "You need to do the best with what you have. It is hard to justify spending money... [I just] have to make do." This lack of funding even

impacted the students at some MIs as access to equipment and technology become more problematic, and this potentially impacted specific undergraduate coursework.

Similarly, even though teaching was often considered the primary role responsibility, minimal support for instructional development existed. This directly transpired to create a sense of reality shock. Lenny elucidated,

There I was, I was on my own... There was no release time. I walked in— Here are your classes. Here is your text. I would spend late hours in the evening preparing, trying to stay one day ahead of my students and classes. Brand new prep. Everything was brand new.

For Lenny and other induction professors with fewer resources, clocking long hours was necessary. For example, Maggie explained,

There was no reduced teaching load (laughs). It was pretty much, these are the things we need you to teach. These are the things we need you to do... I was pretty much on my own. Everywhere I went, everyone was so busy. I was kind of thrown out there to do the best [I could]... In the first couple years, it was very difficult for me because it was all new preparations, and the expectations were very high. I [hadn't] taught any of those classes. I was probably spending 4-5 hours a night [preparing] after I got home from work.

In addition, many of these faculty were not granted release time early in their careers to aid preparations for large class loads. Participants employed at MIs who reported coursework taught on their CVs, averaged 32.44 ($SD = 4.34$) credit hours per year compared to 15.69 ($SD = 3.15$) credit hours for their counterparts at DIs (see Table 5.2). To further validate the point, the disparity between the actual amounts of required credit hours of teaching for induction

professors would be further exacerbated if the release time typically granted to participants employed at DIs during their first year had been included in the above calculations.

To summarize, as a whole within PETE programs, beginning faculty at DIs perceived more support for their main role responsibility (research) while participants at MIs felt a sense of reality shock as there were fewer supports for research and teaching. Grading, advising, accreditation, and preparing for new classes took an extraordinary amount of time, leaving the majority of those individuals employed at MIs feeling overwhelmed.

Table 5.2

<i>Role Responsibilities</i>		
	DI	MI
Mean Publications per Year	1.98	1.30
Mean Presentations per Year	3.13	2.23
Mean Number of Books Published as an Assistant Professor	0.92	0.10
Mean Credit Hours Taught per Year	15.69	32.44
Percentage of Data-Driven Publications	74%	29%
Percentage of Participants Required to Compile Accreditation Reports	43%	81%
Percentage of First-Author Publications	78%	72%

Administration Support

Although the support structures previously mentioned as present at DIs were lacking at many of the MIs, participants at both levels felt supported by their administrators and colleagues. As Homer, employed at a DI, explained, “What the Department Head did for me was he took away all the garbage. I taught two classes, had a 2x2 load, and he did not ask me to go on many committees.” In his case, the administration allowed Homer to meet the demands of other more

salient roles at his university at that point in his career. Similarly, Selma, also at a DI, explained that everyone wanted her to do well and stated that the “department gave [her] everything [she] needed to be successful.” This perceived support was further enhanced by administrators’ desires for beginning faculty members to be successful. They provided assistance through aids such as tangible differences in schedules, reduced teaching loads, provision of easier class schedules, and limited university service. This support, in some cases, even served to dispel any sense of marginalization. For example, at Bart’s institution he recognized “the leadership of the unit” as the reason why marginalization did not exist. He explained that the Department Head commended everyone when they published a paper, and “if someone does well, it advances the unit.” In his case, the general attitude of his administrator influenced his perception of how he was valued. Elizabeth, employed at an MI, said, “The Chair of physical education has an open-door policy” and is always available.

Other supports described by participants included advice and curricular collaboration at MIs rather than the financial support and release time typically granted at DIs. Maggie, employed at an MI, summarized by stating, “My Department Head at my past institution helped me the best she could with what little time she had... If I was having trouble with classes, she would talk to me about it. We would discuss things like that.” Furthermore, at MIs, participants would often meet with Department Heads/Chairs for suggestions on how to arrange classes and receive textbooks and/or ancillary materials. They were appreciative of the advice provided by administration rather than having to teach a class with no prior knowledge. Finally, one last form of support identified, at both DIs and MIs, related to administrators’ positive dispositions towards faculty members. As Ralph stated, “...My department head was always happy. It [made]

going into work a lot easier.” In the end, a positive work environment facilitated job satisfaction for the most of participants.

Mentoring Relationships

Besides administration, the presence of mentors generally provided a positive support structure for participants. Informal mentors helped individuals meet the demands of their roles during their induction years. At DIs, this often meant that mentors aided with research. Lisa stated,

Aside from answer[ing] every question that I ever had, she encouraged me to do what I was passionate about doing in my scholarship... So, she encouraged me to do what I wanted to do to start with as opposed to telling me to do something different. And, I think that was absolutely key—having people who supported what I was passionate about versus trying to indoctrinate me into what they were passionate about.

In her case, Lisa’s mentor wanted her to enjoy research and encouraged her to be autonomous which in turn, increased enjoyment and productivity throughout her career.

Comparably, Selma indicated that her mentor facilitated research projects. She stated, “He would sit in his office for a few minutes getting a sense of things [the literature], so he always knew what was going on in the literature when he brought me in on a research project.” Often times, mentors presented research opportunities to participants. Edna expanded on the collaboration process when clarifying that her mentors developed her scholarship. She declared, “They were helpful to me, and they mentored my writing. They were active writers and reviewers themselves—they encouraged me to write. They encouraged me to present.”

Similar instances of positive mentorship occurred at MIs through their sharing of knowledge related to the university and advice, and some MI participants even alluded to

mentors aiding in research. For these, each identified a professor who helped them meet the demands of his or her new role. As Ralph explained,

He [my colleague] taught me how to organize a college course from day one to the end of the semester, all at once. He kind of showed me the ropes, and I followed his example; he encouraged me to write and do some things.

In this case, Ralph's colleague was helpful with teaching, research, and learning departmental complexities. Carl found himself in a similar situation as a beginning professor when he was trying to learn how to balance teaching and research. He was employed at an institution that prided itself on teaching as the primary role responsibility. His mentor was "[a] role model of someone who actually just got crap (research) done." In addition, he clarified that his mentor was inspiring because of his excellent teacher evaluation scores. Like Carl, most participants' values related to roles aligned with that of their mentors. For example, a faculty member with a strong teaching orientation would usually seek out a mentor with a comparable ethos. Having the support of a colleague or administrator with a similar mindset provided these participants the general knowledge related to how to be successful within their particular contextual setting. On an additional note, participants at MIs who experienced reality shock were able to be successful in the promotion process, in part, because of the support of their mentors. When teaching loads left participants feeling overwhelmed, mentors often aided by offering advice, syllabi, and course materials.

Furthermore, both DI and MI participants characterized mentors as having positive dispositions. They believed their colleagues had helpful attitudes related to their success. For induction faculty, this made their jobs less stressful and more fulfilling. Seymour elaborated on these positive relationships, "There were a couple of them that were full professors. They were

really friendly and approachable. They would come into my office all the time and say, ‘We are so happy you are here’ and ‘You are doing great’.” This comment and other plentiful examples of positive dispositions compiled during formal interviews made participants feel welcome in their new roles. Lenny, who was employed at primarily a teaching institution, articulated that his mentor was supportive, too. He talked about his initial phone conversation with his mentor and remembered it as being embarrassing, as he (Lenny) knew little about the field. He remembered thanking his mentor for having been so positive, and described the interaction this way, “He [the mentor] said, ‘The best way you [can] thank me is to help other people.’ I always think of that in emails from people where questions are kind of half-baked. I always think of that.” Lenny’s exchanges even served to facilitate his personal motivation to become a mentor later in his career. Overall, across both DIs and MIs, these positive forms of support allowed mentees to perceive less stress during induction years. Participants who had positive mentors voiced their gratefulness and because of these positive experiences, tried to assist other practitioners just entering the field with such tangible expressions as placing them as lead authors on publications or presentations.

Marginalization

However, as is the case with most scenarios, a contrasting view exists. In this study, not all participants felt supported, and a few negative cases existed. This often led to feelings of marginalization, and eventually, many of the individuals lacking support switched jobs. Lisa described the support of her experience this way:

I should have remained at my first school. Hindsight is 20/20. I had a better work environment at that one. The [second] school was much more contentious. People didn’t get along, and I thought, ‘This is ridiculous.’ I started in a very, very supportive place.

Lisa promptly left her second job as she felt isolated and unsupported. Martin, too, had a similar experience:

When I was there [my previous institution], it was more teacher preparation. It was the strongest part of that department. I did not always feel supported by the Dean and the Dean's Office, and certainly not by my Department Head.

Lisa's and Martin's quotations depict the extent to which a supportive environment can directly impact an individual's likelihood to persist at an institution. To them, positive experiences with administration meant having little conflict with the Department Head/Chair.

In addition to the lack of support perceived by some participants, there were various reasons for marginalization with PETE environments that included declining enrollment, the "non-scientific" nature of PETE, and specific Department Chairs/Heads not perceiving program value. As Nelson discussed, there was a decrease in PETE students at his institution. He stated, "A lot of ... the declining enrollments in physical education teacher education ... [are due to] factors outside of our control, and that's one of the frustrations. We do what we can as far as recruitment." In Nelson's situation, this led to his administrators allocating more resources to other departmental programs with higher enrollment. Homer, like many participants, discussed the current status of being a P.E teacher as "underappreciated" and "underpaid", both factors contributing to difficulties in recruitment.

In addition, PETE was often viewed as not "scientific enough" for departments within kinesiology. As Edna specified, "Inside the department, there's a lot of politics... They have always had the notion that exercise science people are the scientists." At her institution, PETE professors often felt undervalued as they worked with pre-service students in school settings as

opposed to working with adults in lab settings. This tendency to favor other majors over physical education was emphasized when Todd added,

You do get instances where people will look at somebody else's work and say, 'Well that's not research, and my work is better. What we do in discipline X is more academic than your discipline', so you get these internal value judgments.

Instances of marginalization often perceived by these individuals was, as Marge described, "the total department's view" on the subject. At her institution, the Department Head/Chair generally sent messages, implicitly and/or explicitly, to the rest of the department that impacted the value of pedagogy. Similarly, at William's institution, it was his perception that the personal mission of the Department Head was to eliminate pedagogy as, in William's words, he saw "no value" in the subject. He (William) mentioned several meetings during which he had to defend pedagogy's existence within the department and specifically remembered these thoughts after one of his meetings:

How are our 40 [PETE] students any different from their 40 students, and you're concerned about declining enrollment? How is that any different than this other program? That's when I go back to the value orientation that we were marginalized; we just weren't valued.

Of the eight participants who felt marginalized, two remained at their institutions, citing family reasons for the persistence. Charles stated "It's not that easy to just leave. [I] have kids and a wife." Martin explained "I have put so much time in here, [I'm] not sure if I could make a lateral move. My parents are here and are old. My retirement is pretty good, and I like the school districts, so I will just suck it up." In this case, personal factors outweighed the "cost" of remaining in a less than ideal work environments.

Discussion

To summarize, results from this study indicated that the influences of career preparation and early support may ease a beginning professor's transition into academia. However, organizational supports were largely dissimilar when comparing environments at DIs to those at MIs. In many cases, this led to reality shock for individuals employed at MIs as they sought to fulfill departmental demands that were, at times, vastly different than those addressed during their doctoral training. The presence of positive interactions with administrators did facilitate promotion throughout a participant's career regardless of institutional level and type.

Conversely, if an individual perceived a lack of support, feelings of marginalization transpired and often prompted him or her to leave the institution. In addition, the presence of a mentoring relationship was characterized as perhaps the most significant organizational support leading to the success of an individual related to rank promotion. These results will now be examined through two distinct categories: (a) the influence of preparation, and (b) the influence of support.

The Influence of Preparation

This ability to find an equilibrium of roles is often hard for beginning faculty to achieve without developing strategies; in this case, many of the individuals employed initially at DIs had already honed these abilities through their doctoral programs. However, Ward and colleagues (2011) suggested that doctoral programs are deficient in preparing PETE professionals. In the current study, new hires at DIs perceived being better equipped than those who began employment at MIs as a result of their doctoral preparation being more attuned to the expectations they encountered during assimilation. For some, the absence of this harmonious alignment resulted in the reality shock perceived by several participants at MIs. While Barney, employed at a DI, felt prepared for his main role as a researcher, many other participants,

including Moe, employed at an MI, felt overwhelmed with teaching responsibilities. To this end, Ward et al. (2011) contended that PETE doctoral students are not ready to meet the all of the potential duties of the profession. They stated that doctoral students are trained “too narrowly” and a broader prospective should be considered (Ward et al., 2011, p. 146). Engaging in an authentic and challenging pre-service program with diverse experiences can prevent reality shock (Stroot & Whipple, 2003), and to that end to more effectively train practitioners, doctoral programs should offer greater variability within their programs (Casey & Fletcher, 2012). This, in turn, would allow doctoral students to be able to select different courses depending on their intended career trajectory instead of being trained with a “one size fits all” approach (Casey & Fletcher, 2012, p. 377). Often today’s PETE programs train graduate students to become productive researchers but do not effectively incorporate instruction related to other major role responsibilities and tasks such as advising, teaching, navigating accreditation processes, and serving on committees (Ward et al., 2011).

In terms of the early successes many of these participants described, research by Gardner and Blackstone (2013) depicts professors who characterized their doctoral preparation as an essential component for facilitating the establishment of a line of research. Other studies have suggested that promotion within academia is based on the quantity of publications and the significance of the research within the discipline (Long et al., 1993; Mabrouk, 2007; Wankat, 2002). However, within each discipline in academia, much variability exists related to the amount one is required to publish. PETE literature contains no evidence suggesting the number of publications required to attain promotion, however, when surveying faculty in Public Affairs and Administration, it was found that 42% have to publish one paper a year, and 24% have to publish two papers a year to attain promotion (Coggburn & Neely, 2015). In medical literature,

the number of publications required can be so onerous at certain institutions that articles disseminated through “predatory publishers” or articles published with very little scientific merit, have increased from 53,000 publications in 2010 to over 420,000 in 2014 (Thatcher, Gupta, Goes, Rai, & Tremblay, 2016). For comparison within this study, participants at DIs published an average of 1.98 manuscripts (74% of which were data-driven) and engaged in 3.13 presentations per year. The ability of PETE faculty to produce publications has been noted as the most salient responsibility leading to promotion (Cutforth, 2013).

The Influence of Support

Turning to the lens of support structures, socialization processes during this study were, at times, distinctive. These participants, similar to those described throughout the body of literature, were constantly interacting with their environment to determine the essential skills, knowledge, and attitudes to achieve promotion (Cutforth, 2013; Garder & Blackstone, 2013). Career supports identified through this study that impacted the socialization process included university resources, colleagues, administration, and mentoring relationships. Often, because expectations are not lessened by administration, induction professors are expected to undertake the same responsibilities as more experienced colleagues (Smith & Ingersoll, 2004). For those faculty members employed at DIs, this meant establishing a research line, a relatively “comfortable” task given their extensive and applicable doctoral coursework. On the other hand, participants employed at MIs often encountered heavy teaching loads and felt subsequently overwhelmed. In some cases, participants even articulated reality shock incidents similar to those depicted in other induction studies of beginning professors (Williamson, 1993).

Early Resource Support at Doctoral Institutions

To start, one positive support was the environment at DIs. Most participants from DIs were appreciative of early career supports that aided transition into the profession. Barney discussed a monetary start-up package while others, such as Abraham, took advantage of a reduced teaching load. In higher education, these types of scaffolds allow a professor to allocate more time to developing a line of research (Darley, Zanna, & Roediger, 2004). Furthermore, Lisa explained that easy access to funding allowed her to conduct research over the summer. As Bozeman & Gaughan (2007) explain, funding of research projects will facilitate the publication of more research papers as professors may have increased availability to participants, equipment, and administrative personnel. As such, they were better able to meet the demand of their research tasks without feeling a sense of reality shock. However, individuals at MIs did not have the same initial experiences related to support and, therefore, felt overwhelmed by their primary role responsibility of teaching. This is similar to the classic Williamson (1993) study where participants felt a sense of reality shock. In that manuscript, one participant stated, “God, I am going to fall on my face” (p. 290). To that point, future administration can ease transition into higher education by having templates available for syllabi, course materials, and lectures (Darley et al., 2004).

Administration Support

Although the structures were characterized as different in the current study among DIs and MIs, participants generally felt supported by their administrators and colleagues. At times, this translated to decreased episodes of conflict as participants were able to ask for assistance. At DIs, as Homer articulated, it was taking away the “garbage” tasks that would not enhance career progression. For MIs, it was the presence of available and supportive administrators. Research

depicts similar expectations related to release time to conduct research (Darley et al., 2004) and willingness to answer questions (Buch et al., 2011). Although seldom studied in recent years, when administration demonstrates value toward faculty members, as Toma, Dubra, and Hartley (2005) suggest, an increased level of job satisfaction among induction professors ensues, and in turn, symbiotic relationships nurtured between the parties have the potential to create more dedicated and productive faculty members (Toma et al., 2005).

Mentoring Relationships

Similar to support by administration, mentoring relationships can exert a positive influence. As Dodds (2005) suggested, mentors influentially help ease the transition into higher education. Utilizing these types of relationships and minimizing reality shock, as experienced in this study by Lenny, Maggie, and others, is essential as this increases the probability of more effective teaching (Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, & Leutner, 2015), productive scholarship (Tien & Blackburn, 1996), and less attrition (Williamson, 1993).

Furthermore, in this study, mentoring relationships had the most significant impacts on participants as they aided the achievement of significant job responsibilities. For Ralph, this was evident in the support he received related to the organization of his courses. For Lisa, it was developing autonomy within her research, and for others, support for roles was contingent on institutional demands. Similarly, in a meta-analysis of over 300 manuscripts by Ehrich, Hansford, and Tennent (2004), engaging in mentoring relationships was significantly identified as exhibiting positive impacts. In general, these mentors, not unlike those identified by participants in this study, had these similar qualities: (a) a positive disposition (being supportive); and (b) providing necessary guidance.

Research across a variety of higher education content areas suggests mentors provide positive assistance as new faculty acclimate to the institutional demands of their induction environments (Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002), augment job satisfaction (Baugh & Scandura, 2000), and decrease the potential stress and conflict that may exist upon entry into the field (Rogers, 2001). Similarly, in the current study, mentors assisted with the participants' most salient role responsibilities. Carl stated that his mentor helped gather material for classes while Lisa's mentor aided with research tasks. This eased their workload and made required tasks more manageable. Similar to Dodds (2005), these participants felt comfortable asking questions of their mentors and that, in turn, alleviated stress and promoted a positive learning environment. As Lenny indicated, even if his questions were "half baked", he would go to his mentor. As a result of his positive experiences, he is now mentoring young faculty, a trend evident across PETE research (Dodds, 2005). Mentors' supportive and knowledgeable dispositions align congruently with other studies characterizing similar traits present in successful relationships (Dodds, 2005; Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002).

Marginalization

Lastly, negative administrative support and marginalization can have a significant impact on the induction process during socialization. In cases of adverse relationships with administrators who are contentious and not supportive of PETE, participants, such as William, had good cause to feel marginalized. A sense of this occurred when participants perceived implicit and explicit negative messages being sent to other faculty members (Eldar et al., 2003). Blankenship and Templin (2016) argue that this can eventually lead to a program being eliminated, and this is exactly what transpired in William's case. Edna stated that her PETE program was not "scientific" enough to be highly respected. At its very essence, the primary goal

of administration should be “about creating an atmosphere that allows faculty members to accomplish their goals and dreams” (Pardun, 2013, p. 3). In negative cases similar to those described by these participants, marginalized individuals did not feel wanted and, therefore, struggled to accomplish objectives. Hence, in many cases, if the PETE programs linked to participants were defined negatively, the individuals either switched jobs and/or perceived themselves as being marginalized. In higher education, a significant amount of research demonstrates that professors will leave jobs if they feel underappreciated (Masuoka, Grofman, & Feld, 2007), and in this case, six out of eight participants who felt marginalized left their universities.

Furthermore, it has been widely noted that personal factors related to family can impact career choices in academia (Wolfinger, Mason, & Goulden, 2008). Both men in the current study who were employed in undesirable positions as a result of marginalization elected to persist because of the potential impact of a job transition on their family dynamics. Solomon (2010), in a study of 25 male assistant professors, found that “most men state a commitment to and value family above all else” (p. 233). Overall, this may directly contribute to attrition rates in higher education and in the case of this study, certainly exerted an influence in the roles of these faculty members.

Limitations and Future Studies

While this study seeks to begin the discussion related to process surrounding rank promotion, future studies should continue to investigate influences of support strategies toward reducing marginalization within PETE. Lux and McCullick (2011) advocated several promotional guidelines, such as fostering relationships with administrators to secure tools and resources needed for classes, developing diplomatic relationships with colleagues, and creating

relationships with parents, students, and community members. Each of these can easily be adapted to suit the needs of the context within the academy. However, even with the presence of applicable strategies, additional research in higher education should begin to identify how educators in PETE may positively navigate marginalization; this will be an especially important area of concern with many programs on the verge of potential elimination (Blankenship & Templin, 2016). In addition, guidelines for promotion continue to evolve with new research indicating a shift to acquiring grant funding as a link toward promotion (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2007; Albets, Kirschner, Tilghman, & Varmus, 2014). More investigation is certainly warranted to clarify changes in expectations and provide strategies for professors to be able to successfully meet new guidelines. Future inquiries should also focus on the significance of training related to securing funding for research as part of PETE doctoral coursework.

Another potentially valuable avenue for investigation should examine career satisfaction for those professors who are employed in environments with a primary role responsibility of teaching. This could be analyzed through the lens of Steffy and Wolfe's (2001) Life Cycle of a Career Teacher, a six-stage model that categorizes teachers' careers based upon unique characteristics. For example, in the apprentice phase, educators begin planning and instructing their own students. Research suggests that these teachers are enthusiastic, passionate, energetic, and strive for student success (Steffy & Wolfe, 2001). Investigating the timeline of the stages and its dynamic progression in higher education may be warranted to better enhance the nature of support structures within PETE. Examining such factors as pay incentives, goals, and awards may provide value to the body of literature. Lastly, future studies should utilize quantitative methods across multiple content areas to aid generalizability.

Despite methodological rigor, several limitations inhibited this study. Testimonials regarding these participants' socialization experiences during their induction years may contain inaccuracies as interviews relied on recollection, and in some cases, extensive time had elapsed since this phase of their career cycle. Furthermore, perceptions of socialization in this study have been reflected across the totality of participants' careers. As individuals near retirement, reflection of early socialization experiences could be influenced by each participant's satisfaction with their current occupational status. If participants found their roles fulfilling, they may have aggregated positivity toward their initial experiences. Also, this study did not take into account participants' individual dispositions or their intrinsic and/or extrinsic motivation.

Implications

The results of this study indicate that PETE programs should train future practitioners to prepare for a wider variety of roles. Master's degree institutions need to decrease stress and reality shock by providing supports, such as reducing teaching loads and providing monetary funds to aid in research/teaching. Academic leadership should note that access to colleagues with positive dispositions who are willing to provide mentorship are an important asset related to successful assimilation for beginning professors. In addition, to better retain professors and prevent marginalization, administrators should ensure that every departmental content area is perceived as valued. Mentoring programs should ideally be informal, allowing induction professors to obtain optimal knowledge and skills for success within the organization. Formal assignment of mentors to beginning professors may not be as potentially beneficial as the relationship may lack the positive rapport that develops between colleagues who share similar goals and vision. Overall, this study demonstrates that organizational supports, especially mentoring relationships, can heavily influence participants' careers. In order to maximize the

potential for promotion, induction faculty members should be made aware of available support systems. In closing, several strategies to this end are provided in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

Strategies for Beginning Faculty Members

Strategies for Career Preparation during PETE	Strategies for Creating Personal Support Structures
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Familiarize yourself with role responsibilities based on the type of institution where you would like to work • Take classes aligned with anticipated roles • Shadow your advisor during relevant meetings • Teach a wide variety of college courses • Obtain as many resources as possible related to courses you may teach • Build collaborative relationships at state and national conventions • Familiarize yourself with the publishing process by submitting manuscripts during your professional training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Find an informal mentor with whom you feel comfortable and have similar aspirations • Pursue grant funding opportunities outside the college (example: SHAPE Young Scholar Award) • Choose an institution that aligns with your ethos • Seek employment at an institution with a collaborative environment and administrator who values your discipline • Establish cross-disciplinary relationships • Obtain your teaching schedule as soon as possible upon employment • Establish a research line • Utilize workshops offered for faculty

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Chapter 6

Manuscript 3: Achieving Full Professor in Physical Education Teacher Education

Abstract

In a tenure track position, educators progress through a ranking system from assistant to associate to full professor. When an individual is hired as an assistant professor, a general timeframe of six years is given to demonstrate competency in the roles of service, research, and teaching. Once tenure is secured, some professors elect to stay at the associate level for their entire careers as balancing the aforementioned roles can prove to be challenging because of immense pressure from the university placed on research and productivity. Despite the significance of advancing in rank, minimal research has been dedicated to each of the three primary tasks in physical education teacher education (PETE). The purpose of this article is to examine the roles of research, teaching, and service and discuss their saliency related to achieving the ranking of full professor in PETE. As there is very little current research on faculty roles, other academic areas expectations will also be examined.

Introduction

Physical education teacher education (PETE) is a dynamic profession with the educator fulfilling many roles. These responsibilities are determined by administration to meet the university's needs and can change depending on an academic rank (Cutforth, 2013; Woods, Phillips, & Carlisle, 1997). Professors in higher education have varying labels to denote status: adjunct, lecturer, assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor (Darley, Zanna, & Roediger, 2004). In a tenure-track system, individuals progress from assistant to associate to full professor. Each of these titles has its own unique characteristics and may alter occupational perceptions and expectations. Some professors never attain the rank of associate or full professor. Scholars suggest being promoted in PETE may be contingent upon adhering to institutional tasks (Cutforth, 2013), but more research is needed to clarify the extent to which educators are realistically able to balance the demands of teaching, service, and research throughout their careers (McEvoy, Heikinaro-Johansson, & MacPhail, 2015).

In academia, achieving the title of full professor can be the most significant experience in an educator's career. Promotion from associate to full professor has been suggested as "...perhaps even more important than tenure" (Mabrouk, 2007, p. 987). Similarly, Wiese and colleagues (2007) noted "the decision to recommend a faculty member for rank promotion is one of the most important decisions made by a college committee" (p. 527). It entails increased status, prestige, influence, and even a higher salary (Perna, 2002). Research has revealed that becoming a full professor has substantial organizational meaning because it suggests an "elder status" (Crawford, Burns, & McNamara, 2012, p. 43). Once this status is secured, institutional responsibilities, such as mentoring younger faculty and serving on committees, often increase (Crawford et al., 2012). Additionally, the full professor ranking exemplifies success as it is

associated with expertise in a particular field (Finnegan & Hyle, 2009; Gardner & Blackstone, 2013). Gaffney (2001) suggested that significant contributions in teaching, service, research, and the achievement of a promotion implies that the faculty member was able to balance the demands of all three areas.

In reality, achieving the title of professor or full professor is sometimes characterized as an elusive construct (Nevill & Bradburn, 2006). About 83% of academic institutions have time stipulations attached to tenure (Nevill & Bradburn, 2006); however, there is typically no existing timeframe to obtain the rank of full professor (Mabrouk, 2007). In fact, some professors, after being promoted once from assistant to associate, remain at that level for the remainder of their careers. This has led to instances, in some cases, of a delayed timetable, sometimes up to fifteen years, for advancement from associate to full professor (Gardner & Blackstone, 2013). In addition, various credentials are often required for promotion, and these may include evidence of a national and/or international reputation, established leadership in the research community, stellar teaching practices, and demonstration of service in the academy and community (Geisler, Kaminski, & Berkley, 2007).

Institutions desire for faculty members to be effective in teaching, research, and in service. Woods and colleagues (1997) stated that, depending on the PETE institution, productivity could occur in diverse forms and still lead to systematic promotion. To begin, institutional size and expectations can influence the roles an individual assumes (Mabrouk, 2007). For example, smaller schools have PETE faculty involved in coaching, physical education administration, and athletic administration (Woods et al., 1997). One study found PETE educators are categorized as “greatly involved” in academic administration (86%) in campuses with 5,000 students or less (Woods et al., 1997). Therefore, success of PETE professors may be

contingent upon the school's mission as it relates to research, teaching, and service. If one upholds expectations and attains the rank of full professor, pay often significantly increases. Of 50 PETE faculty members earning over \$50,000, six were associate professors, and 43 were full professors (Woods et al., 1997). Although this research is somewhat outdated, the correlation between rank and pay still proves significant today.

Despite the significance of rank promotion, only one self-study has been published on achieving the title of full professor in PETE (Cutforth, 2013). Therefore, the purpose of this article is to examine the roles of research, teaching, and service and discuss saliency in order to achieve the ranking of full professor in PETE. This manuscript will provide an overview of the primary faculty roles within PETE and the importance of each as it relates to the promotion process.

The Role of Research in Physical Education Teacher Education

After initial entry into the profession, an individual is often evaluated on teaching, service, and research (Darley, Zanna, & Roediger, 2004). Buch, Huet, Rorrer, and Roberson (2011) asserted that throughout a professor's career, faculty members are required to balance these primary roles, although equal importance is rarely placed on all three (Cutforth, 2013). The obligations and role saliency associated with each are influenced by career stage, personal work orientation, and organizational climate (Cutforth, 2013). However, the most important role for promotion is research (Cutforth, 2013, Green, 2008, Buch et al., 2011).

Returning to the discussion of rank promotion, a self-study conducted by Cutforth (2013), the sole existing manuscript to describe promotion to full professor, documented his journey. A search for balance, integration, and opportunity within academia took place throughout his career. During his promotion to associate professor, the committee was hesitant to grant tenure,

despite his stellar teaching and service, because of his quantity of publications. In the end, tenure was granted, but the repercussions of this experience lingered as he worked toward achieving full professor, and research took precedence over other roles. Ultimately, Cutforth recognized that he needed to increase the quantity of his publications to be considered for promotion, so, he subsequently took a sabbatical and placed his teaching and service to community programs on hiatus. Once he achieved the title of full professor, he was able to reengage in his service to the community and enjoy his love of teaching (Cutforth, 2013). This narrative is significant, as it shows that despite a professional's contributions in terms of service and teaching, research still tends to assume precedence in relation to promotion.

Of particular note related to the aforementioned information, scholarship and research are not synonymous, even though they are generally used interchangeably. In the early 1990's, Ernest Boyer began a national conversation about reconsidering the meaning of scholarship (Crow, Cruz, Ellern, Ford, Moss, & Barbara, 2018). The conversation has led to a new definition in some universities, although it is not ubiquitous across academia. In some cases, scholarship can be considered but not limited to the following tasks: (a) aligning courses with best practices, (b) writing accreditation reports; (c) attending and/or presenting at conferences, (d) writing original manuscripts; (e) digital publishing; (f) research grants; and (g) guest presentations in regards to an academic topic (Crow et al., 2018). However, research, at most institutions, is still the predominant form of scholarship (Crow et al., 2018; Darley et al., 2004). Therefore, for the purpose of this manuscript, research will be discussed as the primary driving force behind promotion and tenure (e.g., Buch et al., 2011; Cutforth, 2013; Fishe, 1998; Geisler et al., 2007; Mabrouk, 2007).

Measuring Productivity

The aforementioned example in PETE shows the necessity of being a prolific scholar. As envisioned by many universities, productivity is traditionally measured by number of publications, and the number of times those publications have been cited (Mabrouk, 2007; Tien, 2008; Wankat, 2002). This leads faculty to make “value judgments concerning what constitutes evidence as well as the quantity” (Wiese et al., 2007, p. 527). Professors are constantly seeking lines of research that warrant promotion (Wiese et al., 2007), and the typical means for measuring research productivity include quality, quantity, and grants.

Measuring Quality: Impact Factors. To begin, one way in which universities measure “quality scholarship” is the impact factor of journals. An impact factor is a score given to a journal based upon the average amount of times any given article in the journal is cited (Garfield, 2006). The more often citations occur, the higher quality the manuscript is considered. When assigning academic ranking to programs, the impact factor of manuscripts is often taken into consideration (Adler & Harzing 2009). This adds pressure for faculty members not only to publish in top tier journals (Adler & Harzing 2009), but also to influence other scholars to reference their publications (Case & Higgins, 2000). Often, committees may consider only articles published above a certain impact factor as those that count toward promotion (Garfield, 2006).

In the absence of PETE data, evidence in other related academic areas will be discussed. To begin, a study of business finance found that, in the top 20 business schools, full professors published 33% of publications in top-tier journals, compared with 17% publications for schools outside the top 20 (Fishe, 1998). More recently, professors at top 10 business schools needed at least three papers published in “A” journals for promotion, a quantity that was significantly

higher than that required for lower-ranked institutions (Netter, Poulsen, & Kieser., 2018, p. 273). As such, the pressure to publish in high quality journals can induce stress and be problematic for some professors (Buch et al., 2011).

Opponents of the use of impact factors and identification of specific journals in which a scholar should be published to attain tenure have generated arguments against the predominant system. Seglen (1997) posited that impact factors can be biased; for example, the first half of a journal is generally 10 times more cited than the second half of any given journal. This negates any average of the number of citations the journal claims. Furthermore, the way in which the number of times an article is cited also can be open to interpretation. Kulkarni, Shams, and Busse (2009) stated that universities often use Web of Science, Scopus, and Google Scholar to measure the times a scholarly work has been cited. Depending on the criterion the database uses (peer-reviewed, books, etc.), the number of citations changes (Kulkarni et al., 2009). In addition, a high impact factor may be given to research that appeals to a general audience across multiple scholarly fields as it will likely be cited by multiple content areas. Therefore, even journals that have high prestige in PETE, can have low impact factors. For example, in 2014 the *Journal of Teaching and Physical Education* had a relatively low impact factor (1.2), while other journals that have more interdisciplinary research, like *Sports Medicine* (5.3) and *Exercise and Sport Sciences Reviews* (4.8) had higher impact factors (Hopkins, 2015).

Quantity of Publications. In addition to quality, quantity of publications has been utilized as an objective measure of promotion (Britton, 2010; Buch et al., 2011). Research has suggested that a scholar must have multiple publications to be promoted (Gardener & Blackstone, 2013). As there is insufficient PETE data, other academic areas for number of articles will be presented. In one study, professors in criminal justice were found to have been

published an average of 16 times before being promoted to full professor (Crawford et al., 2012). However, measuring productivity as far as quantity can be complicated as an exact number of publications may not always be specified (Cutforth, 2013). Productivity in terms of publications, as Mitchell stated, is then a “magic formula” (1997, p. 295). Expectations for publication rates can be contingent upon other roles the educator needs to fulfill such as teaching and service, any of which may hinder the ability to be a productive researcher. However, the requirement of publications, both in terms of quantity and quality, often supersedes teaching and service, creating an environment in which creating manuscripts takes precedence over other job roles (Cutforth, 2013).

As part of demonstrating a productive research line, increasing the frequency of publications in PETE may lead to many of benefits for professors. Mitchell (1997) postulated that PETE scholars want to publish more because of interest in various research questions, enjoyment of the process, desire to learn, and because they view it as necessary for obtaining tenure. In addition, due to an increasing number of collaborators in PETE research projects (Rhoades, Woods, Daum, Ellison, & Trendowski, 2016), researchers have broader access to both participants and resources; this allows for more thorough analyses on a wider variety of topics. These opportunities for collaboration, as Mitchell (1997) stated, are excellent for sharing intellectual experiences and lines of inquiry.

External Funding and Research. Because conducting and publishing research is imperative for promotion, some professors seek money to develop, execute, and buy necessary resources (e.g., equipment, staff, participants). External funding for research is awarded most often through industry or government grants (Gulbrandsen & Smeby, 2005). In some cases, promotions are also tied to the ability to obtain funding (Johnson, 2015). While some anecdotal

evidence exists related to the importance of generating revenue in terms of industry and/or grants from the government to attain the rank of full professor (Mabrouk, 2007), no empirical research exists to suggest the exact quantity of monetary funds needed to attain the ranking of full professor. This is not surprising given the diversity in higher education promotion requirements. Research has, nonetheless, noted the significance of the direct relationship between funds received and rates of publications (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2007; Gulbrandsen & Smeby, 2005). Specifically, professors who had procured industrial funding defined their research as more generalizable, had increased collaboration with other researchers in academia and industry, and disseminated an increased amount of scientific publications (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2007).

As previously mentioned, grants provide a crucial source of universities' fiscal support. They can help defray costs of projects, especially related to purchasing necessary equipment, compensating participants, hiring staff, and offsetting the indirect costs of conducting experiments. Alberts, Kirschner, Tilghman, and Varmus (2014) noted that indirect cost recovery funds (ICR) are often provided in conjunction with grants and are used as monetary compensation to the university for the fees related to services and overhead. Even given the necessity of procuring grants, recently available grant funding has not kept pace with the demand for scientific research (Alberts et al., 2014). This has been highlighted in several other studies. For example, Buch and colleagues (2011) discovered that STEM faculty reported difficulties in obtaining research funding, and this lack of funding made it difficult for scholars to conduct innovative research outside of the current trends in science. In the end, obtaining these grants, is necessary to generate resources in the forms of money, staff, and equipment, and furthermore, universities may consider the ability of a faculty member to procure these assets during the promotion process (Youn & Price, 2009).

The Role of Teaching in PETE Rank Promotion

Despite not always being perceived as important as research for promotion, teaching is another primary role for which faculty are held accountable. Evidence of effective teaching can be demonstrated through a variety of methods. Letters from former students, peer observations of classroom teaching, success of graduate students, student evaluations, and teaching awards can provide evidence of exemplary teaching (Mabrouk, 2007). Crawford and colleagues (2012) suggested that teaching is a crucial aspect of higher education. However, professors' perceptions of positive teaching evaluations were not salient toward obtaining promotion (Crawford et al., 2012), and moreover, there has been no PETE study that quantifies the evaluation scores necessary for change in rank. It has been suggested, though, that one needs to just be a "good" rather than exceptional teacher (Buch et al., 2012; Green, 2008 p. 120). Perhaps the most relevant study was conducted by Green (2008). For this examination, Deans reported that teaching was very rarely considered "important" for promotion at Master's institutions (17% assistant, 10% associate, 6% full). In comparison among doctoral degree-granting programs, this number was even lower (8% assistant, 3% associate, 2% full). These numbers indicate altered expectations across various classifications of universities and demonstrates the extremely low perceived value of teaching when compared to the ability to publish research.

Teaching dispositions are understood to be important because students often become aware of subtle clues given by the professor (Graber, 1991). For instance, if a teacher places a low emphasis on a class and displays apathy, students will not be invested. Moreover, in PETE research, Graber (1990) noted there is mediation between the professors' and students' agendas. A current study by Richards and Dressler (2017) yielded similar results as the participant, a new professor, felt guilty exerting authority and expecting quality work. In one case, he eliminated an

assignment all together as he believed it would help students do their best on another task. This is an example of a dialectical approach to teaching in higher education as the actions of students have an impact on the teacher (Graber, 1990). If a professor succumbs to low expectations because of the interplay with students, his/her teaching may suffer. Nevertheless, having PETE professors devoted to the education of their students is not always an administration's top priority. Karp and colleagues (1996) specified that teaching was of particular importance to PETE participants in their study, but their universities placed less of a priority on teaching and emphasized research. This shows a discrepancy in role importance between higher education and professors in PETE.

Enhancing Teaching through Collaboration

Collaboration in PETE teaching and curriculum development is also essential. Graber (1996) discovered that having collaborative relationships with other PETE faculty members is the marker of a stellar PETE program as it will allow for congruency in curriculum. This cohesiveness will ensure that preservice teachers are learning the same significant constructs from a program. A collaborative approach to the curriculum, filled with innovative ideas, will also yield results if individuals utilize this strategy with their teaching. In a self-study, Fernández-Balboa (1998) stated that this type of instructional model enabled him to become a better teacher. He said,

Reading and re-reading my and my co-learners' journals and class notes, listening carefully to what we all say, analyzing what we all do throughout a semester as a community of learners, trying to understand what and why we learn and when and why we fail, has helped me understand a little more about what and how I want (and need) to teach. (p. 51)

A more recent, yet similar, study by Fletcher and Casey (2014) discussed the essential relationship between reflection and collaboration that helped facilitate the “whys” and “hows” of teaching physical education. They noted the occurrence of benefits in related to understanding the “complexities and challenges of teaching about teaching” (p. 403). Despite these benefits, this strategy may not transpire in all higher education settings, as professors, many times throughout their careers, have other priorities.

Factors that Limit the Significance of Quality Teaching

In addition, while many universities tend to emphasize scholarship, some researchers have argued that several important aspects of teaching are not addressed. Lund, Wayda, Woodard, and Buck (2007) posited that PETE faculty members assess students less often because of other professional commitments. Other research has suggested that minute but significant details are being overlooked. For example, individual dispositions, such as being a good leader, being on time, and being courteous, and other qualities that make for an excellent physical education teacher, are not being assessed (Lund et al., 2007). Dowling (2006) explained another component, asserting that PETE faculty members are not concerned with developing pre-service teachers as “democratic citizens with an interest in social justice” (p. 247). These characteristics are imperative for future physical educators to display and advocate during class in order to create an environment conducive for physical activity (Grenier, Collins, Wright, & Kearns, 2014). As various research indicates (Dowling, 2006; Lund et al., 2007), assessment of dispositions is a crucial aspect in which PETE needs further development; however, it is currently lacking because other roles are considered more important by universities.

Overall, however, educators have a finite amount of time, making it extremely difficult to develop their teaching, evaluate programmatic curricula, and assess students. Lorente and Kirk

(2013) contended that teachers are not likely to change student evaluations because it is time-consuming and challenging. The assessments in current circulation within PETE, then, are often outdated and may make some concepts in the classroom more ambiguous because of the discrepancy conveyed between assessment and constructs (Lorente & Kirk, 2013; Lund et al., 2007).

Similarly, one final factor that may hinder the ability to provide quality teaching is guidelines for teacher preparation. Mordal-Moen and Green (2014) asserted that teachers felt constrained because national standards were not updated to reflect the current ideology of the profession. In this case, these PETE faculty did not have adequate time to address these standards; hence, teaching practices remained stagnant in terms of meeting the demands of national standards (Mordal-Moen & Green 2014).

The Role of Service in PETE Rank Promotion

Service, the last of the primary tasks related to promotion, is the least studied role in higher education. Evidence of service, according to the expectations at a university, may include but is not limited to professional associations, review activities, community talks, committee participation, journal editorial board memberships, and faculty advisory roles (Mabrouk, 2007). To begin, service activities such as chairing a dissertation or Master's thesis committee are typically considered only moderately important for promotion to full professor (Crawford et al., 2012). Expectations of service, however, usually increase when the rank of full professor is attained (Green, 2008). This is, perhaps, because an "elder status" is inferred, and the individual's "institutional knowledge" is seen as valuable (Crawford et al., 2012). Pearson (2011) detailed that, in the early stages as a professional, PETE faculty members are focused on teaching and research. Unfortunately, little empirical evidence exists as to the extent in which

quality and quantity of service is needed to attain the rank of full professor (Buch et al., 2011). In PETE, service tends to be unappreciated as roles often hold little prestige within the university system (Pearson, 2011; Whicker et al., 1993). Misra, Lundquist, Holmes, and Agiomavritis (2011) discussed how “most associate professors viewed service as impinging on their time” (p. 24). As such, it can be seen as a distraction because it subtracts time from research, the faculty task that is generally weighted more heavily during promotion (Green, 2008). However, it may be one of the most valuable aspects of a faculty member’s roles as reviewing academic manuscripts is crucial to contributing current knowledge in any given field (Misra et al., 2011).

Mentoring. Not all service is viewed as counterproductive. As individuals progress in their careers and learn the intricacies of becoming a faculty member, they may opt to become a mentor. Pearson (2011) even argued that once an educator is successfully assimilated into the field, strong consideration should be given to becoming a mentor. The presence of these support roles has been characterized as significant factors aiding the attainment of promotion and tenure in PETE (Dodds, 2005).

Dodds (2005) conducted an intensive study of female faculty who had been mentored. These PETE professionals had support guiding them through the complexities of assimilation in higher education, including: (a) induction into the postsecondary culture, (b) navigating the tenure and promotion process, (c) creating productive writing and research, and (d) providing quality teaching. Participants chose certain professionals as mentors because they were characterized as having innate personal values, attitudes, and dispositions for achieving success within the field. Finally, the participants’ mentors instilled notions of working to achieve high standards, invigorated participants to engage in regular physical activity, and displayed their own individual integrity and strength as role models (Dodds, 2005).

As such, inquiries have postulated a need for department chairs to initiate a mentoring relationship with first-year faculty (Bower, 2007). Early studies found that mentors were not assigned in the area of PETE despite their crucial role in the professional development process. For example, Karp and colleagues (1996) discovered in only 6% of the cases, mentors were assigned to beginning faculty members. When departments assign mentors, diversity can be problematic as mentors were males 61% of the time (Karp et al., 1996). Furthermore, Boyce and Rickard (2011) contended there is a need to recruit mentors who are not Caucasian; however, recruiting minority candidates to become mentors may continue to prove difficult as faculty at doctoral-granting institutions are predominantly Caucasian (89%) (Boyce & Rickard, 2011). To date, much of the research on this topic in PETE is outdated, and a need to understand contemporary mentoring practices is warranted.

Professional Development

In addition to mentoring, providing professional development for physical education practitioners can be another service provided by PETE faculty. Patton and Parker (2014) established that the PETE faculty members they studied were able to empower K-12 physical education teachers to improve their teaching, and they also provided opportunities for practitioners to guide their own professional development. In addition, Patton, Parker and Neutzling (2012) conducted professional development with physical educators and found it helpful to utilize previously-learned information from professional preparation to provide a springboard to building long-term, collaborative relationships. In fact, studies indicated positive anecdotal professional development experiences between PETE faculty members and physical educators (Patton et al., 2012; Patton & Parker, 2012).

In the end, service, although not always portrayed as prestigious, is significant in terms of

aiding the induction process (Dodds, 2005), essential to influencing educational practices in current physical educators, and salient in the achievement of tenure and promotion (Dodds, 2005). As such, service is an area that requires more extensive research as it provides an abundance of avenues that can assist an individual's career and advance the field of PETE.

Summary

In PETE, the noted tug of war between the hierarchy of the primary roles of research, teaching and service remains unresolved as educators believe teaching to be the most salient role related to promotion while institutions advocate research as the determining factor. This conflict suggests a significant dissonance between the perceptions of faculty and the expectations of administration. In one study, administrators perceived the most important role of a department (i.e., teaching, research, service) in PETE was research (67%) (Karp et al., 1996). However, PETE professors' ethos in terms of roles reflected teaching (71%) as the most important. Overall, teaching is viewed as a salient role by PETE professors; however, other important topics such as character attributes (Lund et al., 2007) may not receive as much emphasis because of the many other roles faculty are required to fulfill often take precedence. Nevertheless, service is vital in preparing the next generation of PETE to become successful in academia (Dodds, 2005). With little recognition and prestige at some universities, PETE faculty still need to be aware of the valuable contributions to the field in the areas of teaching (Lund et al., 2007) and service (Dodds, 2005).

In conclusion, balancing research, teaching, and service have been shown to be problematic in PETE (Cutforth, 2013; Karp et al., 1996) however, these are not the only barriers that exist. A broader research agenda should focus on obstacles encountered while trying to achieve promotion to the rank of full professor. Studies related to this are limited (e.g., Buch et

al., 2011; Crawford et al., 2012; Geisler et al., 2007), especially in PETE, but barriers such as motivation, lack of clarity, timeframe, and gender discrimination could hinder an educator's chance of being promoted from associate to full professor. These hindrances may appear insurmountable, thereby promoting complacency among individuals who have already achieved the associate professor rank (Mabrouk, 2007).

Future Studies

The current literature review points to large research gaps in the areas of research, teaching, and service. Future studies should compare the quality and quantity of publications for promotion in doctoral institutions, Master's-level institutions, and undergraduate institutions in PETE. Furthermore, department heads/chairs perceptions of the types of acceptable scholarship should be studied, especially with the burgeoning Boyer Model (Crow et al., 2018). This system takes into account a wide variety of scholarship, and perceptions of the types of work that warrant promotion should be examined more extensively. Similarly, the role of teaching should also be examined further in terms of the number and types of courses required per faculty rank. The number of "teaching overloads" and how they impact a professor's time has not been studied in PETE. Moreover, investigating satisfaction for professors' careers with a focus on teaching could be researched through the lens of Steffy and Wolfe's (2001) Life Cycle of a Career Teacher Model. This is a six-stage model that categorizes teachers' careers based upon unique characteristics. Finally, the role of faculty service is often diminished and underappreciated. Examining the amount and type of service at the state, national, and institutional level for assistant, associate, and full professor ranks is warranted. This may, ultimately, guide future practitioners to pursue meaningful service that will, in turn, advance their careers.

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Chapter 7

Limitations and Future Directions

Limitations

This dissertation project had several barriers related to the validity of data. Because of the time that had elapsed since the participants moved through their tenure track, the experiences they recounted may differ from those of current induction professors. In addition, socialization throughout their careers may vary from the assimilation currently transpiring. Today, various barriers exist in contemporary PETE that were not present years ago. One example is the recent increase of pressure to obtain grant funding (Alberts, Kirschner, Tilghman, & Varmus, 2014). This role responsibility was not prevalent for participants entering PETE twenty years ago; however, anecdotal evidence suggested grants are needed in order to attain full professor in current faculty positions.

Another limitation was that acculturation and professional socialization were not taken into consideration during the preparation of the interview guide. Experiences during the former generally have the strongest influence on the beliefs and ideologies of the profession (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). In addition, the latter, professional socialization, might exert a weak socializing impact which can be context-specific to the type of environment that surrounds the profession (Lee & Curtner-Smith, 2011). However, participants had advisors who profoundly influenced them as graduate students, and this positively prepared them to succeed at doctoral institutions. Therefore, as this evidence contradicts previous research, it warrants further investigation. Professional socialization may have a profound impact on induction professors entering doctoral institutions. To this point, a more robust interview guide would be helpful to clarify to what extent acculturation and professional socialization impacted faculty.

A third limitation is that some professors were skeptical about discussing marginalization in their current program. Conley and Glasman (2008) suggest “Fear can be conceptualized differently as experienced by those inside and outside the school organization.” (p. 63). To this end, some participants in this inquiry may have spoken their mind (especially if individual already left the institution where they felt marginalized) while others may have been more hesitant out of trepidation and recourse. Moreover, several faculty alluded to the nature of higher education and its political nature, and similarly, were wary of discussing anything that may have been deemed too sensitive. Politics in education is almost ubiquitous and entire chapters of books discuss navigating the academic climate (Manning, 2018). Lastly, this dissertation was a qualitative study that described a phenomenon in depth (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). As such, these lines of inquiry should properly be investigated further to quantify characteristics.

Future Research

Although several manuscripts in this dissertation have addressed promotion in higher education, more needs to be conducted in physical education teacher education. Further research is necessary to explore the extent to which obtaining grant funding enhances PETE research and lines of inquiry. Furthermore, as there is a shift in physical education to assume more of a public health context role (Webster, Webster, Russ, Molina, Lee, & Cribbs, 2015), research should transpire to address the status of current trends and the procurement of external funding. As Rhoades, Woods, Daum, Ellison, and Trendowski (2016) suggested, research questions change over time. Meeting the demand to attain funding is especially important because many programs are on the verge of elimination (Blankenship & Templin, 2016). Obtaining grant funding to provide more resources is one way that PETE may prevent itself from becoming extinct at research institutions.

Additionally, when skills and beliefs learned in organizational socialization take precedence over professional socialization (washout), has been studied in physical education teachers through the lens of either maintaining professional socialization ideologies (Lux & McCullick, 2011) or gaining new ideologies held by the organization (Christensen, 2013). The importance of advisors and the impact, both long-term and short-term, of washout in higher education warrants further investigation. This line of research can create impactful PETE programs. Other ways for increasing the efficacy of programs include, researching sound curricula for PETE preparation. Currently, preparation of faculty is lacking potentially relevant coursework emphases as today's focus does not adequately prepare students to meet the realistic demands of their jobs (e.g., making accreditation reports, supervising students, teaching physical education content courses, designing effective teaching courses, etc.). Because of this disconnect, beliefs, and attitudes of the doctoral program may be "washed-out" during assimilation and individuals could revert back to acculturation practices. Synthesizing experiences from top-ranked PETE programs and creating a viable curricular template is needed.

Future lines of inquiry should discuss specific experiences for women during the promotion process to full professor. This would allow organizational supportive factors to be disseminated and shared with other areas in academia. Specifically, factors that afford women additional support, such as daycare, maternal leave, and characteristics of environments that are not discriminatory, all need to be further explored. Using a critical lens to analyze socialization, challenges everyday assumptions based upon items like class, gender, and race. Zeichner and Gore (1990) contended nearly 30 years ago that few empirical studies of teacher socialization existed within the critical paradigm. More recently, one of the only studies in PETE to utilize this approach examined the gender gap, "characterized by smaller salaries for comparable

positions, underrepresentation in higher faculty ranks and disciplines traditionally dominated by men, overrepresentation in part-time positions, and slower rates of earning tenure and promotion” (Dodds, 2005, p. 345). Because this manuscript is the lone representative, more research on women in PETE is warranted.

Lastly, investigating self-determination theory (SDT), a theory of motivation that is concerned with assisting innate or intrinsic tendencies to behave in effective and wholesome ways may be beneficial. Participants who attain a full professor ranking verses those who have remained at the assistant and associate level should employ surveys created by Deci and Ryan. (2008). SDT addresses the social conditions that enhance these types of motivations (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2012). Understanding autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and amotivation as predictors of performance, relational, and well-being outcomes will allow future professionals to be more aware of personal and environmental factors that are motivators (Deci & Ryan, 2008). For example, Litalien and Guay (2015) found that doctoral students’ completion and dropout intentions were predicted mainly by autonomous/controlled regulations and advisor support. Therefore, utilizing validated scales, such as the survey created by Deci and Ryan (2008), is warranted in PETE to determine motivation of professors throughout their career.

Conclusion

This dissertation contributes to higher education socialization literature in three significant ways. First, future practitioners in PETE now have an understanding of strategies related to attaining promotion to full professor in the area of scholarship. This will hopefully enable researchers to establish a more productive research line. As noted with career associate professors, if a research line is missing, a lack of publications may exist.

Second, in addition to describing scholarship, this manuscript will aid future administrators as they work provide the correct supports needed for early-career educators to be successful. Resources such as funding, reduced teaching loads, and establishing informal mentor relationships are crucial for the success of PETE faculty at doctoral institutions.

Lastly, by examining factors that encourage professionals' advancement toward full professor, candidates may have a better understanding of the pitfalls to avoid or supports to utilize. This manuscript created a starting point, but more research will be needed, so that future practitioners are able to meet the high expectations determining their advancement in the areas of research, teaching, and service.

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Appendix A-IRB Approval

IRB EXEMPT APPROVAL

RPI Name: Amelia Woods

Project Title: Physical Education Teacher Education Professors' Organizational Socialization

IRB #: 17523

Approval Date: February 22, 2017

Thank you for submitting the completed IRB application form and related materials. Your application was reviewed by the UIUC Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS). OPRS has determined that the research activities described in this application meet the criteria for exemption at 45CFR46.101(b)(2). This message serves to supply OPRS approval for your IRB application.

Please contact OPRS if you plan to modify your project (change procedures, populations, consent letters, etc.). Otherwise you may conduct the human subjects research as approved for a period of five years. Exempt protocols will be closed and archived at the time of expiration. Researchers will be required to contact our office if the study will continue beyond five years.

Copies of the attached, date-stamped consent form(s) are to be used when obtaining informed consent.

We appreciate your conscientious adherence to the requirements of human subjects research. If you have any questions about the IRB process, or if you need assistance at any time, please feel free to contact me at OPRS, or visit our website at <http://oprs.research.illinois.edu>

Sincerely,



Ronald Banks, MS, CIP

Human Subjects Research Coordinator, Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

Attachment(s): Approved Consent Documents

Appendix B- Informed Consent

Physical Education Teacher Education Professors' Organizational Socialization

You are invited to participate in the above entitled research study. This study is being conducted by Dr. Amelia Woods, Professor of Kinesiology in the Department of Kinesiology and Community Health at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign and Thomas Trendowski, Doctoral Student in the Department of Kinesiology and Community Health at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. This study will examine the factors that impacted your organizational socialization and seek to understand how you navigated the complex life of academia to achieve the prestigious rank of full professor.

Participation in this study is voluntary. By responding to the email and stating you are willing to participate, you are consenting to:

1. Sending a curriculum vitae to a researcher
2. A one hour to an hour and a half long interview

Prior the interview, you will be asked to send a vitae to the researcher, Thomas Trendowski (trendow2@illinois.edu), as it may help guide interview questions and help gain a deeper understanding to your work/life experiences. Upon receiving the vitae, an interview will be scheduled. The vitae will be kept in a locked room and the email will be deleted upon the materials being printed. When disseminating information from these materials, identifying information such as names of awards or manuscript titles will be removed.

Interviews will be conducted over the telephone and/or in person and can last for approximately hour to an hour and a half. Participants have a choice to split up interviews into two sections or complete the interview in one segment. Interviews in person will be conducted if the participant has this preference. Prior to the interview participants will be asked if they can be recorded. Participation in the recording is voluntary however, it will allow for more comprehensive data analysis. If consent is given for an interview and recording, audio files will be destroyed after transcription. Interviews will be scheduled at the participant's convenience.

Results from this study may be used for research presentations, professional journal publications, and/or dissertations. Benefits from this study will allow research to gain a compressive insight on how teachers attained the rank and interacted with factors of organizational socialization. Studying excellence will help future teacher educators navigate the complex life of academia and hopefully facilitate more productive researchers, better teaching practices, and professors who engage in service.

There are no foreseeable risks other than responding to questions to which you are uncomfortable answering. In anticipating such a case, you may choose not to answer specific questions. You may also discontinue participation in the project at any time without prejudice until all the data is collected. You must be 18 years of age or older to participate in the investigation. While you will not receive any direct benefits from your participation in the project, you will be contributing information that may lead to knowledge about organizational socialization in higher education.

Every effort will be made to keep all of your information confidential. You will be given a pseudonym for interview and supplemental materials that you provide within the study. The information provided will not be shared with anyone who is not an investigator. Every effort will be made to ensure that every participant will not be viewed in a negative light. Audio files, transcriptions, and documents will be kept in a locked filing cabinet or a password-protected computer. Data that is collected will be kept for a period no more than five years, and will then be destroyed. Audio files will be destroyed immediately after the interview is transcribed and member checked.

Questions about this research can be addressed at any time by calling or writing Dr. Amelia Woods, Department of Kinesiology and Community Health, 127 Louise Freer Hall, University of Illinois, 906 S. Goodwin Avenue, Urbana, IL 61801 (phone: 217-333-9602 or e-mail: amywoods@illinois.edu). If you desire additional information about your rights as a participant, please feel free to contact the UIUC Institutional Review Board Office at 217-333-2670 or irb@illinois.edu. Collect calls will be accepted if you identify yourself as a study participant.

Appendix C-Script for Recruitment

Dear (Professor's name),

I hope that your school year is going well! This is Thomas Trendowski from the University of Illinois getting ready to start my dissertation under the guidance of Dr. Amy Woods. As a physical education teacher education full professor we would appreciate your participation in this study. The purpose of this study is to understand how full professors interacted with socializing factors throughout their career. Understanding these factors will help future professionals navigate the complex life of academia and achieve success by attaining the rank of full professor. In addition, other constructs to be investigated will be career satisfaction and perceptions of attaining the title of full professor. By responding to the email and stating you are willing to participate and are consenting to two parts of the study:

1. Sending your vitae to the researcher, Thomas Trendowski (trendow2@illinois.edu). This help may inform interview questions and help triangulate data.
2. Upon receiving the materials, a scheduled interview will be conducted at your convenience either in person or via phone, depending on your preference. In person interviews may transpire the week of March 13th-18th at the SHAPE America Conference in Boston, MA if you prefer this method. Interviews will last an hour to an hour and a half and maybe split in two sessions if you choose.

Thank you for your consideration. Please respond to this email and let me know if you are interested in participating in this study. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me. Upon agreement of participation, we can schedule a time for the interview.

Thank you for your time,

Thomas Trendowski

Contact information:

Phone: 315-729-9764

Email: trendow2@illinois.edu

Appendix D -Interview Guide

Research Question 1

What experiences impacted full professors' career trajectory?

1. List three significant experiences as an induction professor that have had a profound impact on the way you teach, conduct research, and/or are involved in service?
2. What were three key facilitators and barriers in your success as an assistant, associate, and full professor? How did you navigate barriers and stay motivated?
3. Can you discuss what prompted you to attain the rank of full professor?
4. Have you had mentors throughout your career? Were people who you considered mentors assigned or informal? What were mentors individual disposition?
5. What advice would you give assistant/associate professors trying to attain the rank of full professor?

Research Question 2

To what extent did PETE FPs' perceptions of status and responsibility change according to their professional ranks, and what strategies were adopted to meet these demands?

6. What is the most challenging part of your job currently? Has this shifted over time? Do you think there are any aspects of your job you can improve upon? If so, what are they?
7. To what extent has your responsibility within the department changed as you progressed through rank? Give a significant experience where you came to the realization your role changed?
8. How were expectations of service, research, and teaching disseminated to you? Were there any ambiguities in expectations as you progressed through rank?
9. To what extent did status within your department change once you achieved associate and full professor?

10. To what extent do you currently mentor students? Where have you learned these strategies/dispositions of being a mentor?
11. To what extent did/have you found a balance between research, teaching, and service? What strategies have you utilized to balance all three components as you progressed in rank?
12. How would you rank the importance of teaching, research, and service? Has this shifted over time? What emphasis does the university place on each category and how have you met organizational expectations?

Research Question 3

What extrinsic and/or intrinsic factors impacted job satisfaction among PETE FPs, and what strategies have been utilized to enhance this disposition?

13. What prompted you to apply for the specific college/universities you have worked for in the past and are currently employed?
14. List the three most fulfilling parts of your job? Do different aspects of the job make you more satisfied as you progress through your career?
15. To what degree are you able to balance your professional and personal life?
16. Throughout your career, were there incidences in which you felt less passionate about your job? What contributed to these feelings and how were you able to navigate these feelings?