Examining Faculty Socialization Through the Lens of Transformative Learning

2018

Jennifer Plant
University of Central Florida

Find similar works at: http://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd

University of Central Florida Libraries http://library.ucf.edu

Part of the Educational Leadership Commons, and the Higher Education Administration Commons

STARS Citation

Plant, Jennifer, "Examining Faculty Socialization Through the Lens of Transformative Learning" (2018). Electronic Theses and Dissertations. 5773.
http://stars.library.ucf.edu/etd/5773

This Doctoral Dissertation (Open Access) is brought to you for free and open access by STARS. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of STARS. For more information, please contact lee.dotson@ucf.edu.
EXAMINING FACULTY SOCIALIZATION THROUGH THE LENS OF TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING

by

JENNIFER L. PLANT
B.S. Barry University, 1997
M.S. Ed. Old Dominion University, 2002

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership in the Department of Child, Family, and Community Sciences in the College of Education and Human Performance at the University of Central Florida Orlando, Florida

Spring Term
2018

Major Professor: Kathleen King
ABSTRACT

Socialization may be described as a process in which an individual learns and takes on the knowledge, values, attitudes, and expectations of a group within an organization (Corcoran & Clark 1984; Staton & Darling, 1989), ultimately leading to the development of a professional identity that includes attributes of the group (Merton, Reader, & Kendall, 1957). Much of the literature regarding professional and organizational socialization experiences of new faculty focus solely on either clinically trained faculty or academically trained faculty, with minimal research comparing the professional and organizational socialization experiences of both degree types. Therefore, this research study explored the professional and organizational socialization experiences of new clinically trained and academically trained faculty. A qualitative phenomenological research design was implemented to explore these experiences and emergent themes revealed from the research study.

During the data analysis process, there were ten clinically trained and academically trained faculty themes that emerged from the interviews and represented similarities and differences in professional and organizational socialization experiences of the faculty groups. Those themes included: self-awareness, clinician to academic, how to be an academic, mentoring, orientation, research preparation, lack of andragogy, graduate student experience, role balancing, and learn as you go. The participants’ professional and organizational socialization experiences within each degree type reflected different, yet similar findings, as both groups encountered difficulties socializing into their respective faculty roles. The information gained through this research may lead to practices and program development that may improve the efficacy of professional and organizational tactics used to prepare future faculty members and for those already active in faculty member roles.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES .................................................................................................................... vii
LIST OF TABLES ......................................................................................................................... viii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION ............................................................................................... 1
  General Background of Socialization in Higher Education ....................................................... 1
  Statement of the Problem ........................................................................................................ 3
  Significance of the Study ......................................................................................................... 3
  Theoretical Framework ........................................................................................................... 4
  Research Questions ............................................................................................................... 6
  Researcher’s Role .................................................................................................................... 7
  Delimitations .......................................................................................................................... 8
  Definition of Terms ................................................................................................................ 9
  Summary ................................................................................................................................ 10
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ..................................................................... 12
  Overview ................................................................................................................................ 12
  Organizational Socialization .................................................................................................. 12
    Anticipatory and organizational socialization. ...................................................................... 14
    Formal and informal socialization. ....................................................................................... 16
  Doctoral Education Socialization .......................................................................................... 17
  Faculty Socialization ............................................................................................................. 25
    Clinical faculty. .................................................................................................................... 26
    Role conflict ......................................................................................................................... 31
    Academic faculty. ................................................................................................................ 32
  Mentoring and Doctoral Education ......................................................................................... 32
  Role Induction ......................................................................................................................... 34
  Faculty Development ............................................................................................................. 36
  Theoretical Framework .......................................................................................................... 41
  Conclusion ............................................................................................................................... 45
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY ......................................................................................... 46
Overview................................................................................................................................. 46
Research Design.......................................................................................................................... 47
  Phenomenology.......................................................................................................................... 48
  Multiple case study approach.................................................................................................... 49
Setting and Participants............................................................................................................... 50
  Sample......................................................................................................................................... 50
  Communication with participants................................................................................................. 52
Data Collection Procedures and Interviews.................................................................................. 53
  Instrumentation............................................................................................................................ 54
  Interview protocol....................................................................................................................... 54
Data Analysis .................................................................................................................................. 55
  Data and researcher credibility..................................................................................................... 63
CHAPTER FOUR: PORTRAYAL OF THE PARTICIPANTS ................................................................. 66
  Participant Profiles....................................................................................................................... 66
    Dan............................................................................................................................................ 67
    Kate.......................................................................................................................................... 68
    Erin........................................................................................................................................... 69
    Mary.......................................................................................................................................... 71
    Lisa........................................................................................................................................... 72
    Mike.......................................................................................................................................... 73
    Matt............................................................................................................................................ 74
  Summary....................................................................................................................................... 75
CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS ................................................................................. 76
  Research Question Focus #1 – Transformative Learning Themes .................................................. 78
    Self-awareness............................................................................................................................. 79
    Clinician to academic.................................................................................................................. 82
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How to be academic</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question Focus #2 – Organizational Socialization Support Themes</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question Focus #3 – Doctoral Preparation for Success Themes</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research preparation</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of andragogy</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate student experience</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Question Focus #4 – Barriers and Facilitators to Socialization Themes</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role balance</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn as you go</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformative Learning</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Support</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral Preparation</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers and Facilitators</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitations</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implications and Recommendations for Future Research</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researcher’s Reflection</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX A: IRB SUMMARY EXPLANATION FOR EXEMPT RESEARCH</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT LETTER</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX C: FORMAL INVITATION LETTER AND REQUEST FOR APPOINTMENT</td>
<td>132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX D: CONFIRMATION OF INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW APPOINTMENT</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX E: REMINDER EMAIL TO PARTICIPANTS</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX F: PHOTOS OF THE THEME DEVELOPMENT</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX G: PRE-INTERVIEW SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX H: PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE ................................................................. 144
APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW SCRIPT AND PROTOCOL .......................................................... 147
APPENDIX J: ALIGNMENT OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS, FOCUS, INTERVIEW QUESTIONS, AND METHOD OF ANALYSIS ................................................................. 151
APPENDIX K: MEMBER CHECK PROTOCOL ..................................................................... 155
APPENDIX L: IRB APPROVAL LETTER ............................................................................. 157
REFERENCES .................................................................................................................. 159
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Transformative Learning Sequence................................................................. 43

Figure 2: Clinically Trained Faculty Transformative Learning Sequence ....................... 109

Figure 3: Academically Trained Faculty Transformative Learning Sequence ................... 110
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Research Questions, Focus, Interview Questions, and Method of Analysis ............ 59
Table 2: Emergent Themes and Theme Clusters ................................................................. 62
Table 3: Participant Profiles ............................................................................................ 67
Table 4: Research Question, Focus, and Theme Based on Educational Concentration .......... 78
LIST OF ACRONYMS (or) ABBREVIATIONS

AT - Athletic Trainer or Athletic Training

ATC - Certified Athletic Trainer

DAT - Doctor of Athletic Training

DPT - Doctor of Physical Therapy

PT - Physical Therapy or Physical Therapist
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

General Background of Socialization in Higher Education

Doctoral education in the United States is known for preparing future scholars who “understand what is known and discover what is yet unknown” (Shulman, 2008, p. ix). However, doctoral education in the United States has been criticized for having inherent problems in the preparation of scholars, leading to a need for reassessing the purpose of the Ph.D. (Anderson & Anderson, 2012). One aspect of reassessment is the socialization of doctoral students into higher education careers and preparation for roles as future faculty (Austin, 2002; Golde & Dore, 2001; Nyquist et al., 1999). Not all new faculty undergo coursework in teaching, service, or research, but every new faculty member has personal experiences as a student observing faculty within their role (Young & Diekelmann, 2002).

A challenge throughout higher education involves the preparation of new faculty for their role within an institution. With inadequate formal preparation, new faculty can fall victim to workplace stressors and face issues such as role overload and burnout (Pitney, 2010). This research study addressed a much-needed perspective aimed at advancing the knowledge of how new clinical and academic faculty socialize into their roles in higher education and the processes that successfully help them transition into their institution and academic careers. Healthcare programs, such as athletic training and physical therapy, are grounded in a combination of both higher education and clinical practice. Clinically trained educators may possess a clinical area of expertise as well as a specific research interest, but may not receive extensive training related to andragogy, curriculum advancement, and accreditation standards (Dewald & Walsh, 2009; Pitney, 2012). Andragogy refers to how adults learn and is used within the transformative learning literature, whereas pedagogy refers to how children learn (Knowles, 1998). Therefore,
throughout this research study, the term andragogy will be used.

While there has been some research on the socialization of clinical faculty in the health professions, existing research has not compared the socialization process and experience of clinically trained faculty, such as athletic trainers and physical therapists, with that of academically trained faculty, such as exercise science and education instructors. Research has been conducted on the socialization of new faculty within nursing (Genrich & Pappas, 1997; Megel, 1985; Schriner, 2007; Weidman, 2013) and within occupational therapy (Crepeau, Thibodaux, & Parham, 1999; Mitcham & Gillette, 1999; Mitchell, 1985). According to Mazerolle, Bowman, and Klossner (2015), there has been little research from the standpoint of the athletic trainer who is about to become an athletic training educator. Athletic training education research has focused on student learning styles, faculty teaching styles, and faculty education level, but the preparation of new faculty actually begins during graduate education when the student takes on the role of teaching or research assistant (Mazerolle, Bowman, et al., 2015).

Organizational socialization is a blend of intentional, planned procedures and less-formal, spontaneous interactions in a variety of settings, particularly through mentorship (Pitney, 2012). Mentoring is necessary to help new clinically trained faculty effectively transition into full-time roles as healthcare providers (Pitney, 2012). Therefore, mentoring may effectively assist clinical faculty to learn new roles as educators, an often-foreign position due to a lack of pedagogical training during their doctoral studies (Dewald & Walsh, 2009; Pitney, 2012).

The athletic training literature questions how new athletic training faculty members succeed in their faculty roles when they require skill sets not previously learned in their formal preparation for faculty positions (Craig, 2006; Payne & Berry, 2014). While the doctorally
trained athletic trainer or physical therapist receives plenty of clinical and research experience, he or she may lack a full awareness of the complexity of faculty roles that extend beyond scholarship, such as teaching effectiveness, service, and administrative duties.

**Statement of the Problem**

Socialization is a process through which an individual learns and takes on the knowledge, values, attitudes, and expectations of a group within an organization (Corcoran & Clark 1984; Staton & Darling, 1989), ultimately leading to the development of a professional identity that includes attributes of the group (Merton, Reader, & Kendall, 1957). Because of the existing divide between clinical practice and education in healthcare professions, athletic training and physical therapy educators’ knowledge of faculty expectations compared with faculty from an academically trained degree concentration are important for future educators to understand. Since athletic training and physical therapy education are predominantly clinically focused, knowing how these clinicians successfully socialize into their faculty roles is valuable.

**Significance of the Study**

The primary focus of this research study is to gain a better understanding of the factors that allow clinically and academically trained faculty members prepare for, socialize into, and eventually succeed in their academic roles. Successful faculty members will be able to promote learning while creating scholarly students within higher education. The information gained through this research may lead to practices and program development that will improve the efficacy of doctoral studies and faculty development programs for future faculty members and for those educators already active in faculty member roles, particularly junior faculty navigating the tenure process. Navigating and managing the needs of an accredited healthcare program
brings added responsibilities that are unique, as compared with the responsibilities of faculty of other programs within an institution.

Therefore, to gain a better understanding of the socialization process within this population, it is important to study faculty preparation of those healthcare professionals who complete doctoral education programs and eventually pursue faculty roles in higher education. Such an understanding will be applicable not only to athletic training and physical therapy programs, but also to other education settings, as this information could provide a better understanding of the needs of faculty once they transition into higher education and could also offer recommendations for better preparing future generations of faculty (Mazerolle, Bowman, et al., 2015).

**Theoretical Framework**

The growth of experiences, attitudes, and practices, is a constantly evolving, lifelong process. Individuals who are exceptional clinicians may not be exceptional educators, just as individuals who are exceptional researchers may not be exceptional teachers (Payne & Berry, 2014). The theoretical framework of transformative learning during the socialization process was the framework for this research, which sought to understand the experiences of individuals who become educators and to determine how they acquired their knowledge and professional attributes, especially if they were not prepared in graduate school.

Professional socialization is a process that involves learning specific skills, values, attitudes, and behaviors that are essential to professional preparation and growth of faculty in higher education (Pitney, Ilsley, & Rintala, 2002). Professional socialization can be divided into anticipatory and organizational socialization phases. Anticipatory socialization includes the socialization factors that occur before entering a workplace, while organizational socialization
includes the socialization processes that occur after entering the workplace (Pitney et al., 2002).
Personal experiences and professional interests influence socialization, but the anticipatory
process originates during undergraduate and graduate education (Pitney et al., 2002).

Many of the participants in the study by Pitney at al. (2002) regarding the socialization of
athletic trainers working in the Division I setting stated that once they secured employment, they
"learned on the run" and learned much of their job responsibilities through trial and error as they
faced situations for which they did not feel prepared (Pitney et al., 2002). The researchers
reported that “the participants consistently identified a lack of formal induction processes. More
specifically, job responsibilities were described in writing, but no formal training, orientation or
learning processes apart from administrative tasks … were implemented” (Pitney et al., 2002, p.
66).

Mezirow’s (2009) theory of transformative learning developed into a multifaceted
description of how learners understand, authenticate, and reconfigure the meaning of their
experiences (Cranton, 1994; Cranton & King, 2003). Transformative learning theory illustrates
how adult learners adjust the way they view their experiences and interactions (Cranton, 2006;
Cranton & King, 2003; King, 2004; Mezirow, 2009), and describes learning as the process of
becoming aware of one’s assumptions and using critical self-reflection to question the validity of
these assumptions, potentially leading to a change in perspective and behavior (Cranton, 1994;
Cranton & King, 2003). Mezirow developed the theory of transformation in his 1978 study of
women returning to postsecondary education or the workplace after spending a period of time
away (Mezirow & Marsick, 1978). He was interested in identifying factors that hindered or
eased women's progress in re-entry programs, including any changes they experienced in how
they viewed and made meaning of their world, to address their needs when resuming their
education or employment (King, 2004; Kitchenham, 2008). Since 1978, there has been an extensive body of transformative learning research across many sectors. The application of this theory is further described in Chapter Three.

**Research Questions**

The purpose of this study was to gain a retrospective understanding of role inductance among faculty members in higher education, to better understand the professional and organizational socialization processes that faculty members experience as they enter their first jobs in higher education, and to learn the needs of faculty as they gain role induction. This study specifically focused on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from clinically based and academically based doctoral programs.

Successful role induction is important for a faculty member, as it indicates assimilation to the role and can reduce the stress and overload that accompanies the transition into a new role. Because transition and role inductance are founded on professional and organizational socialization processes (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993), past and current experiences are important to understanding socialization processes. This research study specifically focused on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from clinically based and academically based doctoral programs. Specifically, the research questions were:

1. Do faculty experience transformative learning in their socialization as faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs? If so, how? If not, why not?
2. What forms and sources of institutional support of socialization do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs receive?
3. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education
programs feel their doctoral education helped them form professional identities that allowed them to succeed in their faculty roles? If so, how? If not, why not?

4. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education perceive any barriers and facilitators to their professional or organizational socialization experiences? If so, how? If not, why not?

**Researcher’s Role**

Phenomenological interviews require patience and skill on the part of the researcher as participants discuss the meaning of their experiences (Creswell, 2007). The quality of the data collection is dependent on the ability of the researcher to address personal bias and be attentive to the perceptions of the participants. With qualitative research, there is always an increased possibility of researcher bias. While bracketing strategies were used to maintain the integrity of the data (Moustakas, 1994), the nature of qualitative research means that this study was conducted through the lens of the researcher, including her professional and organizational socialization experiences. In reality, the researcher was not always able to set aside completely her own assumptions and interpretations or the experiences she faced during her professional and organizational socialization processes.

Indicators of a good qualitative researcher include familiarity with the phenomenon under investigation, strong conceptual interests, and sound probing skills (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The researcher followed recommendations by qualitative scholars who argued that “qualitative understanding of cases requires experiencing the activity of the case as it occurs in its contexts and in its particular situation” (Stake, 2005, p. 2). As an athletic training educator who herself transitioned from a clinical role to an academic role, the researcher brought life experience and credibility to the interview process. The researcher has been an educator within an accredited
undergraduate athletic training program for the last 14 years and is familiar with a wide variety of practice environments and the educator role in an athletic training education program. The researcher’s experience transitioning to a university environment from clinical practice challenged her to suspend her own interpretations of assuming a new faculty role through reflexivity and bracketing of one’s experience.

Finlay (2002) stated that a phenomenologist’s first task is to “bracket out” beliefs to enter the experience and attend genuinely and actively to the participants' view. According to Finlay (2002), the researcher goes through the process of self-dialogue between one's preconceived understandings and the research process. Also, there is an analysis between the self-interpreted understandings of the researcher and those of the participant (Finlay, 2002). Through the use of reflexive practices, including bracketing, consultation, and memo writing, subjectivity in research may transform from a drawback into an opportunity (Finlay, 2002; Starks & Brown-Trinidad). Reflexivity may be a valuable tool to examine the impact of position and the perspective and presence of the researcher, to promote rich insight through examining personal responses and interpersonal dynamics, and to enable public inquiry of the research integrity through offering a procedural record of research decisions (Finlay, 1998). Through reflective field notes, the researcher examined and recorded her perspective related to the study topic, allowing the researcher to evaluate the thinking processes that impacted her understanding and interpretation of the phenomenon described by the participants (Finlay, 1998; Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007).

**Delimitations**

One of the delimitations of this research study was that participants were chosen purposively rather than randomly. Interviews were conducted with full-time faculty from one
institution via telephone due to the institution’s location at a significant difference from the researcher. The selection of participants in this study was confined to full-time athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education faculty only, and faculty were asked to recall socialization experiences that occurred up to ten years ago.

**Definition of Terms**

The following terms and definitions clarify the terminology related to this study.

*Andragogy:* A term used by adult educators to mean the art and science of helping adults learn.

*Athletic trainer:* Certified athletic trainers (ATs) are allied healthcare providers who specialize in the prevention, assessment, treatment, and rehabilitation of injuries and illnesses. ATs are certified by the Board of Certification, Inc. (BOC) after successful completion of both a Commission on Accreditation of Athletic Training Education (CAATE) accredited athletic training education program and the national certification examination.

*Athletic training educator:* For this study, athletic training educators are BOC-certified athletic trainers who hold either a master’s or doctoral degree and are full-time faculty members in an entry-level, CAATE-accredited undergraduate or graduate athletic training education program.

*Clinical education:* The application of knowledge and skills, learned in classroom and laboratory settings, to actual practice on patients under the supervision of a preceptor.

*Commission on Accreditation of Athletic Training Education (CAATE):* The purpose of CAATE is to maintain the standards of entry-level athletic training education programs. It develops the accreditation standards and reviews athletic training education programs to ensure maintenance of these standards. It is sponsored by the National Athletic Training Association.

*Healthcare professional:* a professional with expert knowledge and experience in certain fields but no medical degree. Healthcare professionals include speech and language therapists, radiographers, physiotherapists, nurses, athletic trainers, occupational therapists, and dietitians.

*Pedagogy:* The art and science of educating children and is often associated with teaching.

*Preceptor:* A preceptor is an appropriately credentialed professional identified and trained by the educational program to provide instruction and evaluation of the Athletic Training Educational Competencies and/or Clinical Proficiencies.

**Summary**

The purpose of this study was to understand the socialization of faculty as they gain role inductance into higher education, and to understand the socialization process and needs of clinically trained and academically trained faculty as they enter higher education. Although many institutions offer faculty development services, new faculty may be too overwhelmed by information provided during orientation and by their preparation for teaching, service, and research roles to pursue and engage in any of those services. Because there is little research comparing the doctoral preparation and socialization experiences of clinically trained faculty with those of academically trained faculty, this researcher proposed a phenomenological study to gain insight into the meaning of the process of organizational learning and to identify commonalities among clinically trained and academically trained faculty related to their socialization into their faculty roles.
Engaging in this research allowed for an understanding of the strategies that benefit faculty members in being socialized into their academic roles. Similar to Austin (2003), recommendations can then be made to help create meaningful opportunities for aspiring faculty members and findings can lead to the development of programs that will improve doctoral studies and socialization processes for future and current faculty members.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

The purpose of this study was to gain a retrospective understanding of role inductance of faculty members in higher education, to better understand the professional and organizational socialization processes that faculty experience as they enter their first job in higher education, and to learn the needs of faculty as they gain role induction. This study specifically focused on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from clinically based and academically based doctoral programs.

Organizational Socialization

Socialization involves the transformation of an individual's status from that of an outsider to that of an insider within an organization and is the process through which an individual acquires the attitudes, behavior, and knowledge required to participate effectively in an organization (Hayden, 1995; Korte, 2007). Brim's defines of socialization as "the process by which individuals take on the skills, knowledge, and values or attitudes which enable them to participate in groups and society" (as cited in Megel, 1985, p. 304). Tierney and Rhoads (1993) stated that socialization is not only how an individual transforms to fit within an organization, but it also creates a change in both the individual and the organization.

Socialization processes have been heavily explored in organizational literature and, to some degree, in the context of higher education. Researchers have studied the success of doctoral programs in socializing students to academic norms (Austin, 2002), the effects of socialization in diversifying faculty (Jackson, 2004), and the socialization of new female and minority faculty (Johnson & Harvey, 2002).

Austin’s (2002) work illustrated that socialization did not end with graduate school, and
that continued organizational and professional socialization allowed future faculty members to succeed in their roles. Many colleges and universities offer methods to acclimate new faculty into the academic culture, such as teaching workshops, mentoring programs, and orientation sessions (Angstadt, Nieman, & Morahan, 1998). Providing faculty with opportunities to learn what is expected of them and ways to succeed in their faculty role helps reduce stress, and initiatives such as the American Council on Education’s challenge for faculty work-life balance recommended that higher education commit to supporting and promoting faculty careers without penalty for wanting balance (American Council on Education, 2014).

Organizational theorists such as Becker and Strauss (1956), Louis (1980), and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) provided frameworks for viewing socialization. Becker and Strauss (1956) discussed the concept of socialization from a career perspective, including the influences of training or education, informal learning, control of information, and different reference groups within organizations. Louis (1980) stressed the value of organizational socialization to the individual concerning the ease with which the newcomer entered an organization and theorized a model regarding the transitions newcomers face when entering new organizations. Both Louis (1980) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) referred to the existence of newcomer anxiety during role transitions. Louis (1980) proposed interventions aimed at reducing the stress of being new to an organization, whereas Van Maanen and Schein (1979) proposed that an individual must accept new roles in an organization.

Six structural dimensions of organizational socialization were offered by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) to describe how a newcomer becomes part of an institution. First, socialization occurs on a continuum from the collective to the individual, where the organization decides whether new members are socialized as a group or individually. Secondly, socialization
processes are described on a scale from formal to informal. A third dimension included the spectrum from sequential to variable socialization tactics, and a fourth dimension involved fixed versus variable socialization. An ordered series of steps versus haphazard socialization represented the fifth dimension. Thus, socialization happens on a scale from specifically planned to randomly-organized activities (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

According to Van Maanen and Schein (1979), socialization evolves in relation to how a person takes on the organizational identity. Newcomers may be expected by the organization to give up their beliefs and values, while on the other hand, some organizations may allow the new member to integrate his/her value system into the organization. Therefore, how individuals socialize into organizations and how individuals influence organizations have application to the theory and practice of higher education. Some of the early theorists of organizational socialization (Becker & Strauss, 1956; Louis, 1980; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) provided the foundation for more recent studies on faculty socialization in higher education.

**Anticipatory and organizational socialization.** Professional socialization can be divided into two aspects: anticipatory and organizational (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). An individual’s personal experiences and occupational interests act together as socializing agents, but the anticipatory socialization process begins during undergraduate and graduate education and includes one’s experiences before entering a work setting (Pitney et al., 2002; Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Organizational socialization includes one’s experiences after entering a work setting, such as institutional orientation sessions (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Organizational socialization denotes how individuals adjust to their new roles within an organization and learn about what are acceptable customs and routines within the workplace (Pitney, 2002).
Recognizing the organizational features of professional socialization may facilitate the understanding of faculty needs within higher education (Pitney, 2002).

Many of the participants in the study regarding the socialization of athletic trainers working in the Division I setting stated that once they secured employment, they "learned on the run" and learned much of their job responsibility through trial and error as they faced situations in which they felt unprepared (Pitney et al., 2002). “The participants consistently identified a lack of formal induction processes. More specifically, job responsibilities were described in writing, but no formal training, orientation, or learning processes apart from administrative tasks (e.g., vehicle requests, referral procedures, or travel requests), were implemented” (Pitney et al., 2002, p. 66). The processes that form excellent educators – the anticipatory and organizational socialization experiences – need to be identified so that they can be modeled and implemented within higher education.

The first years of academic life are stressful for faculty members because of the many roles they must assume (Crepeau, Thibodaux, & Parham, 1999). Unsatisfactory socialization can lead to stress and dismay for new faculty, further contributing to low productivity and burnout (Korte, 2007). Korte (2007) identified four major reasons that socialization is important: (a) turnover is a consequence of unsuccessful socialization; (b) socialization has long-term effects on current employee attitudes and behaviors; (c) socialization is the primary method for the organization to transfer and maintain its culture; and (d) socialization is a means through which employees learn about the social and political norms of the organization.

Bogler and Kremer-Hayon (1999) believed that socialization helped faculty feel personally invested in the department and institution in which they work. The process of socialization, according to Bogler and Kremer-Hayon (1999), involves three steps: (a)
“exploration,” (b) “giving up the previous role,” and (c) “accommodating the new role.” The exploration phase occurs in graduate school and during job searches, as potential faculty members decide which careers and institutions are right for them. As faculty transition into their new roles, they must let go of their old roles and learn to fit within the new ones. Cawyer and Friedrich (1998) pointed out, however, that adaptation may be conflicting, as there is a certain degree of compromise that occurs during socialization as new faculty discover their roles with their institutions. Because vibrant institutions constantly gain and lose faculty, change is always occurring. When old faculty leave, they may take certain ideas and traditions with them, and when new faculty join, they bring new ideas and traditions to their new institutions (Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998).

Prior research showed that one important component of organizational socialization and role induction of new employees was the development of newcomer social networks (Carpenter, Li, & Jiang, 2012; Morrison, 2002). The social relationships that new employees developed with organizational peers were important for newcomer learning and knowledge development, and were instrumental foundations for long-term socialization (Carpenter et al., 2012). Higher education researchers have linked positive socialization outcomes to interactions among junior and senior faculty, including job satisfaction (August & Waltman, 2004), retention (Callister, 2006) and achieving tenure (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008).

**Formal and informal socialization.** Organizational socialization may occur during formal processes such as orientation meetings, training sessions, workshops, and mentorship, or it may occur informally, such as through the process of learning the organization's value system by watching peers (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Formal socialization occurs when new members separate from other organizational members to have experiences that are
specifically designed to familiarize them with the organization (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The primary focus of formal socialization is to teach new members the correct attitudes, values, and procedures within their new roles, and to allow others within the organization the opportunity to evaluate a new member's dedication and potential within the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Informal socialization, on the other hand, forces new members to learn their roles through trial and error while pursuing their own socialization processes (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In either socialization method, employees socialize to expected behaviors within an organization.

Research indicated that formal socialization approaches lead to better socialization outcomes between an employee and the organization (Jones, 1986; Hopkins & Hopkins, 1990). Informal socialization is a longer process and may not be very effective in large organizations (Hopkins & Hopkins, 1990). Hopkins and Hopkins (1990) found that informal socialization processes may take more than eight years to occur, while Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) found that formal socialization processes may be successful within eight weeks. The effectiveness of the socialization process may depend upon the people, politics, culture, and values that new employees must learn and adapt to during their socialization process (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002).

**Doctoral Education Socialization**

Doctoral education is considered a form of professional socialization during which students learn about the culture, norms, and expectations of their specific disciplines and prepare for a career as a faculty member in higher education (Austin, 2002; Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Mazerolle, Barrett, & Nottingham, 2016). The literature on socialization suggests that a person's knowledge of what it takes to be a faculty member begins with the graduate school experience,
not with the first faculty position (Austin, 2002; Boice, 2002; Mazerolle, Bowman, et al., 2015; Reybold, 2003). Socialization is said to be an ongoing process that begins with an anticipatory learning period during which a potential member begins to adopt the values and attitudes of the group they desire to join. According to Austin (2002), the graduate experience is critical in determining whether or not students are exposed to the skills and expectations they are likely to encounter as faculty and is a combination of socialization processes that involve the role of the graduate student, faculty life, and the specific discipline being studied.

Because faculty members must undergo training specific to higher education, and because that training is performed by people already in higher education, socialization must begin during graduate school and involves self-discovery and career confirmation (Austin, 2002). Unfortunately, many graduate students finish school feeling unprepared for faculty roles. Austin (2002) performed qualitative research of 79 doctoral students at research universities who planned to enter into faculty careers upon graduating. Austin (2002) discovered that the graduating students felt unprepared for student advising, service, and teaching. Additionally, while doctoral training prepared them for research, they felt unprepared for writing research proposals (Austin, 2002).

In his survey of 187 doctoral students, Golde (1998) found that while almost all doctoral students felt capable of conducting research, less than one-third of them felt competent serving on committees or advising undergraduates. Additionally, many new faculty might not be used to dealing with disruptive or unmotivated students and are unsure of ways to handle those students (Sorcinelli, 1994). Golde (1998) and Austin (2002) both believed that students need help understanding and preparing for the variety of roles they will fill as faculty. Johnson (2001) found that because many new faculty members finish graduate school without a realistic
understanding of faculty roles and responsibilities, institutions must help new faculty continue to
develop and adjust to higher education and the culture of the institution through quality
socialization. For new faculty to learn what faculty expectations are and how to meet those
expectations, new faculty are in need of proper socialization experiences (Austin, 2002;
Sorcinelli, 1994).

Graduate school provides vital experiences for how to start, perform, and complete
research, as well as how to associate with others as researchers, educators, and administrative
personnel (Hermanowicz, 2016). Graduate education may incorporate a transformative process
of socialization where an untrained person transforms into a professional who incorporates newly
developed knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes (Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Hermanowicz,
2016). Unfortunately, many graduate programs prepare doctoral students for careers as faculty
members at research universities, leading to students not being fully prepared for faculty
positions outside of research (Duderstadt, 2001; Golde & Dore, 2001). Even so, Golde and Dore
(2001), as well as Duderstadt (2001), found that doctoral research training was not
comprehensive and that students were not prepared for all creative aspects of the research
process, many times replicating their dissertation advisors. Austin (2002) explained that
teaching and research assistantship roles are sometimes designed to serve institutional or faculty
needs as opposed to providing a high-quality learning experience for graduate students, stating
that "although teaching and research responsibilities surely can provide training opportunities for
the future faculty, these assistantship roles sometimes are structured more to serve institutional or
faculty needs than to ensure a high-quality learning experience for graduate students" (p. 95).

Austin (2002), Golde (1998), and Johnson (2001) found variations between the
preparation of graduate students and what constitutes real faculty work. Many students did not
experience leadership and training in teaching, advising, service, and the ethical aspects of faculty roles, and aspiring faculty also received little direction regarding differences in academic careers and types of institutions (Austin, 2002; Golde & Dore, 2001). Austin (2002) recommended organized opportunities for students to learn about faculty work, regular feedback and assessment, an environment promoting peer socialization, and ongoing self-reflection to determine one’s weaknesses. A faculty member should know how to work with students and act professionally (Golde & Dore, 2001), and needs to be able to research, communicate, engage with others, and understand the teaching process (Austin, 2003). According to Austin (2003), “the preparation of the next-generation of faculty members cannot be ‘business as usual’” (p. 128), as there are major gaps between the preparation of future faculty members and the preparation and support they experience.

Golde and Dore (2001) surveyed 4,000 graduate students and examined inconsistencies between graduate student expectations of faculty roles and experiences in the socialization process. Their findings indicated that new faculty are interested in research, teaching, and service, but their graduate preparation primarily focused on research. A majority of respondents indicated that their future faculty career would include teaching, but they felt inadequately prepared for that role. They also found that graduate students who do become faculty typically do so at institutions other than the research university they attended. Most graduate teaching activities focused on improving skills of teaching assistants at that institution rather than on helping graduate students learn teaching skills, such as working with diverse student populations, constructing courses, advising and mentoring students, and assessing student learning (Golde & Dore, 2001). They recommended clearer and more thoughtful instructions regarding role
expectations, including ethics in academic work, participation in activities outside of research, and dialogue with graduate students about their experiences.

Reybold (2003) performed a longitudinal, qualitative investigation regarding the initial development of professional identities among 30 education doctoral students from 14 institutions as they transitioned and adjusted to the professoriate. Reybold (2003) found that students were not always full, active participants in their own professional development, and along with Austin (2003), discovered that doctoral students perceived what is valued and what is not valued within higher education through their own observations and experiences with professors. Much of the literature specific to faculty socialization rarely assessed the development of the comprehensive nature of being a faculty member and typically focused on the development of competency in one area while ignoring all that embodies teaching, research, and service, possibly because they realistically do not know all that their roles entail (Boice, 2000; Reybold, 2003).

Eddy and Gaston-Gayles (2008) emphasized the role of graduate school socialization as an influence on the acclimation of new faculty during the first years of employment. Challenges facing new faculty included expectations that they would be able to effectively teach, research, and serve after completing their doctoral degree, and major stressors included not having enough time for research, teaching, and service; inadequate feedback from peers and superiors; feelings of loneliness and isolation; unrealistic expectations about what can be accomplished; lack of collegiality; and difficulty balancing work and life (Eddy & Gaston-Gayles, 2008; Gaff, 2002).

Researchers suggested that resources for better faculty preparation and socialization should involve opportunities in graduate school to practice skills rather than just study them, scheduled mentoring, clearer guidelines of expectations for new faculty, and increased support
for classroom teaching during the socialization process (Austin, 2003; Boice, 2000; Eddy & Gaston-Gayles, 2008; Golde & Dore, 2001).

In 1993, the Association of American Colleges and Universities and the Council of Graduate Schools began a program called Preparing Future Faculty based on a need to improve graduate student preparation for academia. Gaff (2002) reviewed the research regarding graduate education and the reality of academic expectations and found a discrepancy between doctoral student training and real faculty careers. He proposed four student concerns regarding faculty experiences and doctoral programs: the lack of an all-inclusive program to help them learn to teach; lack of feedback and mentoring; a lack of knowledge of academic career ranges; and differences between doctoral education and realistic work within academia. New faculty identified stressors including teaching loads, new course preparations, getting to know colleagues, adjusting to a new organization, and balancing committee service with job responsibilities (Gaff, 2002). Gaff (2002) revealed a gap between the focus of doctoral programs and the work actually expected of those who held terminal degrees and documented the need for doctoral programs to better prepare students for faculty roles.

Kreber (2001) argued that graduate programs have emphasized content knowledge rather than pedagogical training, and students teaching within graduate programs may be unable to integrate discipline knowledge and andragogy. She recommended integrating andragogy into the curriculum to allow students to explore educational issues related to their disciplines and to provide students with the opportunity to teach and receive feedback on their teaching. Kreber (2001) gave recommendations for faculty development and teaching scholarship that included providing collaborative research programs within departments, focusing on scholarship of
teaching for a certain number of years, and providing workshops on educational theory and research.

Nyquist et al. (1999) studied the experiences of doctoral student cohorts over four years and of master’s students over two years, finding that students struggled to understand how the institutions’ values and expectations affiliated with their own. Graduate students desired additional means of support for their professional development as teachers, as many lacked the understanding regarding what faculty do or what a faculty career entails, what it means to be involved in faculty governance, and what faculty career opportunities are available (Nyquist et al., 1999).

Graduate-level andragogy courses are a vital component of graduate education and were found to improve teaching practice (Marincovich, Prostko, & Stout, 1998), facilitate spontaneous and confident instruction (Pelton, 2014), and reduce teaching anxiety (Pelton, 2014). The benefits of pedagogical training may go beyond teaching, as researchers found that when graduate students prepared for teaching responsibilities, they had improved research skills (Feldon et al., 2011) and were more productive as faculty researchers (Boice, 1991). Yet Hurtado, Alvarez, Guillermo-Wann, Cuellar, and Arellano (2012) found that less than half of instructors in entry-level faculty positions believed the training they received in graduate school prepared them for their faculty role.

While teaching experience is recommended to prepare doctoral students to become faculty (Austin, 2002; Golde & Dore, 2001; McDaniels, 2010), experience alone is insufficient. New faculty are inclined to teach in the way that initially feels most comfortable to them or based on what they have observed other instructors do (Griffith, O’Loughlin, Kearns, Braun, & Heacock, 2010). As such, new instructors typically focus on lecturing, although research has
shown lecturing is not the most effective approach to facilitate learning (Freeman et al., 2014; Haak, HilleRisLambers, Pitre, & Freeman, 2011). There should also be organized methods in place that facilitate growth and preparation for teaching (Austin, 2002).

Economic trends in higher education have significantly impacted the content, structure, and process of doctoral education in the United States (Austin & McDaniels, in Boyer, 2016). Employment opportunities for doctoral graduates have shifted away from tenure-track positions to non-tenure track and part-time positions. More attention has focused on quality of teaching and the learning experiences and outcomes of students. Boyer (2016) suggested that scholarship within doctoral education should include teaching, synthesis, application, and discovery, so that the preparation of faculty facilitates development in a variety of areas. Doctoral education should provide doctoral students with opportunities to work with a variety of scholars, to evaluate and learn from others, and to participate in assessment processes (Boyer, 2016).

Future scholars must be able to think creatively and critically and to communicate effectively (Boyer, 2016). During graduate education, professional attitudes and values are shaped, and new scholarship is likely to occur if directed properly. Boyer (2016) suggested that graduate students should specialize in a field of study and engage in original research, but they should also be encouraged to engage in coursework in other disciplines to gain additional perspectives of other academic disciplines. There is a need for interdisciplinary awareness, social and ethical emphasis, integrative reasoning, and more of a focus on the scholarship of application during graduate education. Boyer (2016) identified graduate school as a time during which students become consumed with academic work but are not given the opportunity to apply what they learn within a practical setting.
Boyer (2016) further declared that graduate schools should make teaching a priority and suggested that helping new faculty prepare for their faculty roles through pedagogical training has been neglected by graduate programs. While teaching assistant programs are crucial to teacher preparation, most are not effective because they focus on giving senior faculty release time and because research assistantships do not require graduate students to teach. Boyer (2016) specified that if scholarship is redefined, graduate work must encompass not only research, but integration, application, and teaching as well.

According to Austin (in Hermanowicz, 2011), socialization experiences should not attempt to make all newcomers the same, but should be a dynamic process that influences both the individual and the organization (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Just as doctoral students are learning about the nature of academic work and careers, they are also bringing their own ideas and plans into the academe, so faculty are most likely preparing graduate students for careers and work experiences that will differ from their own. Attention to socializing and preparing new faculty should be a collaborative effort between graduate school deans, faculty, and doctoral students themselves (Boyer, 2016).

**Faculty Socialization**

According to Tierney and Rhoads (1993), the first stage of faculty socialization included the anticipatory socialization of graduate students to the roles and expectations of faculty life. They stated that anticipatory socialization affects how quickly a new faculty member moves into the culture of the organization; if the anticipatory socialization is not consistent with the culture of the organization, then the socialization process will become transformative. The second stage of faculty socialization is role continuance, which occurs once the faculty member has become embedded in the organization (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993).
Boice (1992) conducted a longitudinal study of new tenure-track professors from one institution to obtain insight into the obstacles that new faculty face: teaching, writing, and collegiality. Boice (1992) found that most new faculty not only experience loneliness, isolation, and are overworked, but also found that a small group of new faculty adapted to their faculty role quicker than others. Boice (1992) revealed that those who adapted more quickly took the initiative to discover their own mentors, developed time management and self-management skills, and learned interdependence with others.

Healthcare professionals such as nurses, physical therapists, and athletic trainers, receive a formal education related to clinical practice rather than academic practice and are typically the ones recruited for faculty positions within these degree programs (Megel, 1985; Murray, Stanley, & Wright, 2014). Attracting healthcare professionals to faculty roles at universities was essential for the growth and development of the healthcare professions (Murray et al., 2014). Despite this, there were difficulties attracting healthcare professionals into academic roles because academic and research roles traditionally are not the focus of graduates from these degree programs (Farnworth, Rodger, Curtin, Brown, & Hunt, 2010; Murray et al., 2014; Schriner, 2007). During the past 20 years, universities developed stricter faculty requirements, including the need for faculty to have research skills and a doctorate degree (Clark, Alcaca-Van Houten, & Perea-Ryan, 2010), meaning that many of these healthcare professionals transitioning into higher education are underqualified and underprepared for their faculty role (Farnworth et al., 2010; Murray et al., 2014).

Clinical faculty. Some healthcare fields such as nursing, physical therapy, athletic training, and medicine developed professional school models where clinical faculty accompanied tenured faculty instruction, focusing on teaching, practical skill development, and professional
service with little research expectations (Hackmann & McCarthy, 2011). Athletic trainers and physical therapists employed by colleges and universities often hold positions similar to nursing and occupational therapy faculty, which include clinical work, faculty responsibilities, or both, with the percentage of time dedicated to each role differing between individuals and institutions (Hertel, West, Buckley, & Denegar, 2001). Faculty members in higher education perform teaching, research, and service in some capacity, but clinical faculty assume the additional load of administrative paperwork, monitoring accreditation standards, and sometimes, providing patient-care (Dewald & Walsh, 2009).

Faculty members, regardless of their area of specialization, must be socialized prior to starting their faculty roles; however, it appeared that athletic training doctoral students felt unprepared to handle the responsibilities of faculty roles (Dewald & Walsh, 2009), specifically student advising, committee work, and teaching. Despite having high research expectations, constructing research proposals was also a concern for doctoral graduates, indicating that a comprehensive understanding of research responsibilities may not be imparted during graduate school (Austin, 2002).

With the launch of new athletic training curricula at the master's degree level, more doctoral trained athletic trainers and faculty are needed to fill the positions that will need to be created. In a commentary and reflection piece, Berry (2010) pointed out that "the degree itself may not necessarily have guaranteed a complete understanding of pedagogy" (p. 38), and that andragogy is an essential element of education that promises effective instruction of specific professional knowledge and content. Andragogy "does not mean that the person holding this degree necessarily understands how to design, implement, assess, or even instruct his/her content expertise" (Berry, 2010, p. 38). Exploring pedagogical training specifically within healthcare
professions is essential, as preparing graduate students to teach health-related courses and educating future healthcare professionals in the academic setting requires specialized knowledge and andragogy that general coursework cannot fulfill (Gurung, Chick, & Haynie, 2009). As Shulman (2008) described, effective teachers should have general pedagogical knowledge – such as how to teach – in addition to pedagogical content knowledge – such as how to teach within a given field.

Andragogical training is an important part of athletic training education because of the recent mandate for all athletic training programs to transition a master's degree program by 2022 (CAATE, 2015). Current athletic trainers with master's degrees are pursuing doctoral degrees within any specialization area just to fulfill doctoral level positions that this transition will create. While this is a commentary by Berry (2010), it supports the concern for athletic training faculty preparation for teaching at the master's degree level and lends support for concern for successful athletic training faculty socialization into higher education.

Rich (2009) surveyed 174 athletic training educators of varying ranks within their institutions and described the employment characteristics, educational history, and pedagogical training of athletic training educators to better understand how prepared these educators are for faculty life. Questions have been raised as to whether athletic training faculty possess the skills and experience needed to successfully lead an athletic training program while balancing teaching, service, and scholarship, as it is common to find athletic training educators in their positions because they are deemed to be content experts (Rich, 2009). Results from this study suggested that doctorally educated athletic trainers need to have sufficient understanding of andragogy, as it may be overwhelming to prepare for new classes, start a research agenda, and fulfill service requirements of the institution.
Graduate athletic training programs do not prepare students to teach and conduct research, but instead, emphasize content knowledge rather than pedagogical training (Rich, 2009). According to Rich (2009), “while many medical allied health care professionals will either teach in a formal or clinical setting, more often than not, they are not given the opportunity to undergo formal or informal instructions on pedagogical practices, and are expected to learn teaching and pedagogy on the job” (p. 136).

Brumels and Beach (2008) examined the role orientation hierarchy of teaching, research, service, and administrative responsibilities of 348 athletic training educators at the collegiate level using a survey that contained 45 role complexity questions. Role orientation hierarchy referred to the roles that an individual believed to be most important based on the amount of time, effort, and energy expended (Brumels & Beach, 2008). Participants reported that service responsibilities were important aspects of their job regardless of their job description, but research was not frequently reported as an actual role orientation.

Craig (2006) used a quantitative design for a web-based survey assessing teaching backgrounds, self-perceived teaching methodology knowledge, and self-perceived competence of 149 athletic training program instructors to ascertain whether there was a need for more education in teaching methodology. The study found there was a need for more teaching methodology instruction in the preparation of athletic training educators with master’s degrees. The higher the knowledge score, the higher the gap score between that knowledge and their self-perceived competence. Those with less previous instruction in teaching methodology and less teaching methodology knowledge perceived less disconnect between what they knew about teaching and how competent they were to teach (Craig, 2006).
Craig (2006) stated that the findings point toward a need for andragogy coursework in graduate curriculums. Those with teaching experience and who possessed knowledge of teaching methodology had higher gap scores than those with less instruction experience and less knowledge. The gap score illustrated the notion of “you don't know what you don't know” (Craig, 2006, p. 35). Additionally, even though an athletic trainer or physical therapist may be exceptional in clinical practice, research, or teaching, it does not mean that they are outstanding in all three.

Payne and Berry (2014) examined how new athletic training faculty members engaged in their faculty roles when they had no formal pedagogical training. Their primary research question revolved around understanding how new athletic training faculty members successfully complete all that is required of them when andragogy was not part of their degree coursework. Their question centered on a terminal degree does not mean one understands andragogy or curriculum development, and that new faculty orientations do not cover all the expectations of new faculty. They recommended that a new faculty member find someone within the institution, not necessarily within their discipline, to be their mentor. They also recommended that doctoral students desiring a faculty career take a pedagogical course to help prepare them. Payne and Berry (2014) suggested that preparing faculty begins during graduate education and re-iterated the finding by Berry (2010) that those who are excellent clinicians may not be excellent educators or researchers, and vice versa.

Payne and Berry (2014) stated that while passing the board of certification exam confirms an athletic trainer has the knowledge needed for entry-level clinical practice, earning a terminal degree does not mean they understand how to design, implement, assess, or even teach the subject matter. "Not only do athletic training program instructors need to be knowledgeable
experts, they must also be able to effectively teach that knowledge” (Payne & Berry, 2014, p. 87). They recommended that students get to know everyone within their departments, understand the tenure and promotion requirements and use them to guide priorities, and add an andragogy course in graduate school.

**Role conflict.** Role conflict may occur for clinicians who become educators. Sabari (1985) stated that “role stress will occur if the educationally defined role is incongruent with the role defined by one's employing organization” (p. 99), and divided role stress into two types – role conflict and role ambiguity. Role conflict occurs when individuals are required to take on a role that differs from their personal value systems or when they must perform two or more roles that conflict. Role ambiguity occurs when a role is not "clearly articulated in terms of behaviors or performance levels expected" (Sabari, 1985, p. 99).

Tierney and Rhoads (1993) examined the impact of the socialization process on faculty members and found that the experiences they had before becoming a faculty member influenced how they managed their job. They stated that "for faculty to place higher emphasis on teaching, for example, they must be socialized in graduate school about the importance of teaching” (p. 75), and the same for research, service, and administrative duties. The experience as faculty in graduate school would allow graduate students to have exposure to andragogy and theory and may better prepare them as future athletic training educators (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). Hackmann and McCarthy (2011) found that faculty socialization and role conflict were a concern for clinical faculty and conflicted with the culture and sovereignty of tenured faculty. Clinical faculty possessed different goals than tenured faculty, focusing on maintaining clinical networks while tenured faculty focused on research (Hackmann & McCarthy, 2011).
**Academic faculty.** Most faculty members are not educated to become teachers (Jones, 2008). Jones (2008) stated that, at best, they might have enrolled in a graduate andragogy course specific to their discipline, but most have only their personal experience as students to guide them. They teach as they were taught or teach according to their learning style due to lack of pedagogical coursework and lack of understanding regarding how learning takes place (Griffith et al., 2010; Jones, 2008; Reybold, 2003). Richlin (in Jones, 2008) stated that “the college teacher is the only high-level professional who enters upon a career with neither the prerequisite trial of competence nor experience in the use of tools of the profession” (Jones, p. 94).

**Mentoring and Doctoral Education**

In transformative learning, a mentor is a term used to indicate a trusted associate with whom dialogue can safely occur, and as a result, the role of a mentor is that of a dialogue facilitator (Mezirow, 1997). Mezirow (1997) used this idea of mentor to describe the role of an adult educator. He believed the educator was responsible for creating a learning environment and acts more as a facilitator rather than as an expert on the subject matter. In this role, the facilitator becomes a co-learner by progressively shifting leadership to the group to allow for more self-guidance (Mezirow, 1997). Mezirow (2003) stated that "creating the conditions for and the skills of effective adult reasoning and the disposition for transformative learning – including critical reflection and dialectical discourse – is the essence of adult education and defines the role of the adult educator" (p. 61).

Two areas that have a significant effect on the success of the socialization process of new faculty are the experiences that doctoral students have regarding faculty roles and the available mentorship opportunities. Sabin (2007) found that new faculty would like a mentor, as mentors can help new faculty grow and can help them learn the organizational culture, structure, and
values, but noted that mentoring relationships must be well-developed to succeed. A poor mentorship program can suppress creativity and impede the professional development of a new faculty member, making it important that such programs be well planned, that they pair the right individuals together (Megel, 1985), and that mentors be properly trained (Jones, 2008).

Many colleges and universities offer socialization services such as teaching workshops, orientation settings, and mentoring programs to new faculty, but according to Boice (1992), the most comprehensive and successful socialization method was mentoring. Some institutions separated mentoring and orientation, but Boice (1992) found that mentoring had the best socialization results of new faculty when it began before the new faculty member set foot on campus. Weidman and Stein (2003) found that scholarly encouragement, department collegiality, and student-faculty interactions proved mentoring was critical to graduate student socialization and faculty success. Hager (2003) stated that exemplary mentors educate students on how to be an academic, as well as how to collaborate, communicate, and conduct research.

Corbett (2016) made the following recommendations for socialization of graduate students using the mentoring process: (a) graduate students need consistent, supportive mentoring; (b) mentoring needs to be a structured experience allowing for engagement with peers regarding teaching, faculty work, and discipline expectations; (c) mentoring should support different teaching and research responsibilities; (d) mentoring should allow for involvement in all scopes of faculty responsibilities, including grant and proposal writing, faculty governance, and community engagement; and (e) mentoring should facilitate self-reflection and performance feedback. Mazerolle, Bowman, et al. (2015) found that new employees learn over time as they engage in their organizational roles while being provided the chance to be mentored to gain competence.
Role Induction

The socialization process starts when an individual begins career planning and role induction processes through investigating, observing, and shadowing professionals in positions of interest (Jones, 1986; Mazerolle, Eason, Clines, & Pitney, 2015). Organizational socialization is a component of professional socialization that allows a person to gain a detailed understanding of the roles and responsibilities related to the particular organizational environment (Mazerolle, Eason, et al., 2015) and may be divided into two components: an induction period and role continuance (Pitney, 2002).

The role induction process is the method through which an individual performs their role and adjusts to their responsibilities (Jones, 1986). It may be formal or informal, and may be sequential or random (Pitney, 2002). Alternatively, role continuance emphasizes accommodating to organizational demands over time and repeatedly learning the complexities within a given role while continuing to develop professionally (Pitney, 2002).

Onboarding is a role induction process within organizational socialization, specifically the formal and informal socialization processes used to educate a new employee about the organization's policies and procedures, attitudes, and expectations to assimilate him or her within the organization (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). Formal socialization methods separate new faculty from incumbent faculty so that new faculty can focus on learning the responsibilities of their roles, while new faculty share the norms, values, and attitudes of the organization (Mazerolle, Eason, et al., 2015). Mazerolle, Eason, et al. (2015) found that role induction ensues when a formal orientation process conveys role expectations. With informal socialization methods, new faculty become part of work groups and learn on the job (Mazerolle, Eason, et al., 2015).
Role induction processes present organizational information to new employees to review, resulting in a commitment to the organization (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). A disputed area of the role induction process is the notion that standardized orientation processes will improve employee socialization, although orientation meetings cannot guarantee this, as authentic socialization also depends on individual chemistry with colleagues (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). Lack of an organized process to help new faculty learn their roles, along with the lack of guidance and not knowing what questions to ask, increase the socialization challenges new faculty face (Goodrich, 2014). Additionally, lack of confidence in teaching ability, pressure to automatically know how to do one’s job, and orientation to a new role and institution were reported by Goodrich (2014) as factors that hindered role induction.

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) explained that socialization methods influence role induction because they shape the information newcomers receive. By withholding or providing information in a specific way, organizations may influence newcomers to interpret and respond to situations in a predictable manner. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) and Louis (1980) suggested that reducing uncertainty is a socialization goal for newcomers, and that the socialization methods used may potentially influence the way newcomers respond to their organizations.

Within athletic training, Mazerolle, Walker, and Thrasher (2015) found that role induction was inherently promoted when new athletic training faculty participated as practitioners, yet still provided with mentorship and feedback for growth and confidence in decision making. If role induction is not successful, role ambiguity, whereby an individual is unaware or unsure of his or her responsibilities, can increase job-related stresses (Mazerolle, Walker, et al., 2015). As a result, newcomers may be forced to re-evaluate their organizational
expectations, and, to reduce the uncertainty of the role induction process, they may need to understand why people act as they do (Jones, 1986).

Role induction must involve imparting a clear set of institutional expectations and values to new faculty because a role induction program alone will be unsuccessful without proper socialization methods to accompany it (Dolly, 1998). Unless socialization processes that support new faculty development are created, an institution alone will not impact the induction and socialization process of new faculty members (Dolly, 1998).

**Faculty Development**

Because graduate student socialization processes did not adequately prepare students for faculty roles, especially teaching, the institution’s primary step towards improving teaching and learning was to change the institutional culture towards the importance of teaching (Jones, 2008). One component needed for this culture change was faculty development programs that take into consideration the way students learn, allowing new faculty to understand learning theory and apply it within the classroom (Jones, 2008).

In the context of this research project, faculty development is a process where faculty receive the opportunity to improve their educational and leadership skills and grow both personally and professionally, through instructional design and curriculum development, scholarly activities and teaching, leadership and organizational development, and personal and educational development activities. The terms faculty development, organizational development, and professional development refer to areas of interest of faculty developers (Gillespie, Robertson, & Associates, 2010). Faculty development focuses on the improvement of teaching skills; instructional development focuses on student learning by improving course and curriculum experiences; organizational development focuses on the effectiveness of entities
within an institution; and educational development refers to the resulting effect of the overall interaction of instructional, organizational, and faculty development (Ouellett, 2010). Faculty development, organizational development, educational development, and scholarship of teaching and learning interchangeably refer to the various aspects of faculty developer duties (Ouellett, 2010).

During the 1990s, the field of scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) became the focus of facilitating student learning and student learning outcomes, and faculty development programs became central to the growth of SoTL concepts and practices (Beach, in Boyer, 2016). Faculty learning communities became a new approach to faculty development and were structures that supported faculty engagement in SoTL (Boyer, 2016). Faculty learning communities established networks for teachers and those engaging in andragogy, promoted interdisciplinary coursework, and brought community to higher education (Cox, 2004). Cox (2004) defined a faculty learning community as an interdisciplinary group of eight to twelve faculty and staff who engaged in a collaborative curricular program that focused on improving teaching and learning through seminars and activities on learning, the scholarship of teaching, and community development. Faculty development programs facilitated an environment that empowered faculty to continue to improve educational quality and effectiveness through workshops and seminars, observation and feedback, individual consultations, peer coaching, university orientations, and educational publications (Sorcinelli, Austin, Eddy, & Beach, 2005).

One method of addressing the deficiency in faculty preparation in educational theory and methodology used faculty development programs that were grounded in research on adult learning (Robinson & Hope, 2013). While it would be reasonable to assume the overall quality of teaching in higher education improved with these programs, in reality, little changed. If
professors wish to receive tenure, more time must focus on research and publishing and less time must focus on updating knowledge and skills for teaching adult learners (Robinson & Hope, 2013).

Given doctoral students' lack of preparation to teach in higher education, the most compelling time to prepare future faculty members to teach is during their master's and doctoral degree programs, just as pre-K-12 teachers are taught to teach before entering the classroom (Cross, 1990). Faculty development workshops throughout a faculty member's career may enhance the teaching foundations instituted in graduate school. Inadequate faculty preparation, poor student learning outcomes, and ineffective communication are some of the problems that will occur because of the lack of knowledge and skill in teaching adult learners (Chism, Lees, & Evenbeck, 2002). Earning a master's or doctoral degree is considered the official qualification for teaching at the college level, but with regard to teaching preparation in higher education, graduate curricula has remained stagnant over the years (Robinson & Hope, 2013). In order to support faculty in their development as teachers, one must consider how faculty learn (Chism, 2004). Non-teacher education graduate degree programs typically do not require the study of andragogy to prepare students for higher education teaching, and graduate students preparing for a career in higher education are not currently required to study instructional theory and methodology for use in higher education (Robinson & Hope, 2013).

The first large-scale study on faculty development was performed by Centra in 1976 and focused on identifying effective faculty development activities and services. Effective methods included sabbaticals, instructional assistance programs and workshops, grants, and assessment techniques (Sorcinelli et al., 2005). A common finding within the faculty development literature that faculty are lacking is pedagogical training and basic skills in course design, syllabus
development, student advising, and committee service (Austin, 2002; Sorcinelli et al., 2005).

One of the oldest forms of faculty development was instituted at Harvard in 1810 and entailed the use of the sabbatical to further develop faculty as scholars (Gillespie et al., 2010). Faculty development began to increase in the 1950s and 1960s and came to a head with the student rights movement, as students demanded more control over their learning (Gillespie et al., 2010).

The evolution of faculty development encountered five stages, or “ages,” that included the age of the scholar, teacher, developer, learner, and networker (Gillespie et al., 2010). During the age of the scholar, faculty development focused on improving scholarly competence and expertise in research and publications. The age of the teacher saw a focus on teaching effectiveness and the realization that faculty need to be better prepared to teach. The age of the developer saw the formation of faculty development units on campuses, and the age of the learner focused on instructional development for student learning strategies. The age of the networker focused on improving faculty development methods based on the changing needs of society (Gillespie et al., 2010). The scope of faculty work traditionally involved research, teaching, and service, but over the years, faculty needs and values changed as many faculty pursued a better work-life balance, became parents or began taking care of aging parents, or were dual-career couples (Gillespie et al., 2010). Additionally, faculty face many issues, including role balance, engaging in student-centered learning, assessing student outcomes, and teaching unprepared or unmotivated students (Sorcinelli et al., 2005).

Faculty development includes any assistance to faculty that helps them fulfill their roles as teacher, content expert, researcher, leader, and team member (D’Eon, Overgaard, & Harding, 2000). Faculty development emerged out of a need to address a deficiency in faculty preparation in educational theory and methodology, to alleviate concerns of parents and legislators regarding
the use of funding and outcomes, and to assure students they could experience an optimal teaching and learning environment (Ouellett, 2010; Robinson & Hope, 2013). Faculty developers used research on adult learning and college teaching to provide faculty with important instructional knowledge and skills, in addition to maintaining professional development (Ouellett, 2010).

Changes in the expectations of faculty regarding approaches to teaching, learning, and research contributed to the scope of faculty development, and showed that the belief that the better your research, the better your teaching, is not necessarily true for everyone (Ouellett, 2010). The application of adult development, educational psychology, and learning theories to faculty development facilitated different strategies of promoting the professional growth and development of faculty (Ouellett, 2010). However, these strategies must also adapt to changing needs and values of faculty over time (Ouellett, 2010).

Sorcinelli et al. (2005) identified five challenges that faculty and higher education institutions face: balancing faculty roles, assessing teaching and learning, implementing technology, understanding and meeting part-time faculty needs, and developing interdisciplinary leadership. Faculty development should not be an isolated event, but an ongoing discipline in which faculty spend time questioning and improving the purpose of teaching, research, and service (D’Eon et al., 2000). Mitcham and Gillette (1999) recommended that clinical programs adopt a more systematic approach to planning and organizing faculty development programs, not only for clinicians new to higher education, but also for faculty members prior to and throughout their academic careers.

An improvement in graduate education is an emphasis on the scholarship of teaching and learning, which also emphasizes mentoring to promote pedagogical concepts as part of the
formal and informal education process of graduate students (Robinson & Hope, 2013). Graduate students cannot solely rely on strong research skills to succeed in higher education; they must also be effective teachers. Given graduate students’ lack of preparation to teach in higher education, the logical time to prepare future faculty to teach is during their graduate degree programs and is enhanced by faculty development workshops once they take on their first faculty role (Robinson & Hope, 2013).

**Theoretical Framework**

Theoretical work on socialization may come from three perspectives: the individual’s experience, the organization’s effort, and the shared interests of the individual and the organization (Korte, 2007). The present research study focuses on transformative learning within the context of socialization of faculty. Transformative learning involves changing one's frame of reference, allowing for a different understanding of experiences (Mezirow, 1997). By definition, transformative learning is learning that changes difficult frames of reference or points of view to make them more consistent and accurate for guiding actions, understanding, and thoughts (Mezirow, 1997). Transformative learning occurs when individuals encounter disorienting events that disrupt their traditional beliefs and leads them to consider the views of others (Mezirow, 1997). This learning experience transforms one into being more open and critically reflective and inclusive of other's perspectives and changes one's thinking and perspective (Cranton, 2002; Mezirow, 1997), allowing one to become more inclusive and self-reflective of experiences (Mezirow, 1997). It also offers a framework for both understanding adult learning and guiding the teaching of adults within the context of andragogy rather than pedagogy (Taylor, 2000).
Mezirow introduced the concept of transformative learning in the 1970s after his wife returned to college to complete her undergraduate studies (Mezirow, 2009). Her experiences and change in career and lifestyle influenced his research on female students who returned to college to continue their education after an extended break. Mezirow identified “perspective transformation as the central learning process occurring in personal development" in which the college women became "critically aware of the context … of their beliefs and feelings …" such that "… the women could effect a change in the way they had tacitly structured their assumptions and expectations" (Mezirow, 2009, p. xii). Taylor and Cranton (2012) explained that the phases of transformative learning entail experiencing an event that confuses the sense of self within a familiar role, leading to reflection and self-reflection. Reflection and self-reflection cause individuals to critically evaluate personal ideas and feelings regarding accepted role expectations and recognize mutual problems associated with others' dissatisfaction with similar experiences. This critical evaluation leads to identifying new behaviors that build personal confidence and competence and to the development of the skills needed to implement and assess these new behaviors. The end result of this process is the incorporation of these new behaviors with a new perspective of the initial disorienting event (Taylor & Cranton, 2012).

The findings from Mezirow’s study resulted in 10 transformative learning phases summarized in Figure 1: a disorienting dilemma; self-examination; critical assessment of assumptions; recognition of a connection between one’s discontent and the process of transformation; exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and action; planning a course of action; obtaining knowledge and skills to implement one’s plan; temporary trying of new roles; constructing proficiency and self-confidence in new roles and relationships; and a reintegration into one’s life on the basis of conditions dictated by one’s new perspective.
Mezirow (2009). Mezirow (1997) summarized transformative learning as a process that “… involves transforming frames of reference through critical reflection of assumptions, validating contested beliefs through discourse, taking action on one’s reflective insight, and critically assessing it” (p. 11).

Figure 1: Transformative Learning Sequence

A key concept within the transformative learning literature is frame of reference. Frame of reference is an operational filter, such as rules and criteria, that helps individuals make meaning out of an experience through habits of mind and points of view that influence their actions (Mezirow, 2009). These frames of reference are transformed through critical reflection, discourse, and dialogue with self and others, resulting in the transformation of meaning patterns and perspectives (Mezirow, 1991).

Transformative learning is unique to the adult learner in that it requires educational practices that are different from those commonly associated with child learners (Mezirow, 1997).
Mezirow (1997) explained that for the learning of new information to be meaningful, the adult learner must incorporate the information into a frame of reference that is already well-developed, whereas children’s frames of references and assumptions are likely still forming. Even adult learners need help transforming their frames of reference so that they may independently think and critically negotiate their values, understandings, and attitudes (Mezirow, 1997).

Mezirow (1991) claimed that there was a gap between adult learning theories and the practices that adult educators use. Some practitioners rely on their own learning experiences, which are often in conflict with what is known about how adults learn, whereas others may look to psychology and various adult learning theories to inform and support their educational approaches. Mezirow (1991) stated that the missing element in psychological theories was how adult learners make sense of their experiences, which in his opinion, was addressed by transformative learning, since meaning is fundamental to this adult education theory.

Transformative learning is an appropriate framework for examining the learning experiences of faculty during formal professional development programs and is appropriate for this study as it supports a holistic view of faculty members as adult learners. Furthermore, use of this theory aids in the understanding of how new faculty learn and transform their beliefs and practices as they go through socialization and faculty development programs. Faculty members’ experiences of and critical reflections about socialization and faculty development experiences are fundamental to transformative learning.

Transformative learning is not without its critics. Taylor and Cranton (2012) recognized that many conflicts surrounding the theory relate to differences in viewpoints, degree of emphasis, focus of learning, and perceptions of knowing. They encouraged researchers to
question transformative learning theory and to examine the relationships between the various perspectives within the theory (Taylor & Cranton, 2012).

**Conclusion**

The primary focus of this study was to understand the experiences of faculty during doctoral and organizational socialization into higher education as they gain role inductance, and to understand the doctoral and organizational needs of clinically trained and academically trained faculty as they enter higher education. Although many institutions offer faculty development services, new faculty may be too overwhelmed by information provided during orientation and while trying to prepare for their teaching, service, and research roles to pursue and engage in any of those services. Such an understanding of doctoral and organizational experiences will facilitate a better comprehension of the doctoral and organizational socialization needs of new faculty.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Overview

The purpose of this study was to gain a retrospective understanding of the role inductance for faculty members in higher education, to better understand the professional and organizational socialization processes that faculty experience as they enter their first job in higher education, and to learn the needs of faculty as they gain role induction. This study specifically focused on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from clinically based and academically based doctoral programs.

Role induction is the orientation, or beginning experiences, that help one become familiar with and knowledgeable about a new job or position – in this case, a new faculty member at a higher educational institution (Lichty & Stewart, 2000). Successful role induction is important for a faculty member, as it indicates assimilation to the role and may reduce the stress and overload that accompany the transition into a new role. Because transition and role inductance are founded on professional and organizational socialization processes (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993), past and current experiences are important to understanding socialization processes. This study specifically focused on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from both clinically based and academically based doctoral programs. Specifically, the research questions were:

1. Do faculty experience transformative learning in their socialization as faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs? If so, how? If not, why not?

2. What forms and sources of institutional support of socialization do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs receive?
3. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs feel their doctoral education helped them form a professional identity that allowed them to succeed in their faculty role? If so, how? If not, why not?

4. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education perceive any barriers and facilitators to their professional or organizational socialization experiences? If so, how? If not, why not?

**Research Design**

As proposed by Mezirow, "to understand communicative learning, qualitative research methods are often more appropriate" (Mezirow, 2003, p. 59). Qualitative research is used to understand context by highlighting the stories of the participants and to examine individuals' experiences from their perspectives to provide meaning to a problem (Creswell, 2009, 2013; Johnson & Christensen, 2010). Research studies that use the lens of transformative learning theory are predominantly performed through qualitative methods (Yoon & Kim, 2010) or mixed-method approaches (Kreber, 2005). King (2009) asserted that a deeper understanding of the success of transformative learning comes from the stories of adult learners, and based on this need for a deeper understanding of doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of new faculty, the transformative learning theory framed this research (Mezirow, 1990, 2000, 2009).

Based on the desire to explore faculty perceptions and experiences regarding their socialization experiences, the researcher implemented a qualitative research design and phenomenological multiple case study approach (Creswell, 2013). Qualitative research requires the creation of emerging questions and procedures, the collection of in-depth data, and the analysis of data in order to make meaning of it (Creswell, 2009). According to Marshall and
Rossman (2011), qualitative research is "pragmatic, interpretative, and grounded in the lived experiences of the people" (p. 2). Qualitative research is descriptive and inductive in nature and emphasizes the understanding of behaviors through the analysis and interpretation of experiences (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009).

**Phenomenology.** Phenomenology studies personal experiences of a specific phenomena with the purpose of understanding the meaning of those experiences within their context and natural settings (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002; Polit & Beck, 2012). This method of inquiry aspires to understand the meaning and essence of the phenomenon, resulting from the descriptions of those who have shared that common experience (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002; Polit & Beck, 2012).

Phenomenology addresses how people make sense of and describe a particular phenomenon based on the notion that personal life experiences can give meaning to a phenomenon (Johnson & Christensen, 2010; Patton, 2002). In phenomenology, the researcher is the instrument and interpreter of the research data (Moustakas, 1994). With these dual roles, it is essential that the researcher identifies his or her own biases and understands the need to separate experiences from their context (Moustakas, 1994).

Phenomenology produces rich thematic descriptions, which provide insight into the meaning of the experience, and are typically written as thematic stories (Moustakas, 1994; Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). These stories allow the reader to gain an awareness of what it is like to have the experience (Moustakas, 1994; Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). Since this research study focused on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of clinical and academic faculty, a phenomenological approach was appropriate to use.
Multiple case study approach. A multiple case study approach examines each case within the study individually over time, as well as the entire group of cases as a combined unit and focuses on providing an in-depth description of multiple cases to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2010; Stake, 2005). This type of research design expands upon single case studies, but the research question centers on comprehending, describing, or evaluating the phenomenon under investigation from the group experience rather than that of the individual cases (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2015).

Yin (2003) claimed that a case study design is appropriate for exploratory research questions regarding a unit of analysis that intends to answer what, how, and why, and that multiple case study designs are more compelling and robust than single case study designs. A crucial facet of multiple case studies recognizes the phenomenon that connects the individual cases together (Stake, 2005). A multiple case study design was appropriate for this study to examine the phenomenon of socialization of new faculty within higher education and to compare and contrast various faculty socialization experiences based on whether the participants were clinically or academically trained. Additionally, a multiple case study approach is appropriate for exploratory research questions, which was reflective of this research study. A case study design allowed the researcher to understand “how” new faculty socialized into their faculty role in higher education, as well as to understand if contextual differences existed between disciplines within higher education (Yin, 2003).

The present research study is a multiple case study of faculty within different educational programs at a single institution regarding their doctoral and organizational socialization experiences as they prepared for and entered higher education as faculty. The concept binding the cases together was the process of socialization, which was facilitated through reflection and
dialogue with the researcher (Yin, 2003). The unit of analysis for each case study was the
doctoral and organizational socialization processes and experiences of new faculty to their
faculty roles at a higher education institution.

**Setting and Participants**

**Sample.** Patton (2002) stated that there are no rules regarding sample size in qualitative research, but qualitative research typically uses small sample sizes; therefore, an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon can occur. Morse (2000) explained that qualitative research sample sizes depend on five elements: the scope of the study, the nature of the topic, the quality of the data, the study design, and the use of shadowed data. Merriam (2009) claimed that the goal is to select a sample size that will answer the research questions and reflect the purpose statement. Stake (2005) recommended that the total number of participants to use for multiple case studies be between four and ten, while Creswell (2013) recommended up to a total of 10 participants. According to Starks and Brown-Trinidad (2007), while a larger sample size may provide a more comprehensive range of understanding of a phenomenon, data obtained from eight to ten individuals who have experienced the phenomenon and who can deliver a thorough description of their experiences should provide enough information to expose the core elements of the experience.

Primary participants were identified through purposive sampling from a research-based university that met the inclusion criteria for the research study. Per Creswell (2013), Starks and Brown-Trinidad (2007), and Yin (2003), it is essential that all participants in a phenomenological study have experienced the phenomenon under investigation. The sample groups, therefore, were as homogeneous as possible to allow the researcher to explore a phenomenon shared by a specific group (Clarke, 2009). Data recruitment was on-going until saturation was reached.
Snowball sampling, sometimes referred to as chain or referral sampling, is a method by which initial sample respondents recruit or recommend other individuals who may have similar characteristics or experiences beneficial to the research phenomena (Creswell, 2003; Noy, 2008). Snowball sampling may also obtain data from individuals and groups who may be difficult to reach without the proper connections (Goodman, 2011). Participants who are referred by a reliable source are more likely to participate in a research study as well as deem the researcher to be trustworthy or responsible (Sadler, Lee, Lim, & Fullerton, 2010). This sampling process may continue until the researcher has obtained a suitable amount of participants or has gathered a substantial amount of data (Noy, 2008).

Snowball sampling was an appropriate method for this research study because of the nature of the topic and the criteria for a participant in this research study. The researcher initially obtained a base sample by recruiting participants through each program's webpage, and because it was unknown when each webpage was last updated, the initial respondents were asked to refer other potential participants within their programs who were not listed on their webpage to participate in this research study.

A common criticism of phenomenology is the frequent lack of randomness in participant selection (Hycner, 1985). On the other hand, Hycner (1985) revealed that often it is necessary for the researcher to seek out specific participants who have experienced the phenomena being investigated, and who are able to communicate about their experience. Choosing specific participants was essential for this study to understand the professional and organizational phenomena of each (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Therefore, randomness may have prevented an exhaustive exploration of the phenomena (Hycner, 1985).

Each participant’s demographic information was examined first to confirm that they fit
the research study’s selection criteria. The selection criteria included: (a) holding a full-time faculty position that will lead to tenure or renewable contract, (b) having completed at least one year but no more than ten years in their role as a faculty member, (c) having earned a terminal degree within their profession (Ph.D., Ed.D., DAT, or DPT), and (d) holding a faculty appointment in an education, athletic training, physical therapy, or exercise science educational programs. The rationale for the second criterion was that role induction may take up to 10 years, followed by role continuance during which no new learning occurs (Pitney, 2002, 2010). Additionally, this allowed for triangulation of the perspectives of those who, at the time of the research study, were earning tenure and held tenure.

The faculty were from the fields of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education, as there was a lack of research comparing socialization experiences and role induction of clinically trained faculty with academically trained faculty. Faculty were recruited from a large, public, research university in the Midwest that enrolls more than 50,000 undergraduate and graduate students. The university is a land grant institution that houses several schools and colleges and offers a wide variety of graduate degrees. During the 2016-2017 academic year, the university granted nearly 400 doctorate degrees. This university was specifically selected because the researcher did not want any conflicts from using her own institution and department. Because of this, a parallel institution to the researcher’s own institution that housed all four academic programs of interest was used.

**Communication with participants.** Upon securing permission to proceed with the study from the University of Central Florida’s Institutional Review Board, the researcher telephoned the Institutional Review Board of the institution of the faculty being studied and was informed that IRB approval was not needed from this institution to conduct this research study.
Immediately after, an email was sent to faculty of each of the four programs containing a request for participation in the study, along with the inclusion criteria for participants. The faculty receiving the recruitment email were selected based on the faculty contact information listed on their program's webpage. The email (Appendix A) included the consent form (Appendix B) and an invitation for faculty to participate in the study (Appendix C). Within two weeks of sending out an initial email to potential participants, 14 individuals responded. Two faculty did not meet the inclusion criteria due to having more than 10 years of full-time faculty experience, and another two faculty did not qualify because they were adjunct faculty. The two full-time faculty who did not qualify for the research study stated they were interested in knowing the findings of the research study once it was completed. Ten faculty completed the demographic survey, and eight of them participated in the interview process. The other two expressed interest but had extensive scheduling conflicts.

**Data Collection Procedures and Interviews**

To obtain the participants’ stories and understand their experiences and the meaning they make of their experiences, interviews are the primary method of data collection used in phenomenological studies (Seidman, 2013; Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). Interviewers use primarily open-ended, probing questions that encourage participants to elaborate on details to give clarity concerning their experiences (Seidman, 2013; Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). A major task of the interviewer is to build upon and explore the participants’ responses, with the goal of facilitating participants’ reconstructions of their experiences (Seidman, 2013). In this study, the researcher used highly-structured, one-on-one interviews with open-ended questions to keep the dialogue close to the researcher’s prompts.
Instrumentation. Interview and questionnaire protocols were created based on the literature regarding faculty socialization issues related to doctoral experiences and institutional socialization processes, as well as the focus of the research questions. The pre-interview questionnaire was administered through Qualtrics to those who met the inclusionary criteria. The invitation to participate in the research study was sent via email and also included the link to the questionnaire. The questionnaire collected demographic and educational background information related to doctoral and institutional socialization processes and experiences.

A pilot study was conducted using two expert qualitative research faculty members within the areas of professional and organizational socialization in athletic training to test whether the questionnaire and interview protocols would assist in obtaining rich findings. After completing the pilot questionnaire and interview, expert researchers provided feedback regarding the effectiveness of the questionnaire and interview protocol in eliciting responses which would address the research questions. Based on the pilot study, it was determined that the questionnaire could be completed in 15 minutes or less and the interview within 45 to 60 minutes. The interview protocol specifically addressed socialization experiences with a series of open-ended questions regarding the participants' doctoral and organizational socialization and preparation processes. Following the pilot study, minor changes were made to the questionnaire and interview protocol. Appendix D and E include the complete interview protocol.

Interview protocol. One highly structured phone interview with each participant was completed in the fall of 2017, lasting approximately 45 to 60 minutes and focusing on the areas of initial career development, doctoral and organizational socialization, and perception of transition into role. This format allowed participants to discuss and reflect upon aspects of their socialization experiences as they related to their introduction and preparation for their faculty
role. Participants were asked to select a communication format (telephone, Skype, FaceTime) and a time that worked best for them to complete the interview. Each participant selected telephone format for the interview. The interview session enabled the researcher to ask pre-designed questions to ensure consistency between interviews and provided the flexibility for discourse to gain valuable data (Creswell, 2013).

At the beginning of the interview session, the researcher asked each participant if they verbally consented to participate in the interview process. The consent directions advised all participants that they were not required to participate in the study and could opt out at any time. Once the consent form had been reviewed and a participant verbally agreed to participate, the interview formally began. None of the participants had questions regarding the consent process.

To facilitate accuracy in transcription of each interview, a digital audio recorder was used along with a cell phone recording as a backup (Creswell, 2013). The researcher conducted each of the telephone interviews personally in her office with the door closed for privacy. Rubin and Rubin (2005) described the use of main questions, follow-up questions, and probing questions when preparing and conducting an interview. Additionally, to gather data from a direction which may have been overlooked by the researcher, a closing question inquired about experiences that either facilitated or hindered each participant’s socialization into higher education.

**Data Analysis**

To perform qualitative data analysis, the researcher must spend time describing the context, developing chronological themes, and then grounding the data in the literature through the use of figures, tables, and discussion (Creswell, 2013). According to Miles and Huberman (1994), qualitative data analysis uses data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing to decipher and interpret the information gained from the research. Data reduction is the process of
selecting, summarizing, and transforming data from written notes and transcriptions. Data display allows for conclusions to be drawn from the data based on an organized and condensed compilation of the information gained from data reduction. To draw conclusions, the researcher must interpret the information’s meaning with a continued verification regarding the validity of the results (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

This research study incorporated a combination of data analysis procedures to allow for a comprehensive analysis of the phenomena of professional and organizational socialization. Moustakas’ (1994) transcendental phenomenological approach was the paradigm used to guide the data analysis process in this research. In order to understand the experiences of the participants, this method required the researcher to set aside her own biases and experiences with the phenomena being studied. Since it was found to be reliable and practical, particularly regarding the aim of understanding perceptions and experiences of the participants (Creswell, 2009; Sanders, 2003), the researcher selected a modified version of the Colaizzi (1978) method to use for data analysis.

After the completion of each interview, the audio recordings were electronically sent to a professional transcriber for transcription and were then returned by e-mail to the researcher. The recordings were stored on a password-protected computer. To assure anonymity, pseudonyms were used for the institution as well as for the individual participants. The transcriptions were reviewed verbatim, with attentiveness paid to the accuracy of the conversation.

To gain a sense of each participant’s description of their experiences with success, the researcher listened to each of the audio recordings at least twice, and then read and re-read the transcripts to identify and highlight the participants’ experiences of professional and organizational socialization. Colaizzi (1978) recommended that the researcher read the
participants’ narratives to acquire a feeling for the ideas they communicated. Before detailed analysis, this process resulted in the researcher holistically reviewing the interviews four to six times.

Based on qualitative research practices to ensure the validity of data, the researcher also involved the participants at this stage of the process with the purpose of verifying the accuracy of the transcriptions. Through the use of member checking, each participant had the opportunity to review their transcribed interview and provide any feedback they felt necessary. Member checking entails providing participants with the opportunity to review the transcriptions and findings for credibility (Creswell, 2013). All participants felt their transcripts accurately represented what they said during the interviews and were true to their socialization experiences.

Applying the Colaizzi (1978) method required the extraction of significant phrases and statements from transcripts that form a comprehensive meaning of the participants' professional and organizational socialization experiences. The researcher analyzed each transcript and identified key statements that conveyed the story of the participants' experiences. To facilitate the coding process, each of these statements was highlighted on the transcripts.

Preliminary groupings were then generated from each statement and transferred to a separate sheet of paper, as well as placed on sticky notes posted on a wall for better visualization of the process by the researcher. In order to reinforce the bracketing process, thoughts and feelings that arose during this process were also reflected upon in a researcher's journal. More than 100 significant statements and phrases were extracted from the transcripts. To assist with the validity and trustworthiness of the data (Sutton & Austin, 2015), an additional qualitative researcher provided an independent analysis using the same coding process as the researcher. The researcher provided the second researcher with all of the transcripts and the second
researcher identified significant statements that merited follow-up. In order to further explain and document the detailed process, photos are provided in Appendix F.

Colaizzi (1978) recommended that the researcher attempt to formulate general meanings from the extracted statements. During this process, it was important for the researcher to bracket any assumptions she had about the participants and their stories. Once such assumptions were identified, the researcher proceeded to examine each statement that related to professional and organizational socialization. In the same manner, all other research sub-questions were carefully studied to determine meaning.

Once all of the extracted statements were categorized, they were then arranged into clusters of themes. Theming refers to the classification of codes from one or more transcripts to present the research findings in a clear and insightful way to provide an understanding of each case under investigation (Sutton & Austin, 2015). Underneath each theme were the codes, examples from the transcripts, and the researcher's interpretation of what the themes mean (Sutton & Austin, 2015).

Because the overall aim of qualitative analysis is to organize, synthesize, provide structure, and elicit meaning from research data, the underlying theoretical framework of transformative learning was used to create codes, and then group them into categories to derive the main themes during the data analysis process (Table 1). The final presentation of findings included only themes representing at least 50% of all participants (Creswell, 2009, 2013). This multi-stage process of analysis enabled the researcher to understand the experience from the participants’ perspectives (Sutton & Austin, 2015).
Table 1: Research Questions, Focus, Interview Questions, and Method of Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Interview question</th>
<th>Method of analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Transformative learning</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>Descriptive coding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Institutional support</td>
<td>9-16</td>
<td>Iterative coding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Doctoral preparation</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>Iterative coding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Barriers and facilitators</td>
<td>22-27</td>
<td>Iterative coding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As suggested by Saldana (2011), after performing two to four cycles of coding for each transcript, the researcher examined each final code to determine its distinctive characteristics. By inspecting data for patterns among codes, the researcher included related codes into the same category. Categories were refined through several iterations throughout the analysis process. Examining the frequency with which codes within a category occurred established the importance of each category. Each category was examined for internal consistency and distinctness from other categories. To establish credibility of coding, another qualitative researcher coded the same transcript and then discussed any similarities and differences in the two sets of codes (Sutton & Austin, 2015).

Interpretive analysis is an inductive process of decontextualization and recontextualization (Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). Decontextualization involves separating the data from the original context of individual cases and assigning codes of meaning in the texts. Recontextualization involves examining the codes for patterns, then reducing the data around central themes across all the cases from which a final analysis may be performed (Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). According to van Manen (1990), the process of writing and rewriting is what extracts meaning from the data. To generate an analysis that directly answers the
research questions, the research questions shaped the coding process and influenced by the underlying theoretical framework of the study and best practices for trustworthiness and validity in qualitative research.

This process of coding, categorizing, and developing themes was repeated for each unit and set of data and was performed by the additional qualitative researcher as well. The researchers did not communicate about the process during the coding procedure to protect the reliability of the process and provide for independent analyses. Once all data were coded, the researchers convened and collectively decided on the theme clusters and final theme selections. It is important to note that the researcher practiced coding on the pilot study transcripts and was taught how to code by the qualitative researcher who participated in the coding process for this research study. The initial inter-rater reliability score for the pilot study was between 60-70 percent. After training, inter-rater reliability was around 85 percent, and during the final four coding processes, rose to nearly 100 percent. This high percentage may be due to the researcher being trained by the additional qualitative researcher participating in the coding process for this study, although every effort was made to put aside any biases during the analyses.

Among all extracted statements, there were ten over-arching themes of the phenomenon of professional and organizational socialization. Eight themes were common to both clinically trained and academically trained faculty, one theme was specific to clinically trained faculty, and one theme was specific to academically trained faculty. The final ten themes and theme clusters are listed in Table 2.

It is important to note Colaizzi’s (1978) suggestion that the final stage of data analysis should involve interviewing participants a second time. The design of this research study was to complete one round of telephone interviews at the onset of the research study and to use the
information obtained from each interview to extract and identify meaning to the experiences, so this portion of the data analysis was not performed. In the end, using a modified version of the Colaizzi (1978) method combined with the Moustakas (1994) approach provided a sound data analysis process. Having two researchers analyze the data and construct themes, and incorporating participants’ feedback on the initial data analysis, produced more meaningful and trustworthy data.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Emergent Theme</strong></th>
<th><strong>Theme Cluster</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Awareness</td>
<td>Validation and acceptance&lt;br&gt;Unfamiliar feelings&lt;br&gt;Personal reflection&lt;br&gt;Credibility&lt;br&gt;Professional limitations&lt;br&gt;Role management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinician to Academic</td>
<td>Sense of belonging&lt;br&gt;Professional identity struggles&lt;br&gt;Professional competence&lt;br&gt;Self-Confidence&lt;br&gt;Wanting acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to Be Academic</td>
<td>Validation as faculty&lt;br&gt;Student frame of mind&lt;br&gt;Professional identity struggles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>Role-transition difficulties&lt;br&gt;Lack of structured mentoring process&lt;br&gt;Time conflicts&lt;br&gt;Personal mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>Not specific to faculty&lt;br&gt;Structured to HR&lt;br&gt;Formal process for all new employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Preparation</td>
<td>Doctoral student research mentor&lt;br&gt;Doctoral student research experience&lt;br&gt;Start own research agenda&lt;br&gt;Prepared to become a researcher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Andragogy</td>
<td>Learn on the job&lt;br&gt;No formal training&lt;br&gt;Clinical preceptor experience&lt;br&gt;Asked around</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Student Experience</td>
<td>Inadequate preparation for faculty responsibilities&lt;br&gt;Research focus&lt;br&gt;Lack of exposure to faculty roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Balancing</td>
<td>Time management struggles&lt;br&gt;Not enough time in the day&lt;br&gt;No work-life balance&lt;br&gt;Overwhelmed with roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn As You Go</td>
<td>Disorganized organizational socialization&lt;br&gt;Clinical expert not faculty expert&lt;br&gt;Incorrect job expectations&lt;br&gt;Teaching only involved classroom&lt;br&gt;Inadequate doctoral preparation for roles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data and researcher credibility. Credibility is the degree to which the phenomenon described is the experience of the participants (Creswell, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Seidman, 2013), and refers to how an audience trusts the objective and subjective elements of a study (Patton, 2002). Credibility in the integrity of data ensures that the study accurately collects, analyzes, and represents the data, which is essential to the research study and the study's validity (Polit & Beck, 2012). Creswell (2013) recommended qualitative researchers engage in at least two credibility procedures – such as triangulation, writing with a detailed and thick description, or member checking – as they are the most popular, easiest to conduct, and the most cost-effective. The researcher's lens and assumptions determined the procedure chosen (Creswell & Miller, 2000). The researcher's lens refers to the viewpoint the researcher used to establish credibility in a study, and included the lens of the researcher, the lens of the participants, and the lens of external reviewers (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

By its very nature, qualitative analysis is subjective because the researcher is the instrument for analysis (Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007). However, “researcher as instrument” is also a strength of qualitative research as it provides an opportunity for an in-depth examination of participant’s experiences. Two types of threats to credibility in qualitative studies are researcher bias and the effect of the research on the setting or participants, generally known as reactivity (Maxwell, 2004). From the onset in this study, clarifying researcher bias was important to understand the researcher’s position and any biases or assumptions that impacted inquiry (Creswell, 2007). Even as the researcher immersed herself in the data, she recognized and set aside her pre-existing knowledge and assumptions and attended to the participants’ accounts of the experience with an open mind (Starks & Brown-Trinidad, 2007; van Manen, 1990). This process was supported and documented in the practice of recording such points in
the researcher’s journal. In a phenomenological approach, the participants’ expressions are to be accepted and valued (Creswell, 2007). Bracketing, or suspending one’s natural beliefs, was performed to understand the fundamental components of the experiences without bias (Creswell, 2007). Recognizing assumptions that influenced participants aided the researcher in objectively understanding the experiences and viewpoints of the participants (LeVasseur, 2003).

A primary method that was used in this research study for assessing the accuracy of the findings of the participants’ experiences was member checking (Creswell, 2007; Maxwell, 2004; Miles & Huberman, 1994), which decreased the possibility for researcher bias regarding observations and interpretations (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Another method used to establish credibility was triangulation. The researcher verified evidence from different sources to shed light on a theme or perspective (Creswell, 2007; Maxwell, 2004).

Peer review provided an external assessment of the research process, much in the same manner as inter-rater reliability in quantitative research (Creswell, 2007). The role of the peer review was to challenge methods, meanings, and interpretations, and the peer review provided the researcher with the opportunity to talk about her feelings in the process; such discussions further bracketed her assumptions (Creswell, 2007).

In the end, participant member checks, triangulation of data, and peer review were performed to provide multiple data sources for credibility of the interpretations and conclusions of the study (Creswell, 2007; Maxwell, 2004). Together these research strategies provided a strong foundation for the analyses of the study.

**Validity.** According to Polkinghorne (1989), a phenomenological study must be well grounded to be valid. Polkinghorne (1989) recommended five areas for the researcher to address to establish validity. First, the researcher must not influence the participant’s descriptions of their
experiences. In this study, interviews incorporated broad, open-ended questions regarding a
description of experiences. Next, since the transcription must be accurate and convey the
meaning from the interview, the researcher hired a professional transcriptionist to transcribe the
interviews. To ensure accurate transcription and reliability of the data, the researcher replayed
all audio recordings while reading the completed transcriptions to ensure they did not contain
any obvious mistakes possibly made during transcription (Creswell, 2013). Third, during
analysis of the transcriptions, the data was examined for possible alternative assumptions.
Fourth, a grid was used to link the general structure and key components back to the original
statements of the participants. And finally, the structural description was specific to the situation
of the participant's experience (Polkinghorne, 1989). Furthermore, to increase the reliability of
the data, the researcher documented the coding process and meaning of the codes between the
additional researcher and herself to make sure there was not a change in the inference of the
codes during the coding analysis (Creswell, 2013).

Stake (2005) suggested that multiple case studies are very complex and need to be
performed by one person, especially in the case of dissertation research. Nevertheless, because
qualitative methodology is interpretative research involving the researcher in a continuous and
intensive experience with the participants, it may present strategic, ethical, and personal issues
within the research process (Creswell, 2009). Having these concerns in mind, it was essential for
the validity of this study to clearly identify the researcher’s biases, values, and personal
background that could influence interpretations formed during this study.
CHAPTER FOUR: PORTRAYAL OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The purpose of this chapter is to provide background information regarding the participants in this study and their journeys from graduate school to their first full-time faculty positions. The information provided is based on demographic data and personal quotes provided by the participants regarding their experiences. The reason for presenting this information is to provide an illustrative context for the reader as a basis for better understanding the participants and their voices in the next chapter.

Participant Profiles

In total, there were eight participants in this study who completed a demographic, professional, and organizational socialization survey followed by a telephone interview. Table 3 provides a synopsis of the study participants, including their appropriate pseudonyms, the number of years they have been full-time faculty members, the number of years since earning their doctorates, their faculty disciplines, the academic area of their doctorate degrees, and the number of years they have worked at their current institutions. Each of the participants was employed as full-time faculty within his or her profession at the same institution, but each completed his or her graduate studies at different institutions, with about half of the participants accepted their first full-time faculty positions at different institutions within the United States.

All participants met the study criteria of holding full-time faculty positions in which they were either tenured or were in positions leading to tenure or under renewable contracts. Each had completed at least one year, but no more than 10 years, in their roles as full-time faculty members, and each had earned a terminal degree within their profession. All were faculty within
athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, or education program at the same institution
during the time of this study.

Table 3:
Participant Profiles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant pseudonym</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Discipline of study</th>
<th>Doctorate degree</th>
<th>Years since doctorate</th>
<th>Years as full-time faculty</th>
<th>Years of professional experience</th>
<th>Years at current institution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dan</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>PT</td>
<td>DPT</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kate</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>PT</td>
<td>DPT</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erin</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>AT</td>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greg</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>AT</td>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lisa</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Exercise science</td>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matt</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Exercise science</td>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Dan.** Dan earned his Doctor in Physical Therapy and completed a dissertation and four
clinical experience internships during his doctorate program. He had no research or teaching
assistant positions outside of the research required for his dissertation when he became a full-
time faculty member. Prior to taking on a faculty role, he worked clinically as a physical
therapist for 11 years, and it was during this period of serving as a clinical preceptor to physical
therapy students that Dan developed an interest in possibly pursuing a faculty position within a
DPT program. Dan stated:

I realized I had a passion for teaching and working with students when I was a clinical
preceptor for physical therapy students at the clinic I was employed at. I loved
interacting with the students and enjoyed seeing them grow both personally and
professionally. The days I worked in the clinic with students did not feel like work at all.
(Transcript 1, Pages 1-2, Lines 23-27)
While he did not know what being a faculty member entailed, Dan said his mentor from his doctorate program encouraged him to pursue a faculty position based on his love of working with students:

I graduated with my doctorate in physical therapy and had been working as a physical therapist for thirteen years before I considered applying for a faculty position. I was interested in becoming a faculty member after my mentor from my doctorate program encouraged me to look into a faculty position because I loved working with students. Because of his encouragement and based on his recommendation, I applied for a faculty position within a physical therapy program at a university near where I was living and have since been working as a full-time faculty member for the last two years. (Transcript 1, page 1, lines 12-18)

At the time of the interview, Dan was in his second year as a full-time, clinical faculty member.

Kate. Kate earned her Doctor in Physical Therapy and worked clinically for 10 years prior to initially becoming an adjunct instructor in a physical therapy program. During her doctorate program, she completed a dissertation and five clinical experience internships. She had no research or teaching assistant positions outside of the research requirements for her dissertation; therefore, becoming a faculty member was not something she thought about upon graduating from her program.

During her ninth year working in the clinic, Kate was asked to adjunct for a physical therapy class at a local university. It was during this time that Kate started to think about becoming a faculty member:

While working in the clinic, I had physical therapy students assigned to intern with me. I enjoyed teaching them and many of them told me I should look into teaching as they enjoyed my teaching style. I had never thought about becoming a teacher before, but after being asked to adjunct a class for a physical therapy program, I realized how much I loved teaching. (Transcript 2, page 1, lines 10-14)
After two years of being an adjunct instructor, Kate was awarded a full-time faculty position and resigned from her full-time clinical position. She said she consulted with her dissertation chair and her family before accepting the position:

I knew I wanted and liked to teach, but I didn’t think I would be good at it because I had never taught more than one class at a time. Plus, I didn’t have any other faculty assignments at the university since I was an adjunct, so I wasn’t exactly sure what I was getting myself into. So I called my dissertation chair and I consulted with my parents to see what they thought of me becoming a teacher. My dissertation chair told me she thought I could handle it based on my work ethic and my enthusiasm from working with students, but she warned me that there was more than just a teaching requirement as a faculty member. Now I truly understand what she meant by that comment. (Transcript 2, pages 1-2, lines 22-28)

At the time of the interview, Kate was in her eighth year as a full-time, clinical faculty member.

**Erin.** Erin earned her Doctor of Philosophy in Human Movement Science with an emphasis in Athletic Training. She pursued a Ph.D. degree because the institution in which she earned her master's degree had a doctorate degree in athletic training, albeit a Ph.D., rather than the clinical doctorate degree (DAT). She was a research assistant during her doctorate program and had experience with many components of the research process, including research design, participant recruitment, data collection, manuscript writing and publication, and grant writing. Her doctorate program had a clinical component to it, meaning each semester she enrolled in practicum classes that entailed clinical internship experiences.

She worked clinically as an athletic trainer for three years before pursuing her doctorate degree. She said she realized she wanted to be an educator her master’s degree program:

I started with my bachelor’s degree in athletic training, and after receiving my degree, I worked for a few years as a high school athletic trainer before deciding to go back to school and pursue a master’s degree in athletic training. It was during my Master's program that I had the opportunity to teach a class and learned that I had a passion for being in the classroom. With the encouragement of one of my professors, I decided to go
to pursue a doctorate degree right after receiving my master’s degree so that I could gain research and more clinical experience to be better prepared to become a faculty member at some point in my future. (Transcript 3, page 1, lines 8-15)

Her official decision to become a faculty member came when she wanted to have a more regular work schedule. She said:

The life of an athletic trainer is unpredictable and I had just got married and wanted to start a family. Being on the road with athletic teams and being subject to the schedule of a coach did not allow me the freedom to have a family. (Transcript 3, page 1, lines 21-24)

While she had no teaching experience, Erin felt she “knew enough to get started in a faculty position and I would rely on my peers and mentors who were already faculty members to guide me” (Transcript 3, pages 1-2, lines 24-26). She felt that her clinical knowledge and experiences along with the research experience she gained as a doctoral student were what afforded her a full-time, tenure-earning faculty position. At the time of the interview, Erin was in her seventh year as a full-time faculty member.

**Greg.** Greg earned his Doctor of Philosophy in Exercise Science with an emphasis in Athletic Training. While employed as an athletic trainer for two years after his master’s degree, Greg wanted a more balanced work and home life. He realized that returning to school to earn a doctorate degree would allow him to be qualified to teach at a university and have a more constant work schedule:

I enjoyed the clinical side of athletic training but wanted more of a balanced life at home. My wife just had a baby and I was never around because I was always on the road with a team or working late. There was nothing else I wanted to do other than athletic training, and the only positions that seemed to have a regular schedule were working in a clinic or teaching. Realizing that I needed a doctorate degree to teach at most universities, I went back and pursued a doctorate degree so that I could teach athletic training courses at a college. (Transcript 4, page 1, lines 9-14)

Including within his doctorate program, Greg worked clinically as an athletic trainer for six years. He also had a research assistant assignment that included mentoring master’s degree
students during their research assignments and being a clinical preceptor to master’s degree students at the university. Greg said it was his doctorate program director who provided him with the confidence to pursue a faculty position. While he knew he wanted to be able to spend more time with his family, Greg was not certain if he would achieve that goal with a faculty position:

I knew there was more of a chance for a better work-life balance as an educator based on the fact that my professors were never at work 24/7 and had families to take care of. I knew they had flexibility within their schedules too since they were not at school each day and did not have any work responsibilities on the weekend. During my interview for the doctorate program, my program director asked me why I wanted a doctorate degree. When I told him I wanted to pursue a faculty position so I could have more of a work-life balance, he told me that I also needed to be ready to take on other responsibilities outside of teaching. So, he assigned me as a research mentor to master’s students so that I could get that experience under my belt. (Transcript 4, pages 1-2, lines 22-29)

At the time of the interview, Greg was in his second year as a full-time faculty member.

Mary. Mary earned her Doctor of Philosophy in Education and was a research assistant for her dissertation advisor while attaining her doctorate degree. During her time as a doctoral student, she was also a mentor to master’s degree students. Mary stated that she always had a passion for working with students and felt that pursuing a faculty position was something she considered because of the faculty she had in undergraduate and graduate school. She said, “I looked up to them and wanted to one day be like them in the sense of how they really took an interest in each one of their students and were passionate about being a professor” (Transcript 5, page 1, lines 17-19).

It was while mentoring master’s degree students in her doctorate program that Mary realized she wanted to pursue a faculty career. Until that point, she knew she wanted to work in higher education, but expected to work on the administration side:
When I was working with these [master's] students, they seemed to really love what I was doing and encouraged me to pursue what I was passionate about, which at that time, I was still trying to figure out. It was while I was mentoring these master's degree students that I realized I wanted to pursue a faculty career. It is such a rewarding feeling working with students and seeing them grow throughout their education. I just felt like that's what I was what I was supposed to do. (Transcript 5, page 1, lines 9-14)

Based on how involved Mary was with mentoring master’s degree students, Mary also mentioned that it was her dissertation advisor who encouraged her to pursue a faculty position rather than an administrative position:

I think she saw my passion working with these students and saw some potential in me for becoming an educator. She consistently encouraged me to consider becoming a faculty member rather than an administrator by saying that as an administrator I wouldn’t be working with students. And I must agree. I definitely would not have been fulfilled with an administrative position. (Transcript 5, Page 2, Lines 41-45)

The opportunity to interview for a faculty position arose when she finished her doctorate degree; therefore, she interviewed and was offered a full-time faculty position immediately after earning her doctorate degree. At the time of the interview, Mary was in her fifth year as a full-time faculty member.

Lisa. Lisa earned her Doctor of Philosophy within Higher Education, and while in her doctorate program, she was both a research assistant and doctoral mentor to master’s degree students. Along with working on her dissertation, she co-wrote and published articles with her peers and also participated in grant writing. As a doctorate student, she did not have any teaching assistant responsibilities and never envisioned herself as an educator within her profession:

My initial interest was to become a higher education administrator rather than become a faculty member at a university. While working as a graduate assistant in student affairs during her doctoral program, I was asked to guest lecture for a class and enjoyed being up in front of students in a classroom. I never thought I would ever enjoy doing that. I always dreaded public speaking and talking in front of my peers. But it was such a rush talking to these students and seeing their faces as I spoke about institutional budgets and
state funding. They were so engaged. A few came up to me after class and said they really enjoyed my lecture and hoped I would come back to speak again. (Transcript 6, page 1, lines 10-16)

Lisa said the feeling she had after that class was exhilarating and surprising as she never thought she would enjoy teaching. After that experience, her dissertation chair encouraged her to consider teaching. As a result of the encouragement from her dissertation chair, Lisa applied for a faculty position upon completion of her doctorate program.

I told my dissertation chair about my experience, and she encouraged me to apply for a faculty position that was opening up right as I was graduating. I applied and while I wasn’t their first choice for the position, I ended up getting it by default as the person they wanted to hire was offered a new contract at their institution. I’m extremely thankful and haven’t looked back since. (Transcript 6, page 1, lines 16-19)

At the time of the interview, Lisa was in her fifth year as a full-time faculty member.

**Mike.** Mike earned his Doctor of Philosophy in Exercise Science and was a research assistant for his dissertation chair while working on his doctorate degree. Much of his research experience during his doctorate studies outside of his own dissertation was implementing the research agenda of his dissertation chair, which included gathering literature, recruiting research participants, collecting data, and analyzing results. Mike stated that his interest in research is what led him to pursue a faculty role:

My interest in research really is what led me to pursue a faculty role. My faculty mentors in graduate school really inspired me to seek out a faculty position and become a faculty member and mentor to other graduate students like they were to me. (Transcript 7, Page 1, Lines 12-15)

Mike worked as a clinical research specialist at a local hospital for two years before becoming a full-time faculty member. He said what influenced him to pursue a faculty position was the opportunity to mentor students and pursue his research agenda:
I think for me it was the fact that I could create my own research agenda and I could have people to mentor and also people to help me implement my research agenda on a daily basis. That was extremely important to me. (Transcript 7, page 2, lines 27-30)

After determining that he wanted to become a clinical researcher and then not finding the opportunity to pursue his own research agenda, Mike turned to his dissertation chair for advice:

When I was talking to him about what my career and research interests were, he literally looked at me and said ‘why don't you look to be a faculty member?’ When I put all the components together in what I wanted from a position or what I wanted in a job, having the opportunity to implement a research agenda was huge for me, along with engaging with students as an exercise physiologist. I wouldn't get that working for a corporation and I won't get that from working in a clinic or hospital and so this was something which I really wouldn't have looked into if it wasn't for his insight. (Transcript 7, page 2, lines 35-42)

Mike worked for two years as a clinical exercise physiologist at a hospital prior to becoming a full-time faculty member. At the time of the interview, Mike was in his fourth year as a full-time faculty member.

Matt. Matt earned his Doctorate in Exercise Science and was a research assistant during his doctorate education. He participated in various research assignments with doctorate students and faculty but did not participate in any grant writing or teaching activities. His journey to a faculty position happened by chance and was not anything he had ever anticipated doing:

My goal following my doctorate degree was to work as a clinical researcher for a sports performance company, but I had a difficult time getting my foot in the door of the corporation. So, I took some time to reset myself and figure out what else I would want to do in the exercise science world. I didn’t want to work in a hospital and had always aspired to do clinical research on athletes. A friend of mine told me about an exercise science faculty position at his university and encouraged me to apply by telling me that they have an athletics program and so I might be able to do research with using some of the athletes. So, I applied and had a research agenda they were looking for. I guess you could say that I kind of just ‘fell’ into a faculty position but I ended up loving it. I was no longer interested in becoming a clinical researcher for any company and found my passion. (Transcript 8, page 1, lines 8-14)
Matt was employed as a clinical exercise physiologist for a local sports performance company for two years before becoming a full-time faculty member. At the time of the interview, Matt was in his second year as a full-time faculty member.

Summary

These participant profiles provide awareness as to participant backgrounds, why each participant pursued a full-time faculty position within their respective profession, and who influenced them to pursue a faculty position. Based on answers to the research questions, the following section provides insight into their professional and organizational socialization experiences. While clinically trained faculty had different professional and organizational socialization experiences than academically trained faculty, there were many similarities in their socialization perceptions and experiences that brought additional meaning to the findings.
CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to gain a retrospective understanding of the role inductance for faculty members in higher education, to better understand the professional and organizational socialization processes that faculty experience as they enter their first job in higher education, and to learn the needs of faculty as they gain role induction.

Participants were encouraged to provide their experiences and perceptions honestly, with some needing time to reflect back on their initial professional and organizational socialization experiences due to the time passage since their doctoral preparation and their first full-time faculty position. These experiences assisted the researcher in illustrating the meaning of their experiences. Twenty-seven open-ended highly-structured probing interview questions were used to answer the four core research questions. The core research questions used for this study were:

1. Do faculty experience transformative learning in their socialization as faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs? If so, how? If not, why not?
2. What forms and sources of institutional support of socialization do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs receive?
3. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs feel their doctoral education helped them form a professional identity that allowed them to succeed in their faculty role? If so, how? If not, why not?
4. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education perceive any barriers and facilitators to their professional or organizational socialization experiences? If so, how? If not, why not?
This chapter is organized based on clinically trained and academically trained faculty responses to the research questions and sub-questions. The interview transcripts conducted with clinically trained and academically trained faculty were analyzed separately; however, similarities and differences in socialization perceptions and experiences emerged from the responses between each group. The findings are presented according to the alignment of the research questions to the interview questions and according to the themes that emerged for each research question. Included are excerpts from participants’ voices as evidence to validate the inclusion of each theme and its associated research question. Findings are presented with clinically trained faculty responses first, followed by academically trained faculty responses according to the overarching research questions. Lastly, a summary of findings is discussed.

At the onset of the data review and analysis, the researcher identified her personal perspective and remained open and receptive to the discovery of new information and insights about the phenomenon under investigation. The researcher reviewed and analyzed the collected data over an extended period by rereading the transcripts and journal notes and listening multiple times to the recorded interviews. This process of prolonged engagement with the data served to recapture the essence of the message conveyed throughout the interviews, enabling a detailed understanding of the socialization experience of each faculty member. The re-examination of the data served to identify the patterns, categories, and emerging themes that represented the professional and organizational socialization experiences of the clinically trained and academically trained faculty. Chapter Three presents a more detailed explanation of the data analysis process.

To maintain the integrity of the findings, the participants’ quotes were taken verbatim from each of the transcribed interviews, although any identifying words or names were removed.
to protect the identity of the participants. Ten clinically trained and academically trained faculty themes emerged from the interviews and represented similarities and differences in professional and organizational socialization experiences between the faculty groups. The themes included: self-awareness, clinician to academic, how to be an academic, mentoring, orientation, research preparation, lack of andragogy, graduate student experience, role balancing, and learn as you go. Themes presented in Table 4 compare clinically trained faculty and academically trained faculty based on the associated research question and research question focus to which they belong.

Both groups had similar themes, with only one variation between the groups within the domain of the first research question.

Table 4:
Research Question, Focus, and Theme Based on Educational Concentration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research question</th>
<th>Focus</th>
<th>Clinically trained theme</th>
<th>Academically trained theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Transformative learning</td>
<td>Self-awareness, Clinician to academic</td>
<td>Self-awareness, How to be academic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Institutional support</td>
<td>Mentoring, Orientation</td>
<td>Mentoring, Orientation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Doctoral preparation</td>
<td>Research preparation, Lack of andragogy, Graduate student experience</td>
<td>Research preparation, Lack of andragogy, Graduate student experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Barriers and facilitators</td>
<td>Role balancing, Learn as you go</td>
<td>Role balancing, Learn as you go</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Research Question Focus #1 – Transformative Learning Themes**

The first research question investigated whether new faculty experienced transformative learning during their socialization as new faculty. From this research question and its sub-questions, three themes emerged: self-awareness, clinician to academic, and how to be academic.
Self-awareness. Self-awareness is the insight into how one's life experiences and emotional make-up affect one's interactions with others and is important for new faculty to develop as it aids their learning needs as new faculty (Pololi & Frankel, 2005). As the athletic training and physical therapy faculty encountered unfamiliar and uncomfortable feelings and experiences in their new faculty position, they became self-reflective regarding their faculty roles. These feelings and experiences led to personal reflection and self-examination and an increased awareness of their strengths, weaknesses, and professional limitations as faculty.

As a clinically trained faculty member, Greg described his self-awareness of the need to change his approach to how he structured the responsibilities of his faculty role relative to his prior clinical experience as a physical therapist:

Working in a clinic and high school for six years prior to becoming a faculty member, I had developed time management and organizational skills from working with multiple patients and athletes at a time that I thought would help with my faculty position. Not only were my time management and organizational skills put to the test, but I also had to adapt in a completely different way to all of the responsibilities of being a faculty member. I had a regimen that I developed when working with patients and athletes. The first week as faculty, I was all over the place and didn't know where to focus most of my time. I quickly learned that the structure I created for myself working in the clinic and at the high school would not translate into my faculty position. I needed to change my approach, otherwise, I would never get anything completely done or be competent. (Transcript 4, page 4, lines 78-86)

Kate explained a similar experience with self-awareness regarding managing her faculty role as she thought she could use the same methods for structure as when she worked as a PT in the clinic:

As a PT, I knew exactly what I was doing each day I walked into work. Even if there was a new patient and a new injury, I knew exactly what I needed to do during the time frame I had with each patient. But during my first semester as a faculty member, I realized that other than the clinical experience I had as a physical therapist for four years, I had no understanding of what I was doing in my faculty role. I realized I needed to either find a mentor, call some of my faculty friends, and do some research regarding how to manage a faculty position. I misled myself by thinking that because I was a good
clinician and was able to be a preceptor to PT students, that becoming an educator would be easy. I didn't have the first clue as to what I had gotten myself into. (Transcript 2, page 6, lines 122-129)

Erin encountered a similar experience managing her new faculty position as Kate, but her difficulties managing the teaching and administrative roles of being a faculty member caused her to doubt her ability to be a faculty member:

During my master’s and doctoral programs, I held assistantship positions in which I worked at a local high school while going to school. I thought based on being a student and balancing my assistantships and school that I would not have any problem managing a faculty position. Especially when working as an athletic trainer, you have no clue what will happen or who will walk in your door each day. But that was easy to manage as I was comfortable with the unknown in that environment because I was prepared with a systematic evaluation for anything. What I wasn’t prepared to manage was creating class PowerPoints, quizzes, committee meetings, advising, office interruptions, and creating my own schedule outside of planned commitments. I started to doubt my abilities and my reason for taking a faculty position and knew that I wouldn’t be in this position for very long if I didn’t set goals and boundaries for myself in the office and find additional resources to help me. (Transcript 3, page 13, lines 288-299)

Despite these experiences, some of the athletic training and physical therapy participants relied on their confidence in their clinical practice abilities to give them the self-affirmation needed to successfully perform in their faculty roles and gain a sense of validation and acceptance from peers, students, and administrators. When working with students, and even in their faculty roles, the athletic training and physical therapy participants found they were able to gain credibility by drawing on clinical experience as examples in class or using their clinical skills within their faculty roles.

Greg explained how he used his experience as an athletic trainer to persuade other faculty and administrators to value him as a new faculty member:

I remember my second week feeling so overwhelmed and doubting my abilities in my new position, but then one of our college advisors passed out in her office, and no one was around but me and some faculty from another degree program. No one knew what to do, so, I jumped into action, using my athletic training skills to assess and take care of
this advisor. Once she was stabilized and EMS took her to the hospital, those around me were impressed by what I had done. After that incident, word spread about what I did, and people who didn't speak to me before actually said hello to me in the hallway and even mentioned how great it was that I was able to help the advisor. I felt like they saw me as someone more than just a new face. (Transcript 4, page 8, lines 167-175)

Kate said her experience as a PT was a helpful resource in the classroom with students:

Students thought that since I was a new faculty member, they could tell me how I should teach the class. I wasn’t sure what was the best method for teaching as the books don’t always give real-life and practical information, so I found students getting bored with my lectures. So, during my third week, I decided to change it up, and as soon as I started talking about some of the patients and experiences I had working as a PT, they started asking questions and being more engaged in the class. I realized the connection with these students was to associate book information with real-life application. After that, students started stopping by my office outside of class days to talk about my experiences and hear some of my stories. It felt like they finally respected me as their professor because of my ability to relate experiences with the content. (Transcript 2, page 3, lines 89-98)

Erin began her faculty position with the mindset that her clinical experience would give her credibility in the classroom with students:

I think my clinical experience at the high school, helped as well because I could bring those experiences into the classroom and share with the students. The students really seemed to respond to stories I shared with them regarding clinical experiences I had. It seemed to validate me more as an athletic trainer rather than being a textbook teacher. (Transcript 3, page 11-12, lines 259-263)

Similar to the participants with clinically trained degrees, participants with academic degrees also experienced self-awareness issues, but in the capacity of needing to change how they approached their faculty roles. Mary stated she had to change her mindset when she took on her faculty role from being a student to being a faculty member:

I had to get out of the mindset of being a student, and I had to get into the mindset that I'm on the other side. I am the faculty member, I'm not a student anymore, even though that first year it did still feel like I was a student because of the fact that I was still learning…learning the organizational culture and learning the job. I was learning how to talk like an academic and how to fit into the mold of an educator. So, the attitude I had to take was more of an academic attitude as opposed to a student attitude. (Transcript 5, page 5, lines 112-118)
Mike had a misperception of what faculty life was like and realized he needed to adjust how he approached his faculty role:

My perception of faculty life really was more on the premise that faculty do some research and they teach a class. They serve on a committee or a few committees…My perception really changed regarding knowing what it takes to be able to get in front of a class and teach, especially at the master’s degree level where those students are being prepared to come out and work as exercise physiologists. To teach at that level requires more preparation for more complex and critical thinking questions. So, I quickly realized that a day in the life of a faculty member is a full day, especially those first couple of years where you're really trying to develop your classes and your coursework, exams, and quizzes and things like that. (Transcript 7, Page 4, Lines 82-84, 87-93)

Matt said that thought he would teach a class and have time to implement his research agenda:

I thought I was going to be assigned to teach an Exercise, Disease, and Prescription class to graduate students and then would work with students to implement my research agenda and oversee their master’s thesis projects. Based on this load, I should have had plenty of time to prepare and be productive. I wasn’t even close to understanding how to create a course from scratch and how to present the information in a way that students with different learning styles may understand. On top of that, I had master’s students who didn’t know the first thing about research, so I was spending hours each day teaching them each step of the process in my office. I had to completely revamp my agenda and my approach to each day. (Transcript 8, page 5, lines 114-120)

Clinician to academic. Any new faculty member’s self-awareness is linked to a successful transition into the professional role, and adequate socialization into the new role is a key element for clinicians to become successful faculty and develop a sense of belonging in academia (Winter-Collins & McDaniel, 2000). To become faculty, the clinically trained participants experienced identity struggles, expressing uncertainty about when to stop thinking as clinical practitioners and start thinking like faculty members. This struggle was related to the need to establish self-confidence and competence as faculty and adjust to no longer working with patients.
Greg described his initial interaction with a faculty member from another discipline outside of athletic training who made him feel inferior as a faculty member:

I was at my first committee meeting and someone said we needed to establish criteria for an internal research award. My mindset was in the realm of clinical research, so I was giving criteria based on what my professional organization used for clinical research. Everyone in the room just looked at me like I had two heads. Someone from social work, I think, told me that the criteria I stated wasn’t “academic” enough. I don’t think I spoke another word at the next two committee meetings after that. (Transcript 4, page 6, lines 74-79)

Kate had difficulty assessing student knowledge based on accreditation standards rather than based on clinical practice standards used by her clinic:

I was creating a rubric for an exam and was using criteria based on clinical practice skills, not on established criteria based on physical therapy competency and board certification guidelines. When I showed my program director my rubric so that I could get feedback, he told me I needed to not think so much like a clinician, even though that is the realistic practice of what these students will need to be able to do. So, I had to go back and re-create a rubric based on what the students would need to know to become board certified rather than from clinical practice experience. (Transcript 2, page 6, lines 145-152)

Erin spoke of her uncertainty about being accepted by other faculty members as an academic. She said:

I was nervous in department meetings and when I interacted with faculty outside of those in my program just because I was a clinician and they were academics, and I was striving to be where they're at. So, I had to learn the culture of being an academic, not just the culture of the institution. There's a culture of being an academic that I had to really understand and try to figure out so my confidence was up and down. (Transcript 3, page 5, lines 104-109)

Athletic training and physical therapy participants had a desire to succeed in their faculty roles and anticipated a smooth transition into the faculty roles because of their extensive clinical knowledge and experience. However, as new faculty, they quickly learned that assimilating into the academic environment was not as easy as one may have thought it would be. They reported that their strongest abilities were their clinical knowledge, although this did not mean they
necessarily knew how to teach. Each clinically trained faculty member had also been a clinical preceptor prior to their faculty position; therefore, educating students was not a new concept to them, but this education occurred within an informal setting rather than the structured setting of a classroom. These participants had to understand their new roles as they encountered new and unaccustomed experiences. They not only discovered how to use their clinical expertise as guiding resources for their faculty roles, but also realized they did not have all the tools and resources needed to be successful as faculty.

Dan stated that he thought it would be an easy transition based on his clinical experience, but once he started, he found out that was not the case:

Faculty life is more demanding than what I had initially anticipated...I was a clinical expert in my field before becoming a faculty member, and I had thought that it would be an easy transition because I was able to teach and mentor students in the clinical setting. That was so not the case. (Transcript 1, pages 3-4, lines 68-76)

Erin expressed a similar sentiment as Dan:

I guess one of the biggest beliefs that I had was that since I was a good clinician, I would also be a good educator. That's not necessarily the case. Just because you're a good clinician doesn't mean you know how to teach, and even though I was a clinical preceptor to athletic training students, I was assigned one student at a time rather than a whole class of students with different backgrounds and learning styles. Those are some things that you're really not prepared for. (Transcript 3, page 4, lines 87-92)

Additionally, to become a better educator, Erin stated that she had to make changes regarding her class preparation: “After that first week, I really had to change my expectations regarding my role and my preparation for working with students.” (Transcript 3, page 5, lines 114-115)

These clinically trained participants had to discover their roles on their own along the way and encountered new, unfamiliar, and uncomfortable experiences. They not only learned how to use their expertise from their clinical backgrounds as resources for navigating their
faculty roles, but also realized they did not have all the tools and personal resources needed to be successful in their faculty roles.

**How to be academic.** Similar to clinically trained faculty trying to become academic, academically trained faculty also had to find a way to transition from no longer being a student to becoming an academic. Mary progressed from her undergraduate program to a master’s program, then to a doctorate program, and then to a faculty position – subsequently, all she experienced before faculty life was academia as a student. She had to change her mentality when interacting with students from a student frame of mind to a faculty frame of mind. She initially struggled with differentiating and shifting from the only experience she knew:

> [But] as a faculty member, I think you have to interact and relate to students in a different light. As a former doctorate student mentor to now actually being a faculty member, that part really I wasn't really prepared for as well as I thought. I interacted with students as though they were my peers, when in actuality, they no longer were. Instead of being their equal I needed to see myself not as their superior, but as a mentor and role model. (Transcript 5, page 11, lines 248-253)

Additionally, Mary had to earn acceptance from faculty within an institution in which she had been a student for three years prior to her faculty position:

> I literally was just a doctoral student and then I'm a faculty member, so I guess there was really just wanting to be accepted and wanting to have that validation as a faculty member I think that was something that was an adjustment for me and was a challenge for me. I had coursework and interactions with a lot of the faculty within the department, or within the program I should say, and many of the faculty had me as a doctoral student or had some interaction with me as a doctorate student. And then for them to see me as one of their peers once I finished, I think that was something that first needed to have an adjustment period. (Transcript 5, page 15, lines 335-342)

Mike recognized that just because he had teaching and research experience in his doctorate program, that did not necessarily translate into being a good educator:

> That certainly was something I learned very quickly, that just because you've had coursework and you excelled at that coursework and you do research, that doesn't mean that you can teach the information and it also doesn't mean that you are prepared to
answer the questions that students have or know how to adapt to the different learning styles of students. (Transcript 7, page 3, lines 64-68)

Mike also understood that taking on a faculty position meant one needed intangibles, such as empathy and listening skills, that were in addition to being a good educator and researcher:

Just because you are a good researcher doesn't mean you are good in every aspect of being a faculty member. You have to be able to relate with students and know how to respond when they come to you with personal problems on top of their academic issues. Sometimes those can be comfortable and sometimes those can be uncomfortable situations, so I really had a lot of learning to do regarding knowing what a faculty member really goes through on a daily basis… let me put it that way. (Transcript 7, page 5, lines 104-110)

Matt was struggling to comprehend how to separate his identity from the students in his class and those he mentored:

I was literally right out of school when I became a professor, and I thought respect as a professor would come with the title. The students saw right through me as I not only looked young, but I was young. I had no real experience as a professor and would casually talk to students like I was still a student rather than as a professional in the field. I thought this was a good way to get students to trust me and know that I understood them. But it only added confusion to who I was and my role. Once another faculty member heard me talking with a student in the hallway and came out of his office to tell us to be quiet. I told him I was also a professor and he looked me up and down before walking back into his office. (Transcript 8, page 6, lines 134-139)

In the end, self-awareness and the desire to be accepted as an academic prompted a majority of participants to view and control their faculty roles from a different perspective, facilitating professional changes but not necessarily professional growth, as not all of the participants were able to move forward and adapt to their new roles within the first year of employment.
Research Question Focus #2 – Organizational Socialization Support Themes

The second research question focused on the forms and sources of institutional support of socialization that faculty received when they began their first faculty position. From this research question, two of the same themes emerged for faculty who had been clinically trained and academically trained: mentoring and orientation.

Mentoring. While some participants benefitted from an effective mentor and others did not, both clinically and academically trained faculty stated that mentorship was an important element within faculty socialization. Although not all were assigned mentors, clinically trained faculty identified mentorship as extremely important and crucial to their socialization within the institution. Erin felt that her institution paired her up well with her mentor:

We had a mentorship program, like I said, from the college and within the department itself. Both mentors really worked well for me and I do know of people who had mentors assigned to them that didn't go so well. I think that I just got lucky with the assignment. I think they made the assignment based on the experience of the mentor and not really the dynamics personality-wise. I feel like any question or issue that I had, I always had somebody to go to and they always made themselves available to me and so I really felt supported. (Transcript 3, page 8, lines 174-180)

Dan also had a positive relationship with a mentor within his department, but this was an informal assignment specific to the program within which he was faculty a member.

The institution I was at didn't set new faculty up in a mentorship program. But I believe it was an informal mentorship program through the DPT program that I was in. I got paired up with a faculty member who had been teaching at the university for about eleven years. And it was just one of those things where he took me under his under his wing and kind of helped me with the ins and outs of the role that I was taking on. He also helped me adjust to the culture of the institution primarily because we all know that no matter where you are there's a certain type of culture that's involved. (Transcript 1, page 8, lines 182-188)
Greg noted that at his institution, there was a formal mentoring program but that “the mentors don’t know what the heck they are doing or supposed to do with their assigned faculty” (Transcript 4, page 8, lines 174-176).

While Kate had been a faculty member for eight years at the time of this interview, she reflected back on when she first started and compared the culture of higher education to her role in the clinic. The culture working in a clinic was completely different to the culture in academia, and because Kate was not assigned a mentor to help her navigate through the obstacles of faculty life, Kate relied on a fellow colleague who volunteered to guide her within her faculty role:

The culture and routine responsibilities within higher education are vastly different from working as a clinician. Although I was a preceptor to physical therapy students, the teaching responsibilities in higher education are a full-time job in themselves. While I was trying to get a full understanding of how higher education functioned, a colleague stepped up to help me in spite of no formal mentoring program and was a big help! (Transcript 2, page 9, lines 199-202)

Erin said that her mentors educated her regarding how to set time boundaries with students. She explained:

I think the fact that I had mentors made my adjustment a lot easier. They helped me understand that I didn’t have to be accessible to students 24/7 and that it was okay if I closed my office door to get work done outside of my office hours. I was afraid that I would be looked at as being unsociable or inaccessible if I closed my door, and so I didn’t want to have student complaints or reports that I wasn’t in my office or that I wasn’t at work just because my door was closed. But my mentors told me that most faculty close their doors outside of office hours so that they can get work done and be productive. (Transcript 3, page 13, lines 293-299)

Academically trained participants identified mentorship as a factor that either facilitated or hindered their socialization process. Many alluded to mentorship of any type, if correctly implemented, as being valued and reassuring for new faculty. She spoke of having a positive mentorship experience at her institution, but she also noted that the mentorship program was not publicized to all new faculty at orientation. A mentor had to be requested by new faculty rather
than automatically being assigned upon hiring. Had Mary not been a doctoral student at this institution, she would not have known a mentor was available to her if she requested one:

I sought out somebody to be my mentor. The university would assign me a mentor if I requested it and I already knew that, so before I even started I had already created those mentorship relationships for myself. The university has something that as a new faculty member you had to specifically request so it wasn't assigned to everybody. If you didn't know to ask for mentor or that there was a mentorship program, that was not something in which you were granted. (Transcript 5, pages 9-10, lines 211-216)

Mike had a positive experience with his assigned mentor, and his mentor helped him to understand his faculty position. Mike admitted to not turning to his mentor for help as much as he should have during his first year, but that when he did, his mentor provided him the guidance that he needed:

I was assigned a mentor within my school and [it] was something that really helped with understanding the roles and expectations of the position. I think that it was something initially that I needed to take a little bit more to heart because I did think that I would be able to handle the faculty position. Once I started and realized that there were a lot more facets to the job than what I had thought or perceived, that's when I really turned to my mentor for support. (Transcript 7, pages 7-8, lines 164-170)

Although he had mentors from his master’s and doctorate programs to call upon if needed, Matt revealed he was not assigned a mentor at his institution. “They helped me a lot with how to balance and incorporate all three roles of teaching, research, and service, but they couldn’t help me learn the ropes of the college because they weren’t employed there” (Transcript 8, page 8, lines 184-187).

Lisa was assigned a mentor, but she noted a primary challenge of her mentorship opportunity was time:

The biggest challenge I faced was time. Because of conflicting schedules, it was difficult to find the time to meet with my mentor. So much of what I needed support and advice with, I had to learn on my own. What I needed to do was not let other meetings or people interfere with that relationship when I started out. But also, my mentor should have been
aware of this obstacle and given me insight as to what to do regarding time conflict. (Transcript 6, page 7, lines 150-153)

Orientation. While a majority of the participants took part in faculty orientation at their institution, the consensus of the respondents reported the orientation program was not specific to faculty.

As a new faculty member transitioning from a clinical position, Erin felt her orientation provided useful resources for new faculty. However, the orientation did not include anything directly applicable to her faculty position:

We had two orientations, one was to the university itself, and the other was to the college that I worked in within the university. It really didn't prepare me for my position or my role, but they gave us the resources in which we could go to in case we did have questions, concerns, or issues. (Transcript 3, page 6, lines 134-137)

Dan had a formal orientation program that was specific to institutional policies and procedures for everyone, but wished it was specific to faculty roles and responsibilities and his department, providing him with a better idea of the program expectations for faculty. He noted that, overall, it did not help him better manage his new faculty position:

It was formal, but it was formal to the institution and not necessarily the school in which I was working at the University or the physical therapy program. They went over a lot of the rules and regulations of the university, the expectations, and the ins and out of working there. And it included everybody who was hired [together] rather than separating different employee classifications. It wasn't specific to faculty. (Transcript 1, page 6, lines 128-133)

Greg said his orientation was focused more on “HR components like benefits, vacation time, and policies and procedures within the institution rather than any specific position within the university.” (Transcript 4, page 7, lines 151-153)

Orientation issues were not isolated to only the clinically trained faculty. As an academically trained faculty member, Mary also felt the orientation was not specific to faculty
and was not structured to allow faculty members to gain realistic expectations of what their positions would entail. She stated that her orientation program encompassed university policies and procedures within the program handbook, but did not provide information specific to faculty roles and expectations:

I really think that the orientation program was lacking in the sense of really giving us the expectations for what we're going to do or what we were going to be doing within our faculty roles. The orientation program was all the new employees coming in at that one time and wasn't necessarily just faculty. And so, it really wasn't specific to being a faculty member. It was more specific to being oriented to institutional policies and procedures and those within your college. (Transcript 5, Page 8, Lines 167-172)

Lisa said her orientation even “included a walking tour of the campus instead of giving us realistic information regarding our day to day roles and institutional expectations” (Transcript 6, page 7, lines 162-163). She also stated that she “felt like a new student on campus rather than a new working ‘professional’ on campus” (Transcript 6, page 7, lines 165-166). On the other hand, Mike had a different orientation experience and learned about faculty expectations during his orientation:

Faculty had their own separate orientation, and program and administration and staff had their separate orientation. So, we did go through a formal orientation that was specific to get us familiar with the institutional policies and procedures. After the university's orientation session, we did have one that was specific to the school within the university that we were working. We were informed about the expectations of the school that we were working in as well. (Transcript 7, page 7, lines 153-158)

Since new faculty did not receive information regarding institutional and faculty roles, responsibilities, resources, and policies at orientation, the only way new faculty would acquire this information was for an institution to offer a faculty-specific orientation program.

**Research Question Focus #3 – Doctoral Preparation for Success Themes**

The third research question pertained to faculty sensing that their doctoral education helped them form professional identities that allowed them to succeed in their faculty roles.
From this research question, three clinically trained and academically trained themes emerged: research preparation, lack of andragogy, and graduate student experience.

**Research preparation.** Each of the participants from both groups felt prepared for the research role of their faculty positions due to their doctoral training. Their doctoral program afforded them opportunities to develop a research agenda and protocol, implement data collection and analysis, as well as publish their research in some capacity. Each participant was assigned a research assignment, whether it be to conduct a research project or be a research assistant within his or her doctorate program.

Dan felt prepared to conduct research after graduating from his doctorate program, but the extent of his research preparation was limited. He believed his preparation was insufficient in providing him with the necessary skills to develop his own research agenda:

> I would have to say I was the most prepared for research. Just because I had conducted research in my doctoral program. I didn't have a teaching or research assignment outside of my dissertation and my clinical experiences, but I would have to say that the research component was something that I felt the most the most comfortable with. (Transcript 1, page 10, lines 215-218)

Dan continued to say, “but I didn't really have the preparation or tools for creating a research agenda and going about devising multiple research projects at once” (Transcript 1, page 11, lines 249-251).

Erin felt her research experience and preparation contributed significantly to her hiring as an athletic training faculty member. She sensed, "if I were to take on research I would've been prepared for that, and I would have been able to conduct a project on my own" (Transcript 3, page 9, lines 203-204). Her doctoral program prepared her "in gaining research experience so that I would be able to start my own research agenda without the help of someone else" (Transcript 3, page 10, lines 216-217).
Similar to clinically trained faculty, academically trained faculty also felt prepared to conduct research after their doctorate program. Mary described how her doctorate program prepared her to begin her research agenda:

I would have to say coming into the position I was ready to start research. I already had a research agenda that I was planning out and having been at that institution as well for my doctorate program, I knew the resources that I needed to have and who I needed to go to to get it done. (Transcript 5, page 11, lines 238-241)

Mike obtained a significant amount of research experience during his doctorate program that afforded him the confidence to develop a research agenda as new faculty:

I was a research assistant for my dissertation chair while I was working on my doctorate degree. Outside of my own dissertation, I did implement the research agenda of my dissertation chair, gathering literature, recruiting participants, collecting data, those types of things. (Transcript 7, page 10, lines 226-228)

He went on to say, “I had statistical classes and research methodology classes. I had a four statistics classes research methodology classes. I also think being able to work with my dissertation chair as a research assistant was extremely helpful with my preparation” (Transcript 7, page 11, lines 251-253).

Matt revealed that he was “more prepared to conduct research and start my research agenda than anything else” following his doctorate program (Transcript 8, page 12, lines 275-276). “They were preparing us to be researchers through all of our research classes and our research assignments, so that part of the faculty role was the easiest for me to take on” (Transcript 8, page 11, lines 245-247).

Lack of andragogy. Out of the four clinically trained participants, none identified having any formal education in their background that prepared them to be effective educators. In fact, all four clinically trained participants indicated that they learned their skills on-the-job or through identifying their own resources. These faculty admitted to not receiving any formal
pedagogic training that could support a teaching role in higher education. However, each participant articulated their experience as clinical preceptors as having provided some experience teaching students. Based on his experience, Dan noted that physical therapy programs are not intended to prepare students to become educators:

For me, my doctorate program didn't have any preparation for teaching. That's not what a physical therapy program prepares you for. It prepares you to be a clinician and so most of the physical therapists who were educators that I know were clinicians first. They were good clinicians recruited to become faculty members by people that they knew, or word of mouth, mentors or former classmates who are faculty within the physical therapy profession now. (Transcript 1, page 6, lines 117-122)

Even with a Ph.D. in athletic training, Erin did not have any teaching preparation or experience during her doctorate program:

I spent hours in the teaching role. I didn't get an education on how to teach even with my doctorate program in human movement science. I earned a Ph.D., but the emphasis was athletic training, so there was a clinical component to it. We really weren't learning to be educators; we were learning to be clinicians, so the teaching part was what I spent most of my time on. (Transcript 3, page 9, lines 194-198)

Erin also added that “doctorate programs can’t prepare you to know everything within a faculty position” (Transcript 3, page 5, lines 110-111). Similarly, Dan noted:

The course content helped me with that teaching component of my class. But otherwise, I earned a doctorate in a degree that really was to make me a better clinician not to prepare me for teaching or for being a faculty member. (Transcript 1, page 11, lines 239-242)

Kate did not have any teaching experience or andragogy courses other than being a clinical preceptor to physical therapy students and receiving excellent student evaluations. It was her clinical knowledge within a specific content area that “qualified” her to teach:

I still don't know how I got my faculty position other than it was because I had been a clinician for a few years and had clinical expertise regarding the lumbo-pelvic-hip complex. So, I think it was because of that. They wanted someone who was an expert in rehabilitating that area. They didn't care that I had no clue how to teach, let along prepare an entire course and content! (Transcript 2, page 13, lines 298-301)
Rather than having any teaching preparation, Greg also felt his graduate research focus and clinical experience and knowledge regarding concussion assessment and protocols are what afforded him his first faculty position:

My master’s and doctorate research focus was on concussion protocols, assessment, rehabilitation, and the return-to-learn component of concussion injuries. I think that because I had a lot of research in this area is why I was hired. I had no teaching experience or class in how to teach. They needed someone to teach their head, neck, and spine class and I knew all about 50% of the content just from my research. The other 50% I knew about from my degrees and clinical experience. (Transcript 4, page 13, lines 297-301)

None of the academically trained faculty had a formal andragogy course or training either during their doctorate program. Moreover, while they received feedback regarding any teaching assistant roles from student evaluations, they did not receive any feedback on their teaching performance from their doctoral advisor or faculty. All of the participants admitted to not receiving any formal andragogic training that could support a teaching role in higher education.

Mary had the opportunity to assume a teaching assistantship position, but instead, she was assigned a research responsibility.

Some people had teaching assistantship positions, but for me, I didn't take on that responsibility. I was assigned a research mentorship responsibility, so I guess it just depended on your situation and depended on what you were looking to experience while in the program. (Transcript 5, page 14, lines 308-311)

Later in the interview, Mary also noted that a course in andragogy might have been helpful for a new faculty member:

I know that maybe there are courses that are offered in pedagogy or curriculum development that potentially somebody could take. I don't know if those would’ve helped as I'm not really sure what the core requirements and concepts are within those classes, but I do think that might be a resource that would help and should be available. (Transcript 5, page 18, lines 409-413)
Mike expressed a similar sentiment regarding how he would have benefitted from having a course in andragogy in his doctoral program:

I did some teaching while I was in the program but like I said I was very familiar with the content, so I feel like I really wish I had some type of course in teaching methodology or in regard to classroom or coursework development. That would have been something in which I would have probably really have benefited from that I didn't have in my doctoral program. (Transcript 7, page 11, lines 242-246)

Matt plainly stated, “I was prepared to be a researcher. Teaching wasn’t even in the context of my doctorate program” (Transcript 8, page 15, lines 343-344).

During the first year, the inadequate organizational socialization at these institutions regarding teaching forced participants to be resourceful. Lisa described asking around for other faculty’s syllabi, reading various textbooks on how to teach, and phoning former professors for advice before applying the information:

The way I figured out what I was supposed to do in the classroom was by listening to colleagues who were regarded as being good teachers, and employing some of their tactics in the classroom. I also spent time in the library reading books on teaching pedagogy so that I could have more structure within my course development and classroom. My doctorate program didn’t prepare me at all for the teaching component of faculty life. (Transcript 6, page 9, lines 189-194)

During their first year as full-time faculty, three academically trained faculty – two from education and one from exercise science – stated that they enrolled in a teaching workshop to improve their classroom management skills and address the gap within their teaching preparation.

**Graduate student experience.** These new faculty had placed their confidence in their prior experiences as graduate students seated in the classroom, but not standing in front and teaching the class. They were taken by surprise as they discovered how vastly different the perspective of the educator is from that of the student and learned that their prior experiences did
not prepare them for full-time faculty roles. Some participants had challenges learning how to structure the many dimensions of their new roles. They became overwhelmed with the different preparation, skills, and level of functioning that were required to take on a faculty role.

Inadequate professional socialization in graduate school seemed to have predominated amongst all of the participants in this study. Clinically trained faculty did not possess educational backgrounds designed to comprehensively prepare them to be faculty. Kate noted that “most physical therapists earn their DPT, then take a clinical position for a few years before becoming a faculty member” (Transcript 2, page 1, lines 19-20). Dan made a similar statement:

…my doctorate program it was a clinical doctorate, and so we went to class and then we spent most of our time going to clinical experiences. With a clinical doctorate, there is no preparation for being a faculty member. Rather it’s preparation for being a clinician. (Transcript 1, page 10, lines 228-231)

In her studies, Erin said that she sacrificed teaching experience for clinical experience, explaining:

The program was directed more towards conducting research and further developing my clinical skill set, rather than becoming a faculty member. I think that is a limitation of doctoral programs within my profession. We are being prepared to become clinicians rather than educators. And if you further your schooling to become an educator, you sacrifice the clinical experience for teaching experience and lose out on those clinical experiences that add credibility and real-world application regarding what you are teaching. (Transcript 3, page 10, lines 222-227)

As they immersed themselves in the academic setting, each participant discovered the faculty environment was dynamic and always changing. Every course, section, semester, and academic year was different. The timing of courses, classroom location, and the number of students also change, affecting course delivery. In addition, these new faculty members had to learn how to learn, not as a student, but as a faculty member. Some did not ask for assistance or advice and learned from the mistakes they made unintentionally.
The academically trained faculty also made inaccurate assumptions about faculty life from their prior academic experiences as graduate students that led to difficulty socializing into the faculty role. There existed a familiarity with knowledge of the curriculum based on their experience as graduate students who completed the educational degree program they were now teaching. In the new faculty role, however, there was a different view as the instructional leader that was overwhelming.

Regarding her doctoral preparation for her faculty role, Mary revealed what seemed to be obvious for each of the participants:

I think that unless a doctorate student has the opportunity to actually have the lived experience of a faculty member outside of just being a teaching assistant or a research assistant, I think just creating a full-time faculty assistant role will be the only way to fully help someone comprehend all that they are about to take on. (Transcript 5, page 14, lines 320-325)

Matt engaged mostly in research in his doctoral program and stated:

I didn't have any clue as to what good teaching was, so I just adapted the methods I learned from observing my previous professors and modified them to see what worked best. When I started my first faculty position, I was expected to know how to teach, but no one really taught me how to effectively do that. (Transcript 8, page 11, lines 256-259)

Mike indicated that more exposure and opportunities to experiencing faculty life would have been helpful as he was not only challenged by the teaching role, but also was not ready for the service role of faculty life:

I think having some type or taking some type of course for teaching methodology or curriculum development, something like that, would help. Or maybe having the option to take one of those courses with a doctorate program in a higher education track or teaching track or faculty track, I think that would have been really helpful to have. It's also that service and administration requirement; it just would be nice just to get some insight into those roles that you might take on or to take on as a faculty member. (Transcript 7, pages 12-13, lines 85-90)
Regardless of discipline, all participants stated that prior to their first faculty positions, they felt prepared to engage in research, but quickly discovered how different faculty roles and responsibilities were from what they prepared for or expected. They realized their prior graduate student and professional experiences did not prepare them for a full-time faculty role.

**Research Question Focus #4 – Barriers and Facilitators to Socialization Themes**

The fourth research question inquired about faculty perceptions of barriers and facilitators to their professional or organizational socialization experiences. From this research question, two themes emerged: role balance and learn as you go.

**Role balance.** The participants identified several barriers that hindered their socialization as new faculty. Insufficient time to perform the varied tasks surrounding teaching responsibilities was a consistent concern among both groups of faculty. Kate remarked, "I'm trying to grade papers, but I do not seem to have enough time to prepare my lesson plan for the next day or attend a department meeting" (Transcript 2, page 17, lines 389-390). Dan noted that he sacrificed work-life balance during his first year:

I would have to say that it really was just trying to balance everything. It was one of those things where you know there was this change from being a clinical expert to all of the sudden this new faculty member and I felt like I had to start all over. It was really more just figuring out how to balance things together with the faculty role and personal life. I spent a lot of time my first year sacrificing my personal life for my faculty life I would have to say. (Transcript 1, page 10, lines 217-224)

While Erin did not mention work-life strain, she did express difficulty with balancing her faculty roles:

I learned that being a faculty member definitely was something in which you've got to be able to role balance. I wasn't one hundred percent aware of the amount of service commitment that faculty have to engage in, whether it's to the institution itself or to your professional organization, and having to balance that on top of teaching and potentially research and student advising, that definitely was something in which I had to learn to adjust to. I had to figure out a way to manage my time a little bit better and so I would I
would have to say I realized there was a lot more preparation and a lot more work that goes into to being a faculty member. I had to learn how to balance and really had to learn how to time manage a lot better. (Transcript 3, page 3, lines 64-72)

Greg expressed the same sentiment as the other clinically trained faculty when he said, “managing teaching, research, and committee requirements required more than 40 hours of work a week … and that is if you don’t have any distractions or interruptions along the way” (Transcript 4, page 15, lines 353-355).

Each clinically trained faculty member mentioned difficulty balancing faculty roles as a barrier to his or her organizational socialization experience. New athletic training and physical therapy faculty were mostly eager about assuming their new faculty roles, and based on their previous clinical backgrounds, they had preconceived notions regarding institutional structures and expectations of support from within their respective institutions. These assumptions were rooted in the practices of the clinical environment, where clinical practice functions according to a specific policy, protocol, or procedure.

Academically trained faculty also felt overwhelmed with balancing their faculty roles. Given that Matt was overwhelmed with all of his responsibilities from the outset, he indicated that his doctoral preparation could have better equipped him to manage, balance, and prioritize his time:

I felt overwhelmed balancing all that is needed to be done as a faculty member and doing it all correctly. Managing papers, exams, lectures, committee meetings in the afternoons, and implementing research agendas…no schooling prepares you for managing your own time and understanding at the outset what to prioritize and how, especially when you do not actually have [preparation for] all of the responsibilities of a faculty position in your doctorate program. (Transcript 8, page 7, lines 145-148)

Mary knew the expectations of each of the components of a faculty role, but still had difficulty balancing all of her responsibilities each day:
My expectations really were just that I would be teaching and advising students. I was really overwhelmed my first week of school as I struggled with balancing my day. I thought I knew what to expect as I asked plenty of questions regarding expectations and job duties, but it is different once you actually live the experience and implement the advice you were given. Coming up with teaching plans, advising plans, and committee service both within the university and in my professional organizations. More than anything I expected that I knew I was going to have all of that on me, but the implementation part of it was the hard part. (Transcript 5, page 3, lines 63-70)

Mike struggled with managing his time, and his struggle was evident to his students:

I needed to give myself a lot more structure and a lot more time management throughout my day so that this way I didn't get off tangent, or so that this way I was prepared for the expectations of the position. While you can't prepare for everything, you can at least get yourself as prepared as possible for what you do know. I quickly realized that there was a lot more work that I needed to do to be a very good faculty member. I was all over the place that first year. Students noticed me struggling with time management and would offer me help with my work. I knew I wasn’t doing a very good job when the students noticed I was struggling. (Transcript 7, page 6, lines 126-133)

**Learn as you go.** Participants also recounted their knowledge deficit surrounding the academic skills required to prepare for teaching and assessment. Their specific areas of lacking knowledge included concerns such as test development and item analysis, where to have handouts printed and copied, and the most effective ways to design and deliver instruction to achieve the best learning outcomes. The participants noted the scarcity of resources or mentors to guide them in their new roles as educators, administrators, researchers, and advisors. Participants acknowledged that guidance and support were lacking and feedback about their performance was scarce.

When athletic training and physical therapy participants left clinical practice for their first full-time faculty positions, they were surprised by the culture of academia. They found academia to be flexible in nature, in contrast to the structured clinical practice environment, and as such, saw it as disorganized and chaotic. The participants described how being given books, a syllabus, and an office and told what you are to teach is not enough to train new educators.
Clinically trained faculty discovered not only how to use their expertise from their clinical backgrounds as resources for navigating the faculty role, but also realized they did not have all the tools and personal resources to navigate each of the responsibilities with ease. Erin noted:

Just because you're a clinical expert doesn’t mean you are an expert in the classroom. I found out very quickly that I thought I was prepared for most of what I was supposed to be doing, but the unpredictability of the academic culture, students can pop in your office and take you off task. In fact, a faculty member or administrator can come into your office and get you off task…You typically don’t have someone who you have to report back to each day other than yourself. I think when it comes down to it, preparation really is more of a, you know, “learn as you go” experience. (Transcript 3, page 11, lines 243-247, 248-250)

If he had been made aware of the job expectations ahead of time and had a resource for help, Dan claimed that his adjustment to faculty life would have been made easier:

I would have to say my transition would have been easier maybe if there were clearer expectations of what the job entailed and set resources to help faculty out when they start. When I interviewed, I did ask questions of what their expectations were of me, but the answers weren't specific to the day to day activities or obligations that I would be doing. I figured it out along the way, but I had made a lot of mistakes and had a lot of growing pains in the process. (Transcript 1, page 13, lines 293-297)

Greg said his program director told him, "here's your office and here are your course books. The computer still has the files from [the previous faculty member], so you can use that for your classes if you'd like" (Transcript 4, page 16, lines 363-365).

Regarding preparation for faculty life, academically trained faculty fared no better than clinically trained faculty. Each of the academically trained participants remarked that their doctoral preparation was not a comprehensive doctoral experience of all faculty roles. Mary explained that as a student, she tried to pay attention to what faculty were doing both within the classroom and outside the classroom, but she still was not prepared for her faculty role:

I didn't get the opportunity to really engage in what their lives were outside their office hours and the classroom experience. I did get to assist with some classes with teaching, but I wasn't responsible for creating the content for the class that day. I was just told ‘hey
this is what you're going to teach and these are the topics, so you're going to need to just prepare.' (Transcript 5, pages 11-12, lines 258-262)

Much like Greg, Lisa was given a syllabus, a textbook, and a computer file on her first day of work:

I was told that everything I needed was in the computer file. When I opened it, it was all of the PowerPoints used in the course I would be teaching. That was it. And then five minutes later I was summoned to a department meeting and selected to serve on two committees I knew nothing about. I was clueless and was too embarrassed to ask someone for help. So, I tried to figure it all out on my own. It was an ugly sight! (Transcript 6, page 16, lines 358-362)

Each of these participants quickly discovered that their prior graduate student experiences did not prepare them for full-time faculty roles. Some participants had challenges learning how to structure their faculty roles and became overwhelmed by their lack of preparation for juggling teaching, research, and service responsibilities. In addition, there was the assumption that most of the teaching role was spent in the classroom, and many were surprised to learn how many hours were actually spent outside of classroom in activities such as teaching preparation, reading and editing papers, creating exams and assignments, attending faculty meetings, committee meetings, and institutional events.
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the professional and organizational socialization experiences of clinically trained and academically trained faculty as they started their first full-time faculty positions. Eight full-time faculty members participated in a survey and interview regarding their professional and organizational socialization experiences and how they made sense of their experiences as new faculty members during their first full-time faculty position. All of the participants shared the following attributes: (a) holding a full-time faculty position leading to tenure or under renewable contracts, (b) having completed at least one year but no more than 10 years in their role as a faculty member, (c) having earned a terminal degree within their profession (Ph.D., Ed.D., DAT, or DPT), and (d) holding a faculty appointment in one of the following educational programs: athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, or education.

The purpose of this study was to gain a retrospective understanding of the role inductance for faculty members in higher education, to better understand the professional and organizational socialization processes that faculty experience as they enter their first job in higher education, and to identify the needs of faculty as they gain role induction. The four research questions listed below guided this study.

1. Do faculty experience transformative learning in their socialization as faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs? If so, how? If not, why not?

2. What forms and sources of institutional support of socialization do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs receive?
3. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs feel their doctoral education helped them form a professional identity that allowed them to succeed in their faculty role? If so, how? If not, why not?

4. Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education perceive any barriers and facilitators to their professional or organizational socialization experiences? If so, how? If not, why not?

Using Mezirow’s (2009) transformative learning theory as the theoretical framework for this study, the following section outlines the conclusions drawn from the findings of this research. Each section is based on the findings of each of the research questions. Clinically trained faculty will be discussed first, followed by a discussion of academically trained faculty. The final section for each research question will be a compare and contrast of each. After a discussion of conclusions, the chapter will present limitations of this study, followed by implications for professional and organizational socialization for new faculty and suggestions for future research based on the researcher’s own reflection of the research.

**Transformative Learning**

This research study focused on the idea that new faculty transitioning to academia undergo a transformation of identity, with identity defined as how an individual or group associates themselves, such as by their profession (Vignoles, Schwartz, & Luyckx, 2011). Mezirow’s (2009) transformative learning theory guided this research study’s purpose to understand adult learning for new faculty during the professional and organizational socialization processes. Through the process of learning, new faculty may experience transformative learning as they progressively transition to competence in faculty roles.
Mezirow's (2009) transformative learning theory suggests that adults bring a variety of life experiences, assumptions, and expectations to the learning process. For new clinically trained and academically trained faculty, such life lessons included their previous clinical and educational experiences and preconceived ideas about faculty roles. These expectations and ideas inevitably influenced how new faculty approached their new environments and roles (Lawler, 2003). The findings from this study support components of Mezirow’s (2009) theory and reveal that the initial expectations new faculty had regarding their roles emerged from what they observed among faculty while they were graduate students. An example of this phenomenon is found in the faculty descriptions of mirroring the teaching styles and strategies of their professors. Similar to findings by Gallant (2000) and Layne (2015), all new faculty in this study defaulted to teaching methods they had observed in their graduate faculty since they had not been given any formal pedagogical training during their doctoral programs (Gallant, 2000; Layne, 2015).

In alignment with the transformative learning theory, each of the participants in this study, regardless of academic discipline and degree type, encountered some form of discord or disorienting dilemma within the new faculty role, consisting of unfamiliar and uncomfortable feelings and experiences during their socialization as new faculty. More specifically, the findings revealed that new faculty who engaged in critical reflection began to realize that what they observed as graduate students was not helpful nor applicable in their faculty roles. All participants reached a point at which they questioned their competency as faculty and performed critical self-assessments that revealed feelings of not being academic enough. This critically reflective thinking is an integral part of both the transformative learning process and the socialization process. Self-reflection precipitated the development of self-awareness about their
roles as faculty members, prompting them to develop and adopt new views and methodologies that were more appropriate to being faculty members. Some explored options for self-improvement, such as completing a faculty development course in teaching andragogy or identifying a mentor, but most still learned their faculty roles through trial and error.

After choosing to transition to academia, both clinically trained and academically trained participants described a time of entering into environments and roles that were very different from those to which they were accustomed. Initial feelings ranged from being excited about engaging in something new to being apprehensive and overwhelmed by the uncertainties associated with transitioning from clinician to faculty or from graduate student to faculty. There were areas of familiarity related to the context of each discipline for which faculty had been a part, but the unknown and uncertain expectations and requirements of faculty roles left participants feeling unsure of their place in academia. Participants described their experience as a journey to be accepted as an academic, and expressed a desire for purposeful connection with students, colleagues, and administrators. It was those connections to others that supported a sense of self-awareness and belonging to the academic environment.

To successfully manage change, it is necessary to deliberately separate from old behaviors before being able to assume new behaviors (Bridges, 2003). Periods of transition include a modification of behavioral and thought patterns to align with the new environment (Bridges, 2003). During the transition process, all of the participants had to shift identities from clinician or graduate student to academic faculty. In this study, professional growth appeared to be facilitated by consistent and supportive student and faculty interactions.

Institutional support structures were also central to the transition process, making university orientation programs key to a smoother transition at the beginning of the socialization
process. Induction programs need to explicitly address the culture of academia and not assume that the new faculty know what to expect. Reynolds (1992) suggested that socialization occurs when a new faculty member's view is in agreement with that of the institution or department, but that acculturation ensues when a new faculty member's view is extremely different from that of the institution or department. New acculturated faculty are likely to struggle in their new environments, as many of the participants in this study demonstrated with their portrayals of confusion, stress, and exhaustion within their faculty roles.

Clinically trained participants described the establishment of credibility as an indicator of their developing aptitude in the faculty role and based their credibility within the classroom on the application of previous clinical experience and knowledge gained in graduate school. They depicted a struggle to integrate their identities as clinicians with their developing identities as academics. Although there was anxiousness and uncertainty in the new roles, these participants described their previous experiences as clinicians as having a positive influence on their sense of credibility with students.

Many of the participants identified a desire to be accepted within their institutions and described experiences that influenced a sense of self-awareness and belonging. Although some participants struggled with a sense of belonging, most noted the importance of fitting in, with the intent to stay in academia. Several participants attributed their sense of belonging and their successful transition to academia to having someone they recognized as a mentor and who they perceived as genuinely caring about them and being interested and invested in their success and to developing quality connections with their colleagues. Figures 3 and 4 outline the transformative learning sequence of clinically trained faculty and academically trained faculty in this research study.
Disorienting Dilemma
Faculty roles and responsibilities were not what was expected

Critical Assessment and Examination
Self-Awareness
Andragogy
Role Balance

Explore Options
Mentoring
Faculty Development
Clinical Experience
Trial and Error

Implement Knowledge (self-directed) → Transformative Learning

Figure 2: Clinically Trained Faculty Transformative Learning Sequence
Figure 3: Academically Trained Faculty Transformative Learning Sequence

Using transformative learning theory to understand learning to be an educator, to achieve new growth in personal development, one must also achieve increased self-awareness (Cranton, 2006). As participants gained more experience in and knowledge of their roles, they began to identify areas of positive change and initiate changes, particularly in the educator aspect of their
roles. Growth and change were attributed to continued experience and practice, making mistakes, learning through trial and error, and receiving support from colleagues. In describing the changes that were needed, participants most frequently cited the pursuit and use of new teaching methodologies in the classroom and an improved ability to manage and balance faculty roles based on the advice of peers and mentors. Despite acknowledging these needed changes, the professional and organizational socialization experiences of the participants within this research study did not effectively facilitate socialization of these faculty to their expected roles and responsibilities. Thus, professional and organizational socialization tactics used within their graduate and institutional socialization processes did not facilitate transformation into competent faculty. Educators’ awareness of themselves as people and practitioners is fundamental to transformative learning, and dialogue, participation in professional development activities, and engaging in self-assessment are keys to becoming a transformative learner as an educator (Cranton, 2006).

**Institutional Support**

Differences among disciplines, institutional missions and goals, along with economic and societal trends, shape departmental cultures (Lumpkin, 2014). Sometimes it is challenging for new faculty to grasp the culture of an institution or academic unit. Understanding institutional culture and becoming socialized into an academic unit may be eased by mentors who guide and direct new faculty (Gibson, 2006). According to Schrodt, Cawyer, and Sanders (2003), new faculty who are mentored feel more connected to their work environments and report greater levels of satisfaction with academic socialization experiences than their non-mentored peers. Through formal and informal mentoring, new faculty gain perspectives into deep-seated
opinions, historical contexts, and the personal feelings of others to learn to avoid conflict (Schrodt, Cawyer, et al., 2003).

Orientation and mentoring are two key components in socializing new faculty members to the knowledge, skills, behaviors, and culture of new faculty roles (Boice, 1992; Weidman & Stein, 2003). Orientation to the role and mentoring occurred for a majority of the participants, although despite these two components there was a shared feeling amongst participants of having to navigate their roles on their own and to learn through trial and error. Often, participants were hired and started their roles with very little preparation time – in most cases having just a week or two before classes began. There was great pressure to quickly select the teaching content, to determine how to teach it, to learn other aspects of their roles, and to orient to the institution. Some had the added pressure of having to attend required faculty meetings before the students returned and felt tension regarding how to allocate their time. For instance, should they participate and learn important information about the college or use the time preparing for their courses?

Billings and Halstead (2012) posited that orientation is a foundational part of the faculty development process at the time of hire and is critical to program effectiveness. Similar to findings by Tierney and Rhoads (1993) and Pitney et al. (2002), in this study, as participants entered their new roles, they cited a lack of formal orientation or shortened orientation and inadequate socialization to the faculty role.

Participants noted an overall need for knowledge and information in a number of areas as they were beginning their new roles. Some sought faculty development courses, while others discovered information more informally through colleagues, students, and administrators. Participants pursued information through online research and by reading books and journal
articles, or by attending workshops, conferences, or professional development opportunities on their own to fill in the gaps.

Dirsmith and Covaleski (1985) found that mentors may affect the degree of socialization for new faculty, but Bragg (1981) found that proper mentorship alignment was the most effective for new faculty to socialize into their new roles. About half of the participants in this study did not have a formal mentor assigned to them by their institution, but almost all the participants in each discipline had mentors outside of the institution which they enlisted for support or assistance.

Schrodt, Cawyer, et al. (2003) indicated that new faculty assigned to a mentor would be more satisfied with the socialization process than non-mentored faculty, as mentored faculty reported having a stronger sense of ownership of the department, felt more connected in their work environment, and received more adequate information about service, teaching, and research. Moreover, Cawyer, Simonds, and Davis (2002) found that both informal and formal mentoring eased the anxiety of new faculty members. The findings of this study align with the work of Schrodt, Cawyer, et al. (2003) and of Cawyer, Simonds, et al. (2002), revealing that participants who were assigned mentors described more positive socialization experiences as new faculty compared with those who had did not have mentors.

Orientation and mentoring were both facilitating and hindering factors for new faculty, depending on the amount and quality of the experience. Any amount of orientation and mentoring, whether formal or informal, was a facilitating factor. New faculty needed information about all aspects of their new position, particularly regarding teaching, and therefore, found any information they received to be helpful. Participants developed formal and
informal mentoring relationships with colleagues, found the support and guidance helpful, and appreciated the input.

**Doctoral Preparation**

The focus of graduate school is on research methods and knowledge generation (AACN, 2006), with the goal of developing independent researchers who can engage in research that contributes to the advancement of their discipline. A challenge throughout higher education involves the preparation of new faculty for their role within an institution (Austin, 2002). With inadequate formal preparation, new faculty can suffer from workplace stressors and issues such as role overload and burnout (Pitney, 2010). Louis, Posner, and Powell (1983) stated that graduate school was the foundation of anticipatory socialization for new faculty, and Fisher (1986) asserted that new faculty developed expectations of their faculty role during the anticipatory socialization phase. In this study, all eight participants referred to their graduate education as preparing them for a faculty role. However, upon starting their faculty position, they realized their lack of preparation for all of the facets that a full-time faculty position entailed. Role modeling served as the base for the participants to develop their expectations for their faculty positions, but they did not have insight into every aspect of the position that a faculty member encounters for proper organizational socialization.

Golde and Dore (2001) stated that despite the intent of doctoral programs to prepare students for their professional careers, doctoral students who became faculty members perceived themselves as ill-prepared for the customs and demand of faculty positions. This discrepancy occurred despite faculty efforts, allocation of resources for developing new faculty, and opportunities for professional development. Their findings suggested that graduate programs
were ineffective in the actual development of new faculty due to inadequate socialization processes found within doctoral programs.

The doctoral experience is critical to professional socialization and may be considered the first step in the development of a faculty career (Austin, 2002; Golde, 2005). Doctoral students encounter several professional socialization processes as they learn the expectations of higher education, their own discipline, and the culture of their academic program (Austin, 2002). Professional socialization processes during doctoral studies are typically characterized by formal, structured learning opportunities. However, doctoral students, regardless of discipline, rely on personal and professional support networks to help them navigate academia (Austin, 2002; Brumels & Beach, 2008; Dewald & Walsh, 2009). Not all new faculty complete coursework in teaching, service, or research, but every new faculty member has personal experience as a student who has observed faculty in that role (Young & Diekelmann, 2002). In accordance with Austin (2002) and Golde (1998), the findings of this research study indicate that doctoral education may not adequately prepare future faculty members for their multifaceted professional careers. Following the completion of their doctoral programs, the participants in this research study, regardless of educational type, did not feel prepared to engage in teaching, service, and advising, but did feel prepared to engage in research.

As graduate students who had completed the educational degree program that they were now teaching, the participants made assumptions regarding faculty roles and were knowledgeable regarding the curriculum. The clinically trained faculty placed their confidence in their prior knowledge and experiences as graduate students, but not as a faculty member leading the classes. They discovered how vastly different the faculty teaching perspective and responsibilities are from those of the student and learned that their prior clinical experiences did
not prepare them for full-time faculty roles. Some participants found it challenging to learn to structure their faculty role and became overwhelmed juggling teaching, research, and service responsibilities. In addition, they had assumed that most of the faculty role occurred in the classroom, but many were surprised to learn how many hours were spent outside of the classroom in activities such as teaching preparation, reading, and editing papers, creating exams and assignments, and attending faculty meetings, committee meetings, and institutional events.

Coursework specific to teaching is not an essential element within the foundation of doctorate programs (AACN, 2006). Despite the idea that doctoral faculty should possess a terminal degree, there are no accreditation requirements for these faculty to teach andragogy to athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, or education doctorate students. Similar to the findings of Golde and Dore (2001), both clinically and academically focused doctoral programs emphasized the development of researchers. For those athletic trainers and physical therapists receiving a clinical doctorate, teaching was not a focus of the program, and pedagogical coursework was neither required nor offered within their curriculum.

Education toward a Ph.D. is presumed to prepare students for a specific professional path such as a faculty position within higher education (Golde, 1998), as this is a fundamental goal of the professional socialization experience in graduate school (Gardner & Barnes, 2007). Research preparation within a Ph.D. program emphasizes the creation, interpretation, and dissemination of evidence (Gardner, 2008). Clinical doctoral programs incorporate scholarly research within the discipline but emphasize the clinical practice and outcomes of evidence over independent research (Danzey, Ea, Fitzpatrick, et al., 2011). Many institutions limit clinical graduates to non-tenure track roles with large teaching responsibilities that their clinically focused doctoral training has not prepared them to perform (Danzey, Ea, et al., 2011).
In this study, participants reported feeling that they were better prepared to achieve in the areas of research and scholarship than in teaching because they had been more engaged in scholarship-related tasks during their graduate education. This result is similar to the findings by Cooley (2013), Kauffman and Mann (2013), and McDonald (2010) who reported that even those educators with formal graduate preparation said that the transition was challenging and not what they expected. An overarching theme noted throughout the transition literature from graduate school to academia is a lack of knowledge about and preparation for the faculty role (Dempsey, 2007; Schriner, 2007; Siler & Kleiner, 2001; Weidman, 2013; Young & Diekelmann, 2002). In this study, participants with formal preparation in doctoral programs with an academic focus lacked preparation in key aspects of the role, particularly didactic instruction, teaching design, and teaching practicums.

According to the participants, the most pressing knowledge need was information about teaching, particularly regarding the structure of the curriculum, what was supposed to be taught, how to teach it, and how to evaluate students. Consequently, participants began their faculty careers with little to no knowledge about how to teach and spoke of having to learn by trial and error or by figuring it out as they went along (Boice, 1992; Pitney et al., 2002). Similarly, in his study of new faculty, Boice (1992) found that within their first year, new faculty lacked confidence in their teaching abilities and learned to teach on their own through trial and error (Boice, 1992).

Dempsey (2007) found that new faculty had a difficult time applying theoretical content to classroom instruction and learning the administrative roles of teaching, such as grading. In this study, participants with clinically based degrees shared similar struggles with deficiencies in teaching andragogy. Starnes-Ott and Kremer (2007) posited that preparation as an expert
clinician does not necessarily ensure preparation to also be an effective educator. In addition, according to Schriner (2007), faculty lacked preparation in evaluating students and grading clinical paperwork, found it challenging to be assigned to an unfamiliar clinical unit, and often received an orientation to the clinical facility that was limited or non-existent.

Whether the new faculty had access to curriculum files or had to start from scratch to develop the content they were preparing to teach, all spent many hours preparing for classes, learning the content, and trying to make it their own. Those who did not have access to curriculum files in the beginning found it difficult to discern what to teach and what had already been taught. Some expressed self-doubt or anxiety in their abilities to deliver the content adequately or to provide students with what they needed to be successful in class and in their respective fields of study.

In their study of medical school faculty, Blackburn and Fox (1976) found that for Ph.D.s who sought medical faculty positions, socialization to their faculty roles occurred during their graduate programs. But medical school faculty who possessed M.D.s did not become socialized to their faculty roles until they were in their faculty positions. Similar to the results from this study, other scholars have found that new academically trained faculty were no more prepared than clinically trained faculty to assume their first faculty position (Halperin, Bryyny, Moore, & Morahan, 1995; Wachs, 1993).

Austin and McDaniels (2006) reviewed the process through which future faculty are socialized during their doctoral programs, consistently finding that doctoral students expressed concerns about their socialization experiences and how they were not prepared to assume their first faculty positions. Similar to the findings of this study, Austin (2002) found that graduate students who aspired to be faculty found they were prepared to conduct research, but were not
prepared for the dynamics of teaching. While the literature is mixed regarding whether new faculty who possess Ph.D.s have similar socialization experiences in their first positions as new faculty who do not possess Ph.D.s, it is worth noting that researchers who have studied new medical and law school faculty asserted that faculty who possessed Ph.D.s are better socialized to their faculty roles than those with terminal professional degrees (Blackburn & Fox, 1976; George, 2006).

**Barriers and Facilitators**

For organizational socialization to occur, each academic discipline has a distinct culture that must be learned and accepted by new faculty (Austin & McDaniels, 2006; Tierney & Rhoads, 1994). Organizational culture influences how individuals behave, whether faculty are supportive or competitive with one another, provides a framework for success within the organization, and influences organizational goals (Lumpkin, 2014). Often, new faculty members are told “this is the way things are done around here,” in reference to the unwritten rules of the institution or department (Lumpkin, 2014).

Tierney (1997) posited that the initial socialization of new faculty into higher education includes managing long work hours and multiple responsibilities, and finding that the expectations for teaching, research, and service may be unclear and undefined. Fugate and Amey (2000) reported that new faculty in their first year of employment spent the majority of their time preparing for classes and developing and grading assignments and exams.

In the midst of uncertainty, new faculty members rely on their colleagues for help in understanding events and policies that impact them. To reduce feelings of isolation, most aspire to build relationships with colleagues who share similar attitudes, beliefs, and values. Consistent with several studies of new faculty conducted by Boice (1992), career satisfaction and the
motivation for continued professional productivity are associated with an effective socialization process of listening, asking questions, observing, and getting engaged with colleagues in activities congruent with the culture. Bolman and Deal (2003) described the process as making sense of the structural, human resource, political, and symbolic frames of an organization.

If anticipatory socialization for an individual supports the culture of the organization, role continuance will occur sooner (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). But an individual has to understand expectations and adjust to those expectations before role continuance can occur (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993). As noted already, participants in this study found it difficult to accomplish more than course preparation and teaching during their first year. The difficulties they experienced made it hard to move beyond the entry phase of organizational socialization (Tierney & Rhoads, 1993), which includes acquiring new knowledge and skills for implementing change and successfully transforming into the faculty role. This inability to move forward affected the participants' ability to spend efficient and productive time on each of their faculty roles.

New faculty faced a variety of new situations and experiences that revealed the complexities of the multi-faceted faculty role. For example, from the beginning, faculty workload varied significantly for all participants. Per inclusion criteria for the study, participants were full-time faculty. However, all institutions calculated workload for faculty differently, and the factors that influenced workload were not examined in this study. Participants in these initial full-time faculty positions felt tired and overwhelmed by the amount of time spent preparing for classes, conducting research, and serving on committees. Moreover, some of them were not prepared for the time commitment and extra time they spent in their faculty roles beyond the traditional eight-hour workday. Similar to this study, Sorcinelli (1994) found that unless new
faculty sacrificed their personal time, they did not have enough time to perform their jobs, let alone perform them well.

Barriers to successful faculty performance were those circumstances or phenomena that made the transition more difficult or challenging. New faculty cited role balancing and learning as they went as barriers to organizational socialization. Not only were these new faculty unprepared for key aspects of their role – including curriculum development, teaching methodology, and service commitment – but they also had difficulty with time management within and among the responsibilities. Feelings of being tired, overwhelmed, and overworked were common experiences of these new faculty, regardless of degree area. Graduate courses provided an awareness about faculty roles and responsibilities for some of the new faculty, but most reported a general lack of practical preparation prior to assuming their first faculty positions (Austin, 2002; Boice, 2000; Golde, 1998; Reybold, 2003).

Williamson (1993), and Corcoran and Clark (1984) found that new faculty were confused by the expectations of their faculty roles. Participants expressed frustration and exhaustion related to having to comprehend their roles, having not received role expectations or been given instructions regarding how to succeed. Participants noted feeling embarrassed and insecure as a result of not knowing what to do and of having to learn from mistakes. While some participants made a point of recognizing supportive efforts or colleagues and administrators, they still described frustration when relating how these situations caused feelings of vulnerability and incompetence in their roles.

In many respects, this study’s clinically trained participants demonstrated that transitioning from a full-time clinical role in a clinical practice setting to a full-time faculty role in higher education puts individuals into a beginner position all over again and is comparable to
changing a career within the same profession. Each of the clinically trained participants transitioned from clinical practice to academia at different stages of their clinical careers. During this time, several underlying factors led the participants to choose to transition to higher education, including a desire to teach and work with students and a desire for a better work-life balance than their clinical practice role afforded. Each of the clinically trained participants retained their clinical background mentality as they transitioned into their faculty roles.

These new clinically trained faculty assumed that only their work environments would change when they accepted faculty roles and anticipated easy transitions because of their extensive clinical knowledge and experience. Instead, they experienced a significant change in culture and in the meaning of the work on which they were about to embark. These new faculty realized that although the skill set of clinical practice was applicable to their teaching roles, their clinical experience was not applicable to their overall faculty roles because academia is indifferent to clinical experience. To have the opportunity to socialize within the institution, they must make the paradigm shift from clinical practice to academia.

According to Corcoran and Clark (1984), role continuance occurs when new faculty members master skills within their roles, acquire professional identities as faculty, and become advocates for positive institutional or departmental change. Based on an analysis of the transcripts, none of the participants within this study had arrived at the point of role continuance after their first or second year, although some were beginning the role continuance process soon thereafter. Each of the participants experienced anticipatory socialization during graduate school and within their clinical positions, and the induction process began when they started their first faculty positions. While many of the new faculty sought mentors and faculty development
courses to facilitate their transitions into their faculty roles, organizational socialization still did not occur for the majority of them after their first and second years as new faculty.

Conclusion

While a majority of the new faculty investigated resources to help them adapt to this new environment, only one of the participants followed the steps of transformative learning and became socialized into their faculty role. Specifically, the professional and organizational socialization experiences of the participants did not foster successful transformation into their respective faculty roles. That is, the transformative learning journey was not yet complete at the point of their participating in the interviews. While participants realized they were not prepared for their faculty roles during their first year as new faculty, participants still needed to acquire the knowledge and skills to develop into successful faculty and socialize within the institutions and departments they had joined. Transformative learning may, therefore, be an effective theory for understanding faculty socialization experiences.

Limitations

A limitation to this study was the long-term reflection required of the participants. All of the participants finished their doctoral preparation more than a year before the interviews took place. Two of the faculty members completed a professional socialization process more than ten years earlier. Moreover, half the faculty completed an organizational socialization process at least five years earlier and may not have accurately recollected the processes and feelings they experienced.

Another limitation may be personal assumptions and biases of the researcher. Previous professional and socialization experiences as a clinician to a faculty member may predispose the researcher to certain preconceived ideas that serve as biases. To minimize researcher bias,
included in this study are a detailed explanation of the researcher's role and her self-analysis in the context of performing the present study.

The third limitation to this study was participant profiles. All eight participants identified as being Caucasian on their demographic questionnaire. Without representation from other ethnicities within the participant group, a voice with potential valuable insight was absent and is a recognized limitation of the study.

Lastly, a perceived limitation is the limited number of participants who were in the study; eight participants. Though this may be perceived as a limitation, due to the type of phenomenological research conducted and the extensive data collection process, there was a vast amount of data which emerged. The focus of the research was on the quality of the data versus the quantity of participants. Therefore, despite the small number of participants, many researchers find that qualitative research may be transferable to similar settings when approached with careful consideration (Chenail, 2010; Hycner, 1985).

**Implications and Recommendations for Future Research**

Additional research is needed to identify whether the results of this study are representative of other new, full-time faculty within the fields of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education. The findings of this study have important implications for the professional and organizational socialization strategies used within these professions. Within athletic training and physical therapy, it is important to recognize that clinical experience may facilitate the work-role transition; however, it does not provide all of the support and experience needed for the development of skills as faculty members and educators.

As a result of this research, a deeper understanding of the professional and organizational socialization experiences of new clinically trained and academically trained faculty was
achieved. Positive and negative experiences of participants were explored to provide recommendations on how to assist in the socialization processes of new faculty. The results of the qualitative study supported that new faculty experienced anxiety and fears transitioning into academia because of lack of support through formal education and organizational socialization methods. The lack of support for new faculty entering academia requires the need for support and mentoring from experienced faculty to prepare new faculty for the roles and responsibilities they are about to assume.

Recommendations to improve professional and organizational socialization experiences include ideas such as offering structured mentorship programs and providing comprehensive orientation programs that include curriculum and teaching workshops and strategies. The results of this study could serve as a guideline to educational leaders that if proper orientation and mentoring, faculty development workshops, and immersion teaching activities are not provided, transition of new faculty to academia will not be effective.

**Researcher’s Reflection**

I began this research study with the desire to gain insight into the professional and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from clinical and academic fields of study. My research topic was consistently met with positive feedback from faculty, many of whom expressed their agreement that there was a significant need to compare the socialization experiences between two separate methods of training. This feedback motivated me to continue and persist with the dissertation topic and process and made the experiences of the participants even more significant due to the lack of research to date on this topic of study.

Despite consistencies within the literature regarding the lack of pedagogical training and preparation of new faculty within their doctoral programs, I was surprised most by discovering
that the same pattern was a consistent finding amongst all of the disciplines in this research study. I had incorrectly assumed that academically trained faculty would have pedagogical training within their degree programs based on the nature of an academic degree, making them better prepared and more qualified for a faculty position.

The dissertation process was not an easy experience to complete, but it has been very rewarding in the sense of attaining a better understanding of the extensiveness of the qualitative research process and obtaining a new appreciation for qualitative research. In retrospect, the construction of my dissertation was a slow (and sometimes frustrating) process, but I was always encouraged by the people around me, including my family, friends, peers, colleagues, and doctoral faculty. Indeed, I found that it was not only important to have time to think and work alone, but to also have time to share thoughts and develop ideas with other people. It is not uncommon to feel that the research process is an insurmountable task that will never end, and from this experience, I have learned that perseverance, hard work and good time management skills are key to completing a dissertation. This dissertation has inspired me to continue to investigate the professional and organizational socialization experiences of clinically and academically trained faculty, and hopefully to one day contribute in some way to the issues related to poor socialization processes for new faculty, regardless of academic discipline.
APPENDIX A: IRB SUMMARY EXPLANATION FOR EXEMPT RESEARCH
EXPLANATION OF RESEARCH

Title of Project: A Comparison of Faculty Socialization Experiences Between Clinically Trained Faculty and Faculty with Academic Degrees

Principal Investigator: Jennifer L. Plant, MS Ed., LAT, ATC

Faculty Supervisor: Dr. Kathleen P. King, Ed.D., Professor & Program Coordinator, Higher Education and Policy Studies

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Whether you take part is up to you and you may withdraw participation at any time. If you withdraw participation, your information will not be used within the research study. This research study has been approved by the University of Central Florida’s Institutional Review Board.

The purpose of this study is to gain a retrospective understanding of the role inductance for faculty members in higher education, to better understand the professional and organizational socialization processes that faculty experience as they enter their first job in higher education, and to learn the needs of faculty as they gain role induction. This study will specifically focus on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from clinically based and academically based doctoral programs.

You will be asked to participate in one survey and one interview session. The survey will be administered through a Qualtrics link via email and will ask demographic and educational background questions and will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. After completion of the survey, you will then be asked to participate in a telephone interview pertaining to your professional and organizational socializations experiences for your faculty role. The interview will last approximately 60 minutes. Telephone interviews will be held at a date, time, and location of your choosing. The interview will be audio recorded and you will not be allowed to participate in the study if you do not want to be audio recorded. Following the interview, you will be asked to review your interview transcript for accuracy, although you will not be required to do so to participate in the study.

Only I will have access to the audio recordings. All information recorded from the interview will be secured under lock and key. All audio recordings will be kept in a locked, safe place, and each record will be erased or destroyed immediately after the transcription is completed. Data will be maintained for five (5) years after closing out the Human Research.

You must be 18 years of age or older to take part in this research study.

Study contact for questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, please contact Jennifer L. Plant, Doctoral Student, Higher Education and Policy Studies, at (407) 823-5232 or Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu, or contact Dr. Kathleen P. King, Faculty Supervisor and Professor & Program Coordinator, Higher Education and Policy Studies at (407) 823-4751, or Kathleen.King@ucf.edu.

IRB contact about your rights in the study or to report a complaint: Research at the University of Central Florida involving human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (UCF IRB). This research has been reviewed and approved by the IRB. For information about the rights of people who take part in research, please contact: Institutional Review Board, University of Central Florida, Office of Research & Commercialization, 12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901.
APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT LETTER
September 4, 2017

Dear Dr. ___________,

I am currently a faculty member and doctorate student at the University of Central Florida in Orlando, Florida, with an undergraduate and graduate background in athletic training. I am conducting a study investigating the socialization processes that clinically trained and academically trained faculty experience as doctoral students and from their institutions upon entry into higher education faculty positions.

The purpose of this study is to gain a retrospective understanding of the role inductance for faculty members in higher education, to better understand the professional and organizational socialization processes that faculty experience as they enter their first job in higher education, and to learn the needs of faculty as they gain role induction. This study will specifically focus on the doctoral and organizational socialization experiences of faculty from clinically based and academically based doctoral programs, and includes one brief survey regarding education and demographic information and one telephone interview. The results of this research will be used as a means to improve upon doctoral student preparation for faculty roles and for the development of better faculty socialization programs within higher education institutions.

You have been chosen as a potential participant because you may meet the requirements to participate in this study. The requirements include:

- Must be 18 years of age or older
- Hold a full-time faculty position in which you are tenured or will lead to tenure or renewable contract
- Completed at least one year, but no more than ten years, in your role as a faculty member
- Earned a terminal degree within your profession (Ph.D., Ed.D., DAT, DPT)
- Hold a faculty appointment in one of the following educational programs: Athletic Training, Physical Therapy, Exercise Science, or Education

This study has been approved by the University of Central Florida’s Institutional Review Board. If you are interested in participating in this research, please follow the Qualtrics link provided to take the demographic and education background survey. The survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your participation in the survey will serve as your consent to participate in the study.

After completion of the survey, you will receive a follow up email to schedule a telephone interview regarding your doctoral student preparation and organizational socialization experiences for your faculty role. The interview will last approximately 60 minutes. Telephone interviews will be held at a date, time, and location of your choosing. The interview will be audio recorded, and you will not be allowed to participate in the study if you do not want to be audio recorded. All information recorded from the interview will be secured under lock and key, and each record will be erased immediately after the transcription is completed. All information shared will be confidential and no identifying information will be included in the final report.
Participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw and stop participating in the study at any time. You will not be penalized in any way if you withdraw and no longer wish to participate. There are no major anticipated risks from participating in this study.

If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to email me at Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu or call me at 407-823-5232.

Thank you very much for your time and consideration. If you participate, the information provided by faculty such as yourself will be essential to improve faculty socialization processes through doctoral education programs and higher education institutions. Additionally, if there are faculty within your program who qualify for this study, please forward this email to them for consideration for this study.

Kind Regards,

Jennifer Plant
Clinical Education Coordinator/Associate Instructor
University of Central Florida
Program in Athletic Training
407-823-5232
Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu
APPENDIX C: FORMAL INVITATION LETTER AND REQUEST FOR APPOINTMENT
Dear <<Participant Name>>,

First let me thank you for participating in this research study. Your involvement will aid to inform my research questions on perceptions of doctoral training and socialization experiences of new faculty. Please email a date and time that is suitable for us to conduct the individual phone interview as well as a method of communication for the interview (Skype, FaceTime, conference call, e.g.). I will be more than happy to arrange a time that best fits your schedule. I do not anticipate the phone interview lasting more than 60 minutes.

Once we have decided on a date and time for the individual phone interview, I will send an email to confirm the agreed appointment.

At least two days prior to the interview, I will send an email to confirm our scheduled interview date and time.

If you have any questions, or need to reschedule the interview for a more convenient day and/or time, please contact me at any of the methods listed below:

Researcher: Jennifer Plant  
Work Phone: (407) 823-5232  
Mobile Phone: (843) 670-8776  
Email: Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu

Thank you for your assistance with this research.

Kind Regards,

Jennifer Plant  
Clinical Education Coordinator/Associate Instructor  
University of Central Florida  
Program in Athletic Training  
407-823-5232  
Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu
APPENDIX D: CONFIRMATION OF INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW APPOINTMENT
Dear <<Participant Name>>,

Thank you again for your continued support of this study. Your involvement in this study will aid to inform my research questions on perceptions of doctoral training and socialization experiences of new faculty. The purpose for this email is to confirm our scheduled interview according to the agreed information listed below.

Interview Date: <<Date of Interview>>
Method: <<Method of interview>>
Time: <<Time of Interview, starting and ending>>

At least two days prior to the interview, I will send an email to confirm our scheduled interview.

If you have any questions, or need to reschedule the interview for a more convenient time, please contact me at any of the methods listed below:

Researcher: Jennifer Plant
Work Phone: (407) 823-5232
Mobile Phone: (843) 670-8776
Email: Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu

Thank you for your assistance with this research project.

Kind Regards,

Jennifer Plant
Clinical Education Coordinator/Associate Instructor
University of Central Florida
Program in Athletic Training
407-823-5232
Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu
APPENDIX E: REMINDER EMAIL TO PARTICIPANTS
Dear <<Participant Name>>,

This email is a reminder of our scheduled interview on tomorrow, <<Date of Interview>>. The topic of discussion will be your perceptions of doctoral training and socialization experiences of new faculty. We will review the consent form prior to the beginning of the interview to answer any questions that you may have. The interview is scheduled as it appears below:

Interview Date: <<Date of Interview>>
Method: <<Method of Interview>>
Time: <<Time of Interview, starting and ending>>

If you have any questions, or need to reschedule the interview for a more convenient time, please contact me at any of the methods listed below:

Researcher: Jennifer Plant
Work Phone: (407) 823-5232
Mobile Phone: (843) 670-8776
Email: Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu

Thank you for your assistance with this research project.

Kind Regards,

Jennifer Plant
Clinical Education Coordinator/Associate Instructor
University of Central Florida
Program in Athletic Training
407-823-5232
Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu
APPENDIX G: PRE-INTERVIEW SURVEY INSTRUCTIONS
Thank you for choosing to participate in this research study. This study will explore faculty socialization experiences at the institution where they completed their doctoral studies, as well as at their first institution of faculty employment. The purpose of this research study is to investigate the socialization processes that clinically trained and academically trained faculty experience and as they enter into higher education faculty positions. In this study, participants are kindly asked to complete a brief online questionnaire (approximately 15 minutes).

If you are willing to participate, you will be asked about your academic background, as well as your perceptions about your doctoral and institutional socialization preparation for your first faculty role. There are no foreseeable risks associated with this project, nor are there any direct benefits to you. Your questionnaire responses will be confidential, and while you will be asked to provide your name, it will not be identified in any way within the research study. The researcher of this study will be the only person who has access to your name. All responses will be kept confidential, and results will be kept under lock and key. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from this research study at any time.

This study is being conducted by Jennifer Plant, a faculty member and doctoral candidate at the University of Central Florida. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher at Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu or at 407-823-5232.

I deeply appreciate your cooperation.

Kind Regards,

Jennifer Plant
Clinical Education Coordinator/Associate Instructor
University of Central Florida
Program in Athletic Training
407-823-5232
Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu
APPENDIX H: PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE
1. E-mail address (to be able to contact you for interview – identity will not be revealed in the research):
2. Gender:
3. Current academic title:
4. Academic title of first full time faculty role (if different from current):
5. Current academic discipline of faculty position:
6. Years at current institution as full time faculty:
7. Years at first institution of employment as full time faculty (if different from current):
8. What is the highest degree you have completed:
9. Academic discipline of highest degree:
10. Where did you receive your terminal degree:
11. Years since terminal degree was earned:
12. Have you experienced a formal mentoring program for your faculty role:
13. Have you experienced an informal mentoring program for your faculty role:
14. What are the certifications needed for your faculty position:
15. What additional certifications do you hold (if any):
16. When you began your first faculty position, did you have full-time or part-time status?

To what extent do you believe your graduate school experience contributed to your understanding of each of the following during your first three years as a full time faculty member?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

17. The different research-related roles, duties, and responsibilities of the position
18. The different teaching-related roles, duties, and responsibilities of the position
19. The different advising-related roles, duties, and responsibilities of the position
20. The quality of research expected from faculty at the institution
21. Research-related requirements of achieving tenure at the institution
22. Understanding of skills of time management and balancing research, teaching, and service

To what extent do you believe your first institution of full time employment contributed to your understanding of each of the following during your current experience as a full time faculty member?
23. The different research-related roles, duties, and responsibilities of the position
24. The different teaching-related roles, duties, and responsibilities of the position
25. The different advising-related roles, duties, and responsibilities of the position
26. The quality of research expected from faculty at the institution
27. Research-related requirements of achieving tenure at the institution
28. Understanding of skills of time management and balancing research, teaching, and service

To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements:

29. I felt well prepared by my graduate program to fulfill my research responsibilities
30. I felt my first institution offered effective training and support to fulfill my research responsibilities
31. I felt well prepared by my graduate program to fulfill my teaching responsibilities
32. I felt my first institution offered effective training and support to fulfill my teaching responsibilities
33. My first institution offered a thorough orientation program that prepared me for the expectations and requirement of my faculty role
34. I thoroughly read the employee handbook before starting my role as a faculty member
APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW SCRIPT AND PROTOCOL
Hello, my name is Jennifer Plant and I am a faculty member and doctoral student in the Higher Education and Policy Studies program at the University of Central Florida. Thank you so much for agreeing to speak with me today about the socialization processes you experienced to higher education in both graduate school and when you first started your faculty position. Before we begin, do you have any questions regarding the consent form? Please indicate your permission to use the content of this interview for my research project with a verbal response of “yes.”

The interview will last for approximately one hour. I will be using a digital audio recorder to record our conversation and will keep the recording for three years. Your name or identity will not be included in the research paper, only quotes of your feelings and/or impressions on the socialization processes in graduate school and during the start of your first faculty position will be used. Questions will focus on exploring your socialization experiences from graduate school into your faculty role, as well as the socialization experience within the institution. We will discuss barriers you faced, the support you received, the preparation you obtained as a graduate student, and the socialization processes within the institution once you took on a faculty role. At any time during the interview, if you have questions or need clarification, please feel free to ask.

You do not have to answer any of the questions that you do not feel comfortable with and we can stop the interview at any time. Before we get started with the interview, do you have any questions? Are you ready to begin? (Yes/No) I’m going to turn on the recorder and we will get started with the interview.

RQ 1. (Background for interviewer) Do faculty experience transformative learning in their socialization as faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs? If so, how? If not, why not?

1. Would you please share with me your educational background and steps that you took to becoming a faculty member?
2. When you were deciding to become a faculty member, describe to me what was the most influential factor in your decision to become a faculty member?
3. Was there anyone who influenced your decision to become a faculty member?
4. When you were considering becoming a faculty member, who did you turn to for advice (professors, clinical preceptors, family, friends, etc.)?
5. Reflect on your opinions and expectations of faculty roles before you began your first faculty position and did you experience changes upon starting your first faculty position?
6. Did you experience any change in perception of what a faculty career entails since you first started as a faculty member? If so, how has it changed? If not, why not?
7. Were there any new beliefs or attitudes that you had to adopt in order to adjust to your faculty role? If so, what were they?
8. Can you talk about your level of confidence and readiness to assume your first faculty role? Probe: Did you feel natural, comfortable, and ready to perform? Or were there areas of uncertainty?
RQ 2. (Background for interviewer) What forms and sources of institutional support of socialization do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs receive?

1. How long after finishing your doctorate degree did you begin your first faculty position? Were you working in another capacity before taking on your first faculty position? If so, what was your job and position?
2. When you started your first faculty position, what was the institutions’ orientation program like? For example, was orientation a formal structured process or an informal process?
3. When you first became a faculty member, what resources were provided to you from your institution as you transitioned from a doctoral student (or clinical preceptor) to faculty member?
4. Were you satisfied with the support you received as you adjusted to the role of a faculty member?
5. Based upon our response to the previous question: Who or what resource provided you the support you needed to adjust to being a faculty member?
6. Were you ever involved in a mentorship program as a new faculty member? If so, how did it help you adjust to your faculty role?
7. Which faculty role did you spend most of your time on—teaching, research, service, or other activities?
8. Which faculty role were you the most prepared for? The least?

RQ 3. (Background for the interviewer) Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs feel their doctoral education helped them form a professional identity that allowed them to succeed in their faculty role? If so, how? If not, why not?

1. Describe how your doctoral program prepared you for your first faculty role.
2. What type of coursework or opportunities within your doctoral program did you have that prepared you for your faculty role?
3. Do you believe your doctoral training prepared you for your first faculty position? What about in the areas of:
   a. Teaching?
   b. Research?
   c. Service?
   d. Other?
4. Did your doctorate program provide opportunities outside of coursework that allowed you to prepare for your faculty role?
5. Looking back at your doctoral training, is there anything in particular that could have benefited your transition to your faculty role?

RQ 4. (Background for the interviewer) Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education perceive any barriers and facilitators to their professional or organizational socialization experiences? If so, how? If not, why not?
1. Were there any challenges that you experienced while adjusting to your first faculty position? If so, please describe.
2. In your first faculty position, were there any resources that would have made your adjustment to faculty life easier? If so, what were they?
3. Organizational culture may be defined as a system of shared assumptions, values, and beliefs, which influence how people act and perform their jobs within an organization. Can you describe what resources you used to assimilate into the organizational culture of your institution?
4. Describe anything within the institution that hindered your ability to adapt to your new faculty role.
5. Please describe those experiences, programs, resources, etc. which prepared you for the expectations of teaching, research, and service at the institution when you became a faculty member.
6. Do you have or know of any other resources which are available to use to facilitate adjusting to a faculty role?

Is there anything else that you would like to share with me that we have not already discussed?

Thank you so much for your time today. I will be in touch with you again via email within the next couple of months regarding your responses and the meaning associated with your responses for your review and approval.
APPENDIX J: ALIGNMENT OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS, FOCUS, INTERVIEW QUESTIONS, AND METHOD OF ANALYSIS
| RQ1 | Transformative Learning | 1. Would you please share with me your educational background and steps that you took to becoming a faculty member?  
2. When you were deciding to become a faculty member, describe to me what was the most influential factor in your decision to become a faculty member?  
3. Was there anyone who influenced your decision to become a faculty member?  
4. When you were considering becoming a faculty member, who did you turn to for advice (professors, clinical preceptors, family, friends, etc.)?  
5. Reflect on your opinions and expectations of faculty roles before you began your first faculty position and did you experience changes upon starting your first faculty position?  
6. Did you experience any change in perception of what a faculty career entails since you first started as a faculty member? If so, how has it changed? If not, why not?  
7. Were there any new beliefs or attitudes that you had to adopt in order to adjust to your faculty role? If so, what were they?  
8. Can you talk about your level of confidence and readiness to assume your first faculty role? Probe: Did you feel natural, comfortable, and ready to perform? Or were there areas of uncertainty? | Descriptive |
|---|---|---|
| RQ2 | Institutional Support | 9. How long after finishing your doctorate degree did you begin your first faculty position? Were you working in another capacity before taking on your first faculty position? If so, what was your job and position?  
10. When you started your first faculty position, what was the institutions’ orientation program like? For example, was orientation a formal structured process or an informal process? | Iterative Coding |
11. When you first became a faculty member, what resources were provided to you from your institution as you transitioned from a doctoral student (or clinical preceptor) to faculty member?

12. Were you satisfied with the support you received as you adjusted to the role of a faculty member?

13. Based upon our response to the previous question: Who or what resource provided you the support you needed to adjust to being a faculty member?

14. Were you ever involved in a mentorship program as a new faculty member? If so, how did it help you adjust to your faculty role?

15. Which faculty role did you spend most of your time on—teaching, research, service, or other activities?

16. Which faculty role were you the most prepared for? The least?

RQ3
Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education programs feel their doctoral education helped them form a professional identity that allowed them to succeed in their faculty role? If so, how? If not, why not?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Doctoral Preparation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17. Describe how your doctoral program prepared you for your first faculty role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. What type of coursework or opportunities within your doctoral program did you have that prepared you for your faculty role?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Do you believe your doctoral training prepared you for your first faculty position? What about in the areas of:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Teaching?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Research?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Service?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Other?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Did your doctorate program provide opportunities outside of coursework that allowed you to prepare for your faculty role?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Looking back at your doctoral training, is there anything in particular that could have benefited your transition to your faculty role?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Iterative Coding
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RQ4</th>
<th>Do faculty of athletic training, physical therapy, exercise science, and education perceive any barriers and facilitators to their professional or organizational socialization experiences? If so, how? If not, why not?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Barriers and Facilitators | 22. Were there any challenges that you experienced while adjusting to your first faculty position? If so, please describe.  
23. In your first faculty position, were there any resources that would have made your adjustment to faculty life easier? If so, what were they?  
24. Organizational culture may be defined as a system of shared assumptions, values, and beliefs, which influence how people act and perform their jobs within an organization. Can you describe what resources you used to assimilate into the organizational culture of your institution?  
25. Describe anything within the institution that hindered your ability to adapt to your new faculty role.  
26. Please describe those experiences, programs, resources, etc. which prepared you for the expectations of teaching, research, and service at the institution when you became a faculty member.  
27. Do you have or know of any other resources which are available to use to facilitate adjusting to a faculty role? | Iterative Coding |
APPENDIX K: MEMBER CHECK PROTOCOL
Dear ___________________,

Thank you for your insightful interview responses. Attached you will find a draft copy of the verbatim transcripts of the interview and related data analysis. Please review the transcription for the accuracy of your responses and the data analysis for the accuracy of the meaning associated with your responses.

Please respond to me via email with your confirmation of accuracy and/or any feedback and feel free to contact me should you have any questions.

Thank you again for your time and willingness to participate in this study.

Kind Regards,

Jennifer Plant
Clinical Education Coordinator/Associate Instructor
University of Central Florida
Program in Athletic Training
407-823-5232
Jennifer.Plant@ucf.edu
Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: UCF Institutional Review Board #1
FWA0000351, IRB0000138

To: Jennifer L. Plant

Date: May 25, 2017

Dear Researcher,

On 05/25/2017, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: Exempt Determination
Project Title: A Comparison of Faculty Socialization Experiences Between Clinically Trained Faculty and Faculty with Academic Degrees
Investigator: Jennifer L. Plant
IRB Number: SBE-17-13126
Funding Agency: Grant Title:
Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether those changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in IRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the Investigator Manual.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

[Signature]

Signature applied by Gillian Amy Mary Morien on 05/25/2017 09:15:51 AM EDT

IRB Coordinator
REFERENCES


Chenail, R. J. (2010). Getting specific about qualitative research generalizability. *Journal of Ethnographic & Qualitative Research, 5*(1), 1-11. doi: EJ906426


