

Negotiating the Turn of Professional Legitimation:
Conditions, Processes, and Outcomes:
A Constructivist Grounded Theory Study

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Degree of Doctor of Business Administration

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Declaration

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

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Abstract

The social experience of professionals engaged in cross-boundary collaborations, in knowledge-based institutions, is not well understood. Faculty librarians in the United States provide a specific context for exploring the nature of this work. Despite the importance professional library associations and faculty librarians place on collaboration with discipline faculty, and how they contribute toward student learning outcomes, little is known about the symbolic meanings that arise during these collaborations and how they influence the collaborators' perceptions and behaviours. Generally, the collaborations that occur between faculty librarians and discipline faculty are not mandated by the institution; rather, they emerge from informal, autonomous conditions requiring initiation by the faculty librarian or the discipline faculty member. Without the benefit of institutional mandates, norms, and performance measures to structure the collaborative process, the success of the collaboration is dependent upon the cohesiveness of the individual participants' goals, values, and interactional behaviour. Although faculty librarians and discipline faculty are peers within the institutional hierarchy, tensions emerge in autonomous collaborations that reflect issues related to environmental pre-conditions including perception, agency, and professional identity. The presence of these tensions creates socio-political dilemmas for faculty librarians, resulting in a perceived threat to their professional legitimacy. This thesis, drawing on interviews and observations of faculty librarians and discipline faculty, presents a constructivist grounded theory that suggests the emergence of these tensions' places faculty librarians in a vulnerable position where their professional legitimation can be compromised or denied. In response to threats of legitimation, the faculty librarians engage in a range of legitimation tactics to manage and negotiate their legitimacy within the

collaboration. The tactics, described as facilitative and response-based processes to legitimation threats, include working with the emergent threats (Compromising), influencing conditions and perceptions related to threat (Persuading), and openly or quietly dissenting against the threat (Retreating). The critical point at which the interplay of tensions compromises or denies the librarians' professional legitimacy is identified as the 'turn' in the legitimation process. The analysis presents the 'turn' as a phase of legitimation in which an informal legitimation hierarchy is established within the relationship, thereby signalling the subordination of the faculty librarian's professional role and agency. The conceptual model presented in the study explains how collaborative tensions influence a turn in legitimation, resulting in a socially constructed, informal hierarchy that threatens collaborative agility and stability. The grounded theory identifies legitimation as a critical sub-process of autonomous collaborations, thereby linking the legitimation and collaboration literature and providing a new understanding of the legitimation processes that occur in autonomous, cross-boundary, peer collaborations.

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Definitions

Term	Definition
Academic librarians	Librarians who work within community colleges, baccalaureate, masters, and doctoral granting institutions who do not have faculty status (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2006a, ¶13).
Discipline faculty	Faculty members who teach courses within an academic degree-granting program, or who are assigned to conduct research, or both. Ranks and titles of discipline faculty are variable and may include lecturers, adjuncts, instructors, non-tenure-track faculty, unranked faculty, postdocs, visiting faculty, professors of practice, research assistants, teaching assistants, co-adjutants, affiliates, specialists, clinical faculty, faculty administrators, and professors of different ranks (American Association of University Professors, 2014, §1).
Embedded librarianship	A working model of engagement in which librarians are situated in the spaces of their users and colleagues, either physically or virtually, to become a part of their users' culture (Drewes and Hoffman, 2010, p. 76).
Faculty librarians	Librarians with the same rights, privileges, and responsibilities as other members of the faculty, including corresponding entitlement to rank, promotion, tenure, compensation, leaves, and research funds (Association for College and Research Libraries, 2006, ¶18).
Information literacy	A set of abilities requiring individuals to recognize when information is needed, and the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information (American Library Association, 2006b, ¶15).
Information Literacy Framework or "the Framework"	Developed by academic librarians and their partners in higher education associations, the Framework presents an interrelated set of learning concepts, learning outcomes, tools, and resources that institutions can deploy to infuse information literacy concepts and skills into their curricula (Association for College and Research Libraries, 2016, p.7).
Library instruction	Librarians teaching competencies and skills related to information, digital technology, visual, material, and AI literacies. Instruction may occur in the classroom, in partnership with discipline faculty, or the context of library-sponsored workshops, orientations, and other academic events (adapted from Association of College and Research Libraries, 2006b).
Research Sprints	Librarian-driven program in which librarians and a discipline faculty partner work intensively, for a pre-determined amount

Term	Definition
	of time, to produce a tangible research product or outcome (Lach and Rosenblum, 2018).
Scholarly communication	The system through which research and other scholarly writings are created, evaluated for quality, disseminated to the scholarly community, and preserved for future use (Association for College and Research Libraries, 2006b, ¶1).

CHAPTER ONE:

The Point of Departure: Collaboration as a Professional Challenge

1. Collaboration with Discipline Faculty: A Professional Challenge Identified by Faculty Librarians

It is a core principle in academic librarianship that teaching and research librarians engage with discipline faculty through collaborative working relationships (American Library Association, 2006b; 2006c). The respective missions of faculty librarians and discipline faculty intersect at the points of learning and research, and librarians have identified their role in contributing to successful outcomes in these areas, as well as in other high-impact educational practices (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2010; Kuh, 2008).

Aside from their responsibility for library-based work, the roles and expertise of faculty librarians encompass a broad range of responsibilities that are integrated with other university departments and programs, including implementation of digital and AI technologies; management of scholarly communication programs; work with university presses; administration of institutional repositories; development and oversight for makerspaces and other creative and production-based learning spaces; teaching information, digital, visual, and generative AI literacies; partnering in the delivery of academic integrity programs; leading open educational resource initiatives; and contributing to research administration.

Faculty librarians, particularly those who work in public-facing roles, have a unique role in the university ecosystem. They can be described as informal boundary spanners who can transform institutional activity in ways that deliver real-world outcomes (Argote, McEvily, and Reagans, 2003; Veles, 2022). Based on their knowledge of, and interaction with, the majority of the university's programs and

activities, as well as the student community, librarians' roles and areas of expertise are useful in bridging knowledge and networks and supporting students' curricular and co-curricular needs. The base of this knowledge enables faculty librarians to contribute successfully to the larger academic and research missions of their universities. There is substantial evidence demonstrating how faculty librarians have leveraged their capabilities, and campus networks, in university libraries across the United States. Instances of this work are numerous, but examples include collaboration with a university research hub to develop a healthcare hackathon (McGowan, 2019), the launch of a research sprint program to engage discipline faculty and deliver tangible research outcomes (Lach and Rosenblum, 2018; McBurney, Hunt, Gyedina, Brown, Wiggins, Nackerud, 2020), partnering with a management school to establish an innovation hub for entrepreneurship (Leebaw and Tomlinson, 2020); creating an interfaith prayer room inside the library for use by the university community (Virginia Commonwealth University, 2020); and establishing short-term writing institutes to support the publication output of junior discipline faculty (Decker and Odom, 2018).

The level of attention given to faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaboration in the library literature, and through professional discourse, is evidence that academic librarians remain strong advocates for librarian-discipline faculty collaboration and the value it contributes to learning outcomes and research. Outside of the library literature, and specifically in the organisational management and education literatures, there is little evidence of interest in this subject, suggesting that the strategic benefits for universities to leverage knowledge resources through collaboration between discipline faculty excludes faculty librarians (Christiansen, Stombler, and Thaxton, 2004). Excluding a faculty group from a university's collaborative vision, whether intentional or not, reduces the strategic benefits that could be gained from the knowledge and expertise of the group's members.

It is also clear from the professional literature that faculty librarians have long been concerned about a perceived disconnect in their working relationships with discipline faculty, as they have an extended history of publishing illustrative case studies and developing strategic practices to establish, understand, and improve their collaborative relationships with discipline faculty (Arp, Woodward, Lindstrom, and Schonrock, 2006; Brasley, 2008; Christiansen, Stompler, and Thaxton, 2004; Commerton, 1986; Curzon, 2004; Dilmore, 1996; Ducas and Michaud-Oystryk, 2003; Given and Julien, 2005; Julien and Pecoskie, 2009; Keeran and Forbes, 2018; Kotter, 1999; Kraat, 2005; Lipow, 1992; Manuel, Beck, and Molloy, 2005; Meulemans and Carr, 2013; Reale, 2018; Saunders and Corning, 2020; Schlak, 2016; Stöpel, Piotto, Goodman, and Godbey, 2020).

Professional interactions between faculty librarians and discipline faculty have been typically examined through a lens of classroom engagement and information literacy initiatives (Christiansen, Stompler, and Thaxton, 2004; Díaz and Mandernach, 2017; Ducas and Michaud-Oystryk, 2003; Julien and Genuis, 2011; Kelly, 2019; Kotter, 1999; Phelps and Campbell, 2012; Weng and Murray, 2019). Both lenses valorise collaboration with teaching faculty but under examine important social interaction complexities between the two groups. Díaz and Mandernach (2017) take note of this issue in their study that explores librarians' relationships with disciplinary faculty stating, "Relationship-building, some members of the profession seem to believe, will just happen" (p. 275). The scholarly inquiry into the relationship between faculty librarians and discipline faculty often focuses on the activities and outcomes that take place because of the collaboration. Largely missing is a qualitative understanding of the social processes and dynamics undertaken by faculty librarians who are expected to establish and sustain these relationships. Through a study of the librarians' processes and dynamics, there is an opportunity to improve understanding of why relationship-building between the two groups is largely one-sided, and how this imbalance affects how the collaboration functions, as well as the

potential outcomes for student learning that can be realized when librarians and discipline faculty work together.

The efforts to encourage connections with discipline faculty are not happening only at the library and individual levels. Librarians are led and supported in their work by the Association for College and Research Libraries (ACRL), the Association of Research Libraries (ARL), and the American Library Association (ALA). The ACRL uses the term 'collaboration' in critical documents including the 'Characteristics of Programs of Information Literacy that Illustrate Best Practices: A Guideline' (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2019). In the ARCL Guidelines document, which categorizes the elements of best practices in information literacy programs, there is an emphasis on collaboration. In the planning phase for an information literacy program, one planning-related goal "encourages librarian, faculty, and administrator collaboration" (2019, Category 2). In the category of communication and advocacy, it is noted that the program should "foster collaboration among disciplinary faculty, librarians, and other institutional stakeholders at every stage (2019, Category 6). Although the term 'collaboration' is not explicitly stated in the category on assessment and evaluation, the best practices of this category infer that collaborative support is received from disciplinary faculty members when librarians aim to gather learner and peer evaluations and when conducting student outcomes assessments (2019, Category 7). In the annotations for the Guidelines document, there is the following note on collaboration: "Collaboration implies not only cooperation, but also active sharing in the work of the instructional program" (2019, § Annotations).

The ACRL also created a framework outlining the roles of librarians who engage in teaching information literacy competencies. The findings were published in a document titled, 'Roles and Strengths of Teaching Librarians' (2017). Amongst the many roles identified in the framework was that of 'teaching partner,' referring primarily to librarians who teach information literacy competencies through

classroom partnerships, rather than as instructors of record. The strengths that define this role include the ability to seek out partners, to engage with faculty, to articulate the benefits of a partnership, and to negotiate responsibilities of a partnership (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2017, § Teaching Partners).

The Standards for Libraries in Higher Education also outlines expectations for libraries to contribute to institutional effectiveness. The document presents nine principles that reflect the “core roles and contributions of libraries” (p. 5), and each principle has its own set of key performance indicators (KPIs). The two principles, and related KPIs, that reflect collaborative work between librarians and discipline faculty are listed below (American Library Association, 2006b, pp. 10-11). The emphasis is my own:

Principle 2: Professional Values

KPI 2.6: The library engages in **collaboration** both on campus and across institutional boundaries.

Principle 3: Education Role

KPI 3.1: Library personnel **collaborate** with faculty and others regarding ways to incorporate library collections and services into effective curricular and co-curricular experiences for students.

KPI 3.2: Library personnel **collaborate** with faculty to embed information literacy learning outcomes into curricula, courses, and assignments.

KPI 3.4: Library personnel **provide appropriate and timely instruction in a variety of contexts** and employ multiple learning platforms and pedagogies.

KPI 3.5: Library personnel **collaborate** with campus partners to provide opportunities for faculty professional development.

The Association for Research Libraries (ARL) also provides guidance on the issue of how librarians can establish relationships with discipline faculty. In 2017 they hosted an event at a national library conference: Talking So Faculty Will Listen, Listening So Faculty Will Talk: Engagement Strategies for Library Liaisons. The event provided attendees with methods for raising awareness of their roles, demonstrating their roles as valuable to faculty, and engaging with faculty more deeply (Association of Research Libraries). In ongoing support of this theme, the ARL also hosted the Library Liaison Institutes from 2015-2018 and provided academic teaching librarians with an extensive list of readings and resources related to the outcomes of those institutes (Association of Research Libraries, 2018); and in the last update report issued by the American Library Association Presidential Committee on Information Literacy, the importance of preparing new librarians for collaborative work with disciplinary faculty was highlighted as an area for further progress: "Forum members need to work with the Association for Library and Information Science Education and the Committee on Accreditation of the American Library Association to ensure that the beginning professional degree for librarians prepares them for working collaboratively with teachers, faculty and community members on information literacy programs" (American Library Association, 2006a, ¶Recommendation 3).

The list of competencies and guidelines for teaching librarians sends a clear message to the profession about the expectation for engagement and outreach. In a monograph on academic liaison librarianship, the authors wrote, "Liaison librarians must initiate, establish, and promote their relationships with faculty members..."(Moniz, Henry, and Eshleman, 2014, p. 35). While a proactive approach is often viewed as positive, there has been no critical review of what it means for the librarians who undertake this kind of work and for the library policies and practices that underpin all of it. Meanwhile, as described above, the professional literature demonstrates that librarians are challenged in meeting such expectations.

The library literature also demonstrates three significant limitations and deficiencies in how the problem has been studied. First, much of the literature about librarian-discipline faculty relationships and interaction is written by and for librarians, with most studies presenting it as a problem to be solved by the librarian. Amongst these studies, there are just a small number that examine the librarians' attitudes and perceptions of the faculty librarian-discipline faculty relationship, and the challenges encountered in establishing and sustaining these relationships (Badke, 2005; Fleming-May and Douglass, 2014; Given and Julien, 2005; Walter, 2008). Even less is known about how individual librarians make sense and meaning of the practices, challenges, and tensions associated with faculty interactions.

A second deficiency in the study of the problem is that librarians have seldom presented the issue in other bodies of literature – even that of higher education, where the topic might gain exposure and interest. A 2018 national study of American university provosts suggests that the problem is not understood by universities' highest levels of administration. The findings of the study reveal that the provost's highest area of perceived involvement by librarians (85.02%) is related to discipline faculty research productivity (Murray and Ireland, 2018, p. 341). The problem of social interaction between librarians and discipline faculty has been so deeply internalized within the profession that minimal exploration or study has been generated from alternative perspectives and disciplinary lenses, and the topic of librarian-academic faculty relationships and relationship-building has received minimal attention from discipline faculty themselves. It is unknown if the lack of attention reflects a lack of interest, a perceived lack of a problem, or if there are other variables at play. With few exceptions, discipline faculty have not generated studies on the subject (Christiansen, Stombler, and Thaxton, 2004); while faculty librarians have generated numerous studies to understand disciplinary faculty perceptions and attitudes toward collaboration with librarians (Hrycaj and Russo, 2007; Kraat, 2005; Manuel, Beck, and Molloy, 2005).

The third limitation, in the study of these relationships, has to do with the lack of shared understanding of collaboration and how it is operationalized in higher education. Within the higher education literature on interdisciplinary and interprofessional collaboration, the research has focused almost exclusively on barriers. Barriers most commonly identified within higher education include organisational fragmentation and division of labour, specialization silos among faculty; lack of common purpose or language between faculty and staff or administration; few shared values among employees, history of separation of units, different priorities and expectations among various employee groups, cultural differences between disciplines, and competing assumptions about what constitutes effective learning (Kezar and Lester, 2009). Walsh and Kahn (2010) explain that a mutual agreement to collaborate is insufficient for delivering a productive collaboration. Other factors must be present for developing a collaborative success including ease of communication, the presence of trust, and the degree to which outcomes are shared. However, only a few higher education studies have examined individual and group conditions that lead to or enhance collaboration, such as leadership (Kezar, 2003), common goals (Kezar, 2003), personalities and attitudes of individuals in the collaboration, and rewards and incentives (Stein and Short, 2001).

While collaborative approaches to problem-solving have become common in the university workplace, and developing effective forms of collaboration has become essential for most organisations and institutions, the literature does not account for the social experience of faculty librarians who encounter these challenges in a university context. In the case of faculty librarians, much of the library literature focuses on project-based collaborative initiatives, as opposed to identifying and describing the social processes involved in collaborative relationships.

1.1. U.S. Universities: Traits of Organisational Culture

In the context of higher education, Kuh and Whitt introduced a definition of organisational culture, delineating the norms, models, values, practices, beliefs, and assumptions that shape the behaviour of individuals and groups in universities and colleges (1988). There is also a body of literature on organisational culture in U.S. universities taking into consideration many organisational variables, including assessment of learning (Maki, 2023), faculty performance (Finkelstein and Li, 2022), sustainability (Bartlett and Chase, 2004; Martin, 2012), quality assurance (Hoare and Goad, 2022; Phillips and Kinser, 2018), and competition for students and ranking (Caplow, 2017; Musselin, 2018).

In their 2009 book, Kezar and Lester also addressed the organisational culture of higher education. They identified higher education as a siloed, bureaucratic, and hierarchical organisation characterized by fragmentation caused by specialization, disciplinary and department narrowness, paradigmatic differences, individualistic faculty training and socialization undergirded by reward systems that promote individualistic work. They also raised concerns about bureaucratic and hierarchical administrative structures that limit communication flow across the organisation and discourage horizontal interaction in favour of top-down authority-based leadership.

It has been argued that organisational culture in higher education is, more complex than that of other organisations due to the discipline-centred epistemologies that are distinctive to colleges and universities (Tierney, 2008). Individuals employed within the university, including faculty, are perceived as organisationally unique because of the use of shared governance models (McNair Albertine, McDonald, Major, and Cooper, 2022). The concept of shared governance, and how it is defined, within higher education has a contentious history. From the conception of land grant colleges in the late 1800s to the current system of higher education in the United States, the debate has escalated and culminated in the

attempt to clarify the meaning of shared governance (Nadler, Miller, and Modica, 2010). In 1966, the American Association of University Professors' *Statement on Governance of Colleges and Universities* formally articulated the faculty role in shared governance (American Association of University Professors, n.d., a.). The statement spelled out the primary responsibility of university faculty, defining primary responsibility to mean that the governing board and president should concur with faculty judgment except in rare instances and for compelling reasons, which should be stated in detail (American Association of University Professors, n.d., a.). Over time, university faculty in the United States have become charged with identifying solutions to the university's problems including finance, improvements, diversity, policies, and more (Kezar, 2000). Much of this responsibility is overseen through faculty senates with representation from departments across the university. At the time of this study, the most recent survey data indicates that almost ninety percent of the four-year institutions have a faculty governing body that participates in campus governance (Tiede, 2021).

Despite the foundations of shared governance models, the culture of U.S. universities is also shaped by a complex interplay of status, recognition, and power. Faculty members navigate a hierarchical system that privileges research productivity and tenure, often at the expense of teaching and service. Power dynamics within academia are influenced by seniority, administrative authority, and systemic biases, creating challenges for collaboration and equity (Bastedo, Altbach, and Gumpert., 2016).

The relationships among faculty members are also influenced by the hierarchical structure and competitive nature of academia. Collaboration and collegiality are essential for a productive academic environment, yet power imbalances can create friction and undermine trust. For example, junior faculty may feel pressured to conform to the expectations of senior colleagues, limiting their

ability to pursue independent research agendas (Bastedo, Altbach, and Gumport, 2016; Gordon, Willink, and Hunter, 2024).

Gender and racial disparities further complicate faculty relationships and power dynamics. Women and minority faculty members often face systemic biases that hinder their professional advancement and recognition. These inequities manifest in various forms, including unequal pay, limited access to mentorship, and underrepresentation in leadership positions (Turner, González, and Wood, 2008). Addressing these disparities requires concerted efforts to promote diversity, equity, and inclusion within academic institutions.

1.1.1. U.S. Universities' Organisational Culture and Collaborative Practices

The U.S. National Survey of Student Engagement was used by Kuh and colleagues to identify the top twenty U.S. colleges and universities that were high performing in the areas of student engagement and success, and to study their practices. Among the best practices that contribute to student engagement and success was shared responsibility, or collaboration, across university boundaries (2010, p. 10). Examples of such cross-boundary collaboration included in the study include faculty involvement in teaching collaborations, first-year university experience, interdisciplinary curriculum development, diversity and inclusion initiatives, summer bridge programs, and experiential learning (pp. 150-151, p. 286). Kuh et al. state that university communities, notably students, are likely to “thrive” in environments that engage in these types of collaborative practices (p. 172). The authors further assert that universities that engage in strong, cross-boundary collaborative practices are organized similarly to high-performing business organisations by incorporating the value of collaboration into their ethos and outlining the expectations for collaboration in its strategic and other guiding documents (Kuh, 2010, p. 27). Meanwhile, whether they are classified as faculty or

not, academic librarians across the United States have charted their own paths to partner with discipline faculty and student affairs professionals in the types of cross-boundary collaborations described above (Barnhart and Stanfield, 2013; George and Casey, 2020; Jones and Murphy, 2019; Hansen, 2022; LaCroix, 2022; Leong, 2023, Ralston, 2020; Shao, Quintana, Zakharov, Purzer, and Kim, 2021).

Other studies have also demonstrated that U.S. institutions of higher education realize the importance of collaboration and have aimed to implement collaborative practices to create richer teaching, learning, and research environments (Carolan, 2024; Pfirman and Martin, 2017; Siedlok and Hibbert, 2014; Yamamoto, 2024). Several recent studies of cross-boundary teaching and communities of practice demonstrate that they are effective for engaging students in learning, creative and critical thinking, and problem-solving skills (Budgwig and Alexander, 2020; Hardy et al., 2021; Moirano, Sánchez, and Štěpánek, 2020).

Despite the compelling logic of the value of collaboration, it can be a challenging social practice. Generally, colleges and universities are large, complex organisations that struggle with complexity and the capacity to change how they function. Higher education leaders must understand the complexities and the different disciplinary norms that surround collaboration if they want to implement a cross-boundary infrastructure in support of collaborative best practices (Tierney, 2008).

As described previously, one of the most significant problems with the organisational culture of U.S. universities is the persistence of disciplinary silos. One of the primary reasons for the persistence of disciplinary silos is the deep-rooted nature of academic specialization. The traditional university system, particularly in research-intensive institutions, places a high value on specialized knowledge and expertise. Faculty members are trained and socialized within their disciplines, developing a deep commitment to their field's theoretical frameworks, research methods, and scholarly debates (Pfirman and Martin, 2017). This specialization is

further reinforced by the academic reward system, which prioritizes disciplinary research outputs, such as publications in top-tier journals and grants from discipline-specific funding agencies. As a result, faculty members have strong incentives to focus on their disciplinary work, often at the expense of interdisciplinary endeavours (Carolan, 2024; Jacobs and Fickel, 2009).

The institutional culture of universities also plays a significant role in maintaining disciplinary silos. Universities are hierarchical organisations with formal structures and processes that reflect and reinforce disciplinary boundaries. Academic departments are often siloed in terms of budget allocations, administrative support, and decision-making authority (Becher and Trowler, 2001). This structural separation creates barriers to collaboration, as faculty members may face logistical and bureaucratic challenges when attempting to work across departmental lines (Lu, Murai, Campbell, and Angelo, 2024). Additionally, the governance structures of universities, including promotion and tenure committees, are typically organised along disciplinary lines, further entrenching the importance of disciplinary achievements in faculty performance evaluations (Becher and Trowler, 2001).

From the faculty perspective, the persistence of disciplinary silos can be both a strength and a limitation. On one hand, disciplinary communities provide a supportive environment for faculty members to network, develop their expertise, and engage in scholarly conversations. The sense of belonging to a disciplinary tribe can foster a strong professional identity and a commitment to the values and norms of the field. On the other hand, the insularity of disciplinary silos can limit opportunities for innovation (Becher and Trowler, 2001; Klein and Falk-Krzesinski, 2017). Faculty members who wish to engage in interdisciplinary research may encounter resistance from their colleagues, face difficulties in securing funding, and struggle to publish their work in prestigious journals. The lack of institutional support for interdisciplinary initiatives can also lead to feelings of isolation and frustration among faculty members who seek to transcend disciplinary boundaries (Pyke, 2018).

Despite the increasing emphasis on interdisciplinarity and collaboration, academic departments often operate as isolated entities with distinct cultures, values, and priorities. This fragmentation is reinforced by the structure of universities, where departments control their own budgets, hiring decisions, and curricula. The result is a lack of communication and collaboration across disciplines, which can stifle innovation and limit the ability to address complex, multifaceted problems that require interdisciplinary approaches.

The reward and recognition systems in U.S. universities further entrench these disciplinary silos by prioritizing research outputs over other forms of academic work and presents significant challenges that hinder interdisciplinary collaboration. Faculty members are often evaluated primarily on their research productivity, measured by publications in high-impact journals, grant funding, and citations. This emphasis on research creates a competitive environment where faculty members are incentivized to focus narrowly on their disciplinary work, often at the expense of teaching, service, and interdisciplinary collaboration. The tenure and promotion processes, which are critical milestones in academic careers, are heavily influenced by these research metrics, reinforcing the notion that research is the most valuable and prestigious aspect of academic work.

Addressing these issues requires a comprehensive approach that redefines academic success, promotes inclusivity, and supports the diverse contributions of all faculty members. By valuing and supporting the diverse contributions of all faculty members, U.S. universities can create a more equitable and effective academic environment that better serves the needs of students, faculty, and society.

Despite these challenges, there is a growing recognition of the importance of interdisciplinarity in higher education collaboration to address student learning (McKinney and Chick, 2013; Stensaker, Billow, Breslow, and Vaart, 2017) and enhance research outputs (Frickel, Albert, and Prainsack, 2016; Gardiner, 2020; Nguyen, Xu, and Robinson, 2020; O'Rourke, 2016). U.S. universities are increasingly

promoting interdisciplinary research centres, collaborative projects, and cross-departmental teaching initiatives. However, these efforts often face significant obstacles due to the nature of disciplinary silos. While initiatives towards more connected and integrated ways of teaching, learning, and research seem to be a logical and constructive way forward, the reality of engaging in productive, collaborative practices is not guaranteed. Because most disciplines invest considerable time and effort developing an in-depth understanding of their specific discipline, engaging in interdisciplinary or transdisciplinary thinking may not be an important part of their individual research agendas (Berstein, 2000; Davies, 2016). Addressing the challenges of interdisciplinary and cross-boundary requires a concerted effort on the part of universities to reframe how they approach and incentivize collaborative practices (Davies, 2016; Klein and Falk-Krzesinski, 2017).

1.2. Studying the Challenge of Collaboration Between Faculty Librarians and Discipline Faculty

Gaining insight into how faculty librarians understand their collaborations with discipline faculty motivated me to pursue the research contained in this study. There is a further need for detailed attention to the personal accounts of collaborative work from the perspective of both faculty librarians and discipline faculty. While faculty librarians, in general, remain committed to collaborations with discipline faculty, it is surprising that a definition and understanding of collaboration, as both a concept and a process, has not been established among faculty librarians. A review of the library literature indicates that the learning outcomes that can be achieved through collaboration are well-defined, but the conditions from which collaborations emerge, and the attributes and dynamics that allow them to function have not been closely examined. More studies are needed to establish a clear definition and a solid theoretical framework to guide the professional research forward.

Noting these gaps, I aim to enrich understanding of faculty librarians' collaborative work using a qualitative methodology that offers methods, including interviews and observations, that are appropriate for gaining insight into the meaning librarians construe from the social dynamics and processes of the relationship, and how these meanings affect the relationship.

Another driver toward this study about collaboration is the lack of consistency as to what constitutes collaboration at the individual level in any organisation. Bedwell et al. (2012) highlighted this gap in their multidisciplinary study on the conceptualization of collaboration. Though the study is aimed toward human resource managers, the authors conclude the study by suggesting future researchers focus on the multilevel aspects of collaboration to determine if collaborative processes look different at different levels of analysis. For example, are different processes more important at the team level than at higher levels of analysis where individuals may be representing their organisations or large-scale operations? Bedwell and colleagues also state that to improve understanding, more studies are needed that examine collaboration within different contexts (p. 142), and focus on variables including relational dependencies, relationship patterns, and a review of collaborators' competing sub-goals (p.134).

The current literature on collaboration focuses heavily on inter-organisational collaborations and, at the intra-organisational level, there is an emphasis on team-based collaborations and dynamics. Dyadic collaborations, and the experience of the individual as a part of a dyadic collaboration, have received less attention within empirical studies. In the examples that do feature the individual experience of the collaborator, the authors often draw upon studies of organisations (e.g., relying on Mattessich and Monsey, 1992), rather than individual-level studies. This study aims, in part, to use faculty librarians as a case example to contribute new research that examines the experience and actions of individuals who engage in collaborative work as part of the larger work of the institution.

How faculty librarians and discipline faculty discursively construct their collaborative relationships is best addressed through the participants' experiences and a comparison of their perspectives on collaboration. Therefore, a qualitative study, designed within the framework of constructivist grounded theory, is appropriate to examine the discursive construction of the collaborative relationships between faculty librarians and discipline faculty. The method is especially valuable for areas of research where there is a scarcity of theoretical foundations.

In many doctoral theses, the study is introduced with a comprehensive literature review, followed by an explanation of the selected methodology, before progressing to the findings. However, a constructivist grounded theory thesis develops through an abductive research process that does not follow a linear path and, most notably in the grounded theory process, the research does not begin with an extended literature review to bound the methodology and inform the findings. While it is possible to work the findings of a constructivist grounded theory study into a linear format, it would not be an accurate representation of how the study progressed and how the data was analysed. For these reasons, and before proceeding to study design and analysis, I want to provide a more comprehensive explanation of how constructivist grounded theory studies are organised. The organisation of the chapters is presented after this explanation, so the reader has an improved understanding of why the thesis chapters are intentionally organised in a specific way.

CHAPTER TWO: Reading a Constructivist Grounded Theory Study

2. Principles that Distinguish a Constructivist Grounded Theory Study

This thesis presents a constructivist grounded theory study and the social experience of faculty librarians who collaborate with discipline faculty. Within both the current library and organisational literatures, little attention is focused on the social processes and dynamics that exist as a part of these relationships and, the perspective of discipline faculty is almost entirely unknown. Constructivist grounded theory studies are characterized by several interrelated principles which are presented at the outset to orient the reader to my role as the researcher, and to outline the relevance of how the study is organised and how it reads. According to Kathy Charmaz, the American sociologist who developed the methodology, a constructivist grounded theory study should enhance the visibility of the research process by (Charmaz, 2014):

- 1.) allowing the voice of participants, and the voice of the researcher, to come through the data;
- 2.) acknowledging that the researcher, situational context, and time are important influences in the study's outcomes;
- 3.) being transparent about the researcher's role in the research process; and
- 4.) using a first-person narrative to reiterate the role of the researcher and support transparency.

Recognizing that researchers hold preconceptions about their study questions, Charmaz emphasizes to grounded theorists the importance of using self-reflective practices to support an ongoing awareness, or methodological "self-consciousness," of their own perspectives and privileges throughout the research process (Charmaz, 2017, p.36). Reflective practice should be extended to their

interactions with participants and include continuous evaluation of how one's positions affect all phases of inquiry and analysis (Charmaz, 2017). Charmaz states:

We are not scientific observers who can dismiss scrutiny of our values by claiming scientific neutrality and authority. Neither observer nor observed come to a scene untouched by the world. Researchers and research participants make assumptions about what is real, possess stocks of knowledge, occupy social statuses, and pursue purpose that influence their respective views and actions in the presence of each other. (Charmaz, 2006, p.15)

In an article discussing the challenges of applying grounded theory, the authors stress the role of the researcher in constructivist grounded theory by stating that the methodology "fully implicates the researcher in generating data and theory" (Timonen, Foley, and Conlon, 2017, p. 3). Essentially, study findings are based on the researcher's construction of the participants' experiences, resulting in the interpretive nature of the inquiry and subsequent analysis.

2.1. Rationale for Constructivist Grounded Theory

The process of being fully implicated in the study setting and interpreting the experience of others requires the researcher to manage their own assumptions and avoid pushing the data toward certain conclusions.

This is particularly true for me since at the time this study is written, I have been working as a faculty librarian for 23 years and currently serve as the director and associate university librarian of an international branch library operating as part of an American Tier 1 research university. In my early career, I worked for several years as Head of Library Instruction and Outreach at a public university in the United States. During my tenure in that role, I engaged with faculty from different disciplines, teaching over a thousand classroom instruction sessions, and providing a high volume of faculty research consultations. In subsequent career roles, I continued some aspects of this work, while also supervising faculty librarians whose

roles were similarly focused on collaborative work with discipline faculty. Based on my own experience of working with discipline faculty and, later, observing the experiences of faculty librarians under my supervision, I understood that faculty librarians encounter several social challenges in their working relationships with discipline faculty. The challenges were variable but common themes included difficulties in identifying shared goals, instances of feeling subordinated, and finding acceptance as a peer faculty member.

I knew from my accumulated experience that, despite having faculty (peer) status and the requirement to meet the same standards for promotion and tenure, faculty librarians are perceived differently than discipline faculty. This may have to do, in part, with the fact that most librarians do not teach credit-based courses (though some do), or because a doctoral degree is not an educational requirement for most faculty library positions (though many have earned one), or because the role of faculty librarians has evolved along with technological developments in libraries. Cecilia Whitchurch, a UK scholar in the field of higher education, developed a blended professional model, from which she coined the term 'third space' (Whitchurch, 2008). Whitchurch conceptualized the third space as one occupied by university professionals whose roles combine responsibilities for professional practice, with overlap into education, teaching, scholarship, and administration (Whitchurch 2008 and 2012). While Whitchurch did not identify academic librarians as third-space professionals in her original work, subsequent studies conducted in the American context, following Whitchurch's premise, did include academic librarians as well as student affairs professionals and research administrators as third-space professionals (Campbell, 2023; Elmborg, 2011; Veles, 2022). In all study cases, it is agreed that third-space conditions are often ambiguous, and individuals who work in these spaces can be inhibited by real and perceived barriers such as perception, status, and visibility (Elmborg, 2011; Veles, Carter, and Boon, 2019; Whitchurch, 2012). As a result, third space professionals' authority is more often

expressed through the relationships they have developed, rather than the position or title they hold within the institution (Whitchurch, 2009). In this study it is not my intention to support or disprove the idea of academic librarians as third space professionals; however, sharing this concept provides insight into some of the library literature to which I was exposed at the outset of this study, and contributes to how I chose to frame the study.

Also related to the perception of librarians is the contentious issue of granting them faculty status. In American academia, this is an issue that has been debated for over a hundred years, continuing to this day, and resulting in a large body of literature and opinion pieces (Bryan, 2007). A review of the higher education literature indicates that no other professional group in higher education has encountered so much tension centred around their university status. The debate about librarians' faculty status is centred on issues related to status, expectations for library service, and perception of librarians' roles (Bryan, 2007). Early on, Shapiro (1993) pointed out that librarianship is fundamentally different than teaching and, in the context of promotion, it should not be compared to teaching activity. Others have voiced concern that if faculty librarians are occupied with research requirements, the level of library services will be compromised (Leonhardt, 2004). This concern counters others who argue that librarians are not well prepared to conduct empirical research, or the research produced by librarians is less rigorous. Supporting this point, one survey of senior university administrators revealed that many do not believe there is any added benefit to the university if librarians have faculty status (Gillum, 2010).

Within American institutions of higher education, the decision to grant faculty status to academic librarians has been met with both support and resistance – even among librarians (Bourg, 2013; Cronin, 2001; Silva, Galbraith, and Groesbeck, 2017). Consistent and visible support has come from both the Association of American Colleges (now the Association of American Colleges and Universities) and the

American Association of University Professors (American Association of University Professors, 2012.). At many institutions, including my own, such support has succeeded in librarians achieving faculty status, while at other institutions the efforts to grant librarians the same rights and responsibilities as discipline faculty have been unsuccessful. While faculty status does provide librarians a voice, and a seat at more tables, it does not address the perceptions some discipline faculty may hold about librarians' status and roles.

Since it is clear the debate cannot be resolved, in part because of the variability of how faculty status is defined and lack of understanding for how librarians can meet standards for promotion and tenure, there is a fair amount of research focused on what faculty status means for librarians who have it. The difference in rank promotion for librarianship instead of teaching (e.g., Assistant Professor to Associate Professor), even with all other standards the same, leaves room to debate the legitimacy of librarians as peer faculty members. The Association of College and Research Libraries has developed a set of standards for faculty status (2007), and many researchers have surveyed groups of institutions or individual librarians seeking to determine how closely their status adhered to discipline standards for promotion and tenure (Julien and Genuis, 2011; Walters, 2016; Weng and Murray, 2020).

My current role is under a faculty contract, which expects me to follow requirements for research and dissemination, and to participate in university governance. My contract provides eligibility for promotion to professorial rank but does not offer tenure. During my career in higher education, I have worked only in institutions that have granted faculty status to librarians, so I do not have experience working as an academic librarian without faculty status. This information is shared to explain, in part, why I chose to focus my study on the experience of faculty librarians as opposed to academic librarians, in general. While this study does not formally survey participants on their stance about faculty status for librarians, it is important to

acknowledge both the contentious history of the issue as a potential point of context for the participants and how they view the role of faculty librarians, and my experience having faculty status as a librarian.

My experience within the profession of academic librarianship, which has occurred solely in the context of American higher education, is a part of who I am as a researcher and has informed my thinking about some of the concepts that comprise the original inquiry of this study. As a library administrator, I identify as an inside researcher because I am a member of the same profession as the librarian study participants. The need to reflect on my position as an inside researcher carries epistemological importance because my position, in relation to my study participants, has a direct impact on the knowledge generated for this study (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009). Contextual commonalities do not guarantee that, as an inside researcher, I will understand participants' perspectives any more than an outsider, but the commonalities between the librarian study participants and me were advantageous when developing interview questions and recruiting participants. However, I also faced challenges with boundaries, which became less clear when I interacted with faculty librarians. I found myself empathetic to the librarian participants when they shared sensitive information about their experiences, and it remains unknown if these experiences would have been shared with a non-librarian researcher.

I have shared a part of my professional history to orient the reader to who I am as a researcher. It is important to disclose that my experience has contributed to the development of preconceived notions about this study, and to underscore my empathy toward the experience of the faculty librarians who participated in this study. While I admit to these biases, I remained resolved to understand the social experience, and both sides of the constructivist story, by hearing from discipline faculty and learning from their collaborative experiences with faculty librarians. Despite librarians' long, documented history of struggling in their relationships with

discipline faculty, little is known from the perspective of the discipline faculty. This study has also been an opportunity for me to learn directly from them, and to use their voices and experiences to understand how they make sense of their professional relationships with faculty librarians.

During the analysis phase, I also presented my findings to non-librarian audiences, whose feedback provided an opportunity to examine my perspectives and assumptions as a researcher, assess my biases, and re-examine where I may have pushed analysis solely from my experiences and feelings, rather than relying on the voices of my participants (Charmaz, 2020).

From a value-based viewpoint, I believe my relationship with the study participants, and the abductive analytic process contributed value to understanding the social experience of faculty librarians who collaborate with discipline faculty. The constructivist grounded theory methods allow me to establish a narrative trail of discovery that is 'grounded' in the data and characterized by the voices of the participants. In the spirit of constructivist grounded theory, I use the first-person throughout the thesis to reiterate to the reader that the findings represent my way of seeing the data.

Drawing from Charmaz's constructivist grounded theory approach, and to address the bias associated with my role as an inside researcher, I understood the significance that strong reflexivity would have throughout my research practice (Charmaz, 2017). Through reflexivity, I made a continuous effort to consider how my experiences, preconceptions, and analytic decision-making shaped the research, influenced the interview questions, and contributed to the overall creation of this study. Reflexive research is vital to constructivist grounded theory methodology because it supports the role of the researcher, and how they interact with research participants and represent them in the final write-up (Charmaz, 2014, p. 344). The practice of reflexivity is further explained in depth in Section 4.5.3.

Finally, in providing a rationale for selecting constructivist grounded theory as a methodology, it is important to acknowledge some of the criticisms it has received. Although having been used as a methodology across several disciplines (Charmaz, 2020; Crouchman, Griffiths, Harris, and Henderson, 2022; Karpouza and Emvalotis, 2019; Maroney and Horne, 2022; Rodríguez-Labajos, Thomson, and O'Brien, 2021), questions have been raised about how well it has contributed to theoretical innovation (Charmaz, 2006; Clarke, 2005; Snow, Morrill, and Anderson, 2003). Some critics of the methodology explain the lack of theoretical contributions is due to poor or inaccurate application of grounded theory principles, while others assert that grounded theory has been used as an umbrella term for qualitative research, in general, and specifically for research that involves coding or otherwise lacks a well-defined research strategy (Breckenridge, Jones, Elliott, and Nicol, 2012; Charmaz and Thornberg, 2021). After careful consideration of the critiques of constructivist grounded theory, the choice to employ constructivist grounded theory as the guiding methodological framework aligned with three important aspects of the research.

First, the choice to follow constructivist grounded theory suited my research objectives. Except for a few studies in health sciences (Davidson, Zigori, Ball, Morgan, Gala, and Reidlinger, 2023; Meterksy, Orchard, Adams, Hurlock-Chorostecki, and Mitchell, 2022), few researchers from other disciplines have used constructivist grounded theory as a research method to study collaborative practices at the individual level. A constructivist approach provided an opportunity to develop a new theory where existing research concepts were vague or non-existent (Charmaz, 2017).

Additionally, the choice to use constructivist grounded theory aligns with my views that reality is socially constructed, and that language and communication are symbolic representations of who we are as individuals (Charmaz, Harris, and Irvine, 2019, p.20), prompting me to ask questions of 'how' and 'why.' Throughout the

research process and write-up, and despite my limitations, I did my best to remain committed to respecting the agency of my study participants and allowing their voices to come through in the analysis.

Third, I considered my cognitive capabilities to align with the analytic demands of constructivist grounded theory and abductive inquiry (Heath and Cowley, 2004, p.149). A researcher's cognitive thinking influences their analytic capabilities and, as a researcher, I was aware of both my strengths and limitations and how they could potentially influence a productive research process. Specifically, I had to question my ability to use a methodology that employs abductive reasoning, a fundamental process critical to the application of constructivist grounded theory. Described as a cyclical process, Sætre and Van de Ven (2021) outline four recurring steps that are followed that align with abductive reasoning to make sense of a phenomenon: observe anomaly, confirm anomaly, develop hunches, and evaluate hunches.

While lessons about the practice of constructive grounded theory were learned, and better understood after the study was complete; at the onset, I did understand that, as a choice of methodology, there were personal attributes and affirmations that I would need to rely upon to engage with the methodology. I felt capable of applying the methodology, and embracing each of the following attributes during the study:

- o Willingness to engage in creative thinking and ideation about the data
- o Comfort with the ambiguity that accompanies phases of the data analysis
- o Patience with the abductive process
- o Confidence to pursue "hunches" about the analysis (Sætre and Van de Ven, 2021, p.684, p.686)
- o Comfort with data overload that can accompany the abductive process
- o Constant reflexivity including checks to ensure you are not pushing the data to conform to a preconceived idea
- o Acceptance that while a research timeline may have constraints, there is no timeline for when grounded theory will emerge
- o Trust in the constructivist grounded theory process

I am hopeful that a formal study of faculty librarian's collaborative experiences will be a positive contribution to academic librarianship and to other professions that engage in cross-boundary, interprofessional, or interdisciplinary collaborations.

2.2. Organisation of a Constructive Grounded Theory Thesis

Constructivist applications of grounded theory begin with a social phenomenon that is being explored, and ideas about the phenomenon will emerge and evolve from data as an abductive process, rather than one that is deductive or inductive. As part of this process, it is fundamental that I acknowledge my role and voice in the theory that emerges from the research (Charmaz, 2006). The abductive nature of the research, and the importance of asserting my role in all processes, require me to remain open-minded and to follow reflexive techniques to ensure that idea development emerges from the data and not strictly from my pre-conceived ideas about the topic under study. To support these expectations of a constructivist grounded theory study, the timing of the literature review, and how the literature is consulted, differs from many other methodologies. In constructivist grounded theory studies, the researcher writes about their pre-existing knowledge about the study's key topic, referred to as its sensitising concepts, and how the concepts informed the start of data collection. This means that a systematic, derivative literature review is not the starting point for the study. Rather, the sensitizing concepts become the starting point. As the data is analysed and elevated toward theory, the literature is consulted topically to compare emergent ideas and findings, and to contextualize them against what is known about the topic under study. A more comprehensive literature review is presented later in the study to situate the grounded theory against existing knowledge. Further information about the timing of the literature review, and how sensitising concepts are treated, is explained below.

2.2.1. Timing of the Literature Review

Given the abductive approach inherent to a constructivist grounded theory study, and to remain consistent with constructivist grounded theory methods, the literature review of this study serves as a post-analysis device. Because data analysis in constructivist grounded theory is abductive, the interpretation of the data indicates which literatures might be relevant. In this manner, the findings are compared to the literature, rather than derived from it (Charmaz, 2014). This means that the literature is explored later in the research process, rather than as a starting point. To present a comprehensive literature review at the beginning of the study would misrepresent the timeline of the research phases and the process of discovery. Instead, a select literature review is presented in Chapter Three to orient the reader to the fundamental, or sensitizing, concepts that formed the basis and direction for the study, and to support the explanation of why constructivist grounded theory was identified as an appropriate methodology. The literature review presented in Chapter Three is considered part of the analysis, although it was unknown at the start how (or if) these concepts would emerge in the findings.

2.2.2. The Role of Sensitizing Concepts

The information that informs a study's starting point is referred to by sociologist, Herbert Blumer, as a sensitizing concept (Blumer, 1954, p.7). In a seminal article on Charmaz's development of constructivist grounded theory, Blumer critiques the use of research concepts, explaining that definitive concepts, with "specification of attributes" and benchmarks are not appropriate for the study of the social or natural world (p. 7). Instead, he introduces the idea of sensitizing concepts that he describes as having abstract and "variable forms of expression," rather than the objective, measurable traits of definitive concepts that are more applicable in research methodologies that aim to test, measure, and verify through empirical

evidence (p. 8). Researchers of the social world begin with their own sensitizing concepts, their own placing of knowing, to position the study in a context that can provide improved understanding of it (pp. 9-10). Following Blumer's groundwork, Charmaz later wrote, "Sensitizing concepts and disciplinary perspectives provide a place to start, not end. Grounded theorists use sensitizing concepts as tentative tools for developing their ideas" (2006, p. 17), which may be informed by their disciplinary perspectives, professional experience, or previous research activity (Charmaz, 2014). It is from this foundational point, that study is guided and designed.

Based on my experience with the challenges of collaborating with discipline faculty, and my exposure to professional literature, my sensitizing concepts included collaboration, the general nature of faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaboration, cross-boundary professional collaborations, and professional identity. As noted earlier, one of the problems with the library literature is that much of it is insular (Whearty, Brunner, Johnston, and Turnator, 2017). The challenges of the profession are not often shared in other contexts, including higher education, and many of the studies lack theoretical underpinning. For this reason, I also explored some of these issues from the lens of the organisational and professional studies literatures to understand how these topics are situated in theory. These concepts are discussed further in Chapter Three: Sensitising Concepts.

2.2.3. Structure of the Thesis

As noted above, Chapter Three introduces the sensitizing concepts and how they formed my initial inquiry. This chapter leads into Chapter Four, Methodology and Methods, where I explain my choice of study design and how I collected data.

The data analysis is presented in Chapter Five, Data Findings. The data findings are presented sequentially according to how and when they emerged

during analysis, and how they contributed to the development of the conceptual model. The findings, which emerged in three major parts, comprise the structure of the conceptual model of negotiating professional legitimacy, which reflects the final analysis and explains how the data components are linked. Presenting the data in the way that it emerged facilitates the discussion of how its components relate to, and interplay, with one another.

Chapter Six is the discussion chapter where I critically explore the core construct of the emergent grounded theory, **Negotiating the Turn in Professional Legitimacy**, and discusses it in comparison to the literature to highlight the relevance to what is already known in terms of alignment, differences, or anomalies. The Discussion chapter also highlights the study's theoretical and practical contributions to knowledge.

The final chapter of the study outlines the study's limitations and points to future directions for research.

Before introducing the literature of the sensitising concepts, it is important to provide context to the reading: The research scope of this study has necessitated a multi-disciplinary inquiry. While much of the literature cited in this proposal originates from the social sciences, drawing heavily from organisational studies and sociology, it is important to note that the literature from other disciplines also brings valuable information to the study. Literature from the fields of professional studies, librarianship, education, and psychology are also represented.

CHAPTER THREE: Literature Review of Sensitizing Concepts

The sensitising concepts for this study represent my pre-study understanding of the collaboration-based challenges faced by faculty librarians and originated from my experience as a faculty librarian. Following Charmaz, I used my sensitizing concepts as starting points to design the study, develop interview questions, and move the study toward data collection and analysis. Depending on how the analysis developed, it was unknown how the sensitizing concepts would emerge in the final model. It was important for me to be open to all ideas that formed during analysis and accept the possibility that my sensitizing concepts may not evolve or be elevated during analysis. Presenting them at the outset, however, allows the reader to follow my path of discovery, from pre-study to study design, through data analysis and grounded theory, and on to the final discussion and reflection.

The following literature review of the sensitizing concepts begins with an overview of how collaboration is conceptualized in the higher education and organisational studies literatures and how, from an operational perspective, collaborations exist between faculty librarians and discipline faculty. Despite an overwhelming body of professional literature that speaks to collaborations between faculty librarians and discipline faculty, and a growing body of evidence that collaboration in higher education underpins efficiency and contributes to positive learning outcomes, there remains a lack of common understanding about what collaboration means and how it differs from related terms that are discussed in the literature: working together, cooperation, engagement, partnership, alliance, embedded, and working relationship. Because collaboration is identified by professional library associations as a fundamental component for some faculty librarian roles, it was both surprising and confusing that it lacks definition and well-defined attributes. For this reason, I do not have an ontological building block, or a

model, on which to build the analysis from the perspective of the study's participant groups. Instead, I turned to the concept of collaboration as it is presented in the organisational literature.

The review will also introduce the challenges that are relevant to a contextual understanding of the collaborations that occur between faculty librarians and discipline faculty. These challenges include collaborating across boundaries, collaborative autonomy, and how faculty librarians are perceived by discipline faculty.

3. Defining Collaboration

For decades, researchers have attempted to define collaboration and synthesize definitions of collaboration, across industries, professions, and levels of analysis (Fasel, 2001; Henneman, Lee, and Cohen, 1995; Patel, Pettitt, and Wilson, 2012; Thomson, Perry, and Miller, 2009; Vangen and Huxham, 2003). In their review of studies focused on collaboration, Wood and Gray identified "a welter of definitions, each having something to offer and none being entirely satisfactory by itself" (1991, p.143), and Thomson, Perry, and Miller explain that such a lack of consensus poses problems for researchers because it is difficult to compare findings across studies and to know "whether what is measured is really collaboration" (2007, p. 24).

Although these key issues have been highlighted for decades, collaboration as both a concept and a process still lack consensus on a definition, and how it is understood and operationalized within different professions and contexts (Patel, Pettitt, and Wilson, 2012; Thomson and Perry, 2009). Librarianship is no exception. Despite the significance faculty librarians place on collaboration with discipline faculty, and across multiple university sectors, few studies in the library literature provide a working definition, or researchers rely upon a small collection of commonly cited works. Such definitions include the one offered by Mattessich and

Monsey in their book on collaboration in higher education. The definition is directed toward collaboration between organisations, but librarians have relied upon it in studies between individuals, even though interpersonal relationships do not rely on the same levels of structure as organisations (Whittington, 2015):

Collaboration is a mutually beneficial and well-defined relationship entered into by two or more organizations to achieve common goals. The relationship includes a commitment to a definition of mutual relationships and goals; a jointly shared structure and statement of responsibility; mutual accountability and authority for success; and sharing of resources and awards (Mattessich and Monsey, 1992, p. 11).

This definition presents an interesting contradiction to the reality of faculty librarians' experiences in their collaborations with discipline faculty. Mattessich and Monsey use the word 'relationship' to describe the connection between two entities, but they do not elaborate on the attributes that define the relationship required for a successful relationship. In the sociological literature. Granovetter theorized social networks as symmetric configurations of absent, weak, and strong ties (pp. 1360, 1361 *f*2). Strong ties are bonds that represent contact-intensive, close relationships that a person has with family or friends or, in this case, with work colleagues; whereas weak ties refer to acquaintances that are characterized by superficial, less intimate interactions. This definition leaves a question about the expectation for the relationship and the interpersonal connectedness required to initiate, develop, and sustain collaborative, cross-boundary relationships.

The definition offered by Montiel-Overall, in their article about collaborations between school librarians and school teachers has also been cited in studies about faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaboration, despite a different context and the discrepancies over whether faculty librarians are equal to discipline faculty (Giesecke, 2012; Horton, 2013). The definition emphasises equality between different domains of expertise, the librarian and teacher, as well as sharing the vision and collaborative processes:

Collaboration is a trusting, working relationship between two or more equal participants involved in shared thinking, shared planning and shared creation of integrated instruction. Through a shared vision and shared objectives, student learning opportunities are created that integrate subject content and information literacy by co-planning, co-complementing, and co-evaluating students' progress throughout the instructional process in order to improve student learning in all areas of the curriculum (Montiel-Overall, 2007, p. 5)

Wood and Gray's classic definition can also be found (Jaguszewski and McGuire, 2019):

[collaborations] occur when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engages in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain (Wood and Gray, 1991, p.146).

A general review of definitions from other bodies of literature finds that collaboration has a range of understandings, depending upon the level of analysis, and often links to other concepts related to collaborative practice including shared goals (Houldin, Naylor, and Haller, 2004), value co-creation (Mathisen and Jørgensen, 2021), problem-solving (Wilczenksi, Bontragen, Ventrone, and Correia, 2001), resource sharing (Bardach and Lesser, 1996), and innovation (Levine and Prietula, 2014). There is also an examination of different levels of collaboration based on the degree of commitment required to perform the work, from a minimal level (coordination) to a modest level (cooperation), to the highest level of commitment (collaboration). The distinctions between these terms continue to be debated, and they are often used interchangeably depending on the context (Bedwell et al., 2012, Table 2; Castañer and Oliveira, 2020; McNamara, 2012).

The insight into what is valued in collaboration by different academic fields creates ambiguity about collaboration and the collaborative process, but also highlights the need to clarify how collaboration is understood and operationalized

by a particular group of people, and how that understanding aligns - or not - with those with whom they collaborate.

While researchers continue to contend with the multitude of approaches to understanding collaboration, most scholars can agree on the basic assumption that, across different levels of analysis, it involves working together (Bedwell, Wildman, DiazGranados, Salazar, Kramer, and Salas, 2012; Fasel, 2001). The definition put forward by Thomson, Perry, and Miller elaborates on this point by acknowledging the role of individual participants and the social processes it involves:

Collaboration is a process in which autonomous or semi-autonomous actors interact through formal and informal negotiation, jointly creating rules and structures governing their relationships and ways to act or decide on the issues that brought them together; it is a process involving shared norms and mutually beneficial interactions (2009, p. 25).

Researchers have also attempted to build a theoretical framework for collaboration. For example, Amabile et al. (2001) provided three characteristics of success factors for cross-profession collaboration (i.e., academic-practitioner). Specifically, the three identified elements of collaboration are: collaborative team characteristics, collaboration environment characteristics, and collaboration processes. Amabile et al. explain that collaborative teams must have skills that are highly relevant to projects and the collaborations that they are involved in, as well as positive attitudes and motivation toward the collaboration. These collaborative team characteristics are supported by a collaborative environment, during which individual team members and teams are encouraged to engage more in collaborations. Lastly, Amabile et al. suggest that efficient collaboration processes (e.g., well-organised meetings and frequent and effective communication among members) are crucial elements of effective collaborations (pp. 419-20).

Patel, Pettitt, and Wilson (2012) also developed a framework for a collaboration model. The framework, developed for a transnational project aimed at creating collaborative engineering workspaces, outlines collaborative attributes and processes that influence and contribute to its efficacy. Their model consists of top-level factors and sub-factors. See Table 1. Factors of Collaborative Work.

Table 1. Factors of Collaborative Work

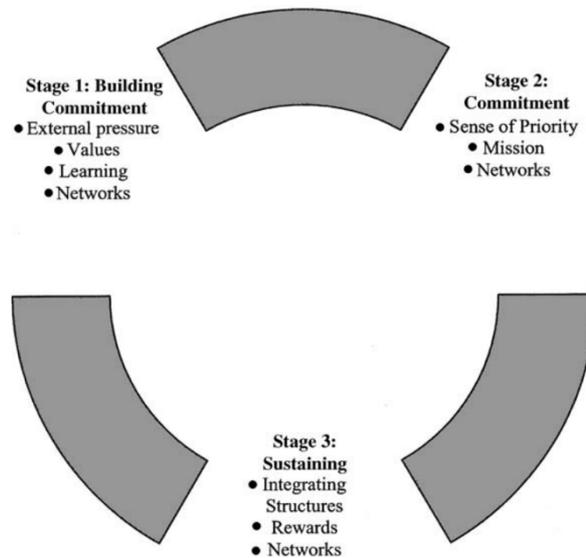
Main factors				Sub-factors					
Context	Culture	Environment	Business climate	Organizational structure					
Support	Tools	Network	Resources	Training	Team building	Knowledge management	Error management		
Tasks	Type	Structure	Demands						
Interactions	Learning	Coordination	Communication	Decision-making					
Processes									
Teams	Roles	Relationships	Shared awareness/knowledge	Common ground	Group processes	Composition			
Individuals	Skills	Psychological factors	Well-being						
Overarching factors	Trust	Conflict	Experience	Goals	Incentives	Constraints	Management	Performance	Time

Top-level factors include: context, support, tasks, interaction processes, teams, and individuals, and overarching factors (p. 3). Interactive processes are factored into the structure of the model and include learning, coordination, communication, and decision-making. Using scenarios from several technology-based industries, this model provides important evidence that successful collaboration emerges as a result of multiple interactions between these factors. The model does not extend guidance for how to navigate and operationalize these factors to achieve successful collaborations.

Within higher education, Adrianna Kezar also developed a model of collaboration. Citing the lack of models of collaboration for higher education institutions, Kezar (2005) adapted the corporate models of collaboration developed by Doz (1996), Kanter (1994), Mohrman, Cohen, and Mohrman (1995), and Ring and

Van de Ven (1994) to develop a three-stage developmental model of collaboration. The model also reflects Kezar’s case studies of four higher education institutions that were identified as exemplars of organisations that support collaborative work. See Figure 1.

Figure 1. Stage Model Collaboration in Higher Education (Kezar, 2005, p.845)



In Kezar’s model, eight core elements across three stages of development enable and create a campus culture of collaboration. In stage one, called ‘Building Commitment,’ external pressures, values, learning, and campus networks are critical to establishing a strong argument and narrative for why collaboration is important. In this stage, to secure buy-in and inspire colleagues to collaborate, change agents are needed to educate the campus community about the benefits of collaboration. There must also be a context for collaboration and strong support from external sources (e.g., accreditation guidelines). Moreover, the values of student-centeredness, innovation, and egalitarianism must be a part of the collaborative mission to effect organisational change toward becoming a collaborative institution. In stage two, ‘Commitment,’ senior administrators show strong leadership and support by making it a priority to promote and model collaboration. They also

develop campus networks and a mission statement that establishes the institution's commitment to collaboration. Those actions are key to making collaboration an integral part of the institution and not just an organisational or management fad. In stage three, 'Sustaining,' structures must be present that create physical and intellectual space for collaboration (e.g., central organisational units for collaboration, centres, and institutes) as well as budget and accounting systems and information technologies. Institutional requirements, incentives, and other forms of support surrounding information literacy education, often become the leverage for discipline faculty to collaborate with teaching librarians. Many universities recognize information and digital literacies as essential undergraduate competencies that, depending upon an institution's curricular structure, may require discipline faculty to extend classroom teaching beyond the scope of their subject instruction. With the prevalent understanding in academia that students need academic support to become proficient users of information, the development of these literacies presents a critical opportunity for librarians to collaborate with discipline faculty. Librarians contribute their expertise in information and digital literacy, while faculty have the subject expertise that provides the important disciplinary context for embedding and aligning the literacies' concepts. Generally, the decision to develop an infrastructure to support literacy development is driven by institutional expectations external to the library such as departmental requirements, review of curricular assessment plans, and accreditation standards (Church-Duran, 2017; Lewitsky, 2020).

In addition, reward systems, especially tenure, promotion, and incentives, are needed to support and formally recognize collaborative work. Kezar (2005) found that learning was especially critical in the first and second stages and that external pressures were most influential in the second phase. Relationships among a campus network, or a critical mass of supporters and proponents of collaboration, were the most important element in the model. These change agents and champions of collaboration are needed to spread the message of change to their colleagues and

to lead by example by engaging in collaborative projects themselves, thereby generating more collaboration on campus. The salience of relationships and networks in Kezar's model underscores that collaboration is essentially a social process (Walsh and Kahn, 2010). Kezar argues that in comparison to business or corporate environments, where it might not be unusual for collaboration to be initiated by mandates, the importance of networks in establishing collaboration might be unique to higher education professionals, who are more motivated by peers than by mandates or outside influences. Motivation for interdisciplinary collaboration can also be understood in terms of its outcomes. In the context of research-based collaborations, studies indicate that, despite universities' increased efforts to improve organisational structures in support of interdisciplinary collaboration, motivation for interdisciplinary research is challenged by several factors including reluctance to engage with a different epistemology, lack of mutual interest in publication formats, distrust or fear of stolen work and ideas, and the emergence of power imbalances within the relationship (Leahey and Barringer, 2020; Siedlok and Hibbert, 2014; Tarrant and Thiele, 2017).

Kezar's argument about the importance of networks is also reflected in the interprofessional literatures of clinical and social medicine. In a study on creating culture change in an NHS hospital, Bate (2000) notes that the formation of a collaborative, networked culture cannot be imposed from the top down; instead, it requires interactive boundary work from individual members of the network. Petrakou (2009) also stresses that more focus is needed on the relational and boundary work of the individuals who collaborate, stating that interprofessional collaboration is more than "policies, strategies, structures and processes" (p.1). In a case study of clinical networks in geriatric cancer care, Bagayogo et al. (2016) describe informal or "grassroot" networks that emerged between nurses, geriatric specialists, and oncologists without a structured model or systematic protocols for patient assessment, psychosocial care, and family management (p. 972). The findings

from this study show that formalized networks, sometimes requiring infrequent interactions, can fail to build adequate trust. Whereas informally built networks of nurses and clinicians, with frequent interactions (e.g., inviting one another as guest speakers, encouraging cross-boundary referrals, seeking advice in patient care scenarios) were more effective for building trust and strengthening the interprofessional network.

Walsh and Kahn (2010) also emphasize the salience of relationships in building and sustaining collaboration in higher education organisations. Grounded by the theoretical literature on human social activity, Walsh and Kahn's theoretical model of collaboration in higher education is based on the premise that the academy is a social organisation conducive to collaboration. See Figure 2.

Figure 2. Model for Collaborative Working in Higher Education (Walsh and Kahn, 2020, p.16)



The model consists of five overlapping domains: social vehicles, practice, context, engagement, and professional dialogues. Social vehicles are the social structures that underpin collaborative relationships and provide stability across social actions. These structures are events, patterns of behaviour, and practices that enable professional dialogues and engagement among organisations and individuals.

Practice is how individuals and groups collaboratively plan and carry out their work. Engagement refers to the level of interest, commitment, effort, energy, and participation that collaborators bring to a joint project. Context refers to the situational environment in which collaboration takes place in the academy. Professional dialogues are the discourses in which professionals engage as they exchange ideas that lead to professional learning and knowledge generation. Walsh and Kahn assert that professional dialogues and social structures are indispensable to collaborative work because new knowledge and new research cannot be created without them (2010, p.17, pp.62-63). From a critical perspective, Walsh and Kahn's model emphasises some of the challenges encountered in a study of collaborative processes. For example, the model is presented as an ideal for collaborative work that assumes collaborators can successfully develop shared practices and goals, learn to respect others' values, and manage power asymmetries that may exist. The question remains: In the epistemologically bounded culture of higher education, how do collaborators react and respond when the collaborative model is not ideal, and tensions arise? More work is needed to understand individualised reactions to difficulties that surface in collaborative relationships between cross-boundary peers.

Despite the existence of multiple frameworks and models, two core tenets emerge: The first is that collaboration is aimed at achieving a shared goal. Bedwell et al. (2012) suggest that "shared goals are what make collaboration 'collaborative.'" Without at least one shared goal or endpoint, there would be no reason for two or more entities to work together at all" (p. 134). A second tenet is that collaboration is a reciprocal and evolving process. Building from Wood and Gray's (1991) conceptualization of collaboration as an interactive process, Bedwell et al. (2012) describe collaboration as a process: "whereby two or more social entities actively and reciprocally engage in joint activities..." (Bedwell et al., 2012, p. 130; Wood and Gray, 1991). As to who is engaged, both sets of authors point out that collaboration can occur amongst any number of social entities—including individuals, teams,

agencies, and organisations—if there are at least two of them (Bedwell et al., 2012; Wood and Gray, 1991). Across various work settings, and depending on the level at which the collaboration occurs, the dynamics of collaboration are likely to take different forms. Importantly, Bedwell et al. (2012) note that collaborative interactions at one level of analysis—amongst individuals, for example—may be impacted by or may impact collaborative interactions at a higher level of analysis—the business unit as a whole, for example.

To leverage diverse knowledge and skill sets, collaborations are recognized as a mode of working that contributes to problem-solving (Gray, 1989; Thomson, Perry, and Miller; 2009), realizing achievements that could not be made in isolation (i.e., collaborative advantage) (Huxham and Vangen, 2004), generating team-based creativity (DeFillippi, Grabher, and Jones, 2007; Paulus, Dzindolet, and Kohn, 2012), and contributing to organisational agility and innovation (Pulakos, Kantrowitz, Schneider, 2019). All the models presented here provide different conceptualization of collaboration and the key attributes and processes that make it effective. Organisational leaders can use these models to develop working guidelines and best practices, and to implement training and assessment modules for employees who occupy collaborative roles.

But these models also represent ideal conditions and behaviours, and they do not account for my direct experiences of collaboration, or the experiences I have observed through my professional colleagues. What happens when these attributes are not agreed upon? Or when the processes are disrupted by the beliefs and actions of individual actors who have disparate levels of relational influence? What if organisations do not help employees understand best practices for collaboration or otherwise provide expectations for how they should work? While the use of collaboration for meeting the needs of students in higher education is established (Kezar, 2005), it is unknown how many faculty librarians and discipline faculty are exposed to shared training on how to collaborate effectively. These questions

emerge as critical starting points for the study. At this point, it is important to provide additional context to these questions by offering a closer examination of the conditions and influences that characterize faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations.

3.1. An Overview of Faculty Librarian-Discipline Faculty Collaborations

From the perspective of faculty librarians, their collaboration with discipline faculty contributes to the university's strategy for achieving the educational mission of the university by enhancing the teaching and learning paradigm (Bennett and Gilbert, 2009; Smith, 2011), transferring knowledge and expertise across disciplines (García-Milian et al., 2013; Howard, Zwicky, and Phillips, 2018; Wishkoski, Lundstrom, and Davis, 2018), and improving research capacity and quality (Brandenburg, Cordell, Joque, MacEachern, and Song, 2017; Chaput and Walsh, 2023; Knapp, 2012).

The current literature is enriched with reports of various collaborative initiatives between librarians and faculty members in universities around the world, and during the past 35 years, there has been significant development in the areas of collaboration activities between faculty librarians and discipline faculty. Traditionally, faculty librarians mainly worked with discipline faculty in library bibliographic instruction and collection development-related activities. However, since the developments in information technology and the proliferation of digital resources, the focus of collaboration has shifted to more advanced information skills training, research projects, and scholarly communication.

There are numerous examples across disciplines. Pritchard (2019), a sciences librarian, describes their collaboration with a faculty member from the department of chemistry. In this case, the librarian was embedded in a first-year, undergraduate nanoscience course as a co-designer of the curriculum, whose responsibility was to

facilitate the students' publication in an online, open access journal. Burrell, Mann, and Neville (2020) present their work on leading a discipline faculty learning community (FLC) on data literacy including how to access raw data sets. Similarly, Lach and Pollard (2019) describe their two-year partnership with discipline faculty at San Diego State University in which the librarian introduced digital humanities visualisation tools to history students, enabling them to create online artefacts instead of producing traditional research papers. In the field of arts, Grimm and Meeks (2017) discuss their pedagogical approach to teaching critical visual literacy to undergraduate art and design students, and in a social sciences collaboration, faculty librarians and discipline faculty collaborated to develop a new course, the Social Sciences Research Accelerator, designed to teach fundamental research skills for students who would be conducting research-intensive projects in their final year (Fulton, Bustillo, McGuinness, Guerin, and Browne, 2020).

Research is another important domain for collaborations between faculty librarians and discipline faculty. This work extends into numerous areas with projects focusing on joint research projects, management of institutional repositories, librarians as co-authors for research grants and the development of systematic reviews, and oversight for scholarly data management (Borrego, Ardany, and Urbano, 2018; Nolen, Kathuria, and Peacock, 2021). In 2013, the Hesburgh Libraries at Notre Dame University established a digital scholarship centre, staffed by subject specialist librarians. The mission of the centre is to promote digital engagement with intellectual materials by educating students and faculty on emerging methodologies and data analysis techniques (Hesburgh Libraries, University of Notre Dame, n.d.). In another example, two libraries partnered with the Sloan Digital Sky Survey to curate a large-scale astronomy data set (Darch, Sands, Borgman, Golshan, 2020). Additionally, there are numerous examples of librarians partnering with clinical faculty as co-authors on systematic reviews (Bhullar, Faghih, Akshintala, Ahmed, Lobner, Afghani, E., Phillips, Hart, Ramsey, Bick, and Kuhlmann, 2022; Douglas,

Feuerstein, Oshita, Schliep, Danowski, 2022; Iyer, López-Fernández, González-Dambrauskas, Baranwal, Hotz, Zhu, Zhang, Craven, Whipple, Abu-Sultaneh, and Khemani, 2023). Preliminary research produced by clinical professors indicates that librarian involvement in the development of systematic reviews is correlated with reproducibility of searches, likely due to librarians' expertise surrounding search development and documentation (Rethlefsen, Farrell, Osterhaus-Trzasko, Brigham, 2015).

In terms of the outcomes of collaboration practices, much of the literature has demonstrated its multilevel benefits for university communities, and significant outcomes of collaboration between faculty librarians and discipline faculty are well documented by librarians (Brown and Malenfant, 2017; Corral and Jolly, 2019; Hammons, 2020). With few exceptions, little documentation of these collaborative efforts is publicized by discipline faculty (Christiansen, Strombler, and Thaxton, 2004; Wheatry, Brunner, Johnston, Turnator, 2017). Librarians have turned a reflexive eye on themselves, resulting in an extensive, documented history of using various advocacy campaigns and strategies to articulate the profession's core values and the academic contributions it delivers to a university community. The Standards for Libraries in Higher Education (Association for College and Research Libraries, 2018) provide association members with several principles and performance indicators for establishing and assessing their institutional excellence. Several of the principles and performance indicators are evidence that the profession has internalized the importance of demonstrating value to the university community.

Principle 1. Institutional Effectiveness, includes a performance indicator that reads:

Performance Indicator 1.7. The library communicates with the campus community to highlight its value in the educational mission and in institutional effectiveness (p. 16).

Principle 3. Educational Role, and one of its performance indicators is another example:

Performance Indicator 3.1. Library personnel collaborate with faculty and others regarding ways to incorporate library collections and services into effective curricular and co-curricular experiences for students (p. 16).

The Association of College and Research Libraries has also developed a Value of Academic Libraries Statement (2016a). The statement includes several talking points and “elevator speeches” librarians can use to highlight value and impact across the university. The points are categorized under four headings including: student recruitment, retention, and matriculation; enhanced student learning; support faculty research and teaching; and raise institutional visibility and contribute to the community.

In 2016, Hicks published a review of what they term the “advocacy repertoire” of the profession. The review highlights the range of strategies librarians have used to promote their image and value (e.g., use of stakeholder language, embedding librarians into teaching programs and Student Affairs), to counter negative or misperceptions of their role (modifying discourse), and to advocate on their behalf (promoting success stories, dedicating library positions to outreach and marketing, linking library usage to student success and retention). Indeed, even a cursory review of the professional literature generates a significant result of case studies that feature librarians’ ongoing efforts to demonstrate professional value (Aabø, 2009; Borrego, Ardanuy, and Urbano, 2018; Brown, 2011; Creaser and Spezi; 2014; Lawton, 2016; Polger and Okamoto, 2013).

3.2. Conditions and Influences of Faculty Librarian-Discipline Faculty Collaborations

The collaboration literature provides insight into the conditions that surround collaborative work. Issues related to interpersonal conflict and collaborative 'inertia' are known to diminish the positive outcomes associated with collaboration (Huxham and Vangen, 2004, p.191). Knowing there are challenging conditions inherent to collaboration, it is important to review some of the conditions that may generate stress within faculty librarian-discipline faculty relationships.

The conditional factors introduced in the next section were identified primarily from my experience working as a faculty librarian and supervising other faculty librarians. The conditions described below include:

- o Autonomy (as a prevailing condition)
- o Cross-boundary collaborations (known challenges)
- o Technology in libraries (and the impact on the perception of the librarians' role)
- o Perception of librarians' knowledge, skill, and education

At the outset of data collection, it was unknown if these conditions would emerge in the data and, if so, how they would influence the collaborative relationship. But to understand the data, I felt it was important to use these conditions as a preliminary guide for asking interview questions, observing librarians and discipline faculty at work, and listening carefully to their stories. If these conditions generate any friction in the collaborative experience and processes, it would be critical to know how it emerges, and how librarians make sense of it.

3.2.1. Autonomy: Prevailing Condition

Earlier it was noted that, while collaboration is central to the library professions' paradigms for teaching, learning, and research, there is a lack of consensus on the definition of collaboration. Another compounding factor in a

study of the collaborative relationship between faculty librarians and discipline faculty is the fact that they are often established informally, that is, outside the mandates of the institution (Shane, 2004). From across the social sciences literature, collaborations have been identified as emerging from mandated, informal, and voluntary conditions (Fan and Robertson, 2011; Kristiansen, 2014; Huxham, 1993; McNamara, 2012; Patel, Pettitt, and Wilson, 2014; Termen, Feiock, Youm, 2020), though far less is known about collaborations that occur in informal or voluntary conditions. In the case of mandated collaborations, responsibilities are delegated to the nominated collaborators and outcomes may be pre-identified; whereas informal or voluntary collaborations occur between people who recognize their interdependence, in terms of expertise or access to resources, and who identify value in working with the other without the structure of mandates imposing how they work together (McNamara, 2012).

Faculty librarians and discipline faculty are based in distinct groups and locations in the university (e.g., buildings, departments, campuses), and no authority or organisational hierarchy positions one group over another (Chu, 1997). In 2022, a librarian reported the results of a nationwide study of American faculty attitudes toward the spread of mis/dis-information in the news. Among respondents, 94% strongly agreed or agreed they were concerned about the spread of mis/dis-information. The responses varied across disciplines but, on average, 28% of faculty said they addressed the issue of mis/disinformation in their classes by requiring students to cite from trustworthy sources, and only 10% of the faculty addressed their students' abilities to identify mis/disinformation in a resource. At the same time, 79% of the respondents reported that they never worked with a librarian to address these issues in the classroom (Saunders, 2022). Øvern (2014), Thull and Hansen (2009), and Wang (2011) believed that universities need to endorse an organisational structure to make collaboration between faculty librarians and discipline faculty in teaching information literacy happen at the university-wide level. However, to get

the support of senior management, there would need to be “a meticulous effort that includes lobbying in meetings with the university leadership, arranging courses and seminars for teachers, meetings with students, teachers, administrators, and various committees” (Øvern, 2014, p. 49).

Within the educational sector, in general, other challenges to collaborations between all faculty groups have been identified and include departmental silos, differences in disciplinary cultures, bureaucracy, hierarchical administrative units, unions, and role misperception (Kanter, 1994; Kezar and Lester, 2009; Scott, 2006; Senge, 1990). There is a body of literature that describes strategies to implement specific initiatives in support of interdisciplinary collaboration, such as the formation of learning communities, specialized grant programs, disciplinary team teaching, and interdisciplinary research; however, these works focus on the particular dynamics and strategies to establish or launch such initiatives (Currie, Davies, Ferlie, 2016; Hibbert, Siedlok, and Beech, 2016; Holley, 2009; Kaplan, 2021; Kezar and Hirsch, 2002). Few, if any of these works, examine the broader challenge of how institutions can enable collaborative work, except noting the need to change incentive systems within institutions (Jacoby et al., 2003; Lyall, 2019; Perkmann, Salandra, Tartari, McKelvey, and Hughes, 2021).

Faculty librarians whose role descriptions indicate that they collaborate with disciplinary faculty are not, generally, collaborating under the formal direction of university or college mandates that specify collaborative relationships between faculty librarians and disciplinary faculty. Most often the collaborative relationship is initiated and facilitated solely by the faculty librarian or the discipline faculty member. The relationship is voluntary for discipline faculty while, for faculty librarians, the expectation for collaboration is: 1.) embedded into their job descriptions; 2.) must demonstrate educational impact through formal assessment measures or key performance indicators; 3.) forms the basis for performance evaluation and; 4.) is fundamental for a major section within their promotion

dossiers. Without the benefit of institutional structure to guide collaborations, faculty librarians' ability to build and maintain collaborative relationships is even more dependent on the perceptions and understanding discipline faculty have for the roles of librarians and the relevance of those roles in the context of teaching and research.

The issue of exploring collaboration in this non-mandated context is that, without the benefit of an institutional structure to provide the expectations and norms for the collaborative process and its outcomes, a collaboration between autonomous groups can be challenging, time-consuming, and consumed by tensions related to conflicting priorities and unmet expectations (Bedwell, Wildman, DiazGranados, Salazar, Kramer, and Salas, 2012; Bruns, 2013; Huxham, 2003; Thomson, Perry, and Miller, 2009).

3.2.2. Cross-Boundary Collaborations

The challenges of collaborating across boundaries have been well-documented in past literature (Langley et al., 2019). Individuals reside in their own “thought worlds” and have individual cognitive representations and ways of seeing that create differences between team members and can lead to a lack of common ground, inhibited information exchange, misunderstandings, and misattributions, different processes, and even conflict (Bechky, 2003; Cramton, 2001; Cronin and Weingart, 2007; Dougherty, 1992; Sole and Edmondson, 2002). The challenges of cross-boundary work are exacerbated in situations characterized by high levels of ambiguity or uncertainty, for example when team members have no history of working together, during the early stages of the project, or when working on complex or creative tasks (Carson et al., 2006; Stigliani and Ravasi, 2018; Vlar et al., 2006). Ambiguity and uncertainty constrain team members’ understanding of each other’s knowledge and abilities as well as the wider context in which they are embedded and increase the likelihood of misinterpretations and misunderstandings

(Jap, 2001; Vlar et al., 2006). Unfamiliarity hinders knowledge-sharing practices further intensifying divides and misunderstandings in cross-boundary teams (Sutcliffe and McNamara, 2001). The complex or aesthetic nature of a project can also inhibit team members' abilities to share knowledge and explain and articulate meanings and ideas likewise hindering communication and understanding in cross-boundary teams (Stigliani and Ravasi, 2018). These challenges undermine the value of cross-boundary collaborations and as a result, scholars have long been concerned with how individuals and teams can overcome the difficulties of working and sharing knowledge across professional boundaries (Carlile, 2004; Zuzul, 2019).

Past research provides insight into a range of coordination mechanisms that support cross-boundary collaborations. For example, roles (Bechky, 2006), plans and rules (Faraj & Xiao, 2006), boundary objects (Bechky, 2003), boundary spanners (Tushman, 1977), and "trading zones" (Kellogg et al., 2006) are among the coordination mechanisms that have been shown as enabling individuals to work across boundaries. These studies underscore the importance of coordination as well as the importance of knowledge transfer and knowledge-sharing processes for cross-boundary collaborations. They demonstrate ways that individuals manage interdependencies by externalizing their "deep knowledge" to transcend knowledge differences and enable cross-boundary collaboration (Okhuysen and Bechky, 2009; Majchrzak et al., 2011).

The literature on collaborative processes has offered insight into key work processes in cross-boundary collaboration, such as finding common ground to develop synergistic solutions (Gray, 1989; Hardy et al 2005; Levina, 2005), the emergence of collaboration and coordination practices (Bruns; 2013; Faraj and Xiao, 2006; Lawrence et al 2002), knowledge sharing (Cramton, 2001; Fayrd and Metiu, 2014), and the role of unequal status and power relations (Aime et al 2014), Hardy and Phillips, 1998). These studies help to understand how work processes in cross-boundary collaborations are fundamentally different from standard work processes

and why, even when collaborative antecedents are met, realising knowledge-intensive work in cross-boundary collaboration is often challenging. Conventionally, work processes mostly take place inside organisations or in long-lasting partnerships, involving experts in one location who remain involved throughout the collaboration, usually for a long period. Cross-boundary collaboration, in contrast, takes place across organisations or organisational domains, involving experts from both inside and outside the organisation who are often geographically distributed, and involved in only part of the collaboration, usually short-term. Further, whereas in standard work processes, participants tend to have general and shared knowledge, participants in cross-boundary collaboration often have unique and highly specialized knowledge. Epistemic differences between collaborators can generate relational issues, leaving them without a clear or established process for resolving them.

3.2.3. Technology in Libraries

Since the time of Karl Marx, Émile Durkheim, and Max Weber, sociologists have studied how social transformations have changed, impacted, and undermined the association between work and identity (Abbott, 1988; Durkheim, 2014; Marx, 1975; Merton, 1934; Wallman, 1979; Weber, 1978). In a 1998 article titled, 'Professionalism and the Future of Librarianship,' the American sociologist, Andrew Abbott stated, "...all the licensing in the world does not protect an occupation when new knowledge transforms the nature of its work, when other occupations take parts of its work away, when the capital requirements of its work gradually force it to be organized in different ways" (Abbott 1998, p. 432). In the article, Abbott speculated on the technical revolution of libraries in the latter half of the twentieth century and its consequences on the profession of librarianship. Although Abbott wrote these words nearly two decades ago, the evolution of libraries, and the work of librarians, has continued to evolve at a dramatic pace.

Technological advances during the past 40 years have made a significant, and positive, impact on academic libraries. The print card catalogue and the bound periodical indices have become relics to online catalogues, digital books, and interactive article indices that minimize or remove the need for physical access to the library. While most of the digital information provided through academic libraries remains proprietary, the increasing volume of open content available through the Internet gives the impression that all information is freely available (Curran, Fenton, and Freedman, 2016; Jones, Johnson-Yale, Millermaier, Pérez, 2008). Students are now less likely to utilize academic library resources to consult library staff, in favour of self-directed searching of the Internet's open content (Gross and Latham, 2012; Molteni and Chan, 2015). Autonomous searches for information have necessitated many academic libraries to establish new models for staffing the iconic "reference desk" or removing it altogether (Buss, 2016; Miles, 2013; Saunders, Rozaklis, and Abels, 2014). With librarians away from their iconic desks, the professional responsibilities of an academic librarian become even lesser known or understood to those outside of the library (Hicks, 2016; Drabinski, 2016). With the value of the profession's expert knowledge base challenged, there remains a question about external perception and the extent to which the profession has been made vulnerable. Professionals who feel their image is challenged often feel frustrated, threatened, or misunderstood (Chrobot-Mason, Ruderman, Weber, and Ernst, 2009).

Technology replacing tasks previously performed by an individual (or replacing the individuals themselves) is not a new phenomenon. Not only does technological change demand new types of work and make other types obsolete, but it also threatens to destabilize individual work identities (Leidner, 2006). Regarding librarians, this threat was highlighted almost 20 years ago in a study published on open access health information. The author stated, "The equity of presentation offered by the Internet dissolves the boundaries around areas of expertise upon which professions derived much of their power" (Hardey, 1999, p. 827). A few years

later, an article published in *Library Journal* reinforced the trend: "A new identity crisis haunts the nation's academic and research libraries and the people who work in them." The article goes on to read, "Reference work increasingly is done by users on the Internet, giving us little or no feedback about whether students or researchers get the information they need" (Berry, 2003, p. 40).

There is a vast literature that looks at how technology has impacted professions, including librarianship (Barley, 1990; Bijker, 1997; Caseli, 1999; Henderson, 2006; Nelson and Irwin, 2014; Orlikowski, 2007; Prasad, 1993). To learn how the Internet impacted librarians, Nelson and Irwin conducted a retrospective study of the library literature (2014). The results of the study revealed that in the early days of the Internet, librarians did not view IT as a threat to their work; rather, they continued to distinguish their information-seeking skills from the seemingly random results delivered from the early search engines.

By the mid-1990s, librarians viewed the organisation of the Internet as an inherent part of their information domain. Michael Gorman, former president of the American Library Association, asserted, "Bibliographic control is the way we, as librarians, think and should think. It is the essence of what we do" (Taylor, 1994, p.632). Soon librarians began efforts to organize websites by developing Internet pathfinders and by focusing on the "invisible web," those parts of the Internet that were not indexed by search engines. In 2001, a librarian named Mark Herring wrote, "...you're not searching the entire Web. Sites often promise to search everything, but they can't deliver. Moreover, what they search for is not updated daily, weekly, or even monthly, regardless of what's advertised. If a librarian told you, "Here are 10 articles on Native Americans. We have 40 others but we're not going to let you see them, not now, not yet, not until you've tried another search in another library," you'd throw a fit. The Internet does this routinely and no one seems to mind" (Herring, 2001, p. 76).

For several years the development of pathfinders, and other Internet way

finders, allowed for the existing skill sets of librarians to be incorporated with developing technologies. To a certain extent, these responsibilities (though self-assigned) allowed librarians to retain the part of their professional identity that defined them as “expert searchers.” But, eventually, as the indexing algorithms of the Internet became more sophisticated, pathfinders became less useful, and the invisible web became less of a concern to the average researcher. Nevertheless, librarians maintained their criticism of the organisational infrastructure of the Internet. One librarian author wrote, “Thus far...more attention has been paid to the highways for carrying information than has been addressed to the road signs that should tell us which highway will carry us to our information destination” (Billings, 1991, p.38). In 1994, the authors of another article went on to say that the use of non-librarian systems administrators had created even more problems for navigating the Internet: “The first Gopher collections were developed by systems administrators and programmers, not librarians, with predictable bad results” (Polly and Cisler, 1994, p.22). The following year, one of the same authors, a scientist at Apple’s corporate library noted that the librarians who oversee the Apple Library were critical to its success, arguing that librarians should be doing this sort of maintenance instead of assigning it to the information systems team (Cisler, 1995).

In an op-ed piece published in the Los Angeles Times, Dan Terzian, a fellow at the New Media Rights Clinic, wrote: “And now, the Internet is replacing librarians. Or at least it should be” (Terzian, 2011, ¶ 1-2). Terzian received a lot of criticism for his piece, not surprisingly from librarians themselves. While the statement reflects his opinion, the idea of questioning the relevance of librarianship, or an entire profession, is significant and Terzian is not the first to express as much. A Google search of the question, ‘Are libraries obsolete?’ will bring links to countless newspaper articles, blogs, and other forums where this and similar questions are debated. Such debates have now become part of the zeitgeist of contemporary

librarianship and contribute to the persistence of the stereotype associated with the profession.

As noted above, professional work is defined, in part, as the provision of expert service to clients or members of the public (Abbott, 1993 and 1998). For this reason, how professionals believe they are perceived by outsiders is an issue that influences the way their respective client groups interact with them (Vough, 2013). Like the gradual disappearance of the reference desk, the improvements in Internet searching further obscured the public understanding of the responsibilities of academic librarians and diminished the contestation between librarians and the Internet. As noted by Muzio et al., existing theories on professionals do not “fully grapple with the ... transformation of practices as professional jurisdictions are reshaped by exogenous forces” (2013, p. 701).

3.2.4. Faculty Librarians as Professionals: Perception of Their Knowledge, Skill, and Education

Professional identity is defined as the set of attributes, beliefs, values, motives, and experiences in which people define themselves based on their professional work functions (Ashforth, 2001; Chreim, Williams, and Hinings, 2007; McCall and Simmons, 1978; Schein, 1978; Stryker and Burke, 2000). It has not been well studied among librarians. Three studies were undertaken during the late 1980s and early 1990s (Bennett, 1988; Harris, 1992; Winter, 1988), but none of them defined identity clearly, and all three studies conflated image and identity in their analyses. In 2013 Deborah Hicks edited a book about technology and the professional identity of librarians (“cybrarians”), and in 2016 she published a qualitative study that examined the development of professional identity through professional advocacy. Both works provided insight into how librarians construct their professional identity in specific areas of their work and serve as foundations upon which to add new insights and contributions.

How professionals interpret their roles is critical to how they act and behave in the workplace (Pratt, Rockmann, and Kaufmann, 2006). In the case of librarians, roles have a long history of being misunderstood by those outside of the profession. In an early study, only 8 of 362 respondents thought librarianship required a graduate degree (Hernon and Pastine, 1977) and in another study, university students most often associated librarians with organisation and friendliness, but they could not identify specific tasks performed by librarians (Fagan, 2003). At a time when librarianship struggles to define itself as a profession, research on librarians' identity work is particularly important -- though almost nothing is known about how academic librarians contend with professional misperception, specifically when encountered by discipline faculty. Issues related to role misperception of librarians have been addressed by librarians themselves, and a large body of literature on the topic has resulted (Christiansen, Stompler, and Thaxton, 2004; Ducas and Michaud-Ostryk, 2003; Julien and Genuis, 2011; Kelly, 2019; Kotter, 1999; Phelps and Campbell, 2012; Weng and Murray, 2019).

Perceptions play an important role in the process of interpersonal communications within organisations, which is recognized as a critical attribute of successful, collaborative relationships (Patel, Pettitt, and Wilson, 2012). Stephen Robbins defined perception as the process by which individuals "organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment," whether that interpretation and meaning differs from objective reality (2001, p. 121). Robbins goes on to make the point that perception is critical issue in the workplace environment because people's behaviour is often based on perception rather than reality. An individual's perception is shaped by their personal expectations, as they tend to perceive qualities or attributes in others that align with their preconceived expectations. The research also suggests that these workers are motivated to manage external perceptions (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999; Kreiner et al., 2006; Roberts, 2005; Tracy and Scott, 2006), although separate from the studies on low-

prestige occupations, and there is a small body of work on how professionals, including firefighters, accountants, lawyers, and public relation experts, respond to external perceptions of their roles (Bel-Latour and Granié, 2022; Callison, 2004; Parker and Warren, 2017; Willems, 2020). This often calls upon the use of stereotypes. One may see lawyers as “sharks,” young people as unmotivated, and obese people lack discipline, whether these traits are accurate or not.

Professionals tend to have a high profile in society because of both their interactions with clients (or their constituent group) and the presence of their respective professional associations; although, conversely, their work functions are not fully understood or may be stereotyped by outsiders to the profession (Elliot, 1972; MacDonald, 1995). This is evident in their portrayal on television (doctors/nurses in *Grey’s Anatomy* and in film (attorneys in *A Few Good Men*). Previous research explores the representation of various professions in film, including doctors (Dans, 2000), lawyers (Asimow, 2001), librarians (Walker and Lawson, 1993), and accountants (Beard, 1994). Previous researchers have also recognized that visual images are extremely persuasive in conveying information to viewers (Collins and Olson, 2014; Epstein and Kanwisher, 1998; Otten, Seth, and Pinto, 2017), and that cinema constitutes an important forum for revealing social attitudes and influencing ideas (Tudor, 2013). Vough et al. (2013) note that such portrayals are inaccurate or misleading because they emphasize certain aspects of the profession, while overlooking or diminishing other professional responsibilities (e.g., the librarian who shelves books in *The Mummy*, or the librarian in *Ghostbusters* who pushes around a book trolley). Thus, the work of professionals is likely tainted by misperception. Since sociological research has already shown that threats to one’s professional group cause its members to more strongly associate with their profession and to engage in strategies of occupational control (Abbott, 1988; Johnson, 1972), the implications of this perception, and how professionals respond, is important to understand in the context of collaboration.

Studies have examined faculty and administrator perceptions of librarians (Allen, 2002; Fitsimmons, 2008; Herson, Powell, and Young, 2001; Oberg, Schleiter, and Van Houten, 1989). The study conducted by Oberg et al. showed that teaching faculty at one Michigan university did not view librarians as equals (even though librarians at the same university held faculty rank), undervalued their skills and abilities, did not consider them central to the university's teaching and research missions, and failed to distinguish their roles from those of library support staff (1989).

Two studies have demonstrated that individuals underperform when they feel categorized based on stereotypes (Steele and Aronson, 1995; Spencer, Steele, and Quinn, 1999). This reaction is due to the negative emotions and stress that can arise when others do not validate one's self-perceptions (Burke, 1991; Leary and Kowalski, 1990; Miller and Kaiser, 2001; Swann et al., 1992). Performance decrements associated with image discrepancies also stem from the fact that processing discrepant perceptions consumes cognitive and emotional resources, minimizing the availability of resources necessary for task performance (Croizet et al., 2004). The impact of image discrepancies on occupational or professional members has received little attention. However, the little research that does exist suggests that image discrepancies result in lower performance and higher turnover for those in professions (Ashforth and Kreiner, 1999). Moreover, Roberts, (2005) argued that professionals experiencing image discrepancies experience poorer-quality relationships at work.

Although explanations have been suggested for why those outside of a profession misunderstand the profession and its members, less is known about how these misunderstandings impact an individual professional and the implications of discrepant perceptions (Gilbert, 1998; Macrae and Bodenhausen, 2000). Swann et al. (1992) have suggested that a desire to maintain perceptions of predictability and

control contributes to the reason why people want others to view them as they view themselves.

Librarians represent one profession among several other professions that work in a research university environment. These professional groups have different educational backgrounds, different professional values, and vastly different practices. Within such a diverse environment, social group identities can be easily threatened, and the likelihood of stereotyping can be exacerbated (Voci, 2006). The perception of others' roles and motivations may conflict with one's own professional identity and result in uncooperative behaviour and poor performance (Cottrell and Neuberg, 2005). These factors and the resultant behaviours can minimize individual and group-based effectiveness (Falkenberg, 1990).

The intent of this section is not to present the results of a formal measure of how librarians are perceived by discipline faculty, in general; instead, the aim is to provide an overview of the types of perceptions held by discipline faculty and to show where librarians' perceptions of their own roles aligned or misaligned with those perceptions. Exploring the perceptions contributes to an understanding of how professional expectations are misaligned, which can influence relational dynamics (Bartel and Wiesenfeld, 2013). The social contexts of our interactions can influence how we act and interact (Goffman, 1955; Synder and Stukas, 1999). The combination of social rules, the personalities of the individuals involved, and the objective of the social encounter can influence the outcomes of the interaction. To achieve positive outcomes, individuals have learned to make use of cues to navigate social encounters. A significant cue is the inherent set of preconceived expectations an individual holds for themselves and others. These expectations dictate what is expected in terms of an outcome and can influence one's thoughts and behaviour before there is any real basis to validate them. While some expectations may be held because of past experiences with an individual, there are also instances in which expectations are guided by "erroneous expectations" (Fiske and Neuberg, 1990).

The perceptions are presented in Table 2. Aligned and Discrepant Perceptions of Faculty Librarians' Roles. The perceptions were collated from studies conducted by academic librarians (Cox, 2018; Delaney and Bates, 2015; Murray and Ireland, 2018, Tenopir, Sandusky, Allard, and Birch, 2014).

Table 2. Aligned and Discrepant Perceptions of Faculty Librarians' Roles (based on the author's synthesis of data)

Discipline Faculty Perception of Faculty Librarians' Role	Faculty Librarian Perceptions of their Roles	Alignment of Perceptions	Misaligned Perceptions
Books and book-related activities		No	The association with books is narrow and dated.
Working with students ('working' is generic and without clear definition)	Teaching and students Instructing in multiple areas of competency related to information, evaluation of information, and research	Yes	Student engagement not well defined by discipline faculty
Acquiring resources for the academic community	Curating resources for curriculum and research	Yes	Discipline faculty perception of this role is focused on resource procurement and location of resources
Research lacks rigor or no research is conducted/required	Scholarly research is a requirement for faculty librarians who want to promote.	No	Research lacks rigor No research or uncertain about research
Budget administration	Variable. Dependent upon the role of the librarian.	Yes	Budget administration may be assigned to faculty librarians with more senior positions.
Circulate (lend) physical resources		No	this work is managed by non-faculty library personnel
Address students' research questions, but less involved in campus-wide research initiatives	Supporting and contributing to research-based education and initiatives, including grant funding	No	Discipline faculty may lack awareness (unknown)
Not knowledgeable of scholarly communication and its practices	Knowledgeable and experienced in scholarly workflows (copyright, publishing, metrics, data mining)	No	Discipline faculty may lack awareness (unknown)
Colleagues or professionals, but not faculty	Faculty	No	Exceptions do exist
Service-oriented faculty roles are subordinate	Partners	No	"fetch" reference (faculty librarians as part of a service bureau)
Helpful	Helpful	Yes	

Unresolved, disparate assumptions about one's professional role have the potential to influence the development of collaborative relationships, which can impede on the original goals and outcomes that underpin the collaborative purpose.

3.3. When is Collaboration No Longer Collaboration?

At a late phase in the analysis, I presented my research to a group of faculty members representing different disciplines and institutions. The presentation was part of a faculty forum aimed at providing researchers the opportunity to receive constructive feedback on their work. After presenting my research, and to prompt specific feedback, I asked the discipline faculty to share their conceptualization of faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations. One person raised their hand and shared the opinion that librarians are service providers, therefore, they cannot also be viewed as collaborators. This comment generated discussion within the group, as well as mixed views about what collaboration is - and is not. For example, a faculty member from the field of Public Administration explained that collaboration is clearly defined in their discipline, in the context of NGOs and interagency efforts between government entities, but they were not how those definitions were applied in an interdisciplinary collaborative relationship. Meanwhile, a faculty member from a design discipline said they were not aware of a working definition of collaboration for use in their field and they assumed that collaboration, as a form of joint working, was not difficult to define or understand. They also said that some of their experiences with academic librarians could be described as collaborative, but mostly they viewed the work as service based. In roundtable fashion, the group continued to discuss how to define collaboration. While there was no consensus on this question, I am sharing this experience to illustrate the point. Service, in addition to other forms of joint work, should be distinguished from work that is described as collaborative. Because librarianship is a profession recognized for being service based, it is useful to distinguish when collaboration ceases to be collaboration,

where lines are drawn between levels of joint work, and to explain that librarians, both semantically, and in the context of research, often conflate collaboration with other types of work. To highlight the importance of this point, it is worth noting that Service is highlighted in the American Library Association's Code of Ethics:

We provide the highest level of service to all library users through appropriate and usefully organized resources; equitable service policies; equitable access; and accurate, unbiased, and courteous responses to all requests" (2017, #1).

While teaching and research are the primary domains for collaborations between faculty librarians and discipline faculty, collaborations can occur in other areas of academic work. Scholarly communication, publication, and data management are other key areas that represent opportunities for collaboration between faculty librarians and discipline faculty (Adema and Schmidt, 2010; Auckland, 2012; Corral, 2014; Corral, Kennan, and Afzal, 2013; Kennan, Williamson, and Johanson, 2012; MacMillan, 2014). However, in each of these endeavours, it is important to distinguish collaborative work from work that can be described as service-based, that is, work that occurs without a joint effort toward a common goal.

In scholarly communication, libraries are actively involved in the service work of supporting citation analysis and impact calculations for researchers, and there is significant work being done by librarians in open access initiatives for textbooks and faculty publications, copyright, and training discipline faculty on publication rights and predatory publishing practices (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2022; Pacion, Radik, Duong, Martinez, Bogucka, 2022). In the area of data management, faculty librarians support discipline faculty researchers in the management, curation, dissemination, and preservation of their data (Federer, 2013; MacMillan, 2014).

For librarians, regardless of whether they have faculty appointments, service-based work is primarily a one-way relationship. It is characterized by work activities

that are for the benefit of students, staff, and faculty, rather than work that is jointly created through collaboration.

Compounding the discussion of what collaboration is, and what it is not, is the existence of a framework that outlines three different levels of collaboration: coordination, cooperation, and collaboration (Castañer and Oliveira, 2020; Mattessich, Murray-Close, and Monsey, 2001). Different scholars emphasise different aspects of the terms, leaving some ambiguity about lines of distinction, but the level of collaboration is generally identified by the depth of interaction in the relationship, the formality (or informality) of the relationship, and the complexity of the collaborative outcomes (Mattessich, Murray-Close, and Monsey, 2001).

The terms continue to be used interchangeably to denote different layers of meaning and purpose and inhibit, as noted by Castañer and Oliveira, construct discriminant validity (2020, p.966). At one end of the continuum, cooperation is defined as an interaction between participants with capabilities to accomplish organisational goals but choose to work together, within existing structures and policies, to serve individual interests (Keast, Brown, and Mandell, 2007; Mattessich, Murray-Close, and Monsey 2001). Based on a series of interviews with public and community service practitioners, Keast, Brown, and Mandell summarized their respondents' views by describing cooperation as a starting point for interorganisational relationships and characterizing them as less "intense" than other working relationships (2007, p.17). Coordination is situated in the middle of the continuum and is defined as an interaction between participants in which formal linkages are mobilized because some assistance from others is needed to achieve organisational goals (Jennings, 1994; Keast, Brown, and Mandell, 2007; Mattessich, Murray-Close, and Monsey, 2001). This type of interaction may be described as an "instrumental process" (Keast, Brown, and Mandell, 2007, p. 18). At the other end of the continuum, collaboration is defined as an interaction between participants who work together to pursue complex goals based on shared interests and a collective

responsibility for interconnected tasks which cannot be accomplished individually (Gray, 1989; Keast, Brown, and Mandell, 2007; Mattessich, Murray-Close, and Monsey, 2001). Collaboration differs from cooperation and coordination in that it “require[s] much closer relationships, connections, and resources and even a blurring of the boundaries between organizations” (Keast, Brown, and Mandell, 2007, p.19).

Academic librarians often conflate collaboration with service, as well as with other terms including cooperation and coordination, and without clear definitions and boundaries for each of these terms, there is room for collaborators to misunderstand the expectations for the work. Although I have established a working definition of ‘collaboration’ for this study, the following section will demonstrate that misunderstandings and misaligned expectations surround the collaborative work of faculty librarians and discipline faculty.

3.4. Next Step: A Working Definition of Collaboration

Reviewing the organisational literature taught me that definitions of collaboration are variable. Yet amongst the definitions I reviewed, common attributes were identified that can provide a reliable working definition on which to base the design of the study (Henneman et al., 1995; Mattessich and Monsey, 1992; Meads et al., 2005; Montiel-Overall, 2005; Schrage, 1990; Wilson, 2006).

With the understanding that there are multifaceted meanings of collaboration, I want to begin the study with a broad, working definition of collaboration that accommodates some of its key components. First, I choose to approach collaboration as a process because, although some scholars have conceptualized collaboration as a relationship structure or as an outcome, much of the literature has conceptualized collaboration as a process (Graham and Barter, 1999; Gray, 1989; Keyton, Ford, and Smith, 2008; Tucker, 1991; Wood and Gray, 1991). Gray (1989) highlights this issue, stating “collaboration is essentially an

emergent process rather than a prescribed state of organization” (p. 15). I also agree with three tenets presented earlier in this chapter: Collaboration is people working together, in a reciprocal manner, to achieve common goals. Along these lines, I chose to establish a working definition for collaboration that will provide a basis for me to study how collaboration is experienced and understood by faculty librarians:

In the university context, collaboration between faculty librarians and discipline faculty is an interactive process in which both groups, operating under institutional mandates or voluntarily, work together to enhance the teaching, learning, and research missions of the university.

With an operational definition from which to begin, I proceed to study design.

CHAPTER FOUR: Methodology and Methods

4. Introduction to Methodological Approach

Exploring the initial concepts that surrounded collaborative relationships between faculty librarians and discipline faculty revealed gaps in what is understood about the social processes experienced by faculty librarians. The exploration also demonstrated the lack of theory development related to non-mandated, or autonomous, collaborations. Qualitative inquiry is recognized as an appropriate approach when little is understood of complex phenomena that appear to be contextually influenced (Creswell, 2013; Polit and Beck, 2012). Thus, after considering the limitations of quantitative methods for understanding a phenomenon without supporting and sufficiently developed theory, I decided to pursue a qualitative methodological approach for my study of faculty librarians. I also believed that social interactions and processes underpinned the challenge I wanted to explore and understand. Since constructivist grounded theory is an appropriate methodology to gain an understanding of social processes associated with a phenomenon where theorizing is required (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Glaser and Strauss, 1967), I chose to employ constructivist grounded theory as the methodology to frame the study's guiding questions.

In the introduction to this study, I described the expectation within academic librarianship that faculty librarians in forward-facing roles establish productive, collaborative relationships with discipline faculty. And the chapter on the study's sensitising concepts, I established the conditions in which faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations emerge and function and suggested that the conditions create less-than-ideal circumstances for collaborations to prosper. This leads to the two questions under review for this study:

1. How do faculty librarians conceptualize collaborations with discipline faculty?
2. How do faculty librarians manage their professional identity during cross-boundary collaborations with discipline faculty?

These questions provide an opportunity to explore the issue of librarians' collaborative experiences through two epistemological lenses: Constructivism and social constructionism. This study is situated in a space where the two approaches can be bridged. This dual paradigm approach allows for the study of librarians, their perceptions of working in a collaborative relationship with discipline faculty, and what they do when they encounter collaborative friction. It also provides a lens for understanding how their perceptions of the collaborative work may differ from those of discipline faculty, and how understanding the differences can improve the problem.

4.1. Introduction to Paradigm

Ontology is the philosophical thought about the nature of reality or what we know (Crotty, 2009), and epistemology is concerned with how knowledge is created and acquired – that is, how we come to know something (Crotty, 2009). Within the model of the traditional academic study, how the researcher comes to know something is through the development of a methodological strategy, including the use of specific methods, to generate new information or understanding about the phenomenon under study. The belief system that informs ontology and epistemology, and their subsequent relationship with methodological strategy and methods, form a guiding framework referred to as a paradigm (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Kuhn, 1970).

The relationship between the elements of a paradigm is crucial. For a study to be trustworthy, the methodological strategy and methods must be congruent with,

and reflective of, the researcher's prevailing ontological and epistemological beliefs (Crotty, 2009; Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). As stated by Athens (2010): "A perspective and method for studying a problem always go hand in hand because a perspective always implies a corresponding method, and a method always implies a corresponding perspective" (pp. 89-90).

4.1.1. Constructivism and Social Constructionism

Despite clear distinctions between the two positions, the terms constructivism and social constructionism have sometimes been used interchangeably (Young and Collin, 2004). Constructivism refers to the development of an individual's belief system, which informs the meaning that an individual makes, that is, his or her construct. It proposes that everyone "mentally constructs the world of experience through cognitive process" (Young and Collins, 2004, p. 375). How individuals construct their world is based on their experience of the world and their subsequent interpretation of it, which forms the construct or belief system they build through this experience. Social constructionism, however, emphasizes that the social and psychological worlds are constructed through social process and interaction (Young and Collins, 2004, p. 375). Both constructivism and social constructionism play significant roles in social interactions. In this study, the construct or belief systems that each librarian and discipline faculty member bring to the working relationship influence their perspectives and approaches, and the social construction in which they engage together influences the path forward in their interaction. The literature offers little to explain bridging paradigms, however, the concept of relational orientation was introduced by Bradbury and Lichtenstein (2000, p. 551). A relational orientation focuses on the relationships between individuals and others in the organisation as opposed to focusing solely on the attributes of the individual. A relational orientation enables us to shine the spotlight on the "space between," that is the relationships, interdependencies, and gaps that exist between organisational

members and groups (Bradbury and Lichtenstein, 2001, p. 551-552; Roberts and Yu, 2003). The space between can generate negative and positive relational outcomes. This gap is where shared meaning is lost or misinterpreted, but also where positive connections can be established and where communication can be enhanced. A focus on the "space between" the faculty librarians and the discipline faculty is where I hope to learn where these faculty groups are aligned in their perspectives and where they are not. Increased understanding of each of these theories, outlined below, helps to clarify their importance to role misperception that takes place within librarian-faculty relationships and their relevance to this research.

The origins of constructivism can be traced in part to Jean Piaget (Smith, 2017). Piaget examined the cognitive development of children and the way their development manifested at age-related stages (Inhelder and Piaget, 2013/1958). For Piaget, a child's developmental stage could be ascertained by observing the child's reaction to specific tasks. The child's meaning-making about the task helped Piaget to identify his or her stage of development. Piaget's stages outlined how infants, children, and adolescents develop their own construct or belief system through which to make meaning of, or interpret, the world. As individuals mature, their constructs can be influenced by a variety of factors including stage of development, family background, education, socioeconomic status, and other cultural and environmental considerations, all of which contribute to an individual's worldview (Young and Collin, 2004).

How librarians interpret and understand their world, their meaning-making, from a constructivist perspective is an important consideration in any faculty librarian-discipline faculty relationship. Librarians' education, professional experiences, life experiences, and more, form the lenses through which they view the world, which contributes to the establishment of their belief systems. The same can be said of the discipline faculty member, who comes to the professional relationship with their perspective and worldview.

This study explores the lens through which faculty librarians view their working relationships with discipline faculty, and how their interpretations inform their practice when they encounter collaborative tensions. The discipline faculty member's lens, and how it informs the relationship, is also a starting point to explore the interactions and processes that influence the relationship. The faculty member's meaning-making during the relationship is another opportunity for investigation.

Social constructionism, in the context of librarian-faculty relationships, frames the world that the librarian and faculty mutually construct through their interaction. Here, "meaning is constructed through language in context," which connects to the importance of including discipline faculty in the study (Young and Collin, 2004, p.382). The ways in which librarians and faculty socially construct their interaction are shaped by their unique perspectives, which informs the choices they make about how to work together.

Although constructivism and social constructionist approaches share the basic epistemological assumption that meaning-making processes are embedded and constructed through interaction in specific contexts, the paradigms differ regarding the emphasis they place on the individual versus the social.

The first serious consideration for a constructivist approach took place after completing a pilot study that took place during the MSc in Business and Research Methods at Henley Business School. The pilot study was used as a general exploration of the conceptualization of professional identity by academic librarians. For data collection, I conducted semi-structured interviews with 7 academic library directors employed by American university international branch campuses located in Doha, Qatar. The interview transcripts were thematically coded following Braun and Clarke (2006). One theme to emerge from the data was the library directors' perceptions that discipline faculty conflated the librarian stereotype and image with their actual roles; that is, the professional stereotype of what librarians do (shelving books, stamping books, shushing patrons, etc.) with what they actually do (e.g.,

teaching students, systems administration, collections management, data management, etc.). The perceived discrepancy between the imagined role of librarians and the reality of the roles they occupied created professional challenges for seven of the seven library directors, and personal stress for six of the seven. After the pilot study concluded, and I began to consider the development of a larger thesis, I determined that I wanted to learn more about the social experiences of library faculty who, by the nature of their roles, are expected to engage with discipline faculty on a regular basis. I understood that a study of the professional relationships between librarians and discipline faculty would be exploratory, and it would be critical to use individual voice and experience as part of the data collection (Carter and Little, 2008). Further, the complexity of library and discipline faculty interactions lent itself to exploration directly in the academic setting where they work. It would not be possible to replicate authentic interaction in a laboratory or other simulated environment.

Another important rationale for the decision to use constructivist grounded theory was based on my role as an inside researcher. In Lincoln and Guba's 2013 work, *The Constructivist Credo*, they restate a question fundamental to understanding epistemology, "What is the nature of the relationship between the knower and knowable?" (2013, p. 37). Essential to the constructivist approach, the role of the researcher is acknowledged as part of the process. By talking to participants and interacting with them in their daily activities, the researcher gains access and insight into practice (Lincoln and Guba, 2013, p.40). The dynamics of the researcher-participant relationship are influenced by the researcher's assumptions and by values associated with, but not limited to, their disciplinary perspectives, social status, gender, and cultural norms (Charmaz, 1996; Gibson and Hartman, 2014).

Much of my professional career has been spent as a library faculty member within American universities and, before becoming a qualified librarian, I spent four

years working as a discipline faculty member in an American college. I knew I would be closely linked to the library participants by profession -- and linked to both library and discipline faculty through a shared understanding of the organisational context of American higher education. My professional background would allow me to draw upon shared understanding to shape the direction and content of the study. While I recognized the potential issues and challenges of being closely situated with the study participants, I understood that reflexive practice was a characteristic of constructivist methodologies. There would be several techniques I could follow to manage my pre-conceptions and to distinguish my experiences from those of my participants (Charmaz, 2014; Mruck and Mey, 2007).

After reflecting on the use of constructivist grounded theory, and its capacity to accommodate social constructionism, I elected to attend an in-person workshop about constructivist grounded theory to gain a deeper understanding of how it is operationalized. The workshop, conducted by Kathy Charmaz, was offered as a pre-meeting activity for the European Annual Meeting of the Society for the Study of Symbolic Interaction (Lancaster University, July 4-6, 2018). To practice coding, participants were asked to bring data to the workshop. I brought the seven interview transcripts from my first pilot study – although time restrictions only permitted the re-coding of two transcripts. After the workshop ended, I returned to all seven pilot study transcripts and re-coded them following the coding tools used within constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006 and 2014). The re-coding was done as an exercise to compare grounded theory coding to thematic coding. The re-coding was highly productive for generating new ideas and for offering explanations for processes that extended beyond mere description. I also conducted a second pilot study in March 2019 to gain more experience using constructivist grounded theory tools to code observations.

Just before starting data collection for the current study, I joined a local writing group comprised of doctoral students and one master's level student.

Although I was the only student using constructivist grounded theory, the other students were also using qualitative methods. The writing group's activities were designed to offer protected time for writing, to present research, and to provide opportunities to discuss challenges related to methodology. Participating in the writer's group was helpful because it gave me a platform to articulate the nature of my study and its methodology, which contributed to a deeper understanding of my work as it progressed.

It is important to note that, prior to deciding to use constructivist grounded theory, I did review and consider the other philosophical approaches that inform methodological choice. For example, I could have adhered to a positivist paradigm, which aligns well with a Glaserian grounded theory approach (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Charmaz, 2000). Positivist studies assume that social reality is an external reality, meaning that such studies do not rely on differences in situational context (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Glaserian grounded theory also builds on assumptions of an "objective, external reality, a neutral observer who discovers data, reductionist inquiry of manageable research problems, and objectivist rendering of data" (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, p. 510). Similarly, positivist researchers assume that one measurable, objective reality exists, which can be observed, captured, and understood through controlled methods of inquiry (Prasad, 2018). From this position, I could have also used a positivist paradigm to develop a case or comparative study (Eisenhardt, 1989). For example, I might have formed one focus group of faculty librarians, and another focus group of discipline faculty, and then used qualitative data methods to discover cause and effect relationships between the two groups (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). In both examples, the write-up would be more detached from the interpretive voice of the researcher because, within a positivist perspective, the researcher takes an objective and independent stance in data analysis (Wildemuth, 1993). The current study would have had a different result if conducted under a positivist paradigm. The context and

conditions of this study became critical to the findings and were incorporated into the final conceptual model. The universities that employ the study participants are different in terms of their social conditions. The faculty librarians must find ways to move between contextual conditions, while adapting their processes to navigate the dimensions of their professional relationships based on their experience and that of the discipline faculty they encounter. In this case, a positivist assumption about reality would be inappropriate.

An inquiry that plans to explore multifaceted phenomena, particularly those involving the complexities of human experience, does not lend itself to such an approach, where variables cannot be controlled or removed, and blinding the researcher is not possible or desirable.

In the mid-twentieth century, there was a critical response to positivism that led to what Kuhn described as a paradigm shift (Alvesson and Skoldberg, 2009; Kuhn, 1970, p. 66). Social scientists recognized that not all phenomena were conducive to measurement and that meaning could be lost when a phenomenon is studied under imposed conditions and separate from the environment in which it occurs (Annells, 1997; Athens, 2010).

Post-positivist researchers hold similar beliefs to the positivists in that some objective reality is purported to exist and can be measured. But post-positivists also believe that there are multiple realities or subjective ways in which to make sense of the social world (Gergen and Gergen, 2007), that prevent the discovery of an absolute reality (Fox, 2008). For post-positivists, the aim is to demonstrate knowledge through rigour and multiple data analysis, triangulating qualitative and quantitative data to compensate for shortcomings or errors found within each method, and acknowledging the limitations imposed by varying contexts and the existence of multiple realities (Fox, 2008). In an editorial addressing the issues faced by mixed methods research, Creswell addresses the argument of “incompatibility” when mixing paradigms, stating that the simultaneous use of multiple paradigms

can create a positive “tension,” which is important to move research in a forward direction (2009, p. 102). Using professional burnout of librarians as an example, a study guided by this perspective could employ quantitative methods for a statistical analysis of the number of hours worked and a qualitative method, such as in-depth interviews, to understand organisational processes that may have contributed to burnout (e.g., staff shortages, interpersonal conflict).

The remaining sections of this chapter describe how a constructivist approach, grounded theory methodology, and qualitative methods align and work together to explore the under-researched social dimensions of the professional relationships between library and discipline faculty. The study is justified by its epistemological and methodological underpinnings, and key elements of the grounded theory method are discussed. Critical aspects of the methodology including data collection, analysis, and management are explained and contextualised with study data.

4.2. Epistemologies: An Overview

The study of epistemology is vast, complex, and full of debates. It includes several philosophical questions including, but not limited to: What is knowledge? How do you know what you know? How do you justify knowledge and with what sources do you make the justification? Is the justification internal or external to the mind? (Pritchard, 2016). This section is not intended to outline all the complexities of the study of epistemology but to present, as a generalised taxonomy, the epistemological spectrum upon which many academic research studies are situated. See Table 4. Summary of epistemological positions within three paradigms. There are additional epistemologies not listed here (e.g., deconstructivist) and interpretive extensions of epistemologies (e.g., gender or queer theory). Depending upon a researcher’s philosophical assumptions or discipline, the terms for epistemologies may also be changed (Mertens, 2005).

4.2.1. Constructivist Paradigm informed by Naturalistic Inquiry

Also, a part of the paradigm shift away from positivism, was the move toward “naturalistic inquiry” or naturalistic research (Blumer, 1969, p. 2; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Naturalistic inquiry encompasses a set of beliefs that consider meaning to be socially constructed and context-bound, and that meaning is generated between people in action in that context. Its proponents believe that objectivity and neutrality on the part of the researcher are impossible to achieve, so their values must be an integral part of the study rather than separate from it (Gergen and Gergen, 2007). Research influenced by this paradigm usually involves collecting rich, thick descriptive data, which is collected and analysed through an iterative process, and constructed through a close relationship between researcher and participants (Geertz, 1973).

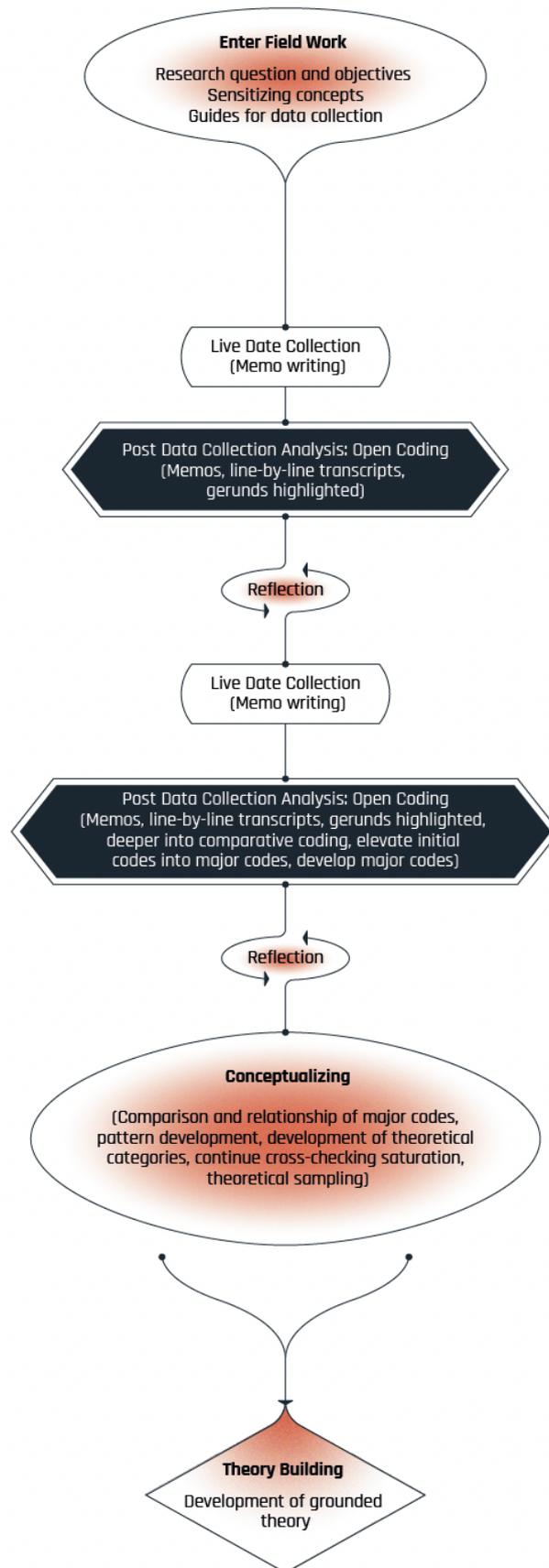
Distinguishing constructivism from social constructionism is not always clear because there is no consistent usage in terms of their definitions and usage (Young and Collin, 2004, p. 2). However, the two terms can be distinguished by their definition. Constructivism focuses on meaning-making and the construction of social worlds through individual, cognitive processes; while constructionism emphasises that one’s social world is made real (constructed) through social processes and interaction. As new experiences are encountered, that meaning may be challenged and modified (Schwandt, 1998, p. 236-237).

When the constructivist approach underpins an inquiry, phenomena are studied in their natural setting to understand how the individual constructs reality and meaning within a context-specific environment (Prasad, 2018). Constructivists acknowledge that participants may behave and think differently in different contexts, relative to the situation (Gergen and Gergen, 2007). By talking with individuals and observing them working collaboratively (one-on-one and in groups), the researcher can get close to the action to learn about what happens, what it means to the

individuals, what meaning individuals derive from their interaction, and how they make sense of their world (Charmaz, 2006).

Below is a figure that represents the constructivist grounded theory process, including the tools and techniques used to help the researcher through data analysis. Although presented in a prescriptive outline, the techniques are intended to support analytic flexibility by working synergistically to encourage emergent and fluid discovery. See Figure 3. Data Analysis Following Charmaz.

Figure 3. Data Analysis Following Charmaz (2014)



4.3. Grounded Theory: An Overview

Earlier in this chapter, I described how post-positivist and constructivist perspectives were developed as a critical response to some of the limitations of a positivist approach for studying dimensions of social reality. Similarly, the grounded theory approach was developed as a form of response or a counter to the dominance of quantitative research in sociology (Charmaz, 2014). Initially presented by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss as a means to focus on the experience of dying and its associated phenomena, it provided qualitative researchers with methodological, systematic strategies that could build theoretical explanations for social processes, leading to new theory construction (Charmaz, 2014; Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Grounded theory centres on action, incidents, and the main concerns of the participants, providing the opportunity to study how people experience and make sense of their social world (Gibson and Hartman, 2014). More simply stated, grounded theory provides an opportunity to study social action in the context in which it takes place (Stern and Porr, 2011).

Grounded theory is particularly valuable when little or no previous knowledge or theory exists (Charmaz, 2014). A grounded theory approach has not been used to investigate the experience of librarians who interact with discipline faculty. A 2009 study of teaching librarians is the only example identified (Julien and Peckoskie).

Key elements of the research process, and how they are operationalized, are dependent upon the philosophical underpinnings of the methodology. This may be explained through the historical development of grounded theory, which is introduced in the next section.

4.3.1. Grounded Theory: Positivism and Pragmatism

This section aims to set constructivist grounded theory methodology within the context of the sociological traditions that influenced its development and the “methodological dynamism,” or the adaptation to philosophical perspectives over time, that contributed to its evolution (Ralph, Birks, and Chapman, 2015, p. 2). To begin, it is helpful to note the two critical sociological traditions that influenced the development of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014).

In the early half of the twentieth century, positivist studies continued to dominate the field of sociology, and qualitative studies were criticised for being unscientific. In 1967, however, two American sociologists, Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, responded to the criticism, and designed grounded theory methodology to generate theory from qualitative data (1967). Their initial approach had positivist leanings, suggesting that the truth was waiting to be discovered, and that theory would emerge from the data. Their research process started with a general area of interest, rather than with a hypothesis, around which data (qualitative or quantitative) could be systematically gathered.

Grounded theory developed in two different directions after Glaser and Strauss parted company in the 1970s. Glaser maintained a positivist approach (Glaser, 1978 and 1992), discovering reality by distancing the researcher from the data and allowing the concepts to emerge, thereby producing what he claimed were more abstract results. Conversely, the Straussian approach was based on the view that multiple realities exist, with the researcher taking a more subjective stance and co-constructing theory with the participants (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Some have situated this approach with the post-positivist tradition (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994); some argue that it takes a middle ground between realism and postmodernism (Charmaz, 2007); while others, such as Annells (1997) suggest that it is underpinned by the constructivist paradigm.

4.3.2. Pragmatism

Early pragmatists Dewey (1929) and Mead (1956) agreed that knowledge is a meaning-making activity created through human action and interaction. It follows that the object of study in pragmatism is almost always a form of action. This study was well-framed by pragmatism in that the theory generated was the product of an experiential transaction between the researcher, participants, and the contextual environment and, more importantly, should have practical, useful implications.

Pragmatists posit that understanding is based on consequences (Star, 2012). James (1977) saw little value in modes of thinking that did not somehow make a difference in daily life. He defined pragmatism as the attitude of looking away from first things—principles, categories and supposed necessities—and looking toward last things—fruits, consequences, utility, and facts (James, 1977, p. 48). Pragmatism, then, makes answering the "so what?" question of research, a practical one. If a research question cannot be answered in a way that leads to some tangible difference in behaviour, then it is not worth studying. This approach leads pragmatist researchers away from an a priori logic or philosophical analysis with pre-set categories to be verified by the study. They look at the "what" and "how" of research based solely on where they want to go with it, its intended outcome or consequence (Creswell, 2013, p. 28), and "what happens" from a pragmatist perspective is typically an anomaly in the data that captures the researcher's attention. According to Dewey (1929), the anomaly prompts the researcher to reflect on and, ultimately, to interpret the interruption/anomaly to arrive at new information. This perspective supported my role as the analytic instrument used to render concepts, patterns, categories, and themes (interpretations) from the data.

Dewey (1929) argued that one's experiences are not continuous but constantly interrupted in a way that demands reflection and interpretation. This analytic cycle of experience-interruption-reflection-interpretation-action is unique to pragmatism (Star, 2012). It is an assumption that prompts the pragmatist researcher

to reflect on and journal (memo) interpretations of the interviews or fieldwork and to continually revise the interview questions based on the emergent categories and themes developed to capture the participants' perspectives (Creswell, 2013).

Pragmatism offers an understanding that the only way we, as reflective-meaning-making-action-oriented beings, are going to come to a consensus about what "is," is to participate in conversation with one another and, "in so doing, possibly alter the focus of that conversation by introducing new beliefs and knowledge" (Bacon, 2012, p. 200).

Pragmatism also suggests that power of various sorts is unequally distributed in our interactions and experiences with others (Addams, 2002). This perspective was important in this study of faculty librarians because it required me to be cognizant of how power manifests between myself and the study participants, the ways in which each participant may be privileged (or not), and to remain open to ideas divergent from my own.

Pragmatists and grounded theorists, notably those who follow Strauss, share similar world views. As philosophical positions, they are complementary. Both regard reality as situated within social context, recognise processes as part of the social experience, account for temporality, and understand the subjective role of the researcher (Charmaz, 2017, Fig. 1). Both positions also consider the agency of actors, how actions shape meanings and, in turn, meanings evoke actions. From this perspective, it is understood how pragmatism informs symbolic interactionism, and how symbolic interactionism underpins constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014, p.9).

4.3.3. Constructivist Grounded Theory

Constructivist grounded theory, a subset of grounded theory, perceives knowledge and actions as socially constructed, making naturalistic settings the ideal

environment for studying social life patterns (Charmaz, 2000 and 2014). The methodology for the current study has been influenced by the work of Charmaz (2014). Her practical guide through each stage of the research process, including data analysis through coding, the constant comparative technique, and writing memos, directed the research protocol for this thesis (Charmaz, 2006 and 2014). Although constructivist grounded theory deviates from Glaser and Strauss' original theory, data collection and data analysis still co-occur, just as they do in all other grounded theory models (Charmaz, 2006).

Fundamental differences exist in coding between the different types of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006). Glaserian and Straussian grounded theory both use one core category that identifies the central concept capturing the participants' perception of the phenomenon under study (Corbin and Strauss, 2008). Constructivist grounded theory is well suited for process studies because it does not seek a core category (Charmaz, 2006). Instead, Charmaz suggests that constructivists seek to show the complexities of specific worlds, views, and actions rather than finding a single variable to describe a phenomenon (2006).

4.4. Symbolic Interactionism and Constructivist Grounded Theory

My approach to constructivist grounded theory builds upon a symbolic interactionist theoretical perspective that assumes the existence of multiple realities, the mutual creation of knowledge by researchers and research participants and aims to provide an interpretive understanding of the studied world (Altheide and Johnson, 1994; Charmaz, 1995b, 2000, 2006; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Prus, 1987, 1996; Schwandt, 1994). A constructivist approach to grounded theory complements the symbolic interactionist perspective because both emphasise studying how action and meaning are constructed through interpretive understandings.

Symbolic interactionism, developed by pragmatist George H. Mead,

and later coined by his student, Herbert Blumer, is a sociological perspective to examine individuals' actions within their cultural world (Crotty, 2009). Symbolic interactionism captures the essence of the human being as a social being—a creator and a shaper of society (Talisie and Aiken, 2008). Its significant assumptions are that society, reality, and the self are constructed solely through symbolic interaction, a dynamic and interpretive human process of creation, action, reflection, and change whereby words and language structures are recognized as symbolic representations of meaning (Charmaz, 2012, p. 7). Following symbolic interactionist assumptions, I used the participant's viewpoints regarding actions, objects, and processes as the focal point of the study (Herman-Kinney and Verschaeve, 2003).

This interpretivist perspective assumes that not all knowledge, important for understanding human beings, is quantifiable. Blumer (1969) argued that the complexity of human life does not lend itself to the fragmentation of human experience in a laboratory or other contrived setting. Interpretivists view the human being as a dynamic and constantly evolving entity, so their research designs often use contextual, temporal, and naturalistic qualitative methods (Herman-Kinney and Verschaeve, 2003, p. 217).

Symbolic interactionism is often considered foundational for exploring the meanings of self (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). Blumer (1969) posited that meaning is derived solely from social interactions and modified through interpretations of signs and symbols embedded in social encounters. Symbols are abstract representations of social objects that enable people to communicate verbally and nonverbally and understand each other's intentions and actions. Because social action and interaction are symbolic, people interpret the objects in their environment and the behaviours of others around them and, rather than reacting directly, respond based on their interpreted meaning of those objects and actions (Blumer, 1969; Meltzer, 1972). In circumstances in which people define a situation differently, conflict may arise between them until they can develop

overlapping conceptualizations. Furthermore, a person's verbal and nonverbal communications might contradict one another, causing confusion or conflict for the receiver.

Symbols are socially derived and modified through interaction rather than inherently attached to objects and events. Although symbols arise from social interaction, they also shape social interaction and create social realities. Languages are robust symbol systems that structure the nature of what can be seen and considered (Blumer, 1969). The centrality of language as a symbol system has many implications for a study investigating librarians' collaborative experiences. Qualitative data are primarily composed of spoken (recorded interviews) or observations captured in notes and memos. These experiences must be interpreted through language to be analysed. Therefore, it was incumbent upon me to fully explore the meanings that both groups of participants assigned to the words they chose, so my meanings were not imposed on the participants' true intents.

In a 2021 article on grounded theory, Charmaz and Thornberg refer to constructivist grounded theory method as one that: "offers an abstract understanding of one or more core concerns in the studied world" (p. 305). In their professional relationships with discipline faculty, a shared concern amongst faculty librarian participants was the perception – or misperception – of their professional roles. Further insight into this issue and how it influences professional relationships has become a critical challenge within academic librarianship. One faculty librarian participant stated: "There is the issue of credibility. It's pretty much always the issue. As librarians, if we don't conduct research or they [discipline faculty] don't think we conduct research, then how will we be taken seriously?" [L6:26].

Gaining understanding through one's experiences aligns with a constructivist grounded theory study that emphasises on "eliciting the participants' definitions of terms, situations, and events and try to tap his or her assumptions, implicit meanings, and tacit rules" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 32). The findings were interpreted

from 38 interviews with academic librarians, 20 interviews with academic faculty, and 28.5 hours of observation of interaction between both groups. Observation events included both groups of participants and included university business meetings, classes taught by faculty librarians in the presence of a discipline faculty member and their students, and faculty librarian consultations with discipline faculty that were related to faculty research and scholarly communication. The findings presented in Chapter 5 outline the tensions and behaviour response patterns identified in the participants' interviews and captured in observation notes.

This study draws value from the symbolic interactionist approach because studying interaction, and how meaning is constructed between individual actors, is fundamental for thinking about the interplay of their roles within organisations and institutions, a perspective referred to by Hallett, Shulman, and Fine as a "peopled" perspective that suggests researchers pay attention to questions that focus on how individuals interpret the work they do; how they connect their work to their sense of self; and how patterns of interaction shape relationships (2009, p.487).

4.5. Data Collection Methods and Analysis: How Constructivist Grounded Theorists Approach the Data

Data analysis is the focal point of constructivist grounded theory but, except for knowing how to gather data, the analytic process cannot be predetermined (Charmaz, 2014). To generate a strong grounded theory, the researcher uses methods that gather data that is "detailed, focused, and full" to reveal the experiences, actions, and feelings of participants (Charmaz, 2014, p.23).

Constructivist grounded theory provides specific strategies for researchers to sort, synthesise, and conceptualise their data. However, key to using constructive grounded theory is researcher flexibility and simultaneous engagement with data collection and analysis. The researcher is expected to interact with the data to

develop ideas and to return to the field - or to another field – to check data (Charmaz, 2014).

4.5.1. Abductive Reasoning

As noted above, a constructivist grounded theorist using sensitising concepts begins from an inductive, emergent position. However, as analysis evolves through comparative methods, the process assumes more abductive reasoning (Charmaz, 2014).

First described as a form of inference by philosopher Charles Peirce, who came from the pragmatist school of philosophy, abduction is distinct from induction and deduction and was introduced to offer hypothetical explanations for observations. Peirce wrote: "Any proposition added to observed facts, tending to make them applicable in any way to other circumstances than those under which they are observed (1955, p. 150). Essentially, abduction does not aim to generate robust explanatory power; instead, it is a way to generate plausible inferences about the reasons that may have led to specific observable outcomes.

Abductive reasoning differs in principle from deduction and induction. In a deductive process, the researcher aims for the certainty of their conclusions by applying general rules to specific cases, while an inductive research process aims to make probable generalisations from data (Shank, 1998). Fundamentally, a constructivist grounded theory design begins with a systematic inductive approach to analysis and then evolves into an iterative, comparative, interactive, and abductive process that requires the researcher to move back and forth between data and theory. See Figure 4. Data Analysis Following Charmaz. Below are the aims of abductive reasoning:

1. Create a sense of reciprocity between participants and the researcher in co-constructing a theory grounded in the participants' and researcher's experiences.

2. Establish relationships with participants that explicate power imbalances and attempts to modify these imbalances.

3. Clarify the researcher's position in the text, the relevance of biography and how one renders participants' stories into theory through writing (Mills, Bonner, and Francis, 2006, p. 9).

Charmaz (2012) states that neither data or theories are discovered but are "constructed through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives, and research practices" (p. 10), with the researcher moving "back and forth between stories and analysis" (Charmaz, 2017, p. 41). Any theoretical rendering of librarians' perceptions and experiences of role misperception offers only an interpretive, reconstructed view of the phenomenon. It cannot offer an exact picture of it.

4.5.2. Theoretical Sensitivity

Theoretical sensitivity (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998) is another tool that can support reflexivity during data analysis. Theoretical sensitivity is a core concept in grounded theory research. It reflects the researchers' ability to use personal and professional experiences and knowledge to see data from different angles and think abstractly about it in the process of construing theory. Theoretical sensitivity can also be seen as the researchers' manipulation to explain data in a way that best reflects reality. Therefore, this theoretical sensitivity should be complemented by reflexivity concerning, for example, how the researcher-participant interaction and researchers' perspective affect analysis and results (Hall and Callery, 2001). This approach is consistent with Strauss and Corbin's (1990) definition of theoretical sensitivity, which also emphasised reflexive use of self in developing research questions and doing analysis. Adopting theoretical sensitivity encourages researchers to use personal and professional experiences and the

literature to see the research situation and data in new ways and inform the developing theory (Gibson, 2007).

According to Glaser and Strauss, theoretical sensitivity is the ability of the researcher to have theoretical insight into an area of research (and potentially themselves), but also to be able to make something with that insight (1967, p.46). The challenge to “think theoretically” (Tarozzi, 2011, p.11) meant constantly checking the data for analysis rather than description. The early interviews and observations in the current study provided an experience for thinking analytically rather than merely describing – or stating the obvious – about what was happening in the data (Suddaby, 2006). The process of stopping and thinking about the data as it was collected, comparing it with other pieces of data, making connections and developing new directions for inquiry was all part of developing theoretical sensitivity (Charmaz, 2006). This process is supported by Charmaz’s advice to avoid coding data for themes because this could result in a simple description of action rather than a theoretical rendering. Coding for action throughout from the outset, in the form of gerunds and asking, “What is this a study of?” “What is happening here?” and “What does this explain?” at each stage of the analysis facilitated the identification of salient concepts and a core connecting process (Charmaz, 1996, p.32; Charmaz, 2000 and 2006; Gibson and Hartman, 2014).

4.5.3. Reflexivity in Grounded Theory Practice

It is important to distinguish reflexivity for its critical role in constructivist grounded theory. Charmaz (2014) explains that the researcher does not enter the field with neutrality; instead, what they bring to the study will influence what is seen and its interpretation. Lynch (2000) attributed reflexivity in research to a form of “methodological self-consciousness” (p. 29), meaning that it is imperative for researchers to be conscious of their assumptions and prejudices and to focus upon

uncertainties and possible sources of bias. He cautioned that reflexivity requires all conceptual frameworks be subjected to critical examination.

Charmaz also describes how constructivist grounded theory relies upon a depth of reflexivity for researchers to self-examine their position and priorities to determine how they influence choice of methods, engagement with the data, and interaction with the study participants (Charmaz, 2017). Methodological self-consciousness involves a self-scrutiny beyond that in which qualitative researchers commonly engage. It involves learning to recognize how our worldviews, language, and privileges influence the researcher and their work.

Being reflexive requires the researcher to assess their relationship with the concepts that inform data collection and analysis. In the current study, I had to examine my position as a professional peer during the interviews and observations. This process meant that my professional identity was challenged by my subjective views and the external perception of who I am as a librarian. For example, there were times I felt empowered by the words and actions of my library peers, and there were instances when I felt critical of my profession. On the one hand, the criticism of the library profession was challenging to hear, struck a chord with my professional identity, and made me feel defensive. On the other hand, I felt many of the comments were justified, confirming my disillusionment with the profession while making me feel quite disloyal to my peers.

I used notes to reflect on these feelings and to situate them against what I saw happening in the data. In one instance, I had difficulty coding a transcript from an interview with a library faculty member. The transcript was 41 pages long but, despite several attempts, I created less than 8 initial codes for the entire transcript. I put the transcript away for a couple of weeks, hoping the distance would bring a fresh perspective. During the time away from the transcript, I realised that an action described by the librarian participant triggered a feeling of disappointment. Her action disappointed me because I felt it reflected badly on the profession. This

challenged my professional loyalty. Once I identified this feeling, I returned to the transcript with a renewed perspective that allowed me to distinguish her experience from mine, facilitating more productive coding. On a more conceptual level, the challenge I faced with this transcript also brought new codes to light within other transcripts (e.g., some librarian actions influenced by a sense of professional *esprit de corps* – that I describe differently than professional loyalty).

4.6. Participant Recruitment for Interviews and Observation

Because this study followed a constructivist grounded theory framework, and data saturation could not be pre-determined, it was not appropriate to pre-determine a sample size. I began the initial identification of participants through purposeful sampling, a technique used in qualitative research to identify individuals, or groups of individuals, who are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with the topic of interest (Creswell and Poth, 2018).

The recruitment process included the development of protocols, recruitment emails, a study information sheet, and an informed consent form. Reference to each of these documents is below:

- o Appendix A. Data Protection for Participant Information Sheet
- o Appendix B. Recruitment Email Template
- o Appendix C. Subject Expertise or Liaison Areas of Faculty Librarian Participants
- o Appendix D. Academic Major or Program of Discipline Faculty
- o Appendix E. Recruitment: Faculty Librarian Participant Information Sheet
- o Appendix F. Recruitment: Discipline Faculty Participant Information Sheet
- o Appendix G. Participant Consent Form: Interview
- o Appendix H. Observation Activity Participant Consent Form
- o Appendix I. Field Guide for Observation
- o Appendix J. Observation Field Notes Template

Based upon the inclusion criteria for library and discipline faculty, I used two approaches to identify participants: 1.) literature search for library faculty who have

published articles or presented about cross-boundary collaborations or academic outreach to discipline faculty, and 2.) snowball recruitment. In the final study, I did not consult or cite any the articles used for participant identification. I only checked the abstracts to confirm that the article treated the relevant subjects, cross-boundary collaboration or academic outreach to discipline faculty. I did not return to the articles, post-analysis, to learn whether any faculty librarian participants described experiences similar to the process presented in the study's final conceptual model.

Snowballing was used as a secondary approach for recruitment and occurred on a limited basis throughout the data collection process. Because I was not focusing on a geographically restricted population, I was receptive to participants' offers to introduce me to their professional network from different universities to diversify the content and institutional culture of the participants. Snowballing is a convenience technique criticised for selection bias (Lewis-Beck, Bryman, and Futing Liao, 2004); however, I found it helpful to identify discipline faculty who can be described as a hidden population because their collaborative relationships with librarians remain somewhat invisible. They seldom publish or present the outcomes, so relying on an academic network to identify discipline faculty who had at least one collaborative experience with a faculty librarian was helpful.

I developed a Recruitment Logbook in Excel to track recruitment communication including notes and dates on recruitment emails, responses to recruitment outreach, and how individuals were identified for recruitment (i.e., literature search or snowball). Once recruits were confirmed as participants, the Logbook was used to sub-categorize participants by geographical region (to plan data collection trips) and to confirm dates for interviews and observation activity.

An important note for reading and understanding the context for some interview excerpts is that both the faculty librarians and discipline faculty who participated in this study hold faculty ranks as Assistant Professors, Associate Professors, or Professors. In addition to their librarianship or teaching requirements,

both groups must conduct research and participate in university governance and service. To clarify the two groups of participants, I refer to the faculty librarians as 'librarians' or 'faculty librarians' and the discipline faculty as 'discipline faculty.' Clarifying the distinction will minimise confusion as the two groups are discussed in the Findings chapter.

4.6.1. Library Faculty Recruitment

As stated above, I used purposeful sampling to identify librarians who would be knowledgeable about librarian-faculty collaboration, as demonstrated through scholarly publications or peer-reviewed conference papers/presentations (Creswell and Poth, 2018). As one method to identify such librarians, I conducted a literature search and a Google search for librarians who met the criterion. Librarians identified through this method were not selected based on whether the findings presented in their work were positive or negative. I was open to librarians with various perspectives on the subject.

To identify participants through the literature, I searched Google Scholar and four proprietary databases: Academic Search Complete (via EBSCO), ERIC (via ProQuest), Library Literature and Information Science (via EBSCO), and Library, Information Science and Technology Abstracts (LISTA) (via EBSCO). To improve efficiency, searches across the three EBSCO databases were federated.

I searched the four proprietary databases with an initial set of keywords in different combinations: academic librarians, faculty, outreach, collaboration, partnership, and university or higher education. After identifying relevant articles, I used the subject headings provided in the bibliographic record to narrow the search and improve relevance. Subject headings included terms such as: embedded librarians, librarian-teacher cooperation, and educational cooperation. The keywords used to search the databases were also used to search Google Scholar. The

abstracts from all identified articles were scanned for relevance and the author affiliation was cross-checked to the Carnegie Classification scheme to confirm the inclusion criteria that the author had affiliation with a public, doctoral degree-granting university.

Because there is evidence that discipline faculty from medicine, law, and studio arts have different information-seeking behaviours, it was unknown how these behaviours could distinguish their collaborations with library faculty (Makri, Blandford, Cox, 2008; Wirtz, 2017). Artists often engage in a more exploratory and iterative process, seeking inspiration from a diverse array of sources, including visual media, literature, and personal experiences. Their approach is typically non-linear, driven by the need to foster creativity and innovation. In contrast, clinicians, including doctors, adopt a more structured and systematic approach to information seeking. Their primary focus is on acquiring accurate, evidence-based information to inform clinical decisions and patient care. This often involves consulting peer-reviewed medical journals, clinical guidelines, and diagnostic tools.

Law faculty utilize library information resources extensively to support their academic and professional development, often relying on specific and specialized search techniques. They often begin by accessing comprehensive legal databases that provide a wealth of precedents, case law, and statutes. These databases are crucial for conducting thorough legal research and staying updated with relevant laws.

While artists may prioritize subjective and interpretive sources, clinical and legal faculty rely heavily on objective and empirical data to ensure the reliability and validity of their information findings (Case and Given, 2016; Challener, 1999; Groote, Shultz, and Blecic, 2014). While library and discipline faculty who specialise in these disciplines could represent a comparative group for future study, a comparison by discipline was not within the scope of the current study. For this reason, library and discipline faculty employed in special, discipline-based libraries (medicine, law, art)

were excluded. Appendix C shows the subject expertise of the faculty librarian participants, or the majors for which they serve as liaisons, and Appendix D lists the disciplines represented by the discipline faculty participants.

In contrast, faculty in the social sciences and humanities, while also exhibiting unique information-seeking behaviours, do not represent such pronounced outliers. Their methods, although varied, generally align more closely with each other and with broader academic practices. Social sciences and humanities faculty typically engage in a combination of qualitative and quantitative research, utilizing a mix of primary and secondary sources, including books, journal articles, and archival materials. Their dissemination of scholarship, through publications, conferences, and other academic forums, follows established academic norms.

By focusing on participants from the social sciences and humanities, researchers can examine information-seeking behaviours that, while diverse, do not deviate as markedly from standard academic practices. This approach allows for a more cohesive analysis of information-seeking behaviours within a relatively homogeneous group, providing insights that are more broadly applicable across these disciplines. Excluding faculty artists, clinicians, and lawyers helps to avoid the confounding effects of their highly specialized and distinct information-seeking practices, thereby ensuring a more focused and generalizable study.

A separate search of the staff pages of the various universities was conducted to confirm whether the same institution currently employed the librarian-author. If the person was no longer affiliated with the institution, I searched Google to identify the author's current place of employment. The author's information was entered into a recruitment spreadsheet if the current employer matched the inclusion criteria. The spreadsheet captured the author's name, institutional affiliation, email, phone number, a list of their relevant publications/presentations, and separate fields to indicate the date the first recruitment email was sent, the date of acceptance or decline, and the date of the scheduled interview (if applicable).

After the search was concluded and inclusion criteria were confirmed, the recruitment spreadsheet listed 97 possible participants. The following recruitment steps were determined by the travel logistics that would be required for in-person interviews and observation.

4.6.2. Snowball Recruitment for Library Faculty

Snowballing is a recruitment technique used to identify new participants through the network of an existing participant. Although researchers often use snowballing to facilitate access to “concealed” or isolated populations (e.g., gang members), for purposes of this study, it was used as a referral system to facilitate introductions to individuals not otherwise identified by the researcher (Lewis-Beck, Bryman, and Liao, 2004, para.1). Because I was not focusing on a geographically restricted population, I was receptive to participants’ offers to introduce me to their professional network.

The librarians who were contacted directly for recruitment were identified, in part, through their scholarly contribution about librarian-faculty collaboration. I did not extend this criterion to the librarians who were referred through snowballing. This criterion was omitted in snowballing to bring balance to the librarian group. I only accepted snowballing for references of individuals employed at different universities to diversify the context and institutional culture of the participants.

Snowballing resulted in the introduction of 6 additional library faculty to the study. Following the established protocol for recruiting faculty librarians I contacted the 6 faculty librarians by email and included the study information sheet. All 6 faculty librarians agreed to participate and signed consent forms were secured.

4.6.3. Data Collection: Library Faculty Interviews

Because I travelled to the United States to conduct interviews, I organised the recruitment spreadsheet by geographical region (e.g., Northeast, Mid-Atlantic,

South, Southwest, Pacific Northwest) to map the location of the participants. To facilitate U.S.-based travel, I contacted the library faculty who were employed at universities in the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic states. The travel itinerary was mapped against the location of participants who agreed to participate, and interviews were scheduled in geographical clusters.

The first data collection trip to the United States was made in March 2019 and included visits to Maryland, New York, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and the District of Columbia. The trip is referred to as Data Collection Trip 1, and the participants from Trip 1 are referred to collectively as Group 1. Eighteen library faculty interviews were conducted during Trip 1.

The second data collection trip to the United States was made in April 2019 and included visits to Arizona, California, Michigan, Ohio, and Virginia. Prior to scheduling the trip, 20 librarians were contacted for recruitment by email. Seventeen library faculty responded and agreed to participate; however, of the 17 faculty librarians who responded, 1 was not interviewed because of a scheduling conflict and another librarian did not reply to scheduling requests. The second trip to the United States is referred to as Data Collection Trip 2 and the participants from Trip 2 are referred to, collectively, as Group 2. In the end, 15 faculty librarians were interviewed in person during Trip 2.

Library faculty from both recruitment campaigns agreed to participate in the study but could not be interviewed in person due to travel logistics. They agreed to be interviewed by web conference or phone. Between March and April 2019, four library faculty members were interviewed by web conference, and one library faculty member was interviewed by phone.

The third data collection trip to the United States was made in December 2019 and included return visits to California and Arizona. No librarians were interviewed during Data Collection Trip 3; however, I interviewed three discipline faculty members and attended three observation activities.

4.6.4. Summary: Library Faculty Recruitment and Interviews

Thirty-eight library faculty were interviewed for this study: 30 in-person, 7 by use of web conference technology, and 1 by phone. Below is a demographic of the library faculty participants. Early career librarians were eligible to participate in the study but required a minimum of three years of professional experience upon which to draw. See Table 3. Demographics and Career Range: Faculty Librarian Participants.

The data analysis accounted for the participants' career range as a possible influence on individual attitudes toward work. A librarian's view toward the policies, values, and goals of the university and the library may change throughout a career. A librarian who qualifies for rank promotion (i.e., Assistant Professor to Associate Professor), could have a strong interest in remaining eligible for promotion, intending to use collaboration statistics as one measure of productivity and professional development. Alternatively, a librarian in a mid-late career phase, who may have achieved many career goals, maybe less motivated toward professional development and may work on maintaining their status with less engagement in projects and initiatives (Hall, 2002; Markgren and Allen, 2013).

Table 3. Demographics and Career Range: Faculty Librarian Participants

Gender	
Female	27
Male	10
Non-binary	1

Career Range	
Early (3-6 years)	6
Mid (7-15 years)	29
Mid-late (16+ years)	3

Through the process of identifying participants, rather than issuing a generic call through listservs or other media platforms, I had the opportunity to confirm that all inclusion criteria were met. Additionally, the professional backgrounds of potential participants were carefully explored to determine if an individual's knowledge and experience would enable them to contribute to the study's research aims.

The library faculty recruitment email (Appendix A) included a copy of the Library Faculty Participant Information Sheet (Appendix E), which included the participant inclusion criteria.

When a library faculty agreed by email to participate, they were sent an electronic copy of the informed consent to review and sign before the interview. The signed copy was returned to the researcher before the interview or one the day of the interview. All signed consent forms were retained in an encrypted file. Participants were also asked if they could provide an opportunity to observe library faculty-discipline faculty interaction. From the first group of library faculty (Data Collection Trip 1) I was able to conduct 12.5 hours of observation. Based on opportunities provided by the second group of library faculty (Data Collection Trip 2), I observed 16 hours of activity. Data Collection Trip 3 provided me with 5 hours of observation.

4.6. Discipline Faculty Recruitment

Using a symbolic interactionist perspective and a constructivist grounded theory methodology, the primary aim of this study was to explore the social experience of faculty librarians who interact with discipline faculty in academic areas related to teaching and research. Studies about the faculty librarian-discipline faculty relationship are often librarian-oriented (Christiansen, Stombler, and Thaxton, 2004), and how discipline faculty feel about the librarians' professional activities is often explained from the librarians' perspective. Because the perspectives of discipline faculty are underrepresented in the literature, the study design incorporates the

discipline faculty into the data collection and discussion, allowing comparison when considering disparities in professional identity perception, to provide a more balanced critique of how discipline faculty perceive faculty librarians' roles.

Based upon the inclusion criteria for discipline faculty, the recruitment process for identifying discipline faculty was similar to the one used for library faculty recruitment: 1.) literature search for discipline faculty who have published articles or presented on the subject of interdisciplinary collaborations or academic outreach; 2.) snowball recruitment.

One difference in the recruitment of discipline faculty from library faculty was that the eligibility criteria allowed discipline faculty to fall into one of two groups:

- o Discipline faculty Group 1: those who have been strategically engaged with library faculty (identified through publication or presentation) and
- o Discipline faculty Group 2: those with an unknown history of strategic engagement with library faculty.

The decision to include both groups of discipline faculty enabled a critical comparison of their respective attitudes and experiences, yielding additional data to refine the analysis and to contribute toward theory development (Charmaz, 2014).

The discipline faculty recruitment email (Appendix B) included a copy of the Discipline faculty Participant Information Sheet (Appendix F), including the participant inclusion criteria. When a faculty member agreed to participate, they were sent an electronic copy of the informed consent sheet by email. The signed copy was returned to me before a scheduled interview, or on the interview day, and stored in an encrypted file.

4.7.1. Literature Search to Identify Discipline Faculty

To identify the first group of discipline faculty (those who had been strategically engaged with library faculty) through the literature, I conducted

searches in Google Scholar, and I used a federated search of EBSCOhost, inclusive of several discipline-specific databases.

I searched both Google Scholar and EBSCOhost with an initial set of keywords, in different combinations: academic librarians, faculty, outreach, collaboration, partnership, and university or higher education. The results produced some citation overlap of articles used to identify library faculty. In these instances, if a discipline faculty member was identified as a co-author, I added their name to a spreadsheet of potential participants.

Once a list of potential participants was identified, I cross-checked their institutional affiliation to the Carnegie Classification scheme to confirm the inclusion criteria that the faculty author had an affiliation with a public, doctoral degree-granting university. A separate search of the staff pages of the various universities was conducted to confirm whether the same institution currently employed the faculty author. If the person was no longer affiliated with the institutional affiliation when the article was published, I searched Google to identify the author's current place of employment. The author's information was entered into a recruitment spreadsheet if the current employer matched the inclusion criteria for institutions. The spreadsheet captured the author's name, institutional affiliation, email, phone number, a list of their relevant publications/presentations, and separate fields to indicate the date the first recruitment email was sent, the date of acceptance or decline, and the date of the scheduled interview (if applicable).

After the searching was concluded and inclusion criteria were confirmed, the recruitment spreadsheet for Discipline faculty Group 1 listed 34 possible participants. The next steps in recruitment were determined by the travel logistics required for in-person interviews and observation.

4.7.2. Discipline Faculty Group 2: Unknown History of Collaboration

Recruitment for Discipline faculty Group 2 was done through two steps: random sampling based on geography and snowballing. Once the universities were identified for Data Collection Trips 1 and 2 (Trip number 3 was organised later in the timeline), I searched the faculty web pages of those universities. Based upon exclusion criteria for discipline faculty, I did not include discipline faculty from disciplines who may use specialised libraries (e.g., medicine, law, studio arts) because, as noted earlier, there are variables related to information-seeking behaviour that could distinguish how this group of faculty engages with librarians. I compiled a list of potential faculty members through this method and sent recruitment emails. This recruitment strategy had limited success and resulted in just three interviews, whereby snowballing proved a more effective method. See Table 4 below.

4.7.3. Data Collection: Discipline Faculty Interviews

Because I was travelling to the United States to conduct interviews, I followed the travel map determined by the successful recruitment of library faculty. To facilitate U.S. based travel, I first contacted the 19 discipline faculty who were employed at universities in the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic states (Data Collection Trip 1). Five discipline faculty replied to the recruitment email; one declined and four agreed to be interviewed. One of the four who agreed to be interviewed did not show up for the scheduled meeting.

Below is an illustration of how the data collection evolved. See Table 4. Data Collection and Analytic Process

Table 4. Data Collection and Analysis Process: U.S. Data Collection Trips 1-3 and Remote Data Collection

DATA COLLECTION TRIP 1 March 2019			
	Librarian Interviews	Discipline faculty Interviews	Observation Activity (hours)
UNIVERSITY 1	2	-	1
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 2	2	-	1.5
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 3	1	1	1
UNIVERSITY 4	2	1	-
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 5	2	-	-
UNIVERSITY 6	1	1	1
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 7	2	-	1.5
UNIVERSITY 8	3	-	1
Reflection and analysis			
Videoconference Interviews	2	1	-
TOTALS	17 interviews	4 interviews	7 hours

DATA COLLECTION TRIP 2 April 2019			
	Librarian Interviews	Discipline faculty Interviews	Observation Activity (hours)
UNIVERSITY 9	2	-	2
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 10	1	-	3
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 11	2	-	1.5
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 12	2	1	1.5
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 13	2	1	3
UNIVERSITY 14	2	-	2
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 15	2	-	2.5
UNIVERSITY 16	2	-	1
Reflection and analysis			
Phone interviews	1	1	

Videoconference interviews	1	7	
TOTALS	17 interviews	10 interviews	16.5 hours

DATA COLLECTION (remote) May 2019			
	Librarian Interviews	Discipline faculty Interviews	Observation Activity (hours)
UNIVERSITY 17 videoconference	1	1	-
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 18 videoconference	1	2	-
Reflection and analysis			
TOTALS	2 interviews	3 interviews	-

DATA COLLECTION (remote) October 2019			
	Librarian Interviews	Discipline faculty Interviews	Observation Activity (hours)
UNIVERSITY 19 videoconference	1	-	-
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 20 videoconference	1	-	-
Reflection and analysis			
TOTALS	2 interviews	-	-

DATA COLLECTION TRIP 3 December 2019			
	Librarian Interviews	Discipline faculty Interviews	Observation Activity (hours)
UNIVERSITY 12*	-	1	2
Reflection and analysis			
UNIVERSITY 16*	-	1	1
UNIVERSITY 21	-	1	1
Reflection and analysis			
TOTALS	-	3 interviews	4 hours

*Same university from Data Collection Trip 2

Initially, no sequence of data collection methods was established for those universities where both methods, interviews and observation, were employed. Interviews were scheduled before and after observation. After initial data collection and reflection, I determined that a sequence was not an important variable for data collection and analysis.

I repeated the recruitment process for Data Collection Trip 2. I mapped the faculty to the geographical regions where library faculty had been recruited successfully. I contacted 15 faculty who were employed in these regions. One discipline faculty member replied to the recruitment and agreed to be interviewed; a second member replied and agreed to be interviewed by web conference only.

I continued the recruitment of discipline faculty after Data Collection Trip 2 and secured seven interviews, all conducted through video conference, between August and November 2019.

The third data collection trip to the United States was made in December 2019 and included return visits to California and Arizona. Before scheduling the trip, 12 discipline faculty were contacted for recruitment by email. Six responded and five agreed to participate. The third trip to the United States is referred to as Data Collection Trip 3 and the participants from Trip 3 are referred to, collectively, as Group 3.

4.7.4. Summary: Discipline Faculty Recruitment

A total of 20 discipline faculty were interviewed for this study: nine in-person, ten by use of web-conference technology, and one by phone. Below is a demographic of the discipline faculty participants. Early career faculty were eligible to participate in the study but required a minimum of three years of professional experience upon which to draw. See Table 5. Demographics and Career Range: Discipline faculty Participants.

Table 5. Demographics and Career Range: Discipline Faculty Participants

Gender	
Female	8
Male	12
Career Range	
Early (3-6 years)	5
Mid (7-15 years)	12
Mid-late (16+ years)	3

4.8. Semi-Structured Interviews

Consistent with constructivist grounded theory, it was important to explore the social interactions that occur between faculty librarians and discipline faculty through methods that capture their respective experiences through their own words and actions. It was decided to use semi-structured interviews as one data collection method, and to follow an interview protocol that aligned with constructivist grounded theory by providing flexibility and adaptability throughout all phases of data collection.

The development of an interview protocol was based on some of the strengths of the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) and CIT influenced the development of key questions in the protocol. I also incorporated best practice recommendations for conducting interviews and established a base set of guidelines. The best practice recommendations included pre-identification of questions as well as potential probes for question follow-up, establishment of a time frame for each interview, and use of descriptive, structural, and contrast questions to develop an interview script (Bernard, 2000; Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015).

CIT, which originated in studies of World War II aviators, involves collecting data that is focused on a common work experience that is “critical” or highly salient for the participants (Flanagan, 1954, p.327). It is a technique particularly suited for

this study because it is relevant to understanding phenomena surrounding employee actions, processes, and practices. The CIT also aligns well with exploratory research (Simmons, 2017) and constructivist grounded theory because data is drawn from participants' real-world experiences and activities (Flanagan, 1954; Kain, 2004). As Glaser and Straus stated, "In discovering theory, one generates conceptual categories or their properties from evidence; then the evidence from which the category emerged is used to illustrate the concept" (Glaser and Straus, 1967, p. 27). The CIT is also designed to be flexible and adaptable "to meet the specific situation at hand," meaning it could be modified for application in a university and library context (Flanagan, 1954, p. 335).

From the CIT perspective, specific interactions and thoughts are critical to understanding participants' meaning of their experiences and the actions and behaviours that resulted from those experiences. With this in mind, I used CIT to draft interview questions supporting elicitation of these meanings and actions. The interview questions were framed as open-ended probes beginning with words such as "describe," "how," and "what" -- and reducing, though not eliminating, the number of questions asking "why." These question stems were chosen to elicit a descriptive narrative rather than a justification for actions or behaviours. Questions, including follow-up questions, included: Describe your experience of establishing professional relationships with faculty; What did you do after that happened? What caused the miscommunication/problem? What are the factors that made the collaboration successful? How did it make you feel? What strategies did you use to keep the relationship positive and productive? Would you change anything if you could work with that faculty member again?

The first critical step of the CIT is defining the activity that participants under study share and establishing its "general aim" (Flanagan, 1954, p.337-338). The purpose of this step is to directly support the development of the interview questions and provide direction for the data analysis and presentation of the

findings. In this study, I was studying the social experiences that occur in collaborations between faculty librarians and discipline faculty. However, in the case of my librarian participants, I had to account for the reality that librarian work has changed and evolved significantly in the past 40 years. Depending on the individual level and scope of experience, the activities associated with discipline faculty collaboration may have changed over time and across universities. Further, because of my own experience in academic librarianship, I was concerned about the likelihood of identifying activities that contributed to successful or unsuccessful collaborations.

Finally, based on the findings from this study, there is an opportunity to expand the use of CIT in a library context. While there are library studies that have employed CIT (Andrews, 1991; Fisher and Oulton, 1999; Hughes, 2012; Richardson and Eichmann-Kalwara, 2017; Urquhart et al., 2003), only a small number of these studies focus on the experience of academic librarians (Olaka and Adkins, 2013; Radford, 1996; Radford et al., 2017; Ramos-Eclevia, 2012) and none explore the relationship between faculty librarians and discipline faculty.

My interview protocol evolved through various iterations as data emerged and was analysed. To offer a brief example: Early in the coding of library faculty interviews, trust emerged as a valued attribute in the librarian-discipline faculty relationship. Librarians stated that they believe they are perceived as trustworthy. I returned to the literature to learn more about how trust has been studied in relationship-building in librarian-discipline faculty relationships. This led me to identify a systematic study that described the capacity of trust in these relationships (Phelps and Campbell, 2012). Reviewing the articles identified in the systematic review led me to add one question about personal attributes and trust in the next iteration of librarian and discipline faculty interviews.

Initially, I took notes during interviews, but I found that notetaking disrupted my ability to listen. While I did take minimal notes, I mainly relied on audio files and transcripts during data analysis.

The preliminary identification and formation of interview questions and probes helped me clarify and prioritise the information I wanted from each interview. The pre-identified questions were also important for quality control. They allowed me to administer the interviews as consistently as possible across the interview participants by asking the same questions in approximately the same way, and they minimised interviewer bias by providing some structure to the interview process (Kvale, 1996; Brinkmann and Kvale; 2015).

The descriptive questions asked participants to describe their experiences. The structural questions helped me understand relationships between things and to categorise groups of like things or like processes (Kvale, 1996). The probing questions were follow-up questions to pursue new queries that were generated by a participant's response.

Additionally, the interviews were time-constrained to 45-60 minutes through advance communication with the participants. Adding a time frame to the interview protocol allowed me to prioritise the research questions into primary (necessary) and secondary (supplementary) categories. As the interview approached the 45-minute mark, I would inform the participant how much time had passed. In most interviews, participants offered more time or asked if they could contribute additional remarks. Interviews with library faculty were designed to be longer than interviews with discipline faculty. Additional time was factored into library faculty interviews to provide them the opportunity to conceptualise their professional roles. This question was not included in discipline faculty interviews.

The interviews were recorded using three devices: a Sony digital voice recorder, a Samsung mobile phone application called S Voice, and the Mac computer application, QuickTime Player. After the completion of each interview, the

audio files of the interviews were uploaded to a cloud-based transcription service, Trint, for automated transcription. Upon receipt of the transcriptions, I played the audio files and cross-checked each of the transcriptions for accuracy. There were minor errors in all transcripts, and notes were made to document the corrections. A clean copy of the original transcripts, and the corrected transcripts, were stored digitally. Additional copies were made for coding.

The library faculty interviews lasted an average of 116 minutes. The transcripts averaged 41 pages, totalling 1,739 pages of interview transcription. The discipline faculty interviews lasted an average of 36 minutes. The transcripts averaged 27 pages, totalling 513 pages of interview transcription.

To safeguard participants' rights to privacy and to minimise disruption, interviews were conducted in the participants' private office or, if a private office was not an option, the interviews took place in a meeting room located in the university library. In 17 instances, the interviews were conducted via the web conferencing platform, Zoom. In 15 of those instances, the participants were in their private work office; in 2 instances, the participant was interviewed from their home. I participated in all interviews conducted via Zoom from my own home.

At the onset of interviews, I did not anticipate that some topics would trigger emotional distress, including sadness, frustration, and anger. In such instances, I wanted to minimise risk to the participant and avoid forcing them into an uncomfortable situation. In most cases, the emotion was transitory; however, in more than one instance, I asked the participant if they wanted to stop or take a break. I wanted to reassure the participant they had control of the interview. In all instances, the participant was willing to continue the interview, so I decided to move the questions in a different direction.

All participants received a copy of the original transcript and a copy of the corrected transcript and were invited to edit their transcripts. One faculty librarian

asked me to clarify a statement and to remove a statement; all other participants declined the invitation to edit their transcripts.

4.8.1. Role of Researcher and Interview Skills

Based on the Critical Incident Technique, the semi-structured interview approach was used to encourage participants to speak freely without much direction from me. Charmaz (2006) highlights that participants and interviewers may act according to several factors: their appraisal of each other, the situation, their prior knowledge, the content of the interaction, power, professional status, race, age, and gender issues in respect of the research topic. Because I am also a librarian, it was vital for me to view the librarian participants as experts, respect their experience, and listen to what they said and did.

It was also important to use behaviour strategies to put the participants at ease (King and Horrocks, 2010; Kvale, 1996). For example, I tried to adopt a relaxed posture, use non-threatening eye contact, and offer encouraging prompts such as 'tell me more that,' 'that is really interesting,' or simply nodding when participants talked about key issues.

Over time, after listening to and reflecting on early interviews, I developed a more natural and genuine style. As my capabilities as an interviewer improved, I observed that participants were more willing to share experiences. Most participants spoke at length and needed minimal prompting or questioning.

Later interviews became more focused, and the questions were intentionally narrowed to the key concepts that emerged from earlier data analysis. For example, in the initial discipline faculty interviews, all participants described librarians as helpful but went on to say that they do not ask them for individual help:

"I can't remember the last time I consulted a librarian. Maybe in grad school. But I know or recall the experience as positive. Our librarian, the one assigned, I guess assigned, uh, to our department, knows a fair amount about

marketing data and she is pretty quick when it comes to pulling company data. I think everyone would agree she is helpful. I will venture that the marketing students love her. But I admit that it never occurs to me to ask her for anything" [DF10: 17].

"Yeah, I think a librarian came to a department meeting. No, she did come. But I don't remember why. She gave a, um, she was, you know, polite and friendly and offering to help, I guess. But I didn't, uh, I don't remember the details. In this day and age, fewer people probably use the help of a librarian. But maybe they should. Maybe I should [laughs]! [DF13: 31]

Based on the consistency with which this point was raised during the early interviews, I added an interview question that asked discipline faculty to describe any scenarios in which they would contact a librarian. The additional question intended to explore possible barriers to the development of a working relationship between library and discipline faculty.

4.9. Observation

Observing the study participants in practice was also used to gather data to provide a different perspective than interviews alone (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2019). Being positioned at the point of librarian-discipline faculty interaction gave me some unique insights into their respective actions. By watching and listening, I could better understand how the two groups conducted business, dealt with problems and related to one another in general.

4.9.1. Nonparticipant Observer Role

I assumed the role of a nonparticipating observer, joining classes and business meetings to observe the social interaction between library faculty and discipline faculty as it occurs in their work environment. It was an advantage for me to observe conditions and group dynamics, actions, and behaviours that would have been difficult to capture while actively participating.

Nonparticipant observation has several advantages:

1. It provides contextualised insights into the participants' activities and the meanings that they hold for them.
2. Non-participant observations enable the researcher to capture the dynamics of participants' interactions with each other and their work environment, observing actions, behaviours, and processes as they happen.
3. It provides different data than that gathered through interviews, enabling triangulation of participants' statements.

Nonparticipant observation also raises issues. One is the observer effect, with the risk of making the observed participants change their behaviour when knowingly under observation. I could not control this risk, but I acknowledge it as a potential shortcoming. Another issue with nonparticipant observation is the observer's ability to be objective and to produce an analysis of the setting that is not influenced by his or her values and interpretations. As noted elsewhere, my role in the study is openly acknowledged and contributes to data construction. To introduce critical examination to my interpretations of the data, I incorporated regular efforts to check my bias through reflexive practices and abductive theorising. A third challenge is the problem of observation-event selectivity. Observations can never be complete in the activities, people, or interactions studied. To address this issue, I observed different events, including classes and a range of business meetings.

During observation, notes were made using a field note structure informed by Charmaz (2006). See Appendix J: Observation Field Note Template. All field notes were scanned and stored digitally. A clean copy of the notes was kept intact, while a second copy was used for coding. The coding for all field notes followed the same tools and techniques used to code interviews; however, field notes were also heavily annotated with descriptive information and diagrams (e.g., seating structure). When permission was granted, I photographed the space before or after the event (without participants). I also received permission to audio record all but two observation

activities. See Figure 4: Data Analysis Following Charmaz and Figure 4.1. Example of Observation Activity Note:

Figure 4. Example of Observation Activity Note

April 23, 2019

RE: Observation Activity 4

To do:

- o Check O2 notes for seating. Same, I think. But does it really mean anything?
- o Ask HM-V about seating in follow-up. Add note to HM transcript file.
- o Check txs [transcripts] for "one-way" evidence.
- o Check BSC [Business Source Complete] and SA [Sociological Abstracts]. What is it called when efforts and outcomes are one-way? Not mandated. One group must prove something to the other group in order to be "effective?" Is this what's happening? There is evidence of this by libs [library faculty]? Is this about role-value? Is it incongruence of ...? Aside from collections and traditional value assoc. [associated] with collections, is everything else just "value added" and up for sale? And if no takers, what happens? Are there consequences the uni [university] cares about? Where do the outcomes originate? Note descriptive vs. process.

Great group. Everyone engaged and vocal.

Happy the libs [library faculty] in this group were represented by both genders. First instance, I believe. Similar to O2, the libs [library faculty] sat on one side of the table. Check. Why? They didn't arrive together. They are not from the same department within the library. Presented very much like a front. When returning to HM-V for follow-up, ask if aware of this. Not in a critical way – just point out the observation.

Four of the 12 ac fac [discipline faculty] acknowledged they had not read the meeting brief. Another added that he did not know why the library was conducting such a meeting. Wondered why Research Office and IT were not present. Lead lib [library faculty] explained that Library had university leadership role for data mgt. [management] initiatives. Responded with something like, "We've been doing it for 6 years." Is this another example of "one way" effort? But aren't a lot of business meetings like this? One person or group prepares. The other(s) show up and wait for relevant info [information] to stick? Return to txs [transcripts] noted under "one way" concept.

[end of memo example]

At the beginning of each observation event, I was introduced by the librarian or discipline faculty member who facilitated the opportunity. I was introduced as a doctoral research associate and as a library director. In all cases, participants were informed by email before the event that a doctoral student would be present to observe. The facilitator of the meeting or class sent the email.

After I was introduced to the class, I thanked the participants for allowing me to observe. I also circulated paper copies of permission forms. Permission forms were returned to me at the onset of the meeting or at the end. In the interest of transparency, I reminded participants at the beginning of the event that notes would be taken, and each person was invited and encouraged to review the notes. No participants chose to review the notes, although one person asked to see the field note template. After the observation concluded, I sent the participant an electronic copy of the template and noted that it was based on Charmaz (2006).

Observation opportunities were pre-scheduled, so there was no opportunity to ask about follow-up observation. For example, in one meeting, the team scheduled a second meeting to discuss student learning outcomes. I would have found the second meeting interesting; however, because of my fixed travel itinerary for data collection, I could not revise my travel plans to accommodate the second meeting.

The limited opportunities for observation meant that observation could only sometimes be selected based on emerging concepts. Observation events were relevant to the study but mostly determined by what was scheduled during a specific window of opportunity.

4.10. Coding Primary Data: Initial Coding and Process in Constructivist Grounded Theory

Consistent with the constructivist grounded theory approach, the data analysis began with initial coding of the transcripts and observation field notes

(Charmaz, 2014). This process involved reading each transcript and set of field notes and attaching codes by hand to specific units of text to capture their meaning. Initial codes were applied sentence-by-sentence or by the length of text that captured the idea of the code.

Constructivist grounded theory coding can be distinguished from other forms of qualitative coding in several ways. First, Charmaz believes that process is central to grounded theory and advocates the use of gerunds to capture processes or actions (Charmaz, 2014). Similarly, Saldaña (2013) refers to the concept of 'process codes,' emphasising that focus on process during analysis pushes the researcher to identify relationships evident in their study (Charmaz, 2014). Although not every code is an action, it is recommended to look for a process or action and ask the question, "What is this person doing?" Constructivist grounded theory coding also allows for imaginative or creative interpretations, rather than strictly aiming for accuracy.

Below is an example of initial coding taken from one of the early interviews of this study (See Figure 5.). Data was coded for a wide range of activities including practices, episodes, roles, social types, relationships, groups, behaviours, rules, emotions, and hierarchies. Following Charmaz's recommendation, open coding was done quickly to allow for first impressions to be captured and to quickly synthesise large amounts of data into a condensed form. This coding was done by hand immediately after the transcript was received (within 24 hours of interview) but has been presented in type for the sake of clarity. Following Charmaz (2014), I kept the initial codes short and used gerunds to preserve processes and actions. The initial coding also included quotes (in vivo) to highlight specific word choices of the participant (Charmaz, 2006). The text in brackets was inserted by me to clarify acronyms that were used by the participant.

Figure 5. Open Coding from an Interview Excerpt

Code	Transcript Excerpt
	<p>Amy Andres: "You mentioned that, um, you... document your outreach efforts toward departmental faculty as evidence for your performance dossier, uh...or performance evaluation. But you also mentioned aiming for quality over quantity. Can you elaborate on how quality versus quantity impacts your outreach effort? What has changed in your outreach practice?"</p>
<p>Disagreeing with report accountability</p>	<p>Participant 1-AD: "Performance review. Yeah, that's right. So, yeah. Okay, um... the stats ... I get why we report stats. For quantifying time spent. But we aren't working on bill-able hours like an ad agency. We should focus on educational outcomes – evidence of learning, you know, critical thinking, specific skill sets, the framework. The stat request is meaningful evidence from an administrative perspective, but it is a disconnect in terms of what we are here to do. I would like to hear from a professor if they noticed an improvement in student bibliographies after I presented on the identification of scholarly journals in, let's say, art history. Or after I provide guidelines for identifying fake news. But if we're the only ones who want these outcomes, and who want to report on these outcomes, then how can it ever work? There's no expectation for this type of learning except from random faculty here and there. And the teaching librarians who want these skills mapped to the curriculum. Some of these outcomes are built into the majors, the curriculum, but there is no way of knowing how they are taught. And we know it's a mess because we have master's students who lack basic skills. So, yeah, clearly, there are educational disconnects and we [librarians] are working in a vacuum. Oh god. I'm getting anxious just thinking about it [laughs].</p>
<p>Wanting to collaborate with professor to improve learning outcomes</p>	
<p>Questioning outcomes of relationship; feeling efforts are one-sided and without standards</p>	
<p>Questioning gaps in curriculum – "disconnects" and "working in a vacuum"- Feeling anxious about disconnect</p>	
<p>Asserting control and setting boundaries - "stopped the babysitting" - Expressing disappointment in relationship - "model is not sustainable" - Making continued effort "schlepping their wares" – Trying to establish authority? expertise?</p>	<p>But, uh, ... okay... you asked about change, right? [pause][sigh] Uh, okay, um, I guess I try to – or insist on developing mutual learning outcomes with the faculty member before agreeing to instruct a class. If the faculty member brings me in to babysit while they attend a conference, then what am I really doing there? So I stopped the babysitting sessions. Thankfully my dean supports this. But, um, yeah, I mean, ... I mean... [voice raised] ...why should this be so difficult? This model is unsustainable [voice raised]. You cannot expect teaching librarians to go out, day after day, schlepping their wares, only to be met with disinterest or disregard. Or demeaning comments! Oh my god [raised voice]! Some of the things they say are so [expletive] rude [voice raised]! I had one faculty invite me to his class. I explained that he had to be there, we had to determine learning objectives, blah, blah. He said he needed me to come because he couldn't be there for ...for whatever reason, and he didn't have a TA [teaching assistant] this semester.</p>
<p>Being demeaned - Feeling confused by faculty complaints -</p>	<p>It is confusing. They complain their students use terrible sources. They say they don't feel confident that their students have the skills to identify and synthesize authoritative information. But if they don't want to give class</p>

Code	Transcript Excerpt
Suggesting a compromise to keep a classroom connection	time to a librarian for teaching purposes then, you know, at the very least, let me tell them something basic to keep them out of the weeds. Like, don't pay \$30 for an article. We've got ILL [interlibrary loan] for free. Or, here's how to link the article databases to Google Scholar.
Feeling stress "front lines" "not sustainable" "burnout" Convincing people of professional value Changing approach with faculty; Asserting control "no to babysitting"	Some survey...what was it? A Department of Labor survey, I think, that listed librarian as a top 10 least stressful job. Do you know which one I'm talking about? Way off [laughing]! Maybe for some librarians. But for those of us on the front lines with teaching faculty... yeah. It's not sustainable. Burnout! I'm burned out just four years into my career because I'm trying to convince people that what I do contributes value. I teach skills that complement disciplinary knowledge. Okay, uh, I'm totally rambling on here...yeah, uh, changing my approach with the faculty..., yeah, oh, hey, let's agree on what the students learn, let's build learning outcomes into requirements for the essay or research paper. Like, using peer-reviewed journals recognized in the discipline. Well, it doesn't always work. It's beyond frustrating. Aggravating as hell. So I've drawn some boundaries.
Acknowledging failures; Feel aggravated; setting boundaries; wanting meaningful outcomes from work	I say no to babysitting and to requests that do not have clear educational outcomes. I say no to requests that are not connected to something tangible for the students.
Suffering consequences for reduced statistics – Aiming for control of professional situation and relationship – "no man's land"	This has cut my stats down. My AUL [associate university librarian] hasn't said anything but I'm sure it's coming. But, yeah. Going for quality gives me some control, I guess. I can set terms for how we work together... Um, it takes me out of no-man's land. That space between admin expectations and faculty who want to tick the library box.

4.10.1. Memos

After the coding activity, I wrote memos to capture attributes of the interview that could not be conveyed in the transcript or audio recording (e.g., emotional reaction or tone of voice, gestures, facial expressions, or other important connections between the participant and the text). Handwriting memos was more convenient during the analytic process because it encouraged uninhibited writing, but handwritten memos presented difficulties as data analysis expanded. For this reason, memos were also typed in NVivo (v.12, release 1.7.1), a data analysis

software, for record-keeping and to facilitate copying of key passages. All handwritten memos were scanned into digital format for record-keeping purposes.

Memos were also used to note other information about the interview that could prove useful in data analysis (e.g., how many years of professional experience, how many years of working in the current position, gender of the interviewee, and reporting structure within the library). Following Charmaz, I also named the memos and defined relevant points in each memo. A definition, for example, might be used to check my view on a topic raised by the participant (e.g., How are business meetings conducted at my university compared to this university? or What does 'initiative' mean to me?).

Writing memos has been described as the intermediate step between data collection and writing the draft report (Charmaz, 2006). In the current study, memos were integral to coding the data, often written in tandem or shortly after a transcript or set of field notes was coded. I used memos to "think aloud" about what I saw emerging from the data. Additional memos were written after a second or third coding of a transcript or set of field notes. All memos were documented with a title and date and, when relevant, cross-referenced to the code(s), diagram(s), or categories with which they were associated. This record was used to capture and document thoughts and feelings about the data and how they linked together over time (Charmaz, 2006) while maintaining an audit trail of the research process (Birks and Mills, 2011). Memoing provided me with several advantages for advancing data analysis. Writing a memo – or extending an existing memo - allowed me to think freely and creatively about the data, develop a writing style, raise questions about data gaps, and generate new ideas for data collection. See Figure 6 for a memo example. This memo was written early in data collection and corresponded to an interview and a diagram (See Figure 7 for the diagram). It proved important because it was the first time I felt my thinking shift away from descriptions. Prior to this memo, some librarian participants described similar experiences when working with faculty;

and two faculty participants described similar responses when engaging with librarians. While writing this memo, I realised that librarians and faculty represent two different work cultures within one organisation. Although this idea may seem obvious, the thought prompted me to think more about professions in higher education, differences in professional ethics, and how these differences may influence working relationships that cross professional boundaries. Although no participant explicitly stated a difference in work cultures, I began to see the concept emerge from the data. The text in square brackets was inserted here to clarify the shorthand that appeared in the original handwritten memo. Round brackets that appear are original to the memo.

Figure 6. Memo Example from Early Phase of Data Analysis

May 14, 2019
Memo
Concepts: One-way effort, power or agency (?), collective/group identity, relationship-building
Reference: Diagram 28; Observation 1; Librarian interviews 1, 6, 7, 13, 17, 21; Faculty interviews: 2, 5

The idea of one-way effort is repeated by librarians in interviews and it was demonstrated in Observation 1. In observation I thought it was power. And I think librarians in observation saw it as power – which is probably why I saw it as power. They were so happy after the meeting because they felt power by asserting themselves. But nothing in that meeting changed from their assertion. The chairs did not agree to a follow up. But librarians in interviews describe similar situations as EFFORT and without positive associations (trying, re-trying, changing approaches...). Effort is not power. Can it be personal agency? How to define and distinguish power and agency in this context? And why was “effort” represented differently in interviews compared to observation? Some librarians talk about setting boundaries with faculty as an attempt to regain professional control. But those examples may be “personal agency”. Faculty interviews suggest they [faculty] have control. Or prefer control. Even “agency” seems one-sided, i.e., not mutually agreed upon. Two groups running in parallel. One group trying to cross into the other group’s lane. Why is it so difficult for some librarians to cross into the other lane?

What explains disconnect? One-sidedness? Inability to cross? And why do librarians keep trying?

Nursing literature refers to “intra-professionalism” and its challenges (doctors + pharmacists + nurses + radiologists). But where is intra-professionalism in higher ed [education] literature? Do unis [universities] acknowledge that different groups or professions must work together to meet institutional goals? Are faculty considered professionals? What does higher ed [education] lit [literature] say about fac [faculty] as professionals? Or is it the discipline that sets “professional” standards? I can see this in med [medical] fac [faculty] or law fac [faculty]. But what about a history professor? Are faculty considered professionals by recognized definitions (e.g., Abbott)? For example, training? Disciplinary expertise is not the same as professional training to become teachers (like elementary school teachers). Do they have a shared code of ethics??? Maybe by discipline (e.g., medicine or nursing). Professional associations? By discipline, yes (e.g., CAA) [College Art Association]. Are faculty a different type of professional?? Librarianship is defined as a profession with code of ethics, professional values, etc. So what happens when one profession, trained to uphold a strong set of core values, tries to collaborate with faculty members who work more autonomously within their respective disciplines? Even when reading about epistemology, different authors raise the issue of “disciplinary perspectives.” Lines are drawn between disciplines. But there are no lines in librarianship. The collective/group identity of librarians is known. And it probably influences views toward relationship-building. Do faculty view themselves as part of a collective identity? Or do they view themselves as autonomous? Depending...the group v. individual identity may be a variable in relationship building.

Find the book on faculty and disciplines. It was about how disciplinary expertise creates autonomy (or silos??) in academia. Check office shelf.

I don't recall any faculty interview coding related to identity. Go back and check. But I referenced esprit de corps in a few librarian interviews. Think about revision to faculty interview questions. Explore this line of questioning with them.

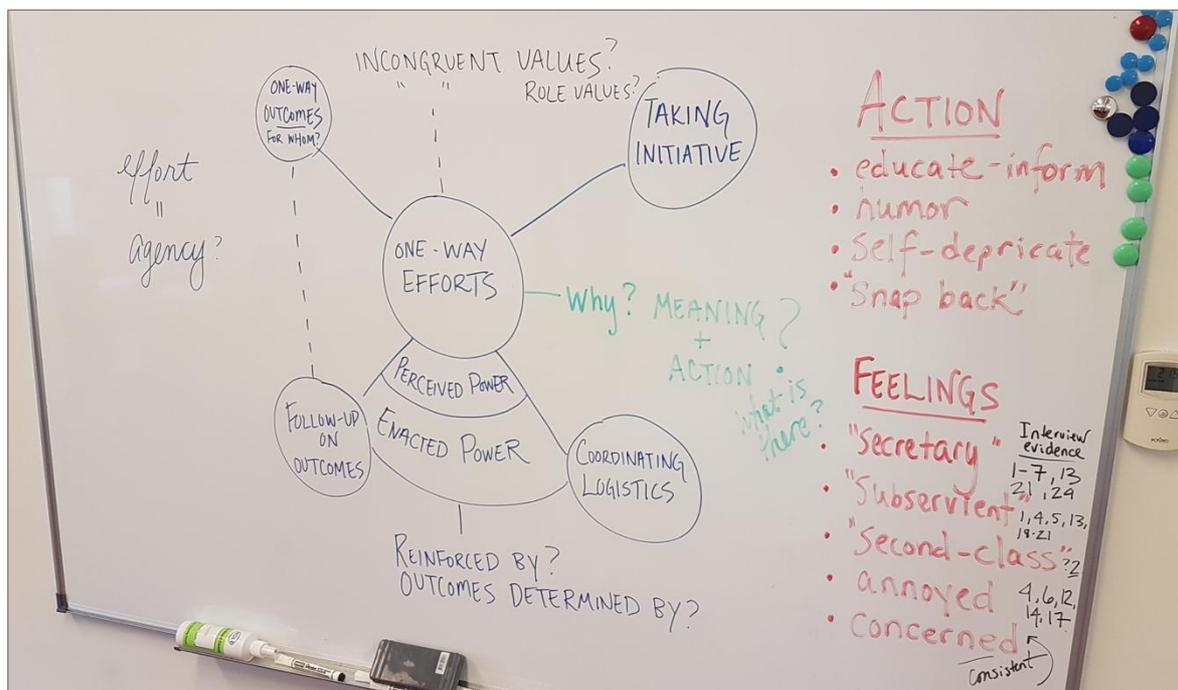
In addition to memos, I used paper notebooks to capture literature searches, highlight relevant findings from these searches, and make notes about how my data and analysis aligned (or not) with the literature. The notebooks were numbered and, with few exceptions, entries were dated and provided a major descriptor heading to reflect the content of the following pages. I relied heavily on the use of handwritten notebooks during the analysis phase.

4.10.1. Clustering

Clustering is a technique, recommended by Charmaz (2006, p.86) to understand and organise material. She recommends clustering as an alternative way to “map” and work with concepts and ideas and to visualise their relationships (2014, p.184). As a visual learner, this technique helped to capture spontaneous thoughts about connections and relationships within the data. Creating hand-drawn cluster diagrams proved to be a fundamental exercise that complemented memo-writing.

A central idea or category (as analysis progressed) was written in the centre of a map, with spokes to smaller circles that showed the defining properties and relationships. Figure 4.4. below is a hand-drawn cluster that was generated to explore the concept of effort, which was generated from the open coding of transcripts. Later in the analytic process, I referred to this cluster to establish the evidence trail for the emergence of relational tensions.

Figure 7. Hand-Drawn Cluster Diagram Showing Idea Development

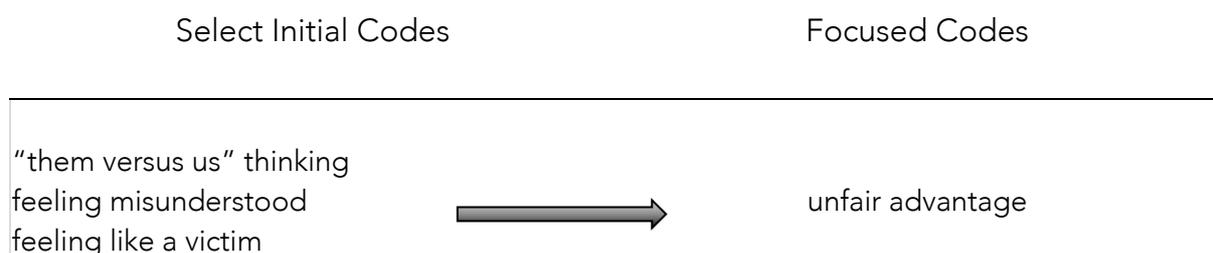


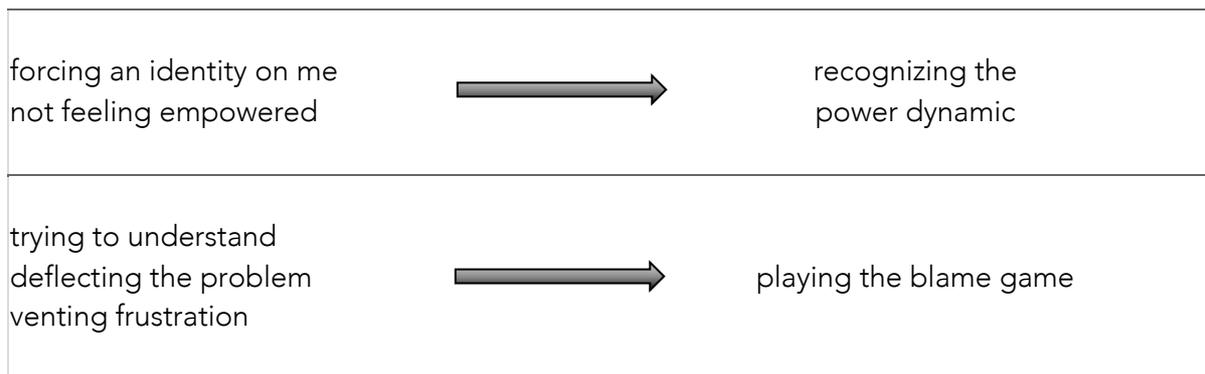
I used clustering extensively throughout data collection, producing 58 diagrams during data analysis. Charmaz recommends diagramming different clusters for the same topic (2014, p.185), which I found to be useful. I often created multiple diagrams for the same topic and rapid sequences of diagrams as ideas developed or evolved. Cluster diagrams were drawn in notebooks, on large sheets of paper attached to walls, and on whiteboards. All diagrams were photographed, organised by concept or category, and stored in a digital file for reference and audit, if required. As the study progressed, the diagrams became more complex and were used to identify connections between concepts and categories, which ultimately developed into the final framework.

4.10.2. Focused Coding

A second phase of the constant comparative process is focused coding (Charmaz, 2014). Focused coding involves using the most significant and frequent earlier codes to sort through large amounts of data. Focused coding "requires decisions about which initial codes make the most analytic sense to categorise data incisively and completely" (Charmaz, 2014, p.138). However, moving to focused coding was seldom a linear process. I often discovered new meanings in codes and found it important to explore those ideas in subsequent interviews (Charmaz, 2012). Theoretical integration began with focused coding and continued throughout the remaining data analysis. Table 6 provides a sample of moving from initial to focused coding.

Table 6. Select Initial Codes and Focused Codes





4.10.3. Coding: An Iterative Process

Coding and categorising the data was not a linear process; rather it was iterative and cyclical as I moved back and forth between different segments of data, comparing incidents, comparing participants, and comparing new data with old data by line-by-line and with focused coding. With each coding cycle, the codes and categories became more refined, providing a more conceptual grasp of the whole. See Table 7. Example of coding, categorising, and conceptualising the data.

Table 7. Example of Coding, Categorising, and Conceptualising the Data

Select initial codes	Focused Codes	Category
Taking control of the situation Feeling proud of profession	addressing the misperception	Focusing on expertise
Recognizing the classroom as territory Demonstrating value as a partner	blurring faculty domain	
Being who I am as a librarian Wanting to be valued	doing what I know	
Anxious about misperception Persisting Pressure to perform Motivated by professional reputation	proving faculty wrong	

4.10.4. Comparative Coding

The constant comparative technique is a key component of constructivist grounded theory and was used repeatedly throughout the analysis. The technique requires a constant return to the data to check developing concepts and categories to guide the gathering of new data as necessary (Charmaz, 2006). For example, every new transcript or set of field notes would be compared with earlier transcripts and field notes. Incidents identified in each were compared and contrasted with others to focus on a category's emerging properties and identify patterns within the data. Category was compared with category, incident with incident, participant with participant, groups of participants and data from the same individual were also compared for emerging ideas (Birks and Mills, 2011). By comparing the data, either from different or similar groups and events, categories and their properties and their relationships with each other started to develop (Charmaz, 2006).

4.10.5. Saturation

In grounded theory, data collection ends once theoretical saturation is reached. Generally, theoretical saturation refers to the point when emerging data no longer sheds light on the theoretical process of interest and when theoretical categories have been saturated, or their parameters and meanings fully developed (Locke, 2001).

Although saturation is a common principle for determining the end of data collection (Bowen, 2008; Charmaz, 2014; Guest, Bunce, and Johnson, 2006; Hennik, Kaiser, Marconi, 2017; Stern, 2007), its definition is not standardised and, even amongst grounded theory researchers, variances may be found, with emphasis being placed on data, theory, or sampling (Charmaz, 2014; Morse, 1995; Saunders et al., 2018).

For purposes of this study, I primarily followed Charmaz (2014), who tells researchers to stop data analysis “when the properties of your theoretical categories are ‘saturated’ with data. This means that the categories are “robust” because they support data patterns and because no additional properties can be identified (p. 213).

I recognize that additional properties could be discovered if data collection continued. In this regard, data collection might become endless. So as another point to determine saturation, I considered whether I had something meaningful to contribute from the analysis of the existing data. In the discussion sections of this study, I explain how I “defined, checked, and explained relationships” between categories (Charmaz, 2014, p. 213).

4.11. Trustworthiness of Qualitative Findings

In qualitative research, the rigorousness of a finding is determined not by objective truths but by how clearly the researcher shows the complex process by which they came to claim that particular finding as “knowledge” (Altheide and Johnson, 1998, p.496). This process is based on the belief that there is never just one true account of any phenomenon (Maxwell, 1992). Still, qualitative findings must be considered trustworthy because they capture the lived experience they describe. Such trustworthiness is established through four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, and each criterion has a set of techniques used to support and check its application (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Credibility refers to whether one’s findings are true and accurate. However, this is a different determination for qualitative researchers than for quantitative researchers. Given the subjectivity inherent in the qualitative approach, accuracy becomes a question of for whom? And according to whom? Theory constructed from qualitative research can achieve credibility by aligning with the participants’ interpretations (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). For this reason, I frequently used

“member-checking” which involved asking participants about my findings and whether they aligned with their experience (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.314).

Returning to the participants to share concepts and categories, and to present their experiences against those categories, provided them with the opportunity to confirm or extend their accounts, to respond to category development, and to contribute to a more refined interpretation of those categories (Charmaz, 2014; Creswell and Miller, 2000).

Triangulation is another technique used to support credibility. It may involve using all – or a combination of - multiple and different methods, researchers, data sources and theories to corroborate findings and minimise bias. However, as Blaikie has noted, triangulation techniques must align within a study’s paradigm (Blaikie, 1991). This study follows a constructivist epistemology with a symbolic interactionist perspective, which regards social reality as a social process that changes over time. Further, my active role in a constructivist grounded theory study is one of its defining characteristics.

For this reason, the aim of triangulation for this study is not to minimise bias. As Silverman stated, “For an interactionist...without bias there would be no phenomenon” (1985, p.105). Instead, triangulation was used in this study to enhance the quality of its findings through thick descriptions gained from multiple viewpoints. It was achieved using two methods, interviews and observation, and multiple data sources aligning with a constructivist epistemology. One method was not used to confirm or verify data provided by another. Rather, interviews and observations provided different data but also represented the participants’ different perspectives and how they varied in different contexts. This strategy allowed me to see the world from the participants’ perspective to the extent possible, to capture multiple realities, and to contextualise their experiences against institutional and popular media (Denzin, 2012, Kvale, 1996). The aim of using multiple methods was to

produce rich data (Geertz, 1973) that was “detailed, focused and full” (Charmaz, 2006, p.14).

Transferability, another criterion for determining trustworthiness, is a correlate of the quantitative notion of external validity. Since qualitative findings are context-specific, the concept of universality – generalizability across disparate contexts – does not align with a qualitative approach (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Before any such judgment of transferability can be made, the researcher must first consider whether the findings are generalizable among similar contexts and disparate contexts (Tracy, 2010). To facilitate this judgment, the researcher must provide a “thick description of the context and findings, which may later “enable someone interested in making a transfer to reach a conclusion about whether transfer can be contemplated as a possibility” (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p.316). As Charmaz notes, by analysing phenomena in their “social, historical, local, and international contexts,” generality can emerge rather than be pursued as a primary goal (2006, p.180). The initial aim of a grounded, interpretive method is understanding, which can evolve into an explanation as situated particulars are abstracted into general concepts and then linked to different contexts within the same or subsequent studies (Charmaz, 2006).

Dependability of a qualitative study can be established through the demonstration of an audit trail, which is also provided in this chapter (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, pp. 317-318). The audit trail makes the researcher’s decisions transparent regarding theoretical decisions, methodology and methods, data analysis, and findings. Audit trails are intended to document a study from conception to final analysis and write-up. Lincoln and Guba (1985) outline distinct processes that inform an audit trail and help determine whether study findings are grounded in the data and whether interpretations are logical. These processes involve extensive notetaking, iterative data analysis, and critical self-reflection on the researcher’s part. Systematic comparisons throughout inquiry, including memo-writing, are also an inherent part of constructivist grounded theory processes and, as

demonstrated in section 5 of this chapter, were actively engaged throughout this study.

Confirmability is the last of the four criteria outlined by Lincoln and Guba (1985). It refers to the degree to which the results of an inquiry can be confirmed or corroborated by other researchers (Baxter and Eyles, 1997). Confirmability is concerned with establishing that interpretation and findings are based on the data, and not on the imagination of the researcher, which accounts for evidence presented in the Findings chapter. Confirmability of qualitative inquiry is achieved through an audit trail and triangulation, as described above. But it may also be achieved by using a reflexive journal that captures the researchers' insights, decision points, and feelings (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). For the current study, I did not use a traditional diary format to capture this information chronologically; rather, I relied upon adding handwritten notes that I attached to field notes. Following Charmaz's recommendation to keep a methodological journal (2014, p. 165), I used the notes to build memos, prompt direction for data comparison, and question my preconceptions. See Figure 4.1 for an example of a note from an observation of a business meeting between librarian and discipline faculty (who also served as department chairs). The meeting was called by library faculty to share how they could partner with discipline faculty to support research data management. The original note was handwritten but has been typed verbatim for clarity. The words in brackets were added to the typed version of the note to clarify my shorthand.

The notes were written quickly, and they were never edited or self-censored. In some instances, they also contained diagrams. If applicable, a "task" list was added to each note. These task notes were compiled into a more extensive task list maintained as an Excel spreadsheet. The task lists were organised by where the note originated (e.g., transcript code, observation code, comparative analysis). Each item in the task list was checked off when completed and an accompanying note indicated the outcome (e.g., what I learned or if additional follow-up was required).

All notes were captured digitally and securely stored. The notes and accompanying spreadsheet are available in the study's audit trail.

4.12. Information Sheet and Informed Consent

Dependent upon their grouping, all individuals recruited for the study received:

- o Recruitment email (Appendix B)
- o Data Protection for Participant Information Sheet (Appendix A)
- o Inclusion and exclusion criteria (Appendix E for faculty librarians) and (Appendix F for discipline faculty)
- o Study information sheet: (Appendix E for faculty librarians) and (Appendix F for discipline faculty)
- o Informed consent sheet: (Appendix G: Interview Participant Consent Form) or (Appendix H: Observation Activity Participant Consent Form)

Consent forms detailed the nature of the study and what would be involved for the participant. Only those individuals who signed and dated the form were eligible to participate in the study. Forms were signed and dated and returned to me before the start of individual data collection or at the onset of the data collection activity. Verbal consent was also required at the onset of any data collection activity. It was clearly stated in both the written form, and in the verbal disclosure of participant terms, that participants could withdraw from the study at any time and without obligation.

The consent forms' content and retention follow informational and procedural guidelines administered by the University of Reading and Henley Business School.

4.12.1. Withdrawal/Discontinuation of Participants from Study

Each participant had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. In addition, I retained the option to discontinue a participant from the study for any reason including:

- o Significant non-compliance with study requirements
- o Withdrawal of consent

Before the start of data analysis, it was determined that an interview participant who voluntarily withdrew from the study, or who was discontinued from the study, would be excluded from analysis. The data of an individual who was included in group observation, and who voluntarily withdrew from the study, would be considered for inclusion in data analysis. The decision would be based on whether their individual data impinges on, or is directly related to, the data of other participants in the group activity.

It was also determined that interviewed participants who withdrew, or who were discontinued from the study, would be replaced depending upon the researcher's assessment of saturation at the time of their withdrawal or discontinuation.

No participants withdrew during the study, and no participants were discontinued.

4.12.2. Data Management: Access to Data

All interviews were manually coded directly onto physical copies of the transcripts. Analysis of the field notes was done manually. I maintained an activity log noting the date that each transcript and set of field notes was analysed and what comparisons were made (e.g., transcript-to-transcript). Clean copies of the transcripts, as well as copies of all hand-coded transcripts were scanned and saved as digital files.

The computer software, NVivo 11, was also used for data storage and data sorting. NVivo was used primarily to sort and check codes. This was a helpful adjunct process for manual data analysis.

As required, direct access to study data will be granted to authorised representatives of the University of Reading for monitoring the study to ensure

compliance with university regulations or to audit the trail of coding decisions made during the analysis process (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, pp. 317-318).

4.12.3. Data Recording and Record-Keeping

In accordance with University of Reading policy related to data management, I have adhered to all ethics-related procedures and standards. I also acknowledge my personal responsibility for managing the study data and ensuring the participants were protected throughout the research process.

4.13. Ethical Standards

In the following sections on ethical considerations, I will address two principal areas of ethical concern that are fundamental to the integrity and success of this research. First, I discuss the protocols and strategies implemented to ensure the confidentiality of all participants involved in the study. Maintaining participant confidentiality is crucial for protecting personal information and fostering an environment where participants feel safe and respected. Second, I provide a statement to demonstrate that I adhered to the university's policies and protocols. This includes obtaining necessary approvals and ensuring all research practices met the university's ethical standards and aligned with the broader ethical guidelines that govern scholarly research.

4.13.1. Participant Confidentiality

In the Participant Recruitment Sheets (Appendices A and B), I included a statement about the terms of confidentiality. While qualitative research does not allow for complete anonymity, I took additional measures to protect participants' identities. First, because I directly managed participant identification and

recruitment, I encrypted the spreadsheet used to collect names, emails, job titles, institutional affiliation, and publication citations. This spreadsheet was stored securely and viewable only by me. Also, because I used snowball recruitment, a participant who suggested the name of another person for potential recruitment comprised the anonymity of the recommended participant. I did not disclose to the first participant whether the person they suggested was recruited into the study, and I did not verify any participant information with the potential recruit. Group observation as a data collection method was a third challenge for protecting participants' identities. All participants in group observation were informed of the observation activity and how the data would be used in the current study. Following the same practice I adopted with interviews, all observation participants were identified only by a unique participant code and personal names or other identifiers were removed from transcripts and notes. A separate key was encrypted and stored securely. The codes were used when participants were referenced during analysis (e.g., in clustering, code notes, memo-writing, and note-taking). They have also been used throughout the current study when referring to participants, observation activity, and when using excerpts from their transcripts.

All study documents remain encrypted and accessible only by me unless otherwise requested for release by the University of Reading during the examination of this thesis. Study data will be destroyed after the formal completion of the study and in compliance with university protocols.

4.13.2. Approvals

Prior to data collection, the required ethical forms were submitted to the University of Reading Research Ethics Committee using the university's online integrated information system, RISIS. The ethical forms were approved with minor revision.

4.14. Notes on the Presentation of Data

For purposes of clarity, all conceptual categories in the findings chapter are capitalised and italicised throughout the study text. Their focused codes are presented in lower case and, within running text, contained within single quote marks. Quotes from interviews are referenced by the alphanumeric transcript code and the transcript page number is enclosed in brackets. The first letter of the alphabetic code represents a transcript from a faculty librarian [L] or from a discipline faculty participant [DF]. The second number is the number assigned to each participant. For example, [L1:6] represents the transcript from Librarian 1, page number 6. The citation [DF10:14] references the transcript from discipline faculty participant 10, page number 14. In some cases, I reference the interview participant's second contribution to the study. After the first interview, subsequent contributions were made when participants responded to follow-up questions by email or videoconference (which were recorded and transcribed). Subsequent contributions were also made during member-checking of emerging categories. In such cases, the contribution number and contribution code proceed the 'L.' Contribution codes are 'F' for follow-up and 'MC' for member-checking. As examples: [2F-L5:2] represents the second contribution of Librarian 5, in the form of a follow up, page 2 of the transcript. The reference code [2MC-DF3: email ¶ 2] indicates the second contribution of Discipline Faculty Member 3, made through member-checking. In this example, the participant quote was extracted from the second paragraph of an email message. In instances when I insert a large block of transcript data that includes my voice as well as a participant voice, I identify myself as 'AA.'

All transcript excerpts are verbatim from transcript copies that were checked for accuracy against their respective audio files. Any words that were inaudible or could not be distinguished from the audio file have been omitted and replaced with (unintelligible). The transcriptions did not include punctuation other than full stops.

In some instances, I inserted commas only to facilitate reading. The transcript text was not otherwise modified.

Ellipses have been inserted to represent extended pauses or to indicate a moment in the interview when the participant and I spoke simultaneously, but the participant was asked to continue speaking. Ellipses were not used to omit participant text.

There was also consideration of how to quantify responses from participants in the presentation of the data. While some qualitative researchers present their findings in numeric terms, I chose to do so in those instances that the number contributes to “internal generalizability” (Maxwell, 2010, p. 428), that is, to demonstrate generalisation within the participant groups. I do use numbers to reference member-checks (e.g., member-checking took place with 8 librarians, four responded). In instances when internal generalizability is less important, I make use of quantifiers such as ‘some’, ‘few’ and ‘several’, and ‘frequent.’

Observation data is referenced by the alphanumeric observation code and the paragraph number from the observation notes. For example: [O3:¶5] represents Observation Activity #3, paragraph 5. Observation notes are italicised.

Supporting data from memos is also included in the discussion sections. All memo references begin with ‘M’ followed by the memo name and, if applicable, the paragraph number. As one example: [M-What does ‘giving’ mean to librarians?] represents a memo written about the idea of ‘giving’ in academic librarianship. Original memos were handwritten. They are re-typed here exactly as written, except for words that could identify the participant or the institution. In such cases, the word has been replaced with a descriptor (e.g., [name of library]). All memos are presented in a text box along with the date they were written.

The full name of acronyms used in transcripts, observation notes, and memos has been inserted parenthetically. In cases when personal pronouns were used in place of noun phrases, or when an unspecified noun phrase has been used, the

specific noun phrase has been inserted parenthetically to maintain clarity for the reader.

All transcripts, observation notes, and participant emails were coded using gerunds. Codes were compared within transcripts and between participants. Codes were sorted into categories, which were also compared and member-checked, resulting in higher-level categories.

The original text of the thesis adheres to British standards for English language spelling; however, the spelling used in citations appears exactly as they are published, including any direct quotes used in the body of the thesis, and may include American English language spellings. Similarly, as an American, my own memos and observation notes reflect American English language spellings. The interview recordings were also transcribed using American English language spelling.

Through the application of constructivist grounded theory, and engaging with the abductive process of data collection and analysis, I was able to gain insight into the experience of faculty librarians who collaborate with discipline faculty and develop a grounded theory regarding their collaborative processes. The theory explains legitimation as a critical sub-process of collaboration and improves understanding of how faculty librarians experience this aspect of their work.

The next chapter introduces the study's data findings, including an explanation of how the collaborative conditions influence the work, what processes emerge from the conditions, and the outcomes that result from the processes. Ultimately, the findings are linked to the development of the grounded theory.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA FINDINGS

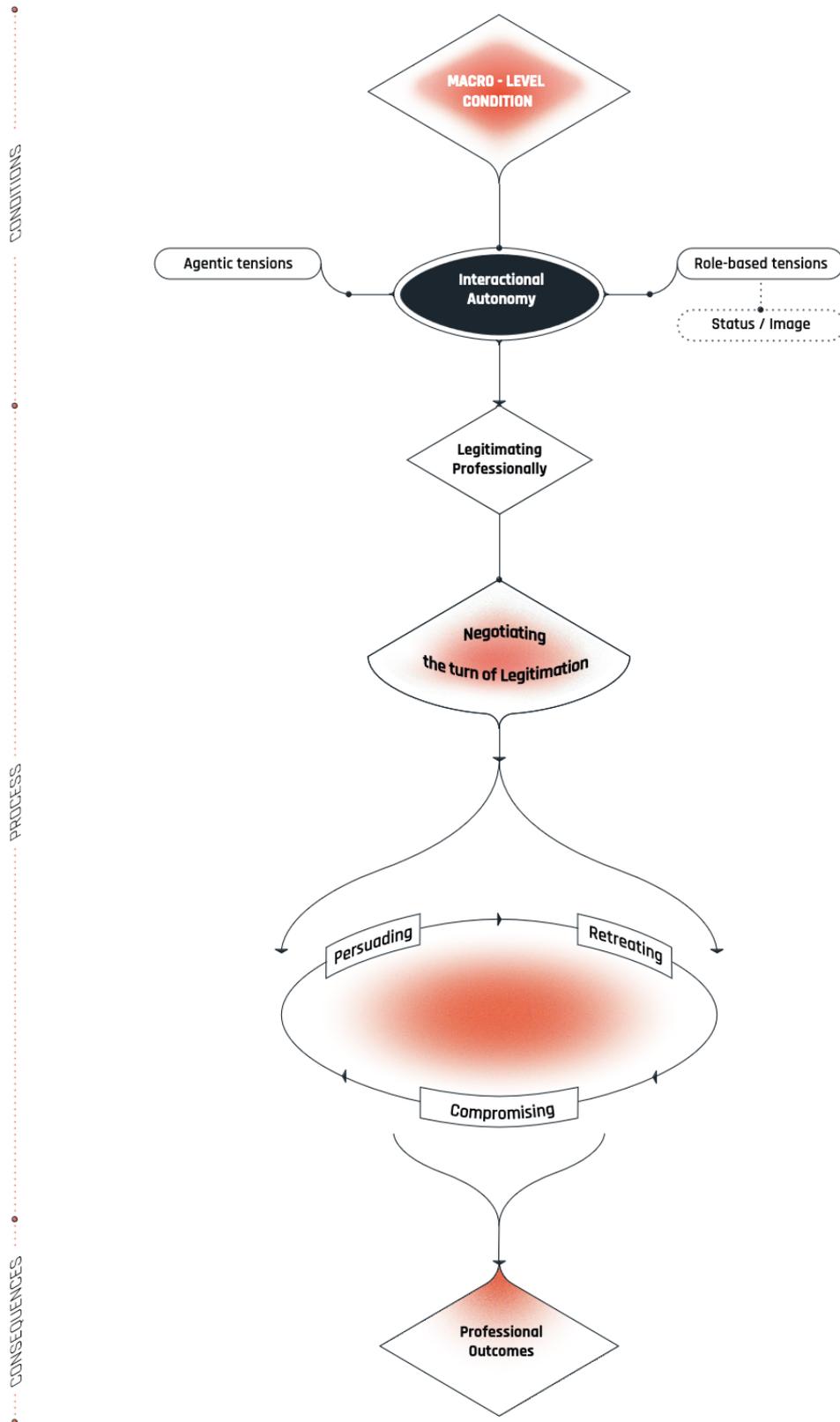
5. Summary of Discovery Phases and Data Findings

At this critical point in the study, it is useful to return momentarily to its starting point, and review the key questions that drove the study through analysis and its subsequent findings:

1. How do faculty librarians conceptualise collaborations with discipline faculty?
2. How do faculty librarians manage their professional identity during cross-boundary collaborations with discipline faculty?

First, I will share a broad view of the analytic process from the outset of data collection: I began by using my sensitising concepts to frame early interview questions, and to guide my observation of participants' collaborative activities. As data collection progressed, the insight gained from the ongoing analysis was incorporated into my interview questions to check my working codes against the voices and experiences of the participants. The discovery of ideas through the analytic process also informed decisions on how to approach the scholarly literature to check my analysis, and determine if it aligned with, or otherwise expanded, what is known from existing scholarship. This process continued until I determined the analysis was sufficiently saturated and I could build a conceptual model representing the study's grounded theory. Below is the diagram of the conceptual model. See Figure 8. Conceptual Model of the Faculty Librarians' Collaborative Process. It is presented here to serve as a visual guide to the presentation of findings.

Figure 8. Conceptual Model of Faculty Librarians' Collaborative Process



From a more detailed perspective of the analytic process, the study's analysis can be separated into four overlapping phases of discovery and understanding. The first phase of analysis, guided by the sensitising concepts, provided a point of departure by which to begin data collection. The subsequent phases of analysis evolved organically through abductive analysis and were only defined as phases after the analysis was concluded and I reflected on the research process.

Following the tenets of a symbolic interactionist study, I began data collection by focusing on the social and meaning-laden events relevant to faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations (Brinkmann and Kvale, 2015; Creswell and Poth, 2018). Early in the analysis I identified three behavioural patterns enacted by the faculty librarians during their collaborative work with discipline faculty. The patterns of behaviour are action-based and termed: Compromising, Persuading, and Retreating. This discovery captured phase one of the analysis

Understanding the context in which faculty librarians enacted one or more of the three behaviours characterised the second phase of analysis. I continued to analyse the data, to member-check with participants, and to make sense of contextual factors that contributed to the behaviours identified in the first phase. From this phase of discovery, I understood that the institutional context and conditions in which the collaborations emerge and function generated a set of relational tensions for the faculty librarians. Additional analysis led me to categorise the tensions into two supra tensions (agentic and role-based) and one sub-tension (status/image).

In the third phase of analysis, I worked on expanding my understanding of the connection between the relational tensions and the response behaviours. This phase was the longest phase of analysis, during which I adhered to an abductive process working with continual "movement" between the data and different bodies of literature to check my interpretation and understanding (Charmaz, 2008b, p.154). This phase of analysis was time intensive and reflected the "mode of imaginative

reasoning” described by Charmaz (2014, p. 200). Without theoretical constraints, I could imagine almost anything as an explanation for what I observed in the data, before checking the literature to determine how my interpretation contributed to what is already known.

Importantly, the analysis did not indicate that the connection between the collaborative tensions identified during the analysis and the behaviours served as a trigger-response sequence, meaning that librarians who encountered specific tensions immediately enacted a specific behaviour in response to the various tensions. The relationship between the tensions and the behaviours was nuanced and complex and necessitated further exploration and definition. Over time I identified the process of legitimating as a way in which librarians made sense of the tensions to which they were exposed. Legitimating served as a sensemaking hub that connects the tensions to the enactment of the librarians’ response behaviours; that is, the faculty librarians interpret and make sense of the tensions through a lens of legitimation. Depending on how the librarians perceive the discipline faculty recognize the value of their collaborative role, and their professional legitimacy, they activate a response to the legitimation threat through the one or more of the response behaviours identified in the earlier phase of analysis. The responses represent a combined form of legitimacy and identity work that may be enacted separately or in sequence.

The fourth phase of analysis was a process of assimilating the data findings from the first three phases into a processual model that demonstrates the relationship between all the findings’ components. This final process led to the emergent grounded theory: **Negotiating the Turn of Professional Legitimation**. See Figure 8. Conceptual Model of Faculty Librarians’ Collaborative Process. The model reveals how the interplay of context and emergent tensions threaten the librarians’ sense of legitimacy, and how the librarians respond to their perceived

legitimacy by enacting behaviours to negotiate and manage their collaborative experience.

Because constructivist grounded theory represents an abductive process of analysis that does not represent a linear path of data discovery, I chose to present the data findings in the order they emerge and interrelate as a model, rather than in the chronological order they were identified. Following this sequence, the findings chapter is organised into three subsections that follow the model's path:

- o Part One: Institutional Context: Autonomous Conditions
- o Part Two: Collaborative Tensions and Legitimizing
- o Part Three: Response Patterns and Professional Outcomes

Part One introduces the autonomous conditions in which the collaborative relationships function, and how this context enhances the individual autonomy of the collaborators. This section of the findings is supported by participants' voices and reveals that the rise of individual autonomy in the collaborative relationship contributes to the emergence of tensions between the faculty librarians and discipline faculty. The autonomous conditions also raise issues around collaborative motivation. The discipline faculty may, or may not, have incentives or rewards that inspire them to collaborate, whereas the work of collaborating is an inherent, performance-related incentive for the faculty librarians.

Part Two is the largest of the three parts. It presents the data codes that support the identification of each of the three collaborative tensions and introduces the concept of professional legitimacy as a sensemaking process that serves as a conduit between the tensions and the resultant behaviours. I rely on the focused data codes to organise the discussion of the findings, which are well supported with interview excerpts, observation notes, memos, and member-checking. Part Two also demonstrates how the emergence of tensions modifies the collaboration from contextual conditions (emergence of tensions) to processual (legitimizing and responding).

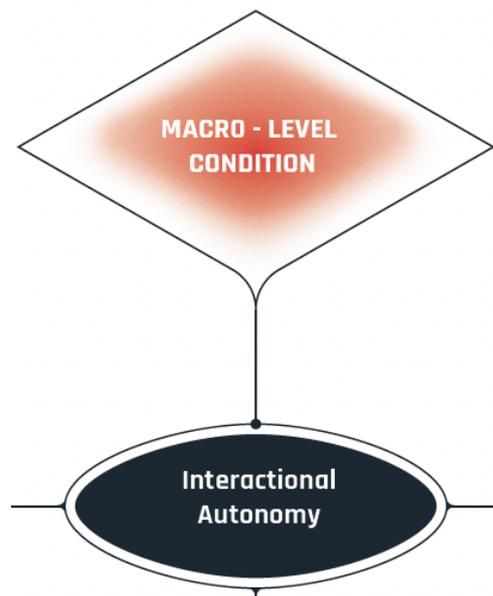
In Part Three, I introduce the three response patterns that demonstrate how the faculty librarians respond to their perceived legitimacy. The patterns represent behaviours used by the librarians to contend with their sense of legitimation, protect their professional self, and manage the collaborative relationship. I also describe the professional outcomes that result from the collaborative processes presented in this chapter.

In the presentation of my findings of faculty librarians and discipline faculty experiences in collaborative work, I follow constructivist grounded theory by providing thick, rich descriptions generated from the data. I also introduce the literature at key points in the discussion to demonstrate how the abductive process influenced my thinking, informed subsequent decisions about interview questions and coding, and provided direction for where to explore in the literature.

DATA FINDINGS: PART ONE: Institutional Context: Autonomous Conditions

In chapter three of this study, the literature review of the study's sensitising concepts, I introduced the conditions in which faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations emerge, establishing that autonomy is a prevailing condition from which many of these collaborations emerge, and from which collaborators proceed to interact. Autonomous, or non-mandated collaborations, are entered into voluntarily by collaborators who seemingly recognise the benefits of working with the other, but who do so without the guiding support of pre-identified collaborators, fixed outcomes, and institutional structures for process, procedure, and accountability (McNamara, 2012). This condition forms the entry point for the study's conceptual model. See Figure 9, Autonomous Conditions of the Conceptual Model:

Figure 9. The Autonomous Conditions of the Conceptual Model



Autonomy, as a contextual condition for faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations, cannot be conceptualised in the same way as mandated

collaborations. Using faculty librarians as a case example, the analysis from the subsequent sections of this chapter highlights the interrelated characteristics and social aspects that characterise their autonomous collaborations with discipline faculty:

- o informal (not assessed; no formal, shared accountability measures);
- o the recognized need for collaboration can be emergent for discipline faculty, and can be influenced by faculty librarians' outreach efforts;
- o problematic preconceptions of faculty librarians' professional identity;
- o ambiguous legitimating factors for faculty librarians;
- o lack of role transparency across institutional boundaries;
- o lack of shared incentives and reward systems;
- o dialectical tensions that arise during collaboration that are salient for faculty librarians, but latent for discipline faculty, thereby limiting the potential for collaborative change, and;
- o reduced individual autonomy of one collaborator has the potential to modify the relationship structure from horizontal (peers) to vertical (one collaborator dominates the relationship).

The presence of these factors in the relationship influences how the collaboration functions for the faculty librarians and compromises the overall stability of the collaboration.

Below is a memo from the analysis that demonstrates my early thinking about the informal nature of autonomous collaborations, and the related issues I identified from both groups of study participants. At this early stage, I did not characterise the collaborations as autonomous; I described them as 'informal':

July 5, 2019

M- Informal collaborations

What are the factors that threaten informal collaborators/collaborations? Issues to think about:

- o No documented procedures
- o Same-same, but different – even with a lateral org structure
- o Departments with no connecting or dotted lines
- o No overlap in work processes or job descriptions (aside from student success?)
- o Librarians and disc fac do not share space (except embedded librarians)

- o Both librarians and disc fac have limited time to develop relationships (maybe less for disc fac?)
- o Information flow is mostly one way (library and librarian outreach to teaching departments)
- o No uni governance or leadership [illegible] to support it
- o No direct consequences for disc fac if collab fails
- o What unifies informal collaborators/collaborations?
- o Overlapping academic mission (formally, through job descriptions and mission statements)
- o Shared goals? Maybe student success or research outcomes
- o Vision? It depends.
- o Student success
- o Resources (library supply v. disc fac demand)

Next step: Do the librarians intervene in the informal network? What are they doing?

Using a memo to outline the factors that fragment and unify informal networks was a critical point in the analysis. From this point I began to explore the literature on informal collaborations to learn more about how they are understood in the organisational management literature. This exploration generated two points of understanding: I began to consider 'informal' as an attribute of autonomous collaborations, whereby 'autonomy' is recognized as the broader set of social conditions in which the collaboration emerges. I began to check the literature for research on autonomous collaborations and discovered that 'autonomy,' in the context of collaborations, has been used by McNamara (2012). They describe the varying levels of autonomy that exist in cooperative, coordinated, and collaborative inter-organisational interactions, referring to the extent that each of the partnering organisations operates and the number of policies and procedures that have been developed to support joint endeavours (p. 392). In addition, this memo prompted me to frame the potentially weak points of autonomous collaborations and review the data from this perspective.

In the next section I will use the data to explain how such autonomous conditions generate tensions that threaten the faculty librarians' sense of identity,

professional legitimacy, and the agency they expect to hold in a voluntary collaboration.

5.1. Autonomous Conditions

The analysis demonstrated that the need for faculty librarians and discipline faculty to collaborate was seldom driven by institutional expectations or factors external to the library, such as departmental or program requirements, curricular assessment plans, and accreditation standards. With few exceptions, the collaboration that was described by participants occurred under autonomous, or non-mandated, conditions. As an inside researcher with a deep awareness of the challenges faced by faculty librarians who collaborate, I asked all participants, in both faculty groups, to describe how their collaborative relationships emerged (if the information was not otherwise shared). Below are two examples that emerged from this line of interview questioning. The first is a brief excerpt from an interview with a discipline faculty member, and the second is an extended interview exchange I had with faculty librarian:

“It's like I told you before, if the librarian is approaching me with, uh, uh, some sort of collaboration for a course, they'll say, 'I have a great idea that I think can really help out your students with these concepts, you know, um, you know, why don't we work together to just, to provide a great experience for your students and to really help them out with some of the things that they're missing.' Um, that's how it usually goes. I get an email like this” [F4:19].

And below is the interview excerpt with a librarian, when I asked how their collaborations with discipline faculty are formed:

L1: I mean I really question why I assert myself so much. I reach out to [discipline] faculty over and over and I don't want it to seem like I'm begging the [discipline] faculty. I think doing it in a way that enables faculty to see us as equal but there's definitely, I don't think it's the glass ceiling, I feel like it's a wooden ceiling. There is no easy solution to this except I think we just have to

break [unintelligible], break it up. Like holding a true revolution. I think it's very difficult...[p. 9].

AA: What I'm wondering is how you sustain this work [p. 9].

L1: I mean it's exhausting like when you bring up sustainability. I don't think we should keep pursuing faculty because for me it is a huge sign that something is failing. We've got a bunch of [discipline] faculty here who have to be conditioned to understand that librarians can contribute. Why are we still doing this? [p. 9]

The information gathered from this line of questioning was that the majority of collaborations developed autonomously, regardless of which collaborator initiated the relationship. Among the dozens of collaborative experiences that were shared with me, four resulted from curricular changes at department level. In all four cases, academic programs had modified their curriculum to include information competency learning outcomes. In three instances, faculty librarians were serving as library liaisons to the programs (under the library's initiative), so the librarians became aware of the curricular changes and invited the department chair to a meeting to discuss how they could contribute; in the fourth instance, the department reached out to the library's teaching department to request that a librarian become involved in teaching information competencies. In the absence of institutional or departmental mandates to embed information literacy credit-courses into the curriculum, the need for collaboration would, ideally, arise from a commonly shared purpose to address information competency; however, the analysis indicates that faculty teaching librarians are often challenged to demonstrate the links that exist between student learning, information literacy concepts, and their own expertise. Below are two interview excerpts that demonstrate how this challenge is perceived. The first quote emphasises the role librarians have in contributing to the problem. The participant references a librarians' image and the challenge faced by librarians who may appear "old-fashioned," and how this contributes to the perception of their knowledge:

“...I have noticed that some of my colleagues use poorly designed materials in the classroom, or they don’t embrace current technology. If a librarian comes across as old-fashioned, they automatically get a strike against them because, you know how it is, if the faculty or students think something is old-fashioned, they think the message will be old-fashioned too and they lose interest. There is pressure to keep up with relevant teaching methods, new technology, you know, anything innovative that brings something new and valuable into the classroom” [L2:25-26].

The second quote expands on the challenge librarians face to demonstrate expertise, speaking to a general lack of awareness of librarians’ roles and speculating on the reasons librarians may lack institutional support:

“...and a librarian can be understood by other librarians but outside the world of librarians, there isn’t a true understanding of what librarians do and all the different types of work librarians perform and it is my opinion that we complain about it but no one has found a way to solve the problem. Lots of small ideas circulate, you know, try this or try that to connect with students and professors. If librarians have been unsuccessful in keeping users informed of their work, then how can universities be blamed for not keeping up and not helping us to promote ourselves and to support opportunities for us to be visible and to grow and participate in the academic community?” [L21:13-14].

The challenge to demonstrate relevant expertise means that, in non-mandated collaborations, the recognized need for collaboration can be emergent for discipline faculty, with the potential to be influenced by faculty librarians’ outreach efforts.

As an antecedent for collaboration, the recognized need for collaboration is essential in all cases, but it develops differently based on whether its pathway is found through institutional mandates and support, or librarian or faculty impetus. This raises a question about the difference between the pathways: mandated or autonomous. Much of the collaboration literature is written about mandated collaborations, so the concept of autonomous collaborations was identified as an important distinction to explore and understand.

Autonomy, as a prevailing condition of faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations, is associated with voluntary relationship-building, informal

approaches to identifying collaborative outcomes, and individual freedom to work outside of institutional mandates and performance norms. Based on what I learned from the discipline faculty participants, the informal, voluntary nature of collaborative work with faculty librarians is valuable because it provides them with flexibility over how, and how often they work with faculty librarians, allowing them to retain control over the content that is presented in their respective classrooms. One faculty member commented:

“Being organic is important because it offers me more flexibility. Depending on what I have on my plate, I do not have to obligate myself to anything or to anyone” [DF6:38].

Another discipline faculty member shared a similar perspective:

“I can’t spend hours and hours working with [insert name of librarian]. I think that’s what she wants because she has many ideas for supporting students enrolled in my classes. But it is easier for me to say, okay, come to my classes in two weeks and teach them about, uh, let me say, diverse representation in authorship. I like to be quick like that. It is easier for me to manage because I may not have time to work with [insert name of librarian] every semester” [DF2:25].

One discipline faculty member provided insight into working outside of department-level mandates and exercising academic freedom in their classroom:

“In the case of my department, there is no obligation or expectation to bring librarians into the classroom. I’m not entirely sure what my colleagues would say in response to this question. But for me, it is ...just so important to retain freedom over everything I do in my classes. It seems to me that this is something not open to debate” [DF12:51].

Among the faculty librarian participants whose interview remarks addressed autonomous conditions, there was consensus that the conditions were unfavourable to the professional aims they value for student learning:

[students]...“are not well-prepared for some of their assignments. They have to take new information onboard in the form of lectures and reading, but they do not always have the skills to critically evaluate it for whatever assignment has been identified. Faculty can teach the subject brilliantly, but they do not always think or, uh, have the time to worry about the competencies required for students to execute the required learning objects. Some students are taught the required skills but others are not. Why doesn't the university teach these skills in a required, credit bearing course that ensures equity across the student population? I'm passionate about this, you know. Why is it okay for this aspect of student learning to be optional or to assume that all students are exposed to it at some point, by someone? That is a lot to hope for. But that is what the teaching librarians are facing in their work and the faculty do not see it the same way. For different reasons as far as I can tell” [L9:37-38].

A faculty librarian, embedded in a business school, shared similar concerns, and used a student encounter to illustrate the point. In the instance below, it is observed that there were no clear incentives for the discipline faculty member to collaborate. The faculty member feels confident the students in their course can execute the assignment, while the faculty librarian has a different experience that contributes to feelings of frustration:

[students in a marketing course]“...were asked to collect primary data research from the local industries and they were lost. I wrote to the professor and explained and asked if I could attend a class session so I could help the students navigate the different collection methods. I offered a workshop of sorts because I wasn't sure. And, from my perspective, without seeing the assignment or whatever, the syllabus, there is the issue of liability if something happens because I went wrong with my instruction to the students. I asked the professor to co-teach the workshop so his expectations were made clear to the student. The professor told me he didn't have time to give over to a workshop but he felt the students would manage. These are terrible learning experiences for the students. Their stress levels are sky high. And that one class of students occupied more than 60 hours of my time and the professor was okay with that. It seemed like he thought it was my choice to help them since he had already told me they could

manage. Their [students] skills are missing but there is no accountability for the lacking. So I filled in the learning gaps and live with the fact that this work is not accounted for by the university. The next fall the professor did reach out and invite me to work, or to co-teach a series of workshops. I was relieved, but I felt like he was reacting to last year's [unintelligible] uh, [unintelligible] assignment structure instead of being proactive from the start" [L14:43-44].

Other faculty librarians spoke to the relational components of autonomous collaborations. One librarian spoke about a planning meeting for a collaboration with a faculty member. In this case, a discipline faculty member initiated the collaboration based on a large-scale research grant for which they intended to apply.

"When I went to the planning meeting, I thought it would be like a Huddle. I would learn about the research project and Dr. [name] would ask if I could contribute in this way or that way. And that is pretty much what happened. After six weeks of working together, and me doing a lot of the writing for the lit review and precedents sections, Dr. [name] was asked to present the grant proposal during the school research round-up event. He presented the proposal and never mentioned my name. My dean spoke to his dean and there was no support. The [discipline faculty] dean's position was that this is what librarians do to help faculty and the sin was that Dr. [name] and I miscommunicated and Dr. [name] assumed our relationship was based on collegiality [pause]. Who on this earth would be that collegial? [pause] I realize that Dr. [name] was motivated by his own research agenda. That is understandable. Very common and to be expected. But even knowing that I feel naïve. I thought we were working together and I would receive acknowledgement that I could use to demonstrate impact, especially if the grant was awarded" [L12:15-16].

The librarian's recollection of this experience highlights mutual shortcomings in establishing a shared understanding of the others' expectations for the collaborative work, and it highlights conflicting views of the librarian's role. From one point of view, the librarian was identified, and invited to collaborate, because the discipline

faculty member believed they had potential to contribute to the grant-writing process; yet, in the same instance, the discipline faculty member did not identify the librarian's contribution as important enough to receive professional acknowledgement. These examples from the data illustrate a problem that can arise in autonomous collaborations: Ambiguous indicators for the specific contributions of individual collaborators can lead to misaligned expectations for task assignment and collaborative outcomes. The discipline faculty member had the grant application to incentivize the collaborative work, while the librarian's incentive was to demonstrate the impact of their professional contribution in grant preparation and writing. It cannot be determined whose incentive inspired more motivation for the work; however, in this case, the collaboration resulted in a professional liability for the faculty librarian. There was no professional gain for the librarian and, at the end of this experience, a cross-department working relationship was irrevocably damaged.

In the instances provided above, the autonomous conditions held different values for the faculty librarians and discipline faculty. The librarians experienced feelings of frustration because their roles were perceived as service-based, rather than as two faculty peers working collaboratively. The discipline faculty retain their prerogative to act on personal work preferences without being accountable to their faculty librarian peers or to a higher level of authority, whereas faculty librarians, challenged by the prerogatives of the discipline faculty, begin to identify the prerogatives as a framework for the collaboration. This discovery raised questions for the analysis that are addressed in Part Two of the data findings: How do participants, collaborating under autonomous conditions, generate consensus about the collaboration? Does power play a different role in autonomous collaborations compared to mandated collaborations? How do the participants make efforts to improve their awareness of one another's collaborative practices?

Another important discovery for analysis has to do with the lack of mutual incentives for autonomous collaborations. My analysis indicates that discipline

faculty members seldom share the same incentives as those of the librarian. At this point, I reflect on the lack of interdependence between participants and ask: Without incentives and rewards, are the motivations to collaborate weakened? How does this impact the nature of voluntary, collaborative practice? Discipline faculty are qualified, and expected, to conduct their professional work autonomously. In this conception, the discipline faculty member's choice to collaborate – or not – provides them with a level of authority in the relationship. Meanwhile, the faculty librarians in this study remain highly motivated to engage in collaboration because they self-identify as educational partners who can contribute to student and faculty success in areas of teaching, learning, and research. They are also invested in the university as an institution and accept their role and responsibility for student academic success.

Without governance or institutional frameworks to guide the collaboration, to identify well-qualified participants, and to provide guiding norms and rules, the autonomous conditions generate tensions focused more starkly on the personal nature of autonomous, collaborative work. The types of tensions identified in the data are presented in the next section.

DATA FINDINGS: PART TWO: Collaborative Tensions and Legitimizing

The previous section introduced the institutional condition of autonomy and development of faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations, and how collaborative-based tensions can arise from these conditions. Part Two of this chapter presents the data codes that represent the tensions that emerge during autonomous collaborations, and what they mean for the faculty librarians. It also explains how identity and legitimacy were identified as critical concepts that underpin the tensions, and how legitimating functions as a sub-process in autonomous collaborations. Below are two figures that demonstrate how the data presented in this section expands the model from its autonomous conditions to include the tensions and the processual move toward legitimating professionally. See Figures 10 and 11.

Figure 10. Conceptual Model: Conditions and Tensions for Faculty Librarian-Discipline Faculty Collaboration

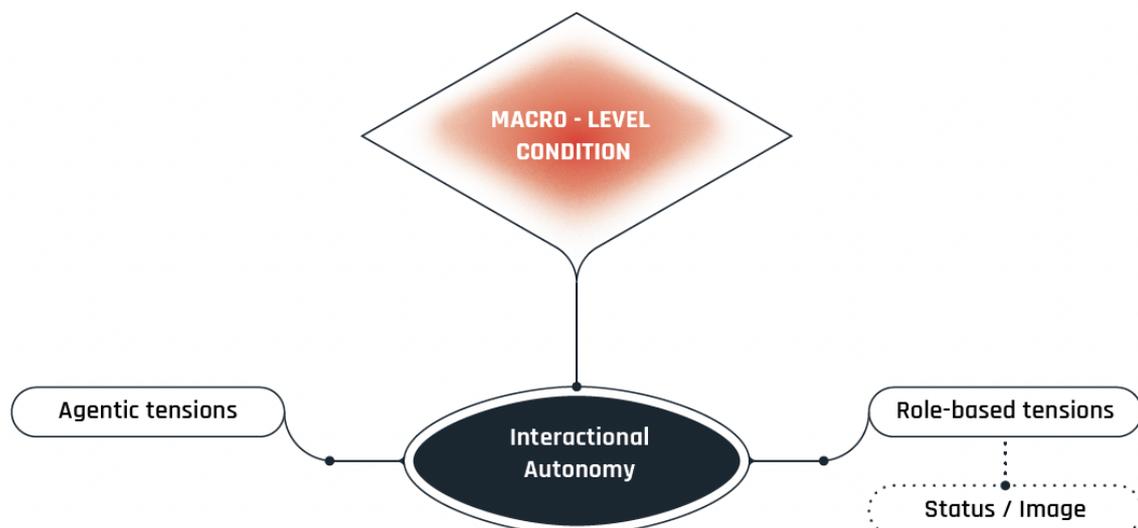
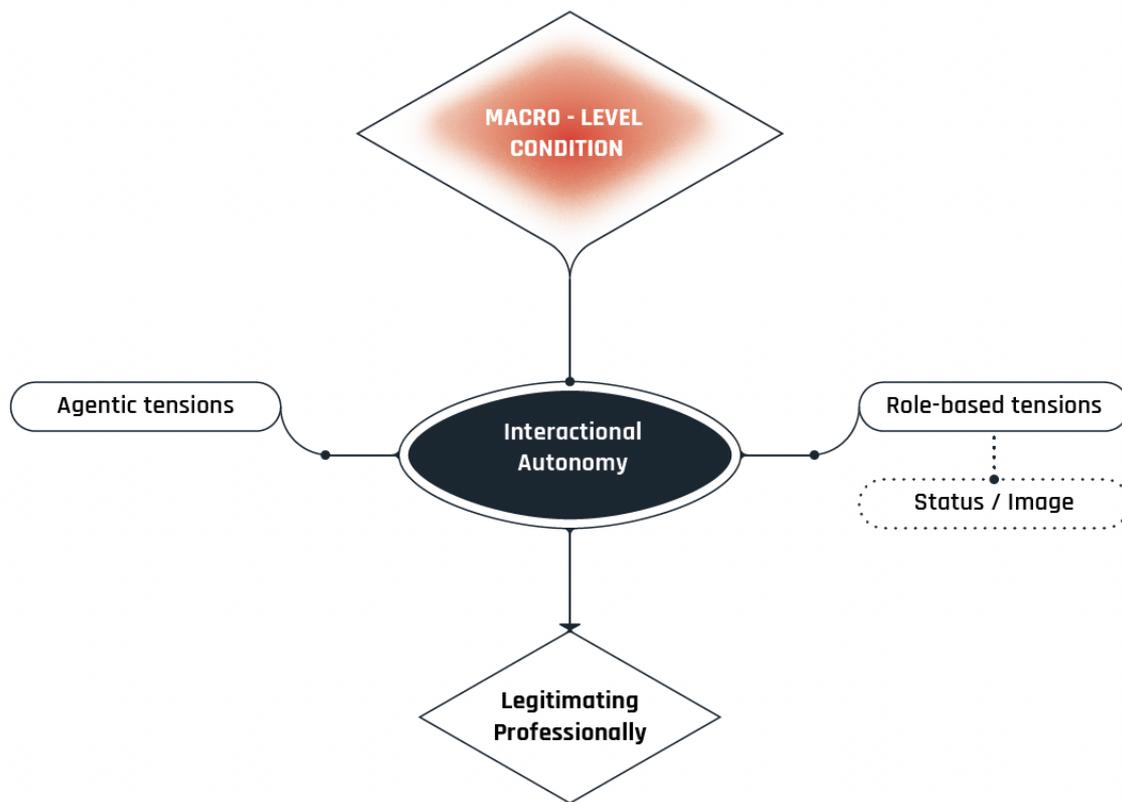


Figure 11. Conceptual Model: Interactional Autonomy, Tensions, and Legitimizing



5.2. Identifying the Tensions

Organisational actors often develop competing interpretations of situations based on their organisational roles, or hierarchical positions, and tensions can arise (Putnam, Fairhurst, and Banghart, 2016). Once the collaboration is initiated, and even with initial agreement between collaborators on how to proceed, collaborative tensions can result from differences in principles related to the direction of the collaboration, diverse views and perceptions about collaborative goals, and individual actions and perceptions of the collaborators (Stohl and Cheney, 2001).

This study's tensions were identified as such by adopting Relational Dialectics Theory 2.0 (RDT) a dialectical perspective derived from Bakhtin (1981) and popularised in communication scholarship by Baxter and Montgomery (2011). The premise of the theory is that communication is a critical form of relational meaning-making, which the theory upholds as a "fragmented, tensional, and multivocal

process" (Baxter and Braithwaite, 2020, p.64) that highlights the interplay of opposing perspectives that arise between individuals (Baxter, 2011). Baxter and Montgomery assert that the way people talk is informed by and reflects cultural and relational discourses, and that dialectical tensions are a necessary part of human relationships and the ways in which actors manage them determines the nature of relationships (1996).

From a paradigmatic perspective, Baxter and Braithwaite (2010) state that RDT should be approached heuristically to better understand identity within relationships and different interpersonal processes (p. 65; Scharp and Thomas, 2021). When considering how my analysis aligned with RDT, it was equally important that the theory aligned with the study's social constructionist and symbolic interactionist premises. RDT is one of many social constructionist theories (Gergen, 1999), which presuppose that the social world is a place of meanings constructed, sustained, and altered through communicative practices. In 2011, Baxter articulated an expanded version of the theory (2.0) that is similar to the original version of the theory in that they were both created with the aim of understanding how social construction and meaning-making occurs through the clash of competing discourses (Baxter and Norwood, 2015; Baxter et al., 2021).

Baxter has argued (Baxter, 2004; Baxter and Montgomery, 1996), that interpersonal communication views the self as pre-formed prior to entry into relationships; however, when entering a relationship, the process of self-disclosure comes into play. Self-disclosure is viewed as the primary communicative device through which one's pre-formed is made known to another. This raises the question of how the self is formed through the process of relating to another actor and, critical for this research, what meanings are generated through the interaction that comes with self-disclosure. Next is a description of the application of RDT and how it was used to identify the tensions of this study.

Because I interviewed faculty participants individually about their interactions with the other faculty group, the evident discourses were mostly introduced through indirect reported speech (Emerson et al., 1995, p.74). Upon identifying the discourses in participants' talk that contradict one another, I began to examine how the RDT application highlighted meaning-making aspects of the faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborative relationship.

From this point in the analysis, I introduce and describe the tensions that were identified. The findings of this section detail three discursive struggles or tensions that faculty librarians voice when making sense of their collaborations with discipline faculty, as well as how the tensions involved in each struggle contribute to the larger question of professional legitimacy. These discursive struggles involve the following sets of discourses:

- a.) role-based: role ambiguity and role clarity;
- b.) agentic: agency and ineffectualness and;
- c.) status, image, and "third space" identity.

The presence of these dialectical tensions, and the interplay between them, generate signals and cues for the librarians, which raises questions about their professional capacity, collaborative agency, and how they are perceived as collaborative contributors.

After analysing the tensions, I identified legitimating as a sensemaking process that occurs when the faculty librarians are faced with difficult questions about their collaborative role and its value. Is their value as a collaborative partner recognized and upheld? Is professional legitimacy conferred by the other collaborator? The librarians use legitimacy as a sensemaking hub; in turn, the outcomes of the sensemaking process create fluctuating conditions for how the librarians perceive threats to their professional legitimacy, and the response work they undertake to minimise the consequences of the threat.

The tensions are sometimes referred to as 'collaborative tensions' because of the context in which they emerge;' however, the tensions should not be understood as collaborative in the sense that they are actively shared and understood between the faculty librarian and the discipline faculty member participants. The term 'collaborative' is used only as a general descriptor when referring to the tensions collectively. The tensions are characterised as emerging from the conditions in which the collaboration functions and are understood as contextual because they arise partially outside the control of the individual librarians. Further, using a symbolic interactionist lens, I regard these tensions as ever-shifting since, fundamentally, collaborations are socially constructed (Mease, 2019), interpretive processes whereby the librarians and discipline faculty engage with each other and symbolically create the meaning of their relationship.

In the table below, the supra tensions and sub-tension, their key characteristics, as well as the faculty librarians' stance against these tensions, are presented (See Table 8.). Further in this chapter, the information found in this table is embedded into the discussion and supported with data codes, participant voices, observation notes, memos, and member-checking.

It is important to state that the collaborative tensions do not exist in a fixed state or in isolation from one another. The emergence of tensions fluctuates and sometimes overlaps; and, as explained further in the chapter, they also emerge and recede in terms of their salience for the librarians. This aligns with previous research that describes how tensions can be interrelated, and mutually affect one another (Putnam, Fairhurst, and Banghart, 2016).

The tensions outlined above are presented in order of most to least represented in the librarian participants' discursive experiences; however, all three tensions are identified consistently throughout the study data. The role-based and agentic tensions are heavily represented in the data, so they have been identified as supra tensions; whereas status-image is identified as sub-tension, not because it is

less important, but because it is represented to a lesser degree in the data and because of its inherent relationship to the role-based tension.

Table 8. Overview of Collaborative Tensions and Sub-Tensions

Supra tension	Sub-tension	Dialectic discourse	Key characteristics	Librarians' position
Role-based		Role clarity-ambiguity	Professionally disempowered by role ambiguity	Professionally empowered by role clarity
	Status and image	Peer faculty member or librarian?	Librarians' "third space" status (non-teaching faculty and faculty status unknown; occasional reliance on professional stereotypes of librarians to make sense of their role)	Faculty status is recognized and respected; professional image aligns with expertise and status (less reliance on professional stereotypes)
Agentic	none	Agency - Ineffectualness	Professional autonomy and power	Empowered to demonstrate expertise and decision-making as professional contribution to the collaborative outcomes

After analysing the tensions, I identified legitimating as a sensemaking process that occurs when the faculty librarians are faced with difficult questions about their collaborative role and its value. Is their value as a collaborative partner recognized and upheld? Is professional legitimacy conferred by the other collaborator? The librarians use legitimacy as a sensemaking hub; in turn, the outcomes of the sensemaking process create fluctuating conditions for how the librarians perceive threats to their professional legitimacy, and the response work they undertake to minimise the consequences of the threat.

To demonstrate clearly the relationship between the tensions and the act of legitimating, I have organised the discussion through a structure of focused data codes. Table 9 below provides the structure of the data codes used for discussion of

the supra tensions, Role-Based and Agentic. Each tension will be described and established, before introducing the discussion about how they contribute to legitimating as a sensemaking process.

Table 9. Structure of Data Codes Used for Findings Discussion

Tension	Coding Category	Focused Codes
Role-Based	Focusing on Expertise	Addressing the misperception Conflicting pressures of professional identity Doing what I know Blurring faculty domains
Agentic	Diminished Professional Agency	Recognizing the power dynamic Being vulnerable to professional subordination Negotiating with the professional self Looking after the interpersonal relationship

5.3. Role-Based Supra Tension: Role Ambiguity - Role Clarity

After time spent in data analysis, questions quickly emerged about the librarians' professional expertise and the role it played in their collaborations with discipline faculty. Faculty librarians frequently encountered dialectical moments of role ambiguity and role clarity in the course of their collaborative work. The librarian participants reported a distinct struggle in the discourse that occurs between themselves and discipline faculty regarding their expertise and capabilities. Role ambiguity emerged in moments when the faculty librarians' roles are misunderstood and poorly defined. Role clarity occurred when faculty librarian roles are perceived as well-defined and collaborative responsibilities align with how the librarians perceive their own roles. Each of these scenarios is presented through the codes in this section.

The abiding feature of academic librarianship, highlighted among the sensitising concepts presented in Chapter 3, is that the professional role of

academic and faculty librarians is ambiguous, often misperceived, and not well understood by discipline faculty (Pagowsky and Rigby, 2014; Weng and Murray, 2019). With a profession that, historically, struggles to define what it is and how its members contribute to the university mission (Kelly, 2019), the issues surrounding faculty librarians' professional role and expertise was pervasive in the data and identified as a major coding category. Most faculty librarian participants overtly stated that discipline faculty are not familiar with the scope of their roles:

"No, they [discipline faculty] have no idea what we do. Absolutely none. If I go to a campus meeting, you know, someone will always say something like, 'Oh, is everything quiet (emphasis) in the library these days? No pun intended. ha ha. It's like, really?'" [L20:20].

In some instances, the librarian participants explain that the role of the faculty librarian is conflated with the services provided by the library and with non-librarian or paraprofessional roles:

"Librarians are one of the most misunderstood groups in the university. With that comes the reality that our status is based on service provided by the library and not as individuals" [L9:21].

"A lot of faculty on campus just have no idea what librarians do. And you know, they think everybody who works in the library is a librarian. They don't know the difference so we're lumped together with any aspect of the library. But you try to explain and they [discipline faculty] kind of glaze over and think, yeah, she works in the library. Whatever"[L1:4].

Professional role ambiguity occurs when the librarian's role is misunderstood, vague, or unknown; while professional role clarity occurs when the understanding of the librarian's professional role, inclusive of knowledge and skills, is aligned between the faculty librarian and the discipline faculty member.

Faculty librarians frequently encountered a dialectic tension of professional role clarity-ambiguity in their collaborative relationships with discipline faculty. The tension between role clarity and role ambiguity emerges primarily from the interaction between the librarian and discipline faculty member, but there is also a wider social influence that contributes to the tension. The aspect of the tension emerging from the dyadic interaction relates to knowledge and skills, that is, what the librarian does as part of their professional role. But the data also shows that the librarians' professional role is often conflated with the image of the librarian. These two aspects of librarians' professional identity differ in their foci, with role-based identity focusing on their industrious work, that is, what librarians actually do (e.g., answer reference questions, catalogue books, etc.), and image which focuses on the personal attributes and characteristics of librarians (e.g., introverted, reliable, helpful). Although these two components of identity are different, there is an interplay between the two that come forward in the data, and it is why Status-Image is identified as a sub-tension of Role.

To begin the discussion about professional role ambiguity and misperception, I first present the data codes to establish the faculty librarians' concern with the perception of their expertise within collaborations. The related sub-tension, Status and Image, is integrated into the same discussion because there are instances in which role, status, and image become conflated.

As explained in the previous section, the faculty librarians are expected to pursue collaborative relationships, but such relationships are seldom mandated by the university. This indicates that there is an external tension placed on the librarians, and their collaborative relationships. External tensions are contradictions created by societal pressures (Baxter and Montgomery, 1996, p.156); however, in this case, the tension arises from a lack of pressure or expectation from both collaborators – the faculty librarian and the discipline faculty member. While the lack of expectation or collaborative perimeters can provide collaborators with opportunity for innovation, I argue that such conditions can also complicate the relationship because

collaborators enter the relationship with potentially limited perceptions of the co-collaborators' role and capabilities.

Below is the presentation of a major coding category, Focusing on Expertise, and the focused codes used to identify Role as a supra tension that emerges within faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations.

5.3.1. Category: Focusing on Expertise

Focusing on expertise is a coding category comprising a set of four interrelated actions that occur when librarians encounter misperceptions of their professional role. The category, Focusing on Expertise, provides examples of how faculty librarians are misperceived, but is otherwise centred on the librarian's view of their professional self and is motivated by their desire to be recognized for the skills, knowledge, and expertise they bring to a collaboration with discipline faculty.

Focused codes:

- o addressing the misperception
- o conflicting pressures of professional identity
- o blurring faculty domains
- o doing what I know

5.3.1. – a. Code: addressing the misperception

In the context of this study, role misperception occurs when there is a disconnect between the actual responsibilities and expertise of librarians and how their roles are perceived by discipline faculty members. One librarian spoke directly to the issue of perception:

"I mean, that's really the biggest obstacle right? Perception, perception of what librarians do. I think it severely hampers the opportunities for collaboration that I think many teaching librarians like myself would not only enjoy but have always wanted to have" [L2:7].

Many faculty librarians who encounter role-based misperception addressed it directly by informing the faculty member why the perception is inaccurate. Some librarians also employed humour to alleviate interpersonal tension that arises while the misperception is being addressed, but the primary aim is to correct the perception.

“Dr. [personal name] and I were working on a research grant for the [name of project]. This was a couple of years ago. I think we were, uh, about two months from submitting. He brought an architect friend from [name of university] to one of our meetings. There was no specific reason I think. I mean it was social. So I’m sitting there when they walk in and Dr. [personal name] introduces me as a librarian and goes on to say that I order all the books he wants. And he keeps talking about how he sends me this title or that title and I will order it. He didn’t introduce me as his co-PI, you know, working together on a \$180,000 grant. I’m the person who orders books. So I kind of joke and say yes, I order books, in between doing all the work on the grant. I was serious but I laughed to make it okay to say out loud, you know” [L6:28-29].

Librarians who address the misperceptions they encounter in collaborations also have conflicting negative and positive feelings. Negative feelings involve feeling defensive about the profession, and positive feelings have to do with feeling empowered and taking control of their identity:

“I do get tired of defending myself all the time” [L37:24].

“It’s a weird dynamic of playing offense and defense. I believe (sic) in what I do and I am invested in it, too. But then I have to explain it without sounding like I’m whining” [L2:7].

“Probably I was too intense at first. My reaction was anger, just feeling really mad and frustrated. I had to learn how to defend my work in a way that sounded...(pause) not defensive. Now I feel proud to explain what I do” [L29:36].

Another librarian shared a story when they, along with a library colleague addressed a role-related perception they encountered. They are referring to a discipline faculty member in one of their liaison departments:

“He didn’t recognize that we do research or have any kind of research component. He kept saying how shocked he was. He barely recognizes that we do teaching. One time he said, you would make a good teacher. I was like, yeah, I already do teach for you (emphasis)(laughs). But, well, so let me finish. So, he didn’t see that we interact with faculty, help them with their research and what they are working on, their scholarship. So (name of library colleague) and I sat down and explained it. We could have written a faculty handbook book on it. We were that thorough. But still he struggled with it. You could just tell” [L4:11].

Addressing the misperception is one proactive step the librarians take to assert their professional role and their professional self. It is motivated by a belief that they will not be able to perform, in a way they see as professionally ideal, if the misperception exists and creates a barrier.

Among those who were asked directly, the discipline faculty study participants were not aware if they had ever made a remark or exhibited behaviour that was interpreted by a librarian as a discrepant role perception; however, two faculty were able to recount a time when a librarian raised the issue of misperception. In the first instance, the faculty member was not the direct recipient of the correction, but a witness to it.

“...Yes, I was in a grant review meeting with a librarian. The chair asked someone to take minutes. No one offered so the meeting chair asked [name of librarian] and made a remark something about librarians taking excellent minutes. The librarian lost it. Absolutely lost it. She gave hell to the whole room. And she didn’t have to take minutes (laughs)” [F2:17].

It is unknown if the librarian responded to the request to take minutes because she felt threatened or diminished because of her librarian role, or if other factors were involved. But this discipline faculty account is important because it introduces the idea of the librarian's status and image, rather than referring strictly to their professional role. And the data indicates that the librarians' professional role is often conflated with the image of the librarian. These two aspects of librarians' professional identity differ in their foci, with role-based identity focusing on their professional work, that is, what librarians actually do (e.g., conduct research consultations, teach classes, etc.), and status and image focusing on the personal attributes and characteristics of librarians. Status may refer to reputation, visibility, academic respect, and educational attainment; while image refers to personal qualities, whether perceived or experienced (e.g., introverted, friendly, helpful, reliable). Although these two components of identity are different, there is an interplay between the two that come forward in the data.

Librarians described that both role and status-image misperception present in the form of word use, remarks, attitudes, and actions:

"It's not about the mousy librarian and laughing it off. Librarians have a serious stake in how our profession is viewed. It is about prestige and prestige is connected to library budgets and staff salaries. Universities are not shy about targeting libraries for budget cuts. If I laugh off every joke about librarians I am allowing that misperception to thrive. Right now there are 63 faculty in my liaison departments. Do I want 63 people on this campus thinking my colleagues and I sit around reading all day? It's too dangerous for all of us" [L12:34].

"The stereotype is out there, yes. I get the random joke or comment about being quiet in the library or librarians read all day. And, yes, I address those remarks. I really don't understand why we're still dealing with it. Can't we move on? I have zero patience for it. It's such a distraction. It takes away from what I'm actually here to do" [L30:14].

Some faculty librarians indicated that they are less bothered by discrepant role perceptions related to image than they are to misperceptions about role:

“I don’t like the stereotype. But I get it too. And everyone deals with some form of stereotype. So I can deal with it and laugh. Or ignore it which is what I usually do” [L1:8].

“Whatever. I’m pretty much over the whole image of librarians as type A’s who are strict about rules and being quiet” [L31:15].

Knowing how much literature has been published on the negative and harmful aspects of the librarian stereotype, I was interested to learn that the faculty librarian participants were, generally, less concerned by misperceptions of their image. I reviewed the literature to know if studies on other professions observed a difference in attitude toward misperceptions of their professional role compared to their status and image. I could not locate a specific study to demonstrate whether this attitude aligned with what is known from other professions.

5.3.1. – b. Code: doing what I know

Doing what I know’ represents the librarian’s experience when they can realise their professional aspirations without being bound by constraints and discrepant role perceptions.

“I work with a professor in a lower division [discipline] all the time. He’s amazing. He came up through the faculty excellence program so he’s motivated in the classroom. Um... but, um, we worked on a research skill assignment for (name of course and course number) and we thought it was all worked out. But then a librarian at the desk came in and said, yeah, the assignment is not good. Students are struggling. And she explained that she saw a couple of students who had the assignment and they were stuck. They didn’t get it. So I had to call (name of faculty member) because we needed to fix it. He says, yeah, let’s meet right away. He didn’t even need the details. He just believed me that it was a problem on our side. The design of our

assignment ... When I am working like that, back and forth, total respect, I could never imagine another profession" [L38:41].

Faculty members shared similar, positive experiences of valuing the librarian's role:

"... and so I described how students managed the assignment from previous semesters. And she (name of librarian) shared how she saw something else when they came to the library for help. Then we had a conversation, not about who was right or wrong, but to get an overall picture about the research challenges, and the additional learning opportunities that could be identified, you know, if we tackled it together. In general the library skills and the expectation for disciplinary research were finally connected" (F16:18).

"But I think first and foremost that it is more important to have an overview of the students, to be considerate of the experience of their whole academic life, not to see the experience of working on a research paper, just because it happens outside of the classroom, as something that happens magically. How does it happen? Right. Working with (name of librarian) has brought support into the classroom. A better chance of success for students who are on board" [F4:7-8].

"We agree on what we want to achieve and how to follow up, and actually, we do just that" [F9:20].

"...Then it's more compared to what the student needs, what the student needs from me, from the library, in this case, from the lab, from a counselor, from friends and family. This makes me open to collaborate in different ways. For example, if you focus on the student, if you focus on what they need from the library... so you will need to give up lecture time to make it happen. So it's important to structure the relationship and work out some common goals" [F10:28].

In another interview with a discipline faculty member, I asked why the department chose to have a subject specialist librarian embedded in their graduate school:

AA – “What was the impetus for bringing a librarian into the [Graduate School] faculty team?”

DF14:29 – “Well, for one thing, there is not enough academic support for the graduate students. The faculty spend a lot of time advising but it is helpful to have a librarian there to address some of the issues. Someone dedicated to the library side of things. Also we find that the faculty, they don’t want their teaching assistants doing this work, and don’t want them working for the students peer to peer ... So we have a better support plan in place, I think. The embedded librarian, it’s certainly an excellent idea. [Name of librarian] now sees the students independently from the seminars, although [name of librarian] also attends some seminars to understand the research topics. I think and I suppose from her [librarian] point of view we actually include her in everything we do as a faculty. She isn’t just an extension to our school.”

A Scholarly Communications librarian who worked closely with a junior faculty found their expertise solidified their collaborative relationship and provided professional validation. The librarian stated:

“I think most of his publications were from his lab but now he is leading the team and he was worried about intellectual property and being asked to give up ownership. When he was a doctoral researcher the lead PIs were you know dealing with it. So he didn’t have the rules that come with funding so he needed guidance. At first he was not sure. He... uh, well I think he didn’t know how a librarian could understand his science world. So he kept going to his chair. Finally we started talking more seriously and I worked with him off and on for about six months for negotiation and to understand archival embargoes. Afterwards he came by and said, you know my research pain better than anyone. But you also made it go away. I was really blown away. It’s amazing how that one comment gave me so much validation” [L12:35].

Another faculty librarian spoke to the different roles of discipline faculty and librarians. They did not take respect for granted, and felt compelled to earn it through their work:

“I go off to these department meetings and I'm the only librarian...they're all very...(pause) well, they're [discipline faculty] not librarians and it feels like I stepped into a challenge ring. I have to earn their respect or they'll forget I was ever there. I look at it as an opportunity for doing what I want to do, and to get that moving, and that's it. I'm going to do it” [L36:39].

When librarians have the opportunity to do what they know, their professional identity is reinforced and accompanied by feelings of positivity and fulfilment:

“I was working at [name of library] at [name of university]. I felt needed. The librarians and faculty worked together closely. It was a stimulating environment. I was sad to leave. And here not so much. The faculty...I'll call them independent. But I feel useless in this place. I miss being a real librarian” [L3:42].

Being able to do what they know is the ideal scenario for librarians who engage in Persuading. It feeds their motivation and contributes to their professional reward.

5.3.1. – c. Code: blurring faculty domain

Blurring faculty domains represents a proactive approach used by librarians when crossing into discipline faculty “territory” (i.e., classroom) [L24:25]. The aim of ‘blurring the faculty domain,’ is to be regarded as an academic equal who can make valuable contributions within the domain generally regarded as exclusive to academic faculty. This approach heavily involves attributes that, within the sensitising concept discussion, were identified as valuable to successful collaborations: trust and respect. The narratives provided below demonstrate how faculty librarians navigate these attributes, which they also recognize to be a critical, social foundation for the collaborative relationship:

"I think a lot of it comes down to trust. Like any relationship, right? I'm trying to get into their territory. Their classroom is guarded territory, right? Outsiders not welcome. So they have to trust me, right? I, uh, can't, shouldn't generalize the faculty. But (unintelligible) enough to say it matters if they trust me. That takes some work. It took me three years to get one faculty member in (name of discipline) to return a hello. Three years. I was relentless (laughter). And now we work together four times in the fall semester in (name of course). But getting to that point, damn, it was a lot of work" [L24:25].

"With some faculty I go into their classroom and I feel like I'm working toward an invisible tipping point. This point when it is okay to assert myself. To use my expertise to take control of this decision or that decision. And I can't say how I know when I've reached that point. Maybe when they give me a clue that they understand what I can contribute. Or maybe their students are being responsive. But that point comes and then there is more, um, a shift, like mutual respect. And then I feel comfortable, uh, no, confident I think in speaking up and using my knowledge and experience" [L1:41].

"It's sort of a process. I take one step forward thinking or hoping the faculty will invite me to their classroom. But then they say no, I'll send students your way. So they see me as being in the library. That's where I belong" [L40:14].

The librarians who worked to cross into faculty domains also believed in lateral relationships – which also aligns with 'interdependence,' another attribute associated with positive, successful collaborations:

"We should be partners who work together. Our expertise contributes to a more holistic view of student learning and engagement" [L4:9].

However, achieving interdependence is not always the case. This librarian cites claims of 'territory' as an interference:

"Why is it still so territorial? Let's work together. We all want the same thing, right?" [L18:14].

One discipline faculty member I interviewed was a former department chair who shared their experience of a librarian who “insisted” on being invited to department meetings, and whose “ambition” was, “if you don’t mind my saying it, off-putting.” His remark demonstrated a more hierarchical view of the faculty-librarian relationship, as well as an interest in safeguarding the faculty in his department:

“We were also on [name of committee] together and she was a real go-getter. Ambitious I think. And then she wanted to come to our meetings. I felt that was not the right approach. I did not want her to make the faculty feel imposed upon. I was respectful towards her of course, but I made it clear that faculty, as individuals, would reach out if they needed anything” [F6:29].

Overall, the librarians who seek to blur faculty domains, find success in this area requires time and is often dependent upon the strength of their individual relationship with a discipline faculty member

5.3.1. – d. Code: conflicting pressures of professional identities

When the librarians emphasise their faculty status over their librarian status, their language, and their self-references focus on their shared claim to faculty status. The data analysis indicates that when faculty librarians aligned themselves as faculty, rather than as librarians, it was because they perceived their librarian roles were misunderstood, including the contributions they could bring to the collaboration and its outcomes. As one faculty librarian participant stated:

“...I feel the need to remind them [discipline faculty] that I am not the same person who checks out books or who re-shelves our books because I am not sure they know the difference. Do you know what I mean? So I make references to the faculty senate or I will ask about their research so I can interject with a story about my research.

Reminders here and there, little nudges, are sometimes necessary so they know I am one of them [laughs]" [L20:19-20].

Faculty librarians indicated they are proud of being a part of the library profession, and they believe in the value of their work, but they still felt it was important to present themselves as faculty. Another way this was managed was to minimise their use of library jargon. Librarians have been challenged by the use of library-specific terminology when communicating with library user groups (Glynn and Wu, 2003; Guay, Rudin, and Reynolds, 2019), and faculty librarians who participated in this study spoke about jargon and how its use can interfere when advocating for the library and its resources. One faculty librarian participant spoke about how they are careful about how they make references to the library:

"...at this point I know what words are unhelpful or off-putting. I first try to explain the concept instead of naming the concept. So, like, I don't offer to show students the bio databases. Database is sort of an ambiguous term, right? Or, like, I won't say that I will demonstrate how to navigate a science citation index. That sounds super boring and too old-fashioned, right? Like who is this old-fashioned librarian who has never heard of Google? So I offer to show students how to quickly expand their network of relevant journal articles. Something like that, like more relevant to their need, but kind of wanting to shake off the dusty librarian image too" [L3:27].

In the case of the experience described above, the role of faculty member, emphasised over that of librarian, was not an effort to erase the librarian identity but a strategy to minimise what the librarian worries about how they are perceived in that role. It is also important to state that the faculty and librarian identities described here do not represent all the faculty librarian participants. I cannot assert from the analysis that every librarian participant navigates the tension between these two professional identities. However, the tension was a strong theme throughout

many interviews with faculty librarians. The two identities are distinct from each other, and librarians can draw upon them, when they determine it to be a strategy for asserting their professional role, status, and agency within a collaborative relationship.

Some librarian participants expressed concern that asserting their expertise might be regarded as disrespectful to the discipline faculty member, or it might be perceived as an effort to dominate the collaborative relationship. A participant described their experience with a discipline faculty member who was new to the university. They described their efforts to align with them:

“...I didn’t know how she felt about librarians. Was she accustomed to close working relationships or did her former librarians chase citations for her? Or were they working as, you know, peers? What was my elevator pitch, you know. I sort of interviewed her to know what to expect and I learned that she did work closely with librarians, but not the way I hoped. I was so disappointed because I was waiting for Dr. [name of discipline faculty] to be onboarded. I was excited about linking our historical collection to the [name of minor] in [name of school] and she would have been a great partner for that work and generating research angles. But I also felt like I had to ease into it. Let her establish herself and her interests. If I jump in too quickly with ideas, yeah, it might not work in my favor if she feels like I overstepped. That was not what she was used to” [L20:22].

The faculty librarians in this study placed value on being perceived by discipline faculty as experts and equal partners, but also as colleagues who are approachable, trustworthy, and amenable. L28 commented: “I do want to be recognized as an equal but if they [discipline faculty] don’t think of you that way, they sometimes sort of control [intelligible] the decisions...and I guess I understand that” [p. 20]. Despite the desire to create an equal partnership, faculty librarians described situations in which they had to assert their professional expertise to persuade faculty to modify library requirements for student assignments because the requirements were outdated, inefficient, or accurate. In one instance of a teaching collaboration

provided by a faculty librarian, the discipline faculty collaborator relied on library scavenger hunts to engage their students in library-based research. The librarian explained to the faculty member that the scavenger hunt did not include the library's online assets and failed to include learning outcomes related to a library-specific skill. The faculty librarian reported that they perceived their explanation offended the discipline faculty because they "are faculty so, you know, you would think they know how a library works and not refer students to strategies they [discipline faculty] used back in the 70s. But yeah, I was in a tough spot. Do I tell him the truth so he'll learn? Or do I keep things friendly and stay quiet?" Another librarian stated that, when asserting their expertise to a discipline faculty member, they choose to do so in a more strategic manner: "I respect the faculty first and address their concerns first because some of them, I mean some not all, have their preferences for, um, to decide how the library class should go. Little idiosyncrasies that I work around even if it is not what I would describe as the best plan of action."

These examples demonstrate that faculty librarians' efforts to align with discipline faculty at the outset of the relationship are sometimes challenged by issues related to role clarity, agency, and agreement on mutual outcomes of the collaboration. From the accounts of the faculty librarians, it is clear that asserting their expertise and being empowered to practise their profession role was significant to them and contributed to feelings of value; however, their persuasive attempts to assert expertise were not always successful and resulted in feelings of subordination and diminished professional worth. One librarian recounted how a discipline faculty member pushed back:

"The students were kind of struggling with the research assignment. And I was meeting them individually so I could, you know, really explain the situation to Dr. [personal name]. And I told him, uh, 'You know, the students could be directed to precedents to get them started. I could show them how to identify precedents.' And he was like, 'Do you think we should hold their hands? Precedents studies aren't hard to find. This generation knows more than we do.' Yeah,

obviously we had different perspectives. I thought showing the students how to locate precedents in their field was like a useful skill. He thought they should figure it out. I thought we should help them at least find the precedents. It was still up to the students to analyse the typography and the elevations and everything" [L2:39].

In this instance the discipline faculty member resisted the faculty librarian's claim of expertise, and indicated that the students had the same, if not more, ability to locate precedent studies within the literature of the field. In other words, and although the exact motivation is unknown, the discipline faculty prioritised their perception of the students' knowledge and skills over those of the librarian.

Another example can be found in my observation notes from a meeting that took place between two faculty librarians, who were embedded in a social sciences department, and the chair and discipline faculty from a specific discipline within the social sciences department. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss recently approved changes to the program curriculum and the potential impact on how the librarians deliver information literacy lessons to students in the affected courses.

Dept. chair finished the slide deck, talk moves to a diversity requirement embedded in one of the courses. Faculty librarians are engaged, talking notes and nodding along.

Faculty librarian 1 asks a question about putting course reading requirements into Blackboard. Offers to advise faculty on copyright compliance before they upload to Blackboard. Department chair interrupts while she is speaking to say that all required reading falls under 'fair use' and no compliance checks are necessary.

Faculty Librarian 1 replies that Blackboard does not sanction any document as 'fair use' and she can advise faculty if it is okay to upload or if it is better to link out or to use permalinks for articles sourced from library databases. Department chair interrupts while she is speaking to disagree. Insists that required reading is automatically 'fair use.'

Faculty Librarian 2 jumps into the discussion. Supports Faculty Librarian 1. Says articles available through the Library are subject to the terms of individual licenses with publishers, so fair use may not come into play. Adds that articles should not

"live" on Blackboard indefinitely, even if they are fair use, and faculty should remove them by the end of the semester.

Chair said it was up to faculty to decide if it was fair use. Faculty Librarian 1 said she wants to clarify that she is offering to advise, or to prepare a brief set of guidelines for faculty to consult. Chair said it was not necessary. Faculty Librarian 2 pushes. Asks how many faculty are aware of advantage of permalink to .pdf upload. One discipline faculty member replies that permalinks require students to take an extra step of authentication and that it is an added headache for students. Faculty Librarian 2 says that if there are changes to databases in the future and the library no longer provides access to an article, the existence of a .pdf on Blackboard would be a violation of copyright.

A bit of nodding.

No further discussion.

Blackboard discussion ends. [O8: ¶9-13].

In this case the librarians' expertise was implicitly de-legitimized in front of the group and the interruptions were interpreted by the librarians as a sign of disrespect. After the meeting concluded Faculty Librarian 1 stated:

"Total disrespect. The interruptions send the message that what I say is not important. Even if someone wanted to ask me a question about copyright or whatever else, um, anyone who says anything at that point takes a risk of getting on the chair's bad side."

Following up on this event, I reviewed studies about the act of interruption in the workplace that focus on verbal interruptions as a form of microaggression (Blair-Loy, Rogers, Glaser, Wong, Abraha, and Cosman, 2017), and the use of microaggressions from the perspective of gender bias (Cheryan and Markus, 2020). Verbal interruption has been identified as a form of low-level workplace incivility that is verbal rather than physical (Baron and Neuman, 1996; Cortina, 2008) but still in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect whether intended to harm the target (Andersson and Pearson, 1999). To my knowledge, verbal interruption during workplace meetings has not been studied in the context of legitimation; however, a collective review of studies on workplace incivility demonstrates that power

differentials between individuals contribute to incidents of workplace incivility and it is more likely that lower status individuals are the target of incivility, whether or not they report directly to the instigator (Pearson and Porath, 2005). Collins (1981) highlights conversation as an activity individuals use to assess social situations and to determine their place within a "social coalition" stating (p.998): "The dynamics of coalition membership are produced by the emotional sense individuals have at any one time, due to the tone of the situation they are currently in..." (p.999). This is to say that conversation produces ties amongst group members and that how conversation is enacted is variable. It may produce feelings of equality within the group, or it may generate a sense of rank or hierarchy. Collins notes that what is said in the conversation, and whether it is true or not, is less important than whether it is accepted by the group members as a "common reality" in that particular moment, thereby serving as a symbol of group identity and collegial relations (p. 1000). Gray's monograph on collaboration (1989), and a later study by Hardy, Lawrence, and Grant present supportive perspectives on the criticality of membership in workplace groups by explaining that recognized membership in a group delineates an individual's contributions and whether they are viewed as legitimate (2005). This analysis raises doubts that faculty librarians are viewed as faculty peers. In similar contexts, they may be viewed as librarians without the same status as discipline faculty.

Several other faculty librarian participants described specific group situations in which their expertise was questioned implicitly by a discipline faculty member, causing them to question their professional value and status:

"I guess I do feel vulnerable on some days. Days when I feel like I am not needed or that I am not welcome in a meeting or classroom. I wonder if I will ever be considered an equal at [name of institution]" [L18:21].

Another faculty librarian described a more explicit challenge about their expertise from a discipline faculty member during a planning meeting. In this instance, the librarian was left feeling insecure about their role:

“There is that moment when I wonder if I am wrong. You know? Did I say something wrong? Was I off base? Those comments linger in my head and sting. They make me question myself and whether or not I should even be there” [L8:9].

As the next interview excerpt suggests, questions raised by discipline faculty in a group setting, focused on the faculty librarians’ knowledge and skill sets, can also lead to feelings of intimidation:

“I wouldn’t say it happens often, but I’ve had experiences with faculty that have left me feeling it is better to, you know, just stay quiet. Those moments when it is clear my ideas are not welcome. It is actually embarrassing for others to see you, um, you know, to be dismissed in front of others” [L22:17].

5.4. Agentic Supra Tension: Agency - Ineffectualness

Early in the analysis I identified power and to be an issue that arises between faculty librarians and discipline faculty who collaborate. It was the first major concept to emerge from the data. At this preliminary point in the analysis, I was not familiar with power-related theories or literature, so I conceptualised power simply as ‘one person having control over another’ based on how the faculty librarians spoke about their relational dynamics with discipline faculty. Later, during the application of RDT to analyse the data, I recognized that the expanded version of RDT (2.0) emphasises the power as a system of meaning-making that emanates from discourse. It highlights specifically the importance of which discourses dominate, which can be found in the margins, and how this imbalance can affect identity (Baxter, 2011). This

knowledge provided a framework for understanding and explaining how power emerged as a theme, and how it contributed to librarians' meaning-making process.

The interview excerpts offered below indicated to me that 'power' is a form of control in the collaborative relationship; although what is controlled is variable and may include collaborative roles, decision-making, and outcomes. The result for the faculty librarians is that the perceived power dynamic guides the relationship and overtakes their voice and professional role:

"Some faculty dominate every meeting with their views and explanations. I can't get a point across" [L7:22].

"Yeah, I think that um that the input I have is consistently overlooked [pause]... There is a little of me to maintain the work, but it is like I am being or just that I am working with an entity bigger than me. I deal with it..." [L1:18].

In an interview on the topic of interdisciplinarity, a faculty librarian shared an experience in which discipline faculty from one school over-stepped role boundaries during a collaborative initiative for an AI hack-a-thon. In this instance, the librarian collaborated with discipline faculty members from two separate departments:

AA: "Yeah. Okay. Of course now the trend is that everything, new academic initiatives have an interdisciplinary component."

L16: "Except for libraries, except for librarians." [laughs]

AA: "Oh, okay [laughs]. What do you mean? I would think your team is busy."

L16: "Yeah. There is a lot of emphasis on interdisciplinary. I mean, the university is starting to, uh, incentivize that type of work. And we responded with the AI humanities hack-a-thon. That was my project with Dr. [name of discipline faculty member] and Dr. [name of discipline faculty member] but it was led and funded by the library."

AA: "I remember this. Using the datasets from [name of humanities digital repository], right? I remember this from [reference to conference presentation]."

L16: "Yeah. Yeah. But it was a hostile takeover. The school of [name of discipline] faculty took over the project. It was already agreed that two of them would be group facilitators. Everyone was good with that. It made sense. But then [name of discipline faculty member] went to the dean to get themselves involved with the dissemination plan and everything became screwed up. I was hijacked out of the project."

Based on my interpretation of these and similar data points, and given there is no formal leadership structure to guide faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations, I chose to explore the power literature to understand how power is enacted when there is no identifiable leader, and the power to make decisions and establish goals in the relationship should, presumably, be undertaken as a joint activity. Shared, joint activity has been identified as an important attribute of successful collaborations (Bronstein, 2003; Patel, Pettitt, and Wilson, 2012) and Mattessich and Monsey (1992) refer to the importance of shared, broad-based involvement in decision-making and emphasise the importance of collaborators feeling a sense of "ownership" of the work (p. 25), however, as demonstrated through the presentation of data, this attribute is not always present in the collaborations between faculty librarians and discipline faculty.

Based on a review of studies about self-managed teams, I learned that the importance of leadership, and leadership processes, persist even in self-managed teams (Gerpott, Lehmann-Willenbrock, Voelpel, and Van Vost, 2019; Solansky, 2008). Often conceptualised through the role of one individual, the development and recognition of an informal leader among team members, identified as "emergent leadership" by Gerpott et al. (2019, p. 1), is a socially constructed, temporal process by which continued interactions between team members allows a leader to emerge naturally over time through communicative behaviours (p. 4). However, there are alternative leadership models to consider. It has also been discovered that some teams manage themselves through a form of shared or collective leadership (Carson, Tesluk, and Marrone, 2007; Mendez, Howell, and Bishop, 2015; Pearce, Hoch,

Jeppesen, and Wegge, 2015), in which leadership is distributed among team members based on their respective skills and expertise (Friedrich, Vessey, Schuelke, Ruark, and Mumford, 2009). Assuming the team members possess different skills or knowledge and depending on the specific task or problem being addressed by the team, the person who has the relevant expertise to tackle that work will emerge as the leader depending on the environment or circumstances (Friedrich, Vessey, Schuelke, Ruark, and Mumford, 2009; Pearce et al., 2015). In a similar line of thinking, Aime et al. refer to a “power heterarchy”, in which power is exchanged dynamically among team members, and the “resources” of individual team members become more relevant in certain situations or to perform certain tasks (Aime, Humphrey, DeRue, and Paul, 2014, p. 328).

There is also a body of research that suggests collective leadership in teams is effective because it improves cooperation and contributes to team members’ overall levels of satisfaction (Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, and Keegan, 2012; Friedrich et al., 2009); however, it has also been recognized that, from a social constructivist perspective, power is not well addressed in the collective leadership literature (Endres and Weibler, 2017, Table 3, pp.28-29; Hart, 2011). Endres and Weibler (2017) assert that by idealising relationships and “overlooking power issues, asymmetrical relationships and dysfunctional dynamics, RSCL approaches (relationally socially constructed leadership) run the risk of becoming an ideology” (p.230). This last point connects to the question I posed in an early memo series. The memos reflect the first instance of the word ‘power’ in my analysis and how I began to question collaborations that function when social conditions are not ideal:

April 22, 2019

M – Power

[excerpt from memo]: Power. Power is dominance over another person? Power imbalances in dyads. How does this happen? Why does it happen? How does one person gain power when they are supposed to be faculty peers?

Research notes indicate that during this period I consulted the literature to understand how power is conceived from a symbolic interactionist perspective.

July 13, 2019

M – Power

[excerpt from memo]: Literature speaks about dependence on the other as a basis for power - which impacts their “social exchange.”¹ Are there themes of dependency in my data? Collaboration literature also speaks to interdependency as an attribute of collaborations but not always with a clear definition of interdependence. And interdependence is the ideal. What if the level of interdependence is not equal? What happens in that scenario? When the ideal attributes are not in place or not working, does it cease to be a collaboration?

Some critical perspectives on collaborative work recognize the negative consequences of power including its misuse and how it can contribute to feelings of unfairness (Bryson, Crosby, and Stone, 2015; Patel, Pettit, and Wilson, 2012).

Referring back to how a particular expertise can identify a leader in a team-based environment, it is also recognized that the expertise associated with professions can inhibit collaboration. Some professionals, expert in their field, can dominate over the perspectives and knowledge of other professions (San Martin-Rodriguez, Beaulieu, D’Amour, Ferrada-Videla, 2005; Walsh, Brabeck, and Howard, 1999).

Aside from the work on expertise as a source of relational power, Huxham and Vangen (2004), offer other indicators or “points of power” in collaborations including who invites whom to collaborate, who determines location and timings of the meetings, and who organises the meeting arrangements (p. 193). I sifted through interviews and observation notes to determine if these additional factors contribute to the informal power dynamic but, on these specific points, the data did align with Huxham and Vangen’s work. The faculty librarians did not object to

¹ The original memo did not include the specific citations to the literature to which I refer. However, my research notes indicate that I was reading the work of American sociologist, Dr. Linda Molm. See Molm 1990 and 1991.

sharing responsibility for meeting logistics, but their feelings changed when it was assumed they would be the ones responsible for these tasks. More than one librarian referenced feeling as if they were treated like a “secretary” or “teaching assistant” when expected to perform these tasks (L7:14; L8:9). Additionally, my observation notes from a business meeting reveal clear power dynamics at play during a meeting initiated by librarians. In this particular meeting, a newly hired librarian was asked by an associate dean to bring them a cup of coffee (O1:¶ 1-3).

Through further analysis, the concept of power evolved into a deeper focus on the role of self when faculty librarians are faced with an informal power structure in their collaborative relationships with discipline faculty. I understood from my librarian participants’ interviews that ‘power’ could be described more specifically as ‘loss of power.’ In their experiences I could also identify vulnerability that was associated with the loss of power. This led me to refine ‘power’ to ‘loss of professional agency’. Below is a later entry on the same ‘power’ memo presented above:

March 4, 2020

M-Professional agency

Working with agency – and professional agency is sticking as a code. It comes from a place of perceived inequity. It is more personal and reflective of being vulnerable and not feeling empowered to improve the situation (being treated like a secretary or TA).

In the final analysis on agency, I recognized that the librarians’ loss of professional agency, or the ability to self-act or to generate professional influence in the collaborative relationship, was impinged by interpersonal tensions related to identity, feelings of subordination, perceived inequities, feeling taken advantage of, and managing the “busy work” (in vivo) [L9:22]. From this discovery, I categorised and labelled this set of collaborative tensions as ‘agentic.’ Agentic tensions threaten

the faculty librarians' individual and professional autonomy as collaborators, and their ability to initiate or influence change in the course of collaborative work. Below are the focused codes that further developed the identification 'Loss of Professional Agency' as a major code category.

5.4.1. Category: Diminished Professional Agency

The agentic tension is represented by a coding category identified as 'Diminished Professional Agency,' which is defined for this study as: the capacity of faculty librarians', engaged in collaborations with faculty librarians, to exercise their power to contribute to decisions and actions that inform the collaborative work, and are essential for achieving the collaborative goals and objectives. This category is supported by four focused codes: recognizing the power dynamic, being vulnerable to professional subordination, negotiating with the professional self, and looking after the interpersonal relationship. The category and codes are explained in more depth to demonstrate how the librarians' interaction with discipline faculty contributes to the emergence of the tensions, and how agentic tensions raise questions of professional legitimacy for the librarians.

Faculty librarians encounter dialectically punctuated moments of agency-ineffectualness as they navigate the uncomfortable situations that accompany their collaborator role. The librarian participants I interviewed and observed reported an overarching presence of an agentic struggle in the discourse that occurs between themselves and discipline faculty. The librarians felt empowered when discipline faculty recognised their expertise and supported shared decision-making related to the collaborative process and its outcomes. Ineffectualness emerged in moments when the faculty librarians are perceived primarily as support service providers or other roles perceived as subordinate in the institutional hierarchy (e.g., teaching assistants), and when discipline faculty had expectations that were inappropriate for the faculty librarian role. Each of these scenarios is presented through the codes:

Focused Codes:

- o recognizing the power dynamic
- o being vulnerable to professional subordination
- o negotiating with the professional self
- o making concessions to prioritize the relationship

5.4.1. – a. Code: recognizing the power dynamic

The code 'recognizing the power dynamic' represents librarians who respond to the perceived power dynamic between faculty librarians and discipline faculty, attributing it as a compounding factor in the perception of their role. This code reflects the voluntary, autonomous nature of most faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations; that is, discipline faculty can choose whether to work with a librarian or not. Their freedom to work collaboratively – or not – put librarians in a position of subordination, often leading to feeling that a subservient identity is imposed upon them, which they lack the power to change. Librarians struggle with their position in what they view as a differentially powered relationship.

Librarians who felt subordinated in the collaborative relationship described their loss of agency with notes of frustration and resentment:

"He can have this kind of opinion and it doesn't matter. He has autonomy in his classroom. So, what are the consequences for the students who don't have a clue about S&P? [Standard and Poor's NetAdvantage proprietary database] They come into the library one at a time to get help with the assignment. At least the smart ones do. Wouldn't it be easier for me to go to the class for 30 minutes? Fewer students falling through the cracks. Instead we clean up the mess at the ref desk [library reference/information desk] inefficiently by the way, one by one, while he dictates the rules of what will happen next. Students learn about S&P and they're like oh my god, I wish I knew about this two weeks ago. And I'm trying to keep my mouth shut but thinking well, your professor didn't think you needed help. I tried to

explain that we face this issue every single semester and he still won't accept it or believe me" [L8:26].

"Most of the teaching librarians, we think that we are equal partners. We are on equal footing as faculty you know. I think that but I don't feel it. I just respond to whatever I'm asked because that is the precedent. The talk about being partners is to make us feel better. We can say it to each other but no one wants to say out loud that it isn't true and we are just service providers" [L2:26].

And below is a conversation from an interview with a librarian who spoke about subservience and how it relates impacts their agency within the relationship:

L8: "You know I'm, I'm a highly trained professional, you know, with two advanced degrees. I don't want to say I don't take any shit from faculty because I do. We all do. But my attitude and how I deal with being treated like I'm subservient to them... Well, if I let them know that I am equal, that I'm not their personal secretary... (pause)... well it can change the dynamic. And sometimes they are just oblivious anyway and they believe what they believe about me" [p. 9].

AA: "Hmm, okay, so if you let them know you are equal how does it change the dynamic?" [p. 9].

L8: "Well, maybe it will give me a chance to be taken seriously. It depends on who you're talking to. I used to think being faculty helped us with our status on campus. But every place I've worked, you're always still just a librarian. For faculty on campus you're never quite equal. That has been my experience. And I have a very good working relationship with many faculty. But it's like there is definitely a line between us" [p. 9].

Another librarian shared their experience with the relational dynamic that exists with discipline faculty. They speak to the pressure to comply with faculty requests that subordinate their role and leave them feeling conflicted about what agency they have in the relationship to push back on such requests. Below is an interview excerpt that describes their story:

"I was hired in (year) and assigned to the (name of department). And maybe the first or second week the chair sent me a (name of grant proposal) and asked me to find references that matched what she had written. You know, citations to support what was already in the proposal. I thought well, my predecessor probably did it, so I guess I will too. I was sweating over it. But you know I did it. I was new and I was brought in with a one year review on my contract and I was, I didn't want any problems. So I just, uh, I just added citations as comments where I thought they could go. I wrote to her and said, these sources may be of use, best of luck with your proposal. She didn't say anything. Then she sent the proposal back a few days later with an urgent subject line. She was upset that I didn't put the citations in Chicago [citation style] and she...Yeah, I guess she wanted me to insert the footnotes and add the bibliography to the end. And I was panicked and she said she needed it right away because the proposal was due at midnight. So I did it. I stayed and I did it. And she kept calling me to ask when I was sending it. And you know, she didn't acknowledge it. I thought she would say, thanks, I got it in on time. But I didn't hear anything. Then Dr. [name of chair] mentioned it to my dean who was pretty unhappy. She gave me a hard time for it. I was literally sick with, just sick over the whole thing. You know, thinking I'm going to be fired. Oh my god. But my dean was mad at Dr. [name of chair], not so much with me. She told me not to take Dr. [name of chair]'s crap and to stop thinking I had to be someone's plagiarist (laughs)... to be seen as valuable and she asked me why I thought Dr. [name of faculty] thought it was okay to ask a librarian to do her dirty work. Yeah. I was like, I'm new, what's going on? She (dean) told me she had my back and I could say no. And I did start saying no to other requests. The inappropriate ones, I mean. And she [faculty member] was awful about it and I had to ignore her after that...(pause)... Now I look back and the whole thing still makes me feel sick. But it still happens. I mean, not with Dr. [name of faculty]. She moved to [name of U.S. state] a couple of years ago. But other faculty have equally demeaning requests. I say no and put them on my black list" [L31:34-35].

Because direct questions about 'power dynamics' could be sensitive, I did not ask discipline faculty directly about "power dynamics" between themselves and faculty librarians. Instead, I asked related questions (and follow up questions):

- How do you like to collaborate with librarians? What is the ideal working arrangement?
- Who takes the initiative and sets the outcomes?
- Provide an example of collaborating with a librarian? What had to be done/decided and who took responsibility for what task?
- How does it feel when you have a librarian in the classroom?

Based on the analysis of responses to these questions, it can be stated that some discipline faculty described a sense of autonomy in their classroom, and some described themselves as being in control of the decision-making; but there were others who viewed their work with librarians as a more mutually collaborative experience, with equal input from both sides.

Those discipline faculty I interpreted to have some measure of control of their relationships with faculty librarians (though I could not locate the word 'control' in any discipline faculty transcript) made the following statements:

"(Name of librarian) has been a part of our department for at least twelve years. Maybe longer. But I've only known her since then and I started in...that was in (year). She (librarian) is on the agenda for a couple of faculty meetings a year. She asks how we're doing, how the semester is going. She is good about offering to help and to come talk to students. But I am not, if I'm completely honest with you, all that interested" [F10:4].

"I do work with a librarian every other semester. She comes in for 3 weeks to help students identify sources for their position and opposition papers and to talk about paraphrasing and bibliographies. We've got it down now. No real problems though, maybe the only issue is timing. She wants to come in 6-8 weeks before the papers are due, but I have her to come at the beginning of the semester. And that's how we do it" [F9:19].

"There are two librarians who work with our department. One deals with research and grants and the other one comes in to help students, to show them the catalog or how to find, uh, what they need from the library. And they send emails, not together. But I would say something

pops up in my inbox every few months. I'd guess. Something like that. (Librarian), in particular, is very good at keeping her finger on the pulse of our department. I just tell her I need this and that and she'll do it" [F3:9].

An interview exchange highlighted one discipline faculty member's self-authorization for decision-making within collaborations, and how the decision impacted the librarian's ability to manage her own schedule. This interview excerpt also raises questions about the boundaries of collaborative work. When does a collaboration cease to be a collaboration and turn into another form of shared work?

F13: "...Sometimes I don't have her come to the class. I tell my students to contact her directly if they need help because sometimes it can be difficult to give up a class session" [p. 21].

AA: "And what happens when you send the students to the librarian? I mean, what happens between the librarian and the students?" [p. 21].

F13: "I think you are asking me if it makes more work for (name of librarian) to do it this way?" [p. 21].

AA: "Uh, yes. I think so. I just want to know how you understand what happens next – or what that experience is like for (name of librarian) as well as the students" [p. 21].

F13: "I cannot say. I directed the students to the librarian. I did my part" [p. 21].

Presenting another view of their collaborative work with faculty librarians, these next comments from discipline faculty share a different experience and provide insight into collaborative attributes they value in a working relationship, including communication, identifying mutual outcomes (external to themselves), and a willingness to commit time to the effort. One discipline faculty member referred to collaboration as a 'partnership,' though admitting that the reality of collaborations is not always ideal:

“... and so I described how students managed the assignment from previous semesters. And she (librarian) shared how she saw something else when they came to the library for help. Then we had a conversation, not about who was right or wrong, but to get an overall picture about the research challenges and the additional learning opportunities that could be identified, you know, if we tackled it together. In general the library skills and the expectation for disciplinary research were finally connected” [F11:18].

“But I think first and foremost that it is more important to have an overview of the students, to be considerate of the experience of their whole academic life, not to see the experience of working on a research paper, just because it happens outside of the classroom as something that happens magically. How does it happen? Right? Working with (name of librarian) has brought support into the classroom. A better chance of success for students who are on board” [F4:7-8].

“But I think that, yes, in a good partnership, regardless of whether we have an organized plan or not, it is vital to achieve a good understanding of each other. We meet and then discuss what we want to do. But that kind of responsibility isn’t always what, well the reality. I kind of trust that anyone invited to my class will show up and do a good job” [F1:9-10].

“...Then it’s more compared to what the student needs, what the student needs from me, from the library, in this case, but it could be from a lab, from a counsellor, from family. This makes me open to collaborate in different ways. For example, if you focus on the student, if you focus on what they need from the library... so you will need to give up lecture time to make it happen. So it’s important to structure it and work out some common goals” [F10:28].

“We agree on what we want to achieve and how to follow up, and actually, we do just that” [F9:20].

The data indicates that approximately one-third of discipline faculty participants expect the faculty librarian to contribute equally to the design of

research-focused classroom activities, in which case the librarian can work with few or no constraints. But there are indicators that some discipline faculty set perimeters for the librarians. The perimeters relate to control over who decides outcomes and, in the case of some librarians, how their time is managed. In these situations, librarians are working against constraints set by the discipline faculty. The constraints vary from one faculty member to the next and it is the librarian's responsibility to decide how to do their work within the terms set by the faculty member. These constraints are also invisible as such to the discipline faculty member. They do not recognize the perimeters as constraints for the librarian, and they are unaware of the work librarians undertake to respond to their autonomous decision-making.

5.4.1. – b. Code: being vulnerable to professional subordination

The analysis provides clear examples of faculty librarians experiencing feelings of subordination to discipline faculty. Subordination is identified through comments that reflect librarians' feelings of pressure to cooperate, "suck it up" [L37:41], perform "grunt work" tasks outside of their role [L3:18], [L1:16].

The first comment is from a librarian who felt they were taken advantage of for being associated with the helpfulness of the library profession. Their comment also suggests that issues of agency are commonplace in faculty librarian-discipline faculty relationships they have observed:

"I think most librarians take a lot of bullshit. I don't think it is coming from a bad place. But faculty do not get what we do. And, you know, librarians are, generally, people who like to help. That's what we do. But what does help mean? I am better at setting boundaries than I used to be" [L13:6].

When confronted with issues of agency and subordination, another librarian feels pressure to get along, rather than to assert themselves, to protect the opportunity to work with the discipline faculty member and retain access to the students:

“I don’t feel like I can refuse, um, say no. If I suck it up, then the opportunity may be gone. At least that’s what it feels like. I worry about the students” [L37:41].

Two other librarians experience feelings of subordination, indicating they also struggle with self-agency when confronted with tasks they feel are not appropriate for their role as a peer collaborator:

“Each time we meet it is often like. . . Can you do this and can you do that? I take responsibility to create the slide deck for upload or to sort things out. It is very much like okay you want to be here? Then the price is doing the grunt work” [L3:18].

“I’ve been asked to do a lot of things that were, that had nothing to do with my job. I have said no to some things. But I have done other things that were on the borderline, uh, crossing the line of, you know, why can’t a TA (teaching assistant) do it? I do wonder about it. But it keeps the lines of communication open. I think that’s important” [L7:14].

“I worry a lot about what they [academic faculty] think. Do they view me, my work, with respect? Do they see me as a colleague? Someone who also plays a role in educating the students? I just don’t know. I feel like that insecurity [pause]...Yeah. It gets in my head. It probably doesn’t help” [L34:38]

In these instances of subordination, it is interpreted that the collaboration relationships assumed an informal hierarchy because the librarians acquiesce when confronted with an imbalanced power dynamic, which suggests they value the relationship more than their autonomy and agency. In such instances, it is easier for an informal hierarchy to develop, and to be sustained because the collaboration lacks the formal checks and balances system that may be present in mandated

collaborations. As the librarians adjust to a position of subordination, their ideal status as collaborative peer is compromised, which leads to the next code: negotiating with the professional self.

5.4.1. – c. Code: negotiating with professional self

Conflict was a theme among librarians who 'negotiated with their professional self' to justify the decisions to compromise their professional role in order to maintain a relationship with faculty. The conflict arose at the place where their commitment to the "greater good" of the university and its constituents conflicted with their professional identity.

The traditional values of librarianship could be relied upon to justify the faculty librarians' decision to compromise (i.e., librarians are service-oriented), but they struggled to yield some of the expertise associated with their professional role. One librarian spoke of the "student defence":

"I do believe that I am an educator. That librarians are educators. And that's what I say when someone asks me what I do. I say that I am a librarian educator. But that is not always what I get to do. Sometimes I am in the stacks helping a student find a book. That's not exactly why I'm here, but it makes me feel good. Our librarians call it the student defence. When we are doing grunt work we tell ourselves well as long as it helps the students" [L1:16].

Many conflicted librarians also viewed compromising their professional role as something that was necessary to comply with expectations set out for them as a library employee. L38 was torn between compromising their professional expertise to carry out a request made by a discipline faculty member to conduct library scavenger hunt for their students:

"[Name of faculty member] still asks for scavenger hunts. Those are the worst. Oh my god. These are university students. Not preschoolers. There's always the one professor at every university

who thinks scavenger hunts are helpful. Right? I refused them at my last job and I would offer other ways to learn about the library. Targeting relevance to the assignment and specific skills. But Dr. [name of faculty] wants students to flip through print magazines to find stuff. So that's what I'm doing. I can't say no or my AUL [associate university librarian] will talk to me about doing what it takes and putting a good face on the library" [L1:11].

Another librarian shared a similar struggle. They spoke to me about their role as a First-Year Experience librarian. Although they had developed a comprehensive program to introduce incoming freshmen to the library, a dean from one of the university's schools insisted on a different strategy. The librarian met with the dean to explain how the first-year experience program was developed, and how its outcomes were identified, but the dean asked to collaborate with the librarian to develop a different model for the students of this particular school. The librarian felt the school dean did not respect her knowledge of the first-year experience, nor did he acknowledge her extended experience working with first-year students:

"First of all, he wanted me to give them all this reading. What the hell? What first-year wants to read all these handouts about paraphrasing. They just arrived on campus and it's 110 degrees outside and they are wound up and anxious and overwhelmed. And I know how to work with that. That's what I do. I lead them through the stress in a supportive way without overwhelming them with information they are not ready to receive. My dean asked me to accommodate. We went 10 rounds over it. But what could I do? ... The library dean feels strongly we have to be supportive. So he doesn't really appreciate my role either. I don't know what to feel. I'm stuck. Absolutely" [L3:22-23].

The code, 'negotiating with the professional self' focuses on faculty librarians' understanding of their identity and the ways in which it is influenced by what they do at work. If they are not performing the tasks and executing the responsibilities, they most strongly associate with their faculty librarian role, their sense of professional

self, and their legitimacy as a collaborator, is compromised. As a code, 'negotiating with the professional self,' represents the conflict imposed on the faculty librarians' professional identity, threatening their relational agency. If the faculty librarians' sense of professional identity does align with the discipline faculty members' expectations for their work, the librarian must contend with the discrepant view of their professional self. In these examples, the librarian surrenders a piece of their identity (i.e., expertise, knowledge, informed experience) and their individual agency to sustain the collaborative effort. This code is strongly connected to the final code, 'looking after the interpersonal relationship.'

5.4.1. - d. Code: making concessions to prioritise the relationship

In interviews with faculty librarians who negotiated with their professional self, it was common for them to explain how they relegated their professional aims when they encountered a threat to their professional identity. Rather than confront the threat directly, they chose to manage the tension by focusing their attention on the integrity of the collaborative relationship and outcomes – even if the outcomes did not fully reflect their preferences. Librarians whose actions demonstrate their interest in preserving the collaborative relationship said they take threats to their identity seriously, but challenging these threats can create interpersonal tension with the discipline faculty:

“Communicating my frustration. No. I try not to sound frustrated, and I want to inform them (faculty), you know, why that isn't true. Or how that, you know, something has changed. But I can't be rude when talking about it because then I might end up with tension between us. Do you know what I mean? If there is a strain, then I have a new problem” [L35:29].

L16 shared several challenging encounters from their career. One recent challenge was being deemed unqualified to serve as Primary Investigator (PI) on a grant they authored because “PIs should be real faculty” [L16:17]. They recalled a

challenge that occurred earlier in their career, when a discipline faculty member with whom they were co-teaching, asked if they were a “naughty librarian” who had sex in the library. L16 explained that in both instances, though years apart, she chose to “overlook” the circumstances and focus on “getting the work done”[L16:17]:

“I did not want drama. I didn’t want the, you know, the stress of worrying about it. I work in higher ed. This stuff happens all the time. And I wanted the grant more than I wanted to fight against the research office. So I found a work around. And, yeah, I was committed to the class too, so yeah, I worked around it and moved on” [L16:17].

Another librarian spoke to the pressures for performance and promotion, which is another motivation for protecting their collaborative relationships with discipline faculty:

“I need to use this position to move from Assistant [professor] to Associate. I’ve already been here 6 years so moving to another library without an Associate rank would be suspect. So I am not going to overreact every time I hear librarian jokes or... you know. I jump at all of the requests for instruction to show that I worked with Anthropology, Poli Sci, and Sociology. I can say to my supervisor, look at how busy I am” [L1:14].

“We enter our classes into a shared spreadsheet so [personal name], our department head, knows what classes we visited, how many contact hours, how many students. We are monitored, really. She [department head] maps the data to the departments so you can see how all of the librarians are doing. Yeah. I feel the pressure. I have to keep my stats up and it doesn’t matter what’s happening in the background. Just make it work, that’s the message. It’s like she’s just waiting for the big score at the end of the semester” [L10:6].

Also related to performance, another faculty librarian commented on how the pressure to work collaboratively, regardless of the professional nature of the work, has impacted their motivation:

“I used to be a talented librarian. Now I don’t bother very much. It just isn’t appreciated here” [L22:25].

One librarian spoke about the impact when a faculty member acknowledges the benefit of librarian support but does not want to dedicate the amount of classroom time preferred by the librarian. The following is the exchange between the librarian and me. The conversation reflects the librarian’s diminished relational agency in their teaching collaboration for a cartography course, and how the loss of agency impacted their ability to advocate for a change in how the students were taught the relevant research skills. Over time, the collaboration devolved from an in-person series of classes to the discipline faculty member simply referring their students to the librarian. Despite the impact to the librarian’s schedule, the librarian preferred to maintain the relationship citing student success and adherence to professional values as motivating factors. In this case I do not know the reason the discipline faculty member changed the instruction model for their class. Below is the librarian’s account:

L7: “When those assignments are close to the due date, I’m pretty busy because the students come one at a time. Most make appointments but a lot just show up or send an email. I can have individual consultations, the week before a due date, uh, maybe 30 hours in a single week. It’s pretty overwhelming” [p.14].

AA: “Thirty hours in one week for one class? How do you...”

[AA and L7 speaking simultaneously]

L7: “Yes. It’s crazy (laughs)! I will start at 8:00 and go until... I take time off for lunch or to check email, then back to students. Basically, I’m teaching the same lesson 30 times. If Dr. [personal name] gave up an hour, I could come to the class and share the same information in one go, you know, maybe with a hands-on exercise, questions. I’ve explained that it impacts my schedule. But he never changes his mind. I mean, I would prefer it the other way. But I am also, I love working with students and seeing them do well. I do feel kind

of like a, ... disrespected. Like I have nothing else to do except wait for his students. But then I do it anyway" [p. 14].

AA: "You do it anyway. Uh, um. Can you talk more about doing it anyway?"

L7: "It is so hard on me to let go of some of my, you know, the librarian in me. So I'm taking care of the student, giving them time, following up with them, and I don't have time to do all that, but I can't let go of it. I mean, seeing 30 or whatever number of students in a week is like, I'm a librarian, yes. But I'm not the librarian I think I could be if we [referring to discipline faculty member] were back in this together. I feel good about helping the students and I think they appreciate it. But I don't feel like I'm a faculty member. I feel like a sidekick to Dr. (personal name) instead of a colleague... But if I don't, the students struggle" [pp. 14-15].

AA: "So, the students motivate you? I mean, your desire to help the students? And what do you give up by doing this? [p. 15].

L7: "Yes, the students. If they are willing to come to my office, then I should be there for them. Um, and what do I give up? ...(pause) I give up my schedule, my work schedule mostly. I inconvenience colleagues because I'm not available for other things" [p.15].

Similar experiences are shared by other faculty librarians:

"I don't usually have my ideal classroom scenario. But I still want to work with faculty and students. That is what I am here to do. And it is something that, once you have opened that door it's difficult to close. I would rather make a small difference than no difference" [L5:13].

"I think that what is important is that those who work with students are interested in them, interested in their success. That you have a bit of spirit in terms of helping students learn. I am passionate about that, so I keep on holding up, when I lower my expectations for outcomes. I would not hesitate to say that I give way to the professor to gain a little bit of access to the students" [L23:34].

Discipline faculty members shared their perspective on working with a librarian in their classroom, and cite lack of time as a reason they limit engagement:

“In times when I have been working with a librarian, I mean classes which have included a librarian, I’ve taken it for granted that the work by the librarians is by the librarians. In my experience, I don’t have time to do more to make it more involved. Just give them [the students] the basics so I can return to the next point [F1:9].

“... Her email usually means a follow up meeting so we can plan one or two classes. Sometimes I don’t have her come to the class. I’ll just tell my students to contact her directly if they need help. It depends because sometimes I can’t afford to give up class time” [F13:21].

While insufficient time is a valid reason for limiting their engagement with faculty librarians, it does modify the role of the faculty librarians regardless of their own preferences for collaborative working. These two instances further demonstrate how faculty librarians can lose agency in the collaborative relationship and, depending upon the librarians’ motivation to continue the collaboration, why they may choose to accommodate the changes.

Another discipline faculty member did not cite time as a reason to limit engagement with a librarian, but their comment about the librarian’s role indicates that the ideal scenario is not the same as what can be practised in reality:

“Well, yes, in an ideal situation, we should have an organized plan. We should meet and then discuss what we want to do. [Name of librarian] does want to sort it out. But that kind of responsibility isn’t always the reality. I kind of trust that anyone invited to my class will show up and do a good job” [F1:9-10].

The work of ‘looking after the professional relationship’ also requires the librarian to strategize every form of communication with the faculty member.

“...I didn’t want to convey the wrong tone, so I reflected on what to say and how to say it. And I didn’t want him to think that, I think, he couldn’t manage his own class. I tread lightly. I said something like, ‘Your [name of course] students may need to rely on Warc [marketing database]. Sophomores are new to Warc and may be challenged to use it to its fullest, to explore all the functionality. I would be happy to come to class and demonstrate Warc and also WRDS [Wharton Data Research Services], blah, blah, if you think it would benefit the student.’ I was specific but I really tried not to interfere with his authority” [L13:19-20].

“Actually, we focus on what is important here and now and we don’t get into assessment or future planning. There’s no reflection. The work feels incomplete without knowing if we did well. But I stopped asking to send feedback forms or to review student work because I know they (faculty) are busy. I don’t want to be annoying” [L26:28].

The communication tactics used by the librarians in these instances appear to be oriented to maintain positive relationships but, upon closer reading, it is clear that the faculty librarians craft their communication to minimise the chance they will cause relational friction or overstep the boundaries of their roles, as perceived by the discipline faculty.

5.4.2. Unifying the Role-Based and Agentic Tensions

In the previous sections (5.3 and 5.4), I described two prominent collaborative tensions that informed and are reflected in the discourse of faculty librarians and discipline faculty in the context of their collaborative relationships: Role Ambiguity - Role Clarity and Agency and Ineffectualness). Further examination of these tensions demonstrates that the interplay of the tensions unifies them to create a larger question about the librarians’ professional identity. The unification aligns with Baxter’s description of discourses that can “enhance and enable one another in how their form meaning for individual actors (Baxter, 2004, p. 8)

In the instances described above, the rise of agentic tensions creates feelings of subordination, resulting in an informal hierarchy between the faculty librarians and the discipline faculty. The librarians perceive themselves as being accountable to meet the expectations of the discipline faculty, despite being in a horizontally accountable relationship. The librarians essentially compromise a part of their identity, and their self-perceived value as a contributor to the collaboration, to adapt to the informal hierarchy and remain a cooperative collaborator.

The development of an informal hierarchy in autonomous collaborations prompted me to explore literature related to social exchange theory, informal hierarchies and networks, and social hierarchies. From these explorations, I came across the concept of micro social order, defined as a recurrent or repetitive pattern of activity, including social interaction, among two or more actors. Within a micro social order, actors: exchange with or orient their behaviour toward other actors in the dyad or group; encounter positive and negative experiences from those interactions; develop a sense of belonging to the dyad or group and develop affective attachments to the social group (Lawler, Thye, and Yoon, 2008, p.520). This definition resonated with what I understood about the faculty librarians' diminished professional agency in collaborative interactions, and how they adapted to the social order so they could continue to perform the work within the unique dynamics of their collaboration and its boundaries. But the question of an 'informal hierarchy' persisted and I wanted to understand the conditions that contribute to their development. Although I used the term 'informal hierarchy' frequently in my notes and memos, I was unaware of how the term was understood in the literature, so this literature became important to the development of my analysis. Below is an excerpt from a series of notes I captured while exploring informal hierarchies in the literature. The notes provide a guide to the work I consulted and how I collected ideas to check against the data and the literature. References to 'data' refers to my study data:

Research Notes (excerpt) (notebook #6; entry is not dated.)

Informal Hierarchies

The 'intangible' mechanisms of interaction in social networks (nb. Bourdieu, 1986; Tsai and Ghoshal, 1998). Reference to shared norms and values between actors.



Informal networks and hierarchies are studied within the professions, and well established within universities (Diefenbach, 2012). Shared norms (more often lack of shared norms and 'academic tribes') are cited as a condition in the university context (nb. Becher and Trowler, 2001). Expertise and subject/discipline knowledge falls under this, and the data supports it.



Diefenbach 2013 article. Critical read. References 'subordination' in informal hierarchies (*supported by the data – possibly in vivo use of 'subordinate'*). "Hierarchy can be an informal order of unequal person-dependent social relationships of dominance and subordination that emerge from social interaction and may become persistent over time through repeated social processes (e.g., communication and routine behavior). This is one of the theorems of a model concerning the core structure of hierarchical relationships" (Diefenbach, 2013, p. 41).

Aligns with SI framework [symbolic interactionist].

Identifying the work of Diefenbach became significant in the analysis and reinforced the idea that my identification of an 'informal hierarchy' made sense. From reading Diefenbach's work I learned that, even in the absence of formal power structures, informal influence differences between a group's members emerge, enabling more influential members to change others' behaviour (Diefenbach, 2013, p.81). Interestingly, Magee and Galinsky (2008) state that there is a high level of agreement within groups about who will assume different ranks in the social order. However, this does not resonate with feelings shared by the faculty librarians who felt subordinated in the collaborative relationship. Faculty librarians often took offence in these instances and experienced feelings of frustration and anger with

one librarian stating, "I'm not their servant" [L4:15], and another who claimed feeling "second class" within the relationship [L2:4].

Pursuing this literature further to understand more about what influences the development of informal hierarchies, I also learned from Magee and Galinsky that within informal hierarchies, it requires little time for individuals to "form inferences and make judgments of others' competence and power" (2008, p.355). This statement aligned with identification of 'diminished professional agency,' as well as the issue of expertise that defines the role-based tension. In the research note above, I reference the theme of 'expertise' in my data and, although 'competence' is not defined by Magee and Galinsky, I reviewed the literature on learning, specifically within the professions, to understand that competence and expertise reflect an individual's professional development within a given subject domain, advancing them from competent to expert, a progression that is identified and measured by the individual's increased knowledge and skill sets (Alexander, 1997). I used this line of thinking to re-review my data and assess if it aligned with Magee and Galinsky's reference to the role of competence (expertise and knowledge) and power (identifying agency as a form of self-power) in the development of informal hierarchies. From the review of the data, and the questions I pursued about the connection between expertise, agency, and hierarchies, I established a second supra tension to occur within faculty librarian-discipline faculty collaborations: Role, referring to the one's professional role based on their expertise, knowledge, and skills. I also identified a sub-tension of Role: Status and Image. In the data analysis, Role and Status-Image can be distinguished, but they are also interconnected because they both involve perception (or misperception) which negatively impacts the faculty librarians' professional and collaborative identity within the relationship.

The next section demonstrates how the analysis evolved toward an understanding of a multifaceted interplay between professional agency and expertise, and why Role was necessarily identified as a second supra tension, and

Status-Image as its sub-tension. Critical to this part of the analysis is the introduction of professional legitimacy as a concept related to collaboration, and how it becomes integral to faculty librarians' identity and collaborative participation.

5.5. Linking the Tensions to Collaborative Legitimation

From the analysis resulting from the collaborative tensions' identification, I understood that the tensions did not always emerge in singular, isolated instances. Instead, they can occur synchronously, and mutually influence or reinforce the others. I also began to understand the interconnectedness of the tensions, and the librarians' exposure to them, fundamentally influenced faculty librarians' self-perception. Below are examples from the data that demonstrate the overlap between role, agency, and status:

"So I think I have to be confident enough as librarian and a faculty colleague to say look, there's other ways of helping students learn about this research or that topic and I can help develop those learning outcomes. But the confidence is difficult to maintain because I am a librarian and that is not enough to be on their level, I mean, if you ask them" [discipline faculty] [L30:8].

"I value what I think is a different type of knowledge from many faculty I work with. I also have professional principles that matter to me and I think to all of us. But the issue now, I think, is that the work has tipped away from us. Google is perceived as a better option for building research strategies. So many faculty agree with this and see librarians as obsolete. So what do I bring to a relationship if I am considered obsolete? I know right away if I'm going to be a partner or an assistant" [L2:16-17].

Returning to the definition presented earlier, professional agency was defined as representing the autonomous capacity of a faculty librarian within a collaboration to exercise judgement and expertise, make decisions, and act in a manner aligned

with the attainment of the collaborative objectives. This agentic dimension, however, is necessarily intertwined with the concept of professional role, which delineates the prescribed duties, responsibilities, and normative expectations associated with the librarian's role within the university. This relationship reveals a dynamic interdependence between the tensions, whereby the librarians' exercise of professional agency is limited (or lost) when empowered by discipline faculty members' inaccurate expectations for the librarians' professional role. If the librarians' professional role is well understood and aligns with how the librarian perceives their professional role, there may be fewer boundaries around their professional agency; however, if roles are misunderstood or ambiguous to discipline faculty, the sphere of influence associated with the faculty librarians' role is diminished.

From this point, I explored the literature to learn more about the implications when there is diminished professional agency in a collaborative relationship, which has been induced by professional role misperception. I began by reviewing studies that incorporated the concepts of agency and professional role, knowledge, and expertise. While I was interested specifically in collaborative relationships, I chose to begin with fundamental writings on the professions, focusing my attention specifically on what was said about expertise. Abbott and Freidson claim that specialised expertise within a specific domain delineates and distinguishes membership within a profession (Abbott, 1988, Freidson, 1988). Others support Abbott and Freidson's arguments that, as a mechanism to retain their professional "jurisdiction," the professions should exert continuous control over educational requirements, formalised accreditations, and access to the professional labour market" (MacDonald, 1995, p. 163). Freidson went on to say that maintaining claims to specialised expertise directly supports a profession's legitimacy (1988), shaping the behaviour, action and identity of its members (Freidson, 1994). Prior to Abbott and Freidson's analyses, Larson wrote that upholding professional credibility and

competence in the eyes of the public, required legitimacy through “officially sanctioned expertise” (Larson, 1977, p, 38). Although these writings contextualise legitimacy against frameworks that define professions, these same writings also address systemic legitimation threats to the professions. Realising that legitimacy could not be assumed, I began to consider the sustainability of professional legitimacy within autonomous, cross-boundary collaborations. My data suggested that legitimacy was a potential construct in the process of autonomous collaborations, but I was unfamiliar with the concept of legitimacy in the context of interpersonal dynamics and how it has been studied. I returned to the literature and began by focusing on what is known from the higher education arena.

Researchers who have studied the processes related to legitimation in higher education (Gonzales and Ricones, 2012; Lamont, 2009; Rusch and Wilbur, 2007) generally agree that legitimacy is granted through a form of “institutionalized scripts” (Posecznick, 2013). Scripts that establish legitimacy in higher education are often aligned with the tenets for promotion and tenure including teaching excellence, scholarship or creative dissemination through high-impact outlets, award of extramural funding, and visibility within international professional networks (O’Meara, 2006; Rhoades, Kiyama, McCormick, and Quiroz, 2008; Rusch and Wilbur, 2007; Tuchman, 2009). Bourdieu asserts that as individuals work their way through these different scripts, they do so to establish that they belong (1983). A faculty librarian participant acknowledged the research “script” that exists within their institution:

“There is a sort of divide between the library and the teaching departments, that we [faculty librarians] are not academics. Or maybe we are associated with academics but we are not scholars. No way. If you hear about scholarship in any context it’s like they [discipline faculty] are the heroes in the university. They do the real scholarship. Even though we also publish and we are also reviewed by our publication record” [L16:31].

The comment from L16 reveals a couple of interesting points. First, they use scholarship as a reference point, suggesting that it represents a form of legitimacy. It is also clear that L16 believes there is a misperception that faculty librarians' do not conduct research and publish, which is identified as an impediment to legitimacy. L16 comments on the "divide" between the arenas where faculty perform their work – the library and the teaching departments – further indicating a distinction between the two faculty groups. Similarly, another faculty librarian described how, from the perspective of faculty with whom she collaborated, she did not "feel" like she was regarded as a faculty colleague. Below is an excerpt from their interview:

L15: As a librarian I am expected to be more of a librarian and less of a researcher. It just seems like research has to come second to everything I need to get done. So I spend maybe 10% of my time on research. Maybe more. It just feels rushed ...[pause]... I always feel like I'm not quite living up to my faculty status as a librarian. Like my research is less important or valued by the university.

AA: Why do you think you feel this way?

L15: I'm not sure. I would say primarily from people I work with and from how librarians are not celebrated like the other faculty. Our grants are smaller because we don't need to fund equipment or labs or TAs [teaching assistants]. The clinicians and others in the sciences are top-tier. Then you work your way down the totem pole. Social sciences, humanities, fine arts. So it's just, you know, just things like that. I feel like there is no room for librarians in the show off media put out by the university.

A discipline faculty participant echoed the views of the faculty librarians when asked if they were perceived as equals:

"I can't really say. A few years ago the university established a professorial track for teaching. Within the first four years quite a few faculty recalibrated to the teaching track. I recall librarians went there. Can't be sure how many. But the general feeling at the time, and I guess it still is, is that the teaching track is less rigorous. If all they do is teach, then we can hire grad students and adjuncts. It's the bargain track for the university. Quasi-faculty, only." [F9:33].

This faculty member did not explicitly state that they shared the general view toward those who followed a teaching track; however, their remarks imply that faculty librarians who focus on the teaching aspect of their work, rather than on scholarship, would be assimilated into a lower academic status that aligns more closely to graduate students and adjunct faculty, rather than sustaining them as peer faculty. This viewpoint is supported by researchers who have found that for academics to be viewed as to be a valued and legitimate, especially in universities categorised as high-research output, a faculty member must be a clear contributor to activities that align closely with the universities' key performance indicators (O'Meara, 2011; Tuchman, 2009).

After reviewing the higher education literature and identifying data points that support legitimacy as a potential construct in collaborations I moved into the organisational literature to learn how legitimacy is understood as a part of collaborative and professional interpersonal dynamics. I learned that the relationship between legitimacy and professional identity is complex, and significantly influences how individuals maintain their standing within their professional domain.

The establishment and maintenance of professional identity are closely tied to the quest for legitimacy. Legitimacy, as defined by institutional theory, refers to the perceived appropriateness or validity of an entity's actions, structures, or beliefs within a given social context (Suchman, 1995). Professional identity, on the other hand, is the set of roles, values, and characteristics that individuals associate with their professional practice, influencing how they perceive themselves and how others perceive them in their professional roles (Ibarra, 1999). Individuals and professional groups seek recognition and validation from their peers, clients, and the broader societal context to legitimise their roles and practices. This process of legitimation contributes significantly to the construction and affirmation of professional identity. Legitimacy influences the behaviour, actions and identity of professionals (Freidson, 1994).

I also located several studies that elaborate on the importance and role of identity and in the context of diverse teams (Gong, 2006; Hambrick et al., 1996; Horwitz and Horwitz, 2007; Jackson et al., 1995; Kilduff et al., 2000; Van Dick et al., 2008). Applying these studies' perspectives to autonomous collaborations suggests that the benefits of diverse, professional collaborations come from the availability of increased breadth of knowledge and skills to drive the collaboration forward, improve collaborative performance, and generate positive, and potentially novel outcomes (Fay et al., 2006; Jehn et al., 1999; Williams and O'Reilly, 1998). However, as the data from this study suggests, the differences in professional domains represented in librarian-discipline faculty collaboration, combined with the misrepresentative perceptions of the faculty librarians, leads to collaborations that are characterised by instability, and members' feelings of frustration and anger, which can impede on the positive aspects of collaborative work.

Another way in which legitimacy and professional identity intersect is through the adherence to professional norms and standards. Professionals often draw on established norms and standards to legitimise their practices, emphasising conformity to accepted codes of conduct (Greenwood, Raynard, Kodeih, Micellot, and Lounsbury, 2011). In doing so, they reinforce their professional identity by aligning with recognized benchmarks of competence and ethical behaviour.

Moreover, the external perceptions of legitimacy impact how individuals internalise their professional identity. The acknowledgment of one's professional role by external stakeholders provides a sense of legitimacy that reinforces a positive professional identity (Suchman, 1995). This external validation contributes to the internalisation of professional roles and fosters a sense of belonging and commitment within the professional community.

All the acts of legitimation described so far can be seen as contributors to the faculty librarians' sense of professional identity. Ultimately, for the faculty librarians, these acts manifest themselves through the experimentation of what Ibarra (1999)

terms provisional selves; that is, “trials for possible but not yet fully elaborated professional identities” (1999, p.764). The identities activated by the librarians reveal a tension between their role as faculty members and librarians, and how they choose one or the other to impress their knowledge on discipline faculty and to retain a measure of professional agency within the collaborative dyad.

Faculty librarian participants sought to legitimate their professional roles by referencing expertise specific to the task at hand. Librarians generally believe their expertise in areas related to information resources, information-seeking behaviour of students, and scholarly communication was sufficient for them to claim legitimation in the collaborative relationship. Following this same argument, some faculty librarians distinguished themselves from faculty by confirming they can “close the gap” when it comes to student research skills:

“The librarians who interact with students can observe their research skill sets. Most of my time spent in student consultations is about closing that gap. How can they be expected to put papers together when they don’t know anything about journals in their field or how to synthesize information. When I am talking to faculty I try to bring up these issues. I can help close that gap and they can do what they do” [L29:44].

“My experience is that faculty, especially in undergrad courses, are hesitant to get involved with the mechanics of how students conduct research. The how is the missing link. But I get it. They don’t have time to take it on. But then they report high rates of plagiarism and think it’s just cheating, not putting it together that lack of skills and understanding may be a contributing factor. It’s like we’re always going in circles. I ask for, time after time, the opportunity to get into the classrooms so I can contribute and possibly make an impact. It seems like a win-win to me but it’s not always enough to, um, you know, get that invitation to meet with students” [L37:17].

Finally, the relationship between legitimacy and professional identity is dynamic and reciprocal. Legitimacy, as a socially constructed concept, plays a crucial role in shaping and affirming professional identity, while professional identity, in

turn, serves as a vehicle through which individuals and groups seek and maintain legitimacy within their professional domains.

This final point was also weighed against Andrew Abbott's study of professions. He wrote that professional legitimacy is fundamental to claiming professional jurisdiction. In the absence of legitimacy, one's professional jurisdiction and its boundaries are weakened and subjected to "outside interference" (Abbott, 1988, 57). Abbott also establishes the link between legitimacy and a professional's ability to generate work outcomes that are valued and "culturally approved" (p. 185). Following this logic, if a professional's role is misunderstood or ambiguous, then its measure of valuable outcomes becomes a moving target that immediately threatens legitimacy.

5.5.1. Professional Legitimacy

Identifying legitimacy as a critical issue that underpins the tensions was one step toward understanding how librarians understand the collaborative tensions they encounter; however, I questioned whether the definition of 'legitimacy,' on its own, could fully encompass the form of legitimation that is assessed in a relational context. As noted by Deephouse and Suchman, the term legitimacy is widely used and conceptualised (Archibald, 2004; Bitekine, 2011; Suchman, 1995) but not always well defined (2008). Knowing that legitimacy is conferred on a faculty librarian by a non-librarian collaborator, then what faculty librarians aim to achieve cannot be labelled as 'professional legitimacy,' which is when legitimacy is conferred by professionals within the field of practice. Referring to Bourdieu's concept of cultural legitimacy (1983), legitimacy can also be conferred by individuals from outside a professional field. In a collaboration of diverse professionals, one collaborator engages with the expertise of the other during the collaboration to generate a set of outcomes. If the expertise of one collaborator is misunderstood or ambiguous, then

the ability of the other collaborator to confer the ideal level of legitimacy will be compromised.

The literature has established that cross-boundary collaborations thrive when different areas of expertise come together to problem-solve, co-create, or innovate (Levine and Prietula, 2014; Mathisen and Jørgensen, 2021; Wilczenksi, Bontragen, Ventrone, and Correia, 2001). The proposition of these studies is that an expanded knowledge and skill set generates new ideas about the shared topic. However, within cross-boundary collaborations, I assert that these same conditions can also be hindered by issues related to professional legitimacy; that is, a form of legitimacy characterised as being conferred by an outsider who relies on their collaborator's legitimacy and actively engages with it as part of the collaborative process. When a faculty librarian's collaborative legitimacy is threatened, they respond by legitimating.

5.5.2. Legitimating as a Sensemaking Hub for Professional Legitimacy

The previous section established that legitimation is the critical lens used by the faculty librarians when they encounter collaborative tensions, thereby raising questions about their legitimacy as collaborators. Questions such as: What is happening in this situation? Does my collaborator recognize me as a valuable collaborator with a specific expertise? Is my expertise being utilised to its fullest potential? Do I have an equal voice in decision-making? What should I do next? Asking these questions creates a need for the librarians to make sense of the collaborative arena in which they find themselves and, more importantly, to respond to how they are identified within that arena.

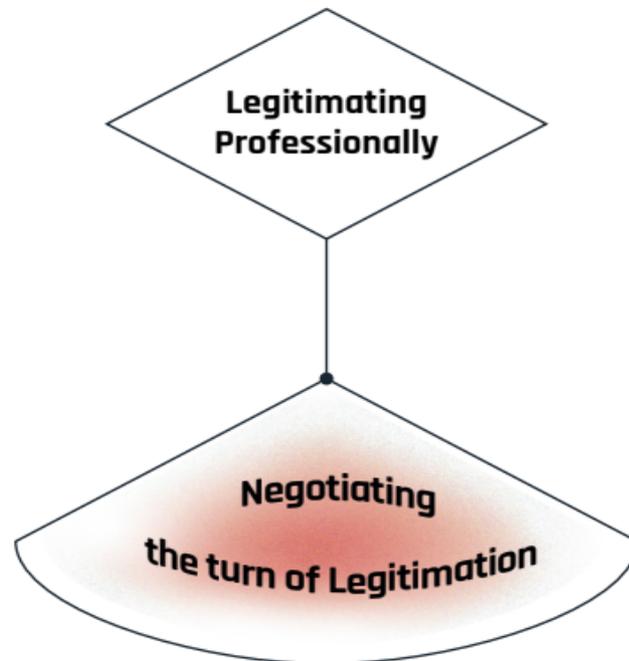
The faculty librarians are confronted with information and misperceptions that contradict their sense of self. One faculty librarian, who had previously worked as a university anthropology professor, said the following about how they frequently contend with their identity:

“Obviously, I call myself a librarian now, and that’s cool. But it’s not what I expected. Like, no one knows what librarians are really about. I work with the anthropology department, and I still have to convince them [discipline faculty] that I am qualified to co-teach the graduate research consult program. What I do is some sort of mystery and it doesn’t matter that I have the same qualifications as the professors I work with. Being a librarian means I exist in a former era that is frozen in time, like, what you see on television. It’s a persistent problem for me to figure out what someone understands or doesn’t understand about what I do” [L18:28-29].

Legitimacy is conveyed to faculty librarian collaborators through direct and indirect language and behaviours of their respective discipline faculty collaborators. Legitimizing, as a strategy to protect their professional identity, aligns with a description of institutional work put forward by Sudday, Bitektine, and Hack (2017) that describes practices used by actors to acquire legitimacy from an external actor they perceive as able to judge and determine legitimacy. See Figure 12: Conceptual Model: Legitimizing Professionally.

When confronted with narratives that oppose their own, sensemaking is a process that individuals engage with to make sense of the narrative (Sonenshein, 2010, p.496) or to construct an interpretation of their reality (Weick, 1995). Interpersonal sensemaking, a specific type of sensemaking relevant for this study, is when employees “make meaning from their jobs, roles, and selves at work.” (Wrzesniewski, Dutton, and Debebe, 2003, p. 102). Additionally, organisational scholars have identified sensemaking as a way in which individual actors respond to dialectical tensions in the workplace (Seo, Putnam and Bartunek, 2004).

Figure 12. Conceptual Model: Legitimizing Professionally



Referring to the focus of interactionism, Turner (1987) proposes that sensemaking is grounded in identity because it is a form of understanding that develops from interactions with others, often used to preserve a positive perception of oneself (p.18). Sensemaking builds on extracted social cues (Weick, 1995), and individuals respond to these cues through their actions. Additionally, sensemaking is identified as an ongoing process of understanding because the context and environment in which interactions occur make change, so individuals are continuously building upon the cues they have extracted and the feedback they receive from the actions they employ in response to the cues (Gephart, Topal, and Zhang, 2010, pp. 284–285; Maitlis and Christianson, 2014; Weick, Sutcliff, and Obstfeld, 2005)

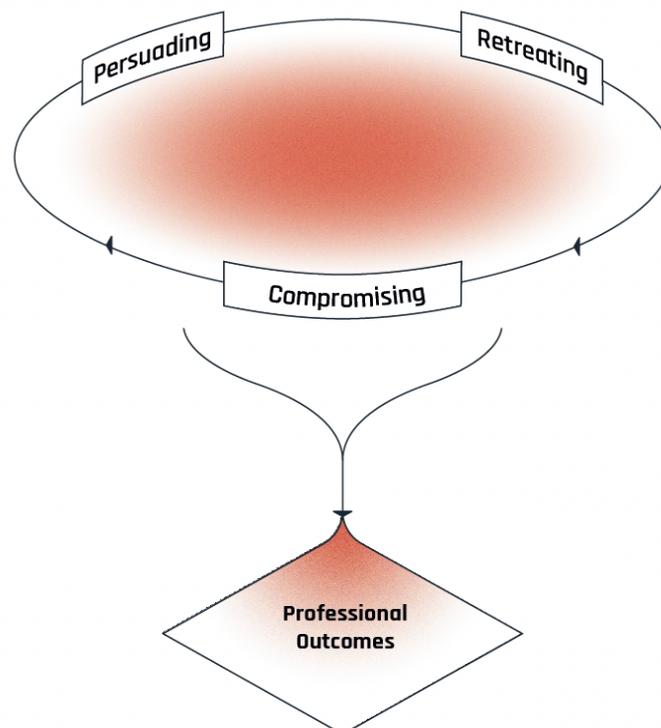
DATA FINDINGS: PART THREE

Response Patterns and Professional Outcomes

5.6. Collaborative Legitimation Response Patterns: Compromising, Persuading, and Retreating

This section also addresses one of the two original research questions: How do faculty librarians manage their professional identity during cross-boundary collaborations with discipline faculty? Below I introduce the three response patterns that demonstrate how the faculty librarians respond to their perceived legitimacy after the down 'turn.' The patterns represent behaviours used by the librarians to mitigate legitimacy threats, sustain the collaborative relationship, and preserve their sense of professional self. which lead to the need to negotiate the turn of legitimation. Below is the specific phase of the conceptual model that illustrates this section. See Figure 13: Conceptual Model: Response Patterns

Figure 13. Conceptual Model: Response Patterns



The behaviours introduced below emerged early in the analysis. Following a symbolic interactionist perspective, I was keenly focused on action and process, and these patterns were strong enough, throughout the course of analysis, to receive only minor revisions in how they are understood. Identifying these patterns so early in the analysis required me to return to the data and to ask questions related to 'what,' 'why,' and 'how:' To what are the faculty librarians responding? What does it mean for the librarians to respond in one way or the other? Why are they responding in these ways? And how do I know? Relying on the data, and checking my interpretation and ideas against the analysis, provided opportunity to return to the identity literature, one of the study's sensitising concepts, to explore new literatures relating to professional respect, stigma, stereotype, role and image discrepancy, incompatible institutional logics, and impression management. In the end, after exploratory questions were answered, it was also important to return to the legitimisation literature to understand how these behaviours are understood in the context of legitimisation.

The question that emerged after these patterns were identified – and one that I could not answer for a long while, was: To what are the librarians responding? For the sake of presenting the collaborative model in sequence, the answer to that question was introduced in Part Two of the finding chapter. Now I can focus on the behavioural patterns that follow the downturn of collaborative legitimisation.

Each of the three patterns, Compromising, Persuading, and Retreating are presented and supported through abductive analysis.

It was discovered during member-checking that some librarians enacted at least one of the other response patterns at different points in a collaboration, and in different contexts. For this reason, I do not categorise librarians as 'compromisers,' 'persuaders,' or 'retreaters.' It is more appropriate to say that there are three response patterns that librarians are known to enact when they encounter different threats to their professional legitimacy. When the behavioural patterns identified

during analysis were member-checked, one librarian who reviewed the patterns described them as “constant” and “all too familiar” in their collaborative work with discipline faculty [2 MC-L22: email ¶12].

Over time, relying upon the three response patterns to cope with and manage their professional legitimacy within collaborative relationships generated feelings of personal and professional insecurity, frustration, anger, resentment, and emotional exhaustion; all of which can lead to serious consequences including diminished of professional and collaborative identity, “them versus us” mentality, professional disengagement, and burnout.

In their preferred descriptions of collaborations with discipline faculty, the librarian participants reported the need to establish and assert their professional expertise for four reasons:

1. to be regarded as a faculty peer;
2. to maintain a meaningful level of agency in the relationship;
3. to clarify misperceptions the discipline faculty may hold about the contribution and value of the faculty librarian role; and
4. to be respected and considered for their work.

The discussion of the behavioural patterns is summarised with an explanation of how they connect to the collaborative sub-process of legitimation.

5.6.1. Compromising: Behavioural Response to Diminished Professional Agency

Compromising is one response pattern undertaken by library participants who perceive their professional legitimacy is threatened. Compromising is characterised by the librarian’s focus on the value of the collaborative outcome, as it relates to student and faculty success and the larger missions of the library and the university. The compromise they make to their legitimacy, although recognized and difficult to accept, is worthwhile to achieve collaborative outcomes. When legitimacy is

threatened, librarians who enact Compromising as a response overlook the misperception (negotiate with professional self) and, instead, strategically manage the perceptions of the faculty member. In doing so, librarians surrender their professional agency to the faculty member.

As a response behaviour, Compromising can be related to Blumer's concept of individual actors taking on the role of others from "joint action" (Blumer, 1969, 82). Each actor aligns their action to the action of others by anticipating the social activity in which they are about to engage, and by assessing what they think others will do. Through this effort, the individual actor sees himself from the perspective of the other person, and they can direct their own actions accordingly (Blumer, 1966). The action(s) of the other establish conditions from which an individual's own behaviour emerges (Blumer, 1966). Blumer writes that aligning one's action to another can occur for different reasons, further noting that alignment "need not involve, or spring from, the sharing of common values" (p. 544). Individuals may align their actions to one another in joint actions for the sake of compromise, in response to external pressure, or to advance their own agenda.

The concept of 'giving' in librarianship was a category raised early in the analysis. I wrote a memo series on 'giving' that brought together two codes that I had captured under different categories. The memo also generated one new code (making concessions to prioritise the relationship) – although I was not aware of this until I reflected on the memo days later, after I returned to librarian transcripts for further checking. The memo highlights in blue the existing codes that were eventually subsumed under 'giving.' It also highlights the new code in green.

At the time of this memo, I had raised a category called 'resisting' (later to be subsumed under the response behaviour of Retreating) and this memo brought to my attention that 'givers' had a distinct response pattern, similar to 'retreating.' The content of this memo was an important moment in the analysis because it moved

the analysis toward the development of Compromising. The first instance of 'Compromising' appears in bold font.

November 2, 2019

M-Giving in librarianship

Today I had a conversation with [name of librarian] about the concept of giving in librarianship because this category keeps coming back to me. It is so clear. It's everywhere in the data. But I don't know where it fits with misperception. How does giving relate to management of misperception?

Librarians are providers of information, resources, space and time. As "givers"/providers, librarians are expected to be available, to listen, to share, to help, to support, to troubleshoot, to follow up, and there is some feeling of professional pressure to do anything that is required. There is also conflicting pressure not to over give. If this is the case, then being a "giver" of information and time comes with its own set of demands. The work put into giving has to be adjusted based on faculty personalities, communication preferences, attitude, perceptions. More effort and more sensitivity, more vulnerability is required.

Do librarians continue to give if their role is misperceived? Does it continue? Does the giving change? Does it stop?

November 7, 2019

M-Giving in librarianship

Does giving become give up? Do givers give up when they face misperception? It seems contradictory for them to give up.

November 17, 2019

M-Giving in librarianship

The librarians do give up. They do not push back. Some want to, but they don't. But they don't give up their work. They choose to compromise. They deal with misperception in their own way (ignore? accept? don't worry about it? don't take it seriously?) and move on.

Librarians who engage in Compromising as a response behaviour accept professional role blurring, that is, they will perform tasks and assume responsibilities for work that falls outside their scope in order to stay engaged for the “greater good” of the relationship. Librarians who enact the Compromising pattern are identified from all career stages.

5.6.2. Persuading: Behavioural Response

Persuading is a second pattern of a legitimating response undertaken by library participants who encounter misperception of their professional role. Persuading is characterised by the librarian’s focus on their professional self with an aim of performing their professional role to its fullest potential. The faculty librarians can be seen to present themselves as legitimate through activities such as relationship-building and directly addressing misperceptions, aiming to align themselves with their idealised collaborator identities and reducing identity-related discrepancies. Librarians who enact the Persuading pattern are predominantly early and mid-career, though not exclusively.

The action codes that comprise Persuading reveal that librarians make sense of the experience by situating it in the belief that the misperception should be addressed and corrected (addressing the misperception) and that, by doing so, they improve the possibilities for the faculty member to view them as an equal (blurring faculty domains) and, ideally, creating opportunities to maximise all of their professional capabilities (doing what I know). Librarians who enact the Persuading pattern described scenarios in which they exerted extra time and effort to disprove the cast of role misperception (proving them wrong).

Pro-active relationship-building is a significant feature of Persuading mode, as all faculty librarian participants (no exceptions) noted the value of having stable relationships with discipline faculty, which facilitates communication about the library that is both familiar and expected for the discipline faculty. The need for

relationship-building was discussed in every interview when participants were asked about their collaborative work with discipline faculty. One librarian participant remarked:

“Without established professional contacts who see you as a valuable partner, collaboration is not possible. You have to insist and work under the assumption they already want to work with you. You know, just ask ‘what day can I present to class? It is a pressure tactic but I found it works fairly well” [L19:6].

Another faculty librarian also spoke about taking a proactive stance when relationship-building:

“Persistence is key. You have to self-advocate if you want to get anywhere. And have confidence in your assertion. Otherwise, you will never be asked to participate in the classroom” [L6:11].

Librarians who described Persuading-oriented actions often spoke with passion for their work and a determination to meet their professional goals. They also spoke disapprovingly of colleagues whom they perceive to put the profession at risk through stereotypical behaviour and “old-fashioned” attitudes toward library work [L40:19].

Some librarians who confronted discrepant role perception also described working more diligently to prove that the defence they offered on behalf of themselves (‘addressing discrepant role perception’) was valid. Working diligently to counter the misaligned perception meant that librarians invested more time working toward successful outcomes in their work with faculty. Librarians who invested extra time and energy to reinforce their professional role spoke about feeling pressure, and the physical consequences of fatigue and stress, but they also spoke about gratification for a job well done. Blumer (1969) provides a reminder that, despite the limits placed on social conduct by institutions, there is still opportunity for initiative and creativity. Although retaining control of their work can be a challenge in

collaborations, role expansion also creates opportunities for faculty librarians to develop their roles in ways which are more innovative and professionally gratifying. Examples of this are seen in an excerpt from a memo note created shortly after an observation. The observation activity was a teaching department faculty meeting to which the faculty librarian was invited:

M – Librarians’ achievements: Data Trip 3.
October 30, 2019

[Name of librarian] successfully negotiated information literacy guidelines for the [Name of school]. The guidelines were finalized last year. [Name of librarian] told me it was a long process, and not straightforward because every faculty had a different opinion about information literacy even though the Framework was in play. But she did it.

Librarians who undertook this work felt strongly that it was worthwhile because it improved faculty’s perception of their capabilities:

“It was a lot of work for me to get into Dr. [name of faculty]’s class. He would always say yes but nothing ever came of it. Then he agreed out of the blue and he was good about letting me take the lead. He was not sure how his students would respond. He had doubts. I’ll just say it. I spent hours working on the lessons. It was like a test I could not fail” [L4:22].

“I felt I was being given a chance to prove myself. I prepared to the point that I lost sight of everything. The reason I was there. I was like a robot trying to get out the information to impress Dr.[name of faculty] and Dr. [name of faculty]. And I didn’t think about connecting or following up or listening. It was a disaster and I can’t undo it” [L29:37].

Librarians who ‘prove them wrong’ also spoke of a sense of insecurity about the possibility they would be viewed as incompetent or unable to live up to the expectation they created:

“It was a big issue for me to impress her. She had given me a chance in a way and I wanted to make a difference that she would see as valuable” [L6:33].

Librarians also expressed pressure to represent the profession:

“If I slack off, then word will spread that the librarians aren’t worth it” [L12:11].

And for some librarians, the pressure to ‘prove them wrong’ extended to expectations for performance:

“There is definite pressure in my department to perform. There is a very high standard and it is expected that teaching librarians will be in the classroom and they will do whatever it takes to get there. Those librarians excel really” [L30:19].

This action presented conflict for librarians. The pressure to perform well and to ‘prove them wrong’ could allow librarians to reach their professional aspirations, but it also came with pressure and emotional strain. For some librarians, the pressure was compounded by performance goals and standards.

Librarians who enact Persuading are also recognized by other librarians as a positive asset to a library. In member-checking, a librarian who reviewed the category and codes, stated, “I work with Persuading librarians. They give our library a positive reputation. I think they are leaders...” [L33:26].

5.6.3. Retreating: Behavioural Response

The data presented a third response pattern termed ‘Retreating,’ which is observed consequently when legitimation as a collaborator is not conferred, which represents the downward ‘turn’ or regression from the other, more proactive patterns. Retreating can also be described as a self-protective mechanism when

collaborative legitimation is denied. It is characterised by a need for validation and emotional solace from other librarians.

Librarians who retreated expressed a need to talk with library colleagues or “library friends” [21:13] about role misperception they encountered with discipline faculty. They share their experiences with those they perceive will understand to receive emotional support and validation:

“I’m in a Whatsapp group with a bunch of librarians from... all around really. We share news about what’s going on in our libraries. It’s a way to vent with someone who gets it” [L21:13].

“Not in this library, but two libraries ago (laughs) the teaching librarians had a cupcake award (laughs). Whoever had the weirdest faculty request would get the cupcake. There was no real cupcake, just a cupcake toy kind of thing, but when someone had trouble with a faculty member, someone else would say, you get the cupcake and the cupcake would go to their desk. Someone would be on the phone with a faculty member and hang up and say, where’s the cupcake? (laughs)” [L11:15].

After L11 shared the cupcake story, I asked them if the teaching librarians had more intentional and serious discussions about their encounters with discipline faculty:

AA: “Hmm. So the cupcake was a way you could sort of cope, uh, together?” [p. 15].

L11: “It was, I think it was. A private joke or a high sign” [p. 15].

AA: “Did the team ever talk about these issues more seriously? You know, how you felt, what was going on, um, the impact?” [p. 15].

L11: “Uh, yeah, I guess sometimes. Well not like in a formal way. I guess it was that sometimes it became serious and we would be supportive. Someone would be feeling frustrated or bummed because of a bad day or something happened and whoever was around would say, um, don’t worry about it, it’s okay. I don’t know. Is that what you mean?” [p. 15].

AA: "It is. I am curious to know if the librarians reflected more seriously about the frequency you know, it sounds frequent if there was an award (laughs), so, yeah, just if you reflected and had those kinds of discussions" [p. 16].

L11: "Okay. Yeah...(pause). Um, no I would not say we reflected. Maybe because it was just a part of daily life. We were used to it so it seemed normal. The cupcake was just like an acknowledgement to not take it so seriously, I guess" [p. 16].

AA: "And what about your, is it... (pause) you report to a department head?... What was their take on the award and, just, the challenges you faced? Was there, you know, a way, um, a strategy to help you work through it?" [p. 16].

L11: "She was very supportive. We could be open with her. But I don't remember if there was a strategy or anything like that. Dealing with faculty is part of the job" [p. 16].

As the pattern of retreating and the theme of validation emerged, I returned to the transcripts to look for clues that the librarians reflected on what they were experiencing and why they sought professional validation. I could not identify instances of reflection on what they experienced, but it was clear that the librarians did not want to suffer in silence or isolation and frequently sought validation from other librarians.

Within the first round of librarian interviews, I identified initial codes that were eventually subsumed into the 'Building a wall' category. The initial codes were: 'wanting to be understood as a librarian', 'needing emotional reassurance', and 'discussing the day with colleagues,' and 'feeling defeated.' It was an observation activity, however, that led me to consider 'wanting validation' as a higher-level code. The observation took place in a classroom where a lesson was being taught by two invited guests: a faculty librarian and a professor from another teaching department. The faculty librarian was using the class experience to co-author a case study about librarian-faculty collaboration. Her two librarian co-authors, who were also liaisons to other departments within the same school, were present only to observe. The first

few paragraphs introduce the context for the observation. The final paragraph was written approximately one hour after the observation ended:

Dr. [instructor of record] began with introductions and let the students know there were visitors. He introduced the librarians and me.
We have moved to the back of the room. Students ask questions about an assignment.

Dr. [instructor of record] takes roll.

Dr. [instructor of record] introduces a professor from the other department. Reads from notecard, touches on his expertise, his research publications. Introduces Librarian, gives her bio. Dr. [instructor of record] hands the class off to Dr. [discipline faculty] and the librarian. They take turns explaining the lesson, the objectives, what students should take away.

Class goes dark. Visual presentation from a field study trip to [name of country] is presented. About 35 minutes. Back and forth between Dr. [other department] and Librarian. She talks about one slide, then he talks about a slide. Very well presented.

Students ask questions. Dr. [other department] responds. Is he jumping in? Why isn't Librarian answering? He answers all of the questions. Librarian added to one answer. Why isn't she saying anything? It looks like she is a side-kick. My impression [O3: ¶1-6].

After the class I walked back to the library with the librarians. During the entire walk the librarians were expressing anger that Dr. [other department] "took over" and "hogged" the Q&A. They insult him by calling him rude, jerk, and mediocre. Librarian seems relieved. Asks about presentation. The librarians begin comparing her remarks to Dr. [other department] remarks. Who was more articulate? Who was more interesting? Told Librarian she was amazing and she did a great job, it was clear she had prepared more carefully. Librarian kept asking questions, for validation (emphasis added). Is she insecure? Why? Because she lost her way during Q&A? In general? Librarians kept telling her she was great [O3:¶ 9].

Librarians who view role misperception as a personal affront, whether they confront it or not, feel a need for their professional role to be validated by other

librarians. This action aligns them more closely with a profession made up of individuals who “speak the same language” [L19:5]. Wanting to be validated is identified as a coping mechanism that leads librarians to find professional reassurance through individual library colleagues, who they identify through similar or shared views of faculty, or by strongly identifying with the entitative library profession to feel their beliefs and actions are validated by professional norms. When the librarian decides the discrepant role perception warrants the decision not to initiate further contact with the discipline faculty member, they recognize the decision as a serious one and make efforts to justify their behaviour.

Despite their strong desire for collegial support, they may face critical reactions from colleagues and from their supervisor. For this reason, Retreating is also described as an act that, for the librarian, creates potential isolation within their department and/or within the library. Whether or not the act becomes isolating is directly connected to the attitudes and actions of library colleagues and the library faculty performance expectations set forth by the library and its promotion guidelines. No library participants who were interviewed spoke of harsh consequences, but they referenced interpersonal tensions and conflict, as well as feeling “defensive” [L21:42] or like “an outsider no matter where I go” [L8:35] which leads to feelings of frustration and anxiety.

There was only one piece of evidence from the data to suggest that library administration, at the organisational level, were lending support to librarians. The interview excerpt below is also referenced in the chapter section on Persuading:

“Our reporting dean has a problem with change but he’s trying. I am in the process of arranging pedagogical training for the teaching and reference librarians. The very idea is what? managing up? (laughs) No. I am trying to move our dean away from what he traditionally did, which was to give teaching librarians loads of advanced database training, to what I see as vital for the day-to-day reality. Some librarians may get lost but that is inevitable. The training should go a

long way towards empowering the librarians and developing a stronger culture focused on teaching and learning” [L24:20-21].

In member-checking the Retreat pattern, one librarian whose actions did not resonate with Retreating, commented on the code, ‘wanting to be validated,’ and said that she didn’t like it when “other librarians complain about faculty. It’s toxic” [2MC-L12: email ¶2]. This view, when compared to similar views shared by other librarians, indicates that librarians who work together, but enact different patterns, may encounter workplace tension at interpersonal and department levels, creating conditions that require the department head to employ conflict resolutions strategies.

While librarians described experiences of seeking out individual colleagues to lend emotional support, librarians also found reassurance in the entity of the library profession. They referenced its values and principles as a way to feel reassured about who they are as librarians – not necessarily as members of a faculty. Retreating into the profession provides reassurance and comfort because it is a place of acceptance where professional role-based tensions are not an issue. If a librarian who enacts Retreating does not work alongside colleagues who understand Retreating thinking, they can feel isolated and defensive about their professional decision-making. Returning to L11, who shared the story about the cupcake award, they went on to explain that their colleagues in the library where they are currently employed would not find humour in the award:

L11: “...honestly, I have learned a lot from my team. I have learned from watching them interact with faculty and I can see their confidence. But I still find it difficult to work at that level” [p. 17].

AA: “What do you mean by that level?” [p. 17].

L11: “Uh, not... just finding a way with faculty. I’ve been working longer than most of them but I feel like an outsider sometimes” [p. 17].

AA: "What do they do that makes you feel that way, like an outsider?" [p. 17].

L11: "I don't know. I think they are more serious about everything. I think they would be offended if they knew about the award" [p. 17].

For one librarian, attending a conference was one way to feel secure in the larger entity of the profession. They describe how their stress of was greatly reduced by the experience:

"...But then you see 200 people packed into a room listening to a talk about the value of libraries or the impact librarians are having. Those few days with other people remind you who you are as a librarian. A little boost of strength" [L19:5].

The analysis demonstrates how faculty librarians responded to feelings of being de-legitimised as a collaborator, which threatens their collaborative identity. While they asserted that they viewed themselves as equal participants in collaborations and collaborative decision-making, they struggled with external perceptions of their role which influenced their participation and the extent of their collaborative agency.

5.6.4. Behavioural Patterns and the Risk for Informal Hierarchies

My insight from studying the three behavioural response patterns results in three important points related to legitimation as a sub-process of collaboration: First, these patterns are identified as responsive strategies that faculty librarians use to negotiate and manage their identity after the downturn of their collaborative legitimation. The librarians, reflexively or consciously, navigate between behaviours to mitigate the perception of their legitimacy, to maintain the status quo of the collaboration, or to preserve and protect their professional self.

A second point relates to the symbolic interactionist premise of this study. Both collaboration and legitimation are socially constructed processes (Berger,

Ridgeway, Fisek, and Norman 1998), but much theory around both of these concepts is built on the assumption that the actors who are involved share common beliefs and behave accordingly (Park, Mathieu, Grosser, 2020). In the case of autonomous collaborations between faculty librarians and discipline faculty, it has been demonstrated that beliefs and values between actors are not always shared or commonly understood. I propose that the behavioural patterns can also be viewed as symbolic patterns that attempt to communicate and mediate relational and bounded aspects of the relationship including legitimacy, agency, collaborative engagement and commitment. The librarians use these behaviours to modify, protect, or create relational boundaries to support their needs as collaborators.

The final point describes a second link to symbolic interactionism, the patterns, and identity work. The behavioural response patterns align to what Barley and Tolbert (1997) term as "identity script," which can be defined as iterative processes or patterns of interaction that occur within a specific context or setting (p.98). In the case of faculty librarians, the shared and defining characteristic of these patterns or scripts is that they present an opportunity for faculty librarians to influence or change aspects of how they function within the collaboration, and how they are perceived within its narrative. The librarians respond to legitimation threats by using scripts as a form of identity work that can:

1. *persuade* or influence change by breaking down barriers related to role ambiguity and misperception;
2. *compromise* or adapt their role and behaviours necessary to sustain the collaboration; and,
3. *retreat* or establish distinct boundaries around their role to protect their professional self

5.7. Professional Outcomes

The study's findings have demonstrated that faculty librarians' participation in autonomous collaborations with discipline faculty generates dialectical tensions that are salient for faculty librarians, but latent for discipline faculty. When encountering these tensions, the librarians enter a sensemaking process of legitimation, with the aim of being legitimised as a collaborator. Feeling threatened by de-legitimation from a collaborative peer leads to a series of responsive behaviours enacted by faculty librarians to manage the outcome of how they feel they are perceived and legitimated as collaborators. As noted earlier, these behaviours are not always enacted in isolation from one another; instead, they can be used in sequences. For example, a librarian may respond to legitimation threats through the act of persuading behaviours and, depending on the success of those efforts, their efforts may be rewarded because the persuasive efforts positively influenced how they are perceived by a discipline faculty member; alternatively, a librarian can enact persuading behaviours that are not impactful, causing them to move toward compromising behaviours as a way to sustain the collaboration; or they may feel the legitimation threat is unmanageable or intolerable, and they enact retreating behaviours as a way to protect their professional self.

The outcomes from the downturn of legitimation, and the enactment of one or more of the response behaviours, impact the faculty librarians' professional identity and sense of self. Below is an explanation of the professional risks and rewards identified from the data and associated with the turn in legitimation.

5.7.1. Threats to Collaboration

The outcomes of collaborative experiences involving delegitimization can trigger a decline in the number of collaborative relationships in which a faculty librarian is engaged, resulting in career-related consequences for the librarian:

“There is a lot of struggle sometimes to work with the faculty in Engineering, so if it’s not alright, if the dean [of the library] doesn’t support me to be in productive work situations, then where are the ethics of the situation? She may disagree with me, but she should respect it if I say I cannot work with Dr. [personal name] or Dr. [personal name] and I have specific reasons because of their behavior towards me. But this doesn’t happen... It’s an emotional situation because suddenly you feel you’re a nuisance always worrying about promotion because you struggle with some of the relationships” [L22:36-37].

While many faculty librarians spoke about the value of librarians’ camaraderie when collaborations prove difficult, reverse experiences were also identified. Other faculty librarians addressed difficulties in maintaining an objective relationship with librarian colleagues, revealing the risk to their professional reputation and identity if their collaborative relationships are unsuccessful:

“It’s complicated, because I had success at [name of former university] and here it is difficult, like notoriously difficult. It has been a huge deal for me to establish relationships. Maybe it was two years of work to establish relationships and trust and it has been an uncomfortable situation because, you know, I have not made much progress. It could just be a matter of how I communicate or a different energy. I don’t know honestly but it has caused a rift in my department. I wonder if I am in the right profession or maybe the right university, and I feel like they [librarian colleagues] think I am not a good librarian who can pull their own weight” [L19:10-11].

Many of the faculty librarian participants spoke about expectations from their supervisors or deans, raising other concerns about their professional identity. They spoke specifically about the pressure that exists when their collaborative work or performance does not align with the library’s expectations for performance, and how this pressure shapes their professional identity. One librarian pointed to the

collaboration-specific data they attach to their annual report, which is a self-reflective tool used as part of the annual performance appraisal:

“...assembling this report creates some tense moments for me because I know how important the data is, and how the library relies on it for reporting. Even though I am only one person and I cannot force any work onto the teaching faculty. But all of the fuzzy behind the scenes work of investing time and having conversations and establishing rapport are not recognized as work. My dean is not lenient with these reports so I am inclined to stretch the definition of some reporting fields because I need positive feedback so the report does not hurt me and so I am not viewed in a negative way. I think the whole reporting cycle is a big mess because it does not account for the free will of our faculty” [L18:26-27].

Another faculty librarian similarly addressed the pressure to follow a formula to contribute to collaborative work, causing them to feel professionally diminished, rather than supported to work within fluctuating social conditions. L26 stated that the expectations for collaboration felt like the work was an “assembly line” (p.39) and placed librarians in the position to be “salespersons” (p.40), and did not account for the relationship-building that had to be cultivated and sustained for their collaborative relationships to remain meaningful. Following a similar line of thought, one librarian questioned the library’s emphasis on data instead of genuine learning outcomes, expressing that it impacts how they feel about their work:

“...you know, I get that it is important that the library demonstrates its value. That pressure will never go away. But that pressure also interferes with the reality of what I’m doing and what the other librarians are doing. The library should be more concerned about the students and learning outcomes and how to measure our impact on learning. It is not enough to say that we had this many contact hours or we participated in this many grants or projects. Some of the admin are happy with the, uh, whatever looks good approach, so maybe that’s why our dean relies on their lead for making the library look

good. This has really changed the way I work with faculty and how I feel about the numbers work and the genuine work”[L1:31].

Although different university libraries have different expectations for collaborative work and its outcomes, several other faculty librarians perceived collaborative performance as a force that pushed them to satisfy reporting requirements as their top priority:

“I have done some work that I wasn’t comfortable doing because at least I could count it as something. I was, you know, um, I wanted to push back a bit and say, you know, you invited me to work on this project. I’m not an assistant here to manage your grant. I would prefer to have more, uh, discretion I guess to invest in work that I find rewarding too. But to turn out statistics, I have to compromise on those kinds of personal preferences and do things that are not what I’m about as a librarian or a faculty member” [L15:42].

“...maybe I should not say it is overly prescribed, but there is favoritism for librarians who are working on multiple collabs and there is no way to know the true nature of that work because the results are mostly unknown unless they turn out publications or secure funding or something else that makes the library visible. So I get into a cycle of underperforming by the skewed standards for performance in my library and worrying about what I am really trying to accomplish as a librarian...” [L33:38].

By contrast, there were some faculty librarians who expressed a different viewpoint on the implications for quantitative collaborative performance measures. L14 stated that librarians who “get their hands dirty” represent a “win” for the reputation of all faculty librarians (p.27). Their statement indicated that the positive reputation of one librarian had the potential to serve as a marketing tool for the library, and for librarians, in general. L2 echoed this perspective by mentioning their own capability to network more assertively under the pressure of performance requirements, and to avoid “taking advantage and getting lazy” when collaborative

relationships prove difficult (p.30). In these cases, the challenging conditions presented by strict performance measures, or reluctant discipline faculty collaborators, are not regarded as impediments but as motivation to share the win with colleagues and to work more diligently for themselves. Both motivators can also be viewed as building blocks toward a positive self-perception; however, observing two distinct perspectives on collaborative performance also raised the question of how to reconcile them against the professional identity literature.

The professional risks identified indicate that, in addition to the work faculty librarians undertake to respond to legitimation threats, they also face a secondary threat to their librarian identity – although from a different perspective. For most of the faculty librarians who spoke to this issue, the internal threats from library colleagues, and the library's performance appraisal cycle, posed additional threats to their identity that generated anxiety and questions about how to account for the nuanced aspects of collaborative work, as well as the overall value of their work. The concerns identified from the faculty librarians' comments indicate that the pressure to perform contradicts the values of librarianship and their capacity to contribute as faculty librarians, which is the core threat to their identity. In these cases, the librarians are not able to eliminate the threat, but they can ameliorate its effect by situating it in circumstances beyond their control, including the limitations of a performance appraisal. Such identity work aligns with the work of Creed, DeJordy, and Lok (2010). In their study that explored how LGBT ministers manage their marginalised identities in the larger context of the American Protestant church, they describe how the ministers rely on existing institutional narratives and meanings in their identity constructions. Tapping into institutional narratives and established meaning is one way to address identity contradictions, particularly those that are attached to deep emotions (p.1337).

For a smaller number of faculty librarians, the perception of their colleagues, and the library's performance measures were not identified as threatening.

However, this aspect of the faculty librarians' work is largely invisible to individuals outside of their department or the library because the skills managed to require relationships are tacit; they are not captured, reported, or otherwise addressed by means of support or professional development.

Exploring librarians' perceived feelings about the contradiction between performance and the professions' core values extend beyond this study and its data set, but it raises interesting questions about the relationship between library performance appraisal systems, most of which are aligned with promotion standards, the demonstration of quantitative versus qualitative assessments, and impact on librarians' professional identity and sense of legitimacy.

5.7.1.a. Affective Impact on Faculty Librarians

From the data already presented in this chapters' sections, it has been established that faculty librarians often feel their professional knowledge and experience is not acknowledged or understood within a collaboration, leaving them unable to contribute to its terms and outcomes in a way they identify as meaningful.

These experiences can contribute to librarians participating in the collaboration without an equal measure of agency and, in some cases, causing the collaborative relationship to devolve into an informal hierarchy. The data also suggests that librarians who encounter these challenges experience a range of feelings. Below are interview excerpts representing librarians' feelings of worry, dejection, discomfort, and anger when confronted with collaborative tensions:

"I worry a lot about what they [discipline faculty] think. Do they view me, my work, with respect? Do they see me as a colleague? Someone who also plays a role in educating the students? I just don't know. I feel like worry gets in my head [pause]...Yeah. It gets in my head. It probably doesn't help" [L34:38].

"...I feel like, sometimes I do feel that, okay. I don't fully get to make decisions, and I'm talking about the bigger picture that of course is

why I think I've been invited to work with Dr. [personal name]. I feel like sometimes, even though my opinions should be respected, and I try to make my voice heard, it doesn't usually happen...And if it does happen that I am heard, then it feels nice. It's really nice. When I'm ignored I feel low. You know, dejected. So, yes, this is something that I wish could be changed." [L8:44].

"I have managed to not ruffle feathers [of discipline faculty] the wrong way, but I am careful too. I am comfortable to engage with faculty, but I want to be respected and valued for my work at the same time. When I feel disrespected it causes me stress. It puts a lot of stress on me and then I feel uncomfortable around them" [L12:19].

"...you know, and it's easy for me to become angry and upset because this is just another faculty member but they act as if they are superior to me. It is very hard" [L5:8].

The presence of librarians' uncomfortable and negative feelings was clear from the data, and clearly linked to the interpersonal dynamics that arise from their encounters with the collaborative tensions. From this distinct collection of data, I turned my attention toward analysing these feelings to understand how – or if – they impacted the collaborative relationship. The subsequent analysis of the librarians' emotions establishes that experiencing threats of de-legitimisation, or being delegitimised as a collaborator, causes the librarians to contend with a range of feelings including concern, distress, frustration, and a sense of professional diminishment.

My analysis of the data that represented emotions began with memos and notes related to emotion and, subsequently, emotional labour. I was aware of the concept of emotional labour, but not well informed on how it had been studied in the context of collaborations. Below is a memo that provides a view into my early thinking about emotion and emotional labour.

June 6, 2020

M-Emotional toll on librarians

There is a lot of emotion expressed in the librarian interviews. There is so much hurt and anger. Even tears. A lot of resentment is described. It comes forward even if the librarians are describing a relationship that occurred years ago. But I cannot assess the outcome of their emotions. Where does it go? They suppress it? It doesn't seem as though the feelings are forgotten. What is the toll if all of this frustration is suppressed?

June 10, 2020

Literature check on emotional labor.

June 20, 2020

Reviewed Hochschild, 1983, Gabriel and Diefendorff, 2015; Grandey, 2000; Lee, 2005. The data aligns to a point, but these studies are primarily connected to service-oriented occupations. That makes sense if the librarians see themselves as service-oriented. But that is not the case in this study. Locate studies on emotional labor in peer relationships.

I don't see the emotional labor strategies in the data. I know the emotions are present, but nothing in the data confirms the labor or the strategies/regulation. I can only presume the regulation is happening. This was not pursued in the interviews, and I don't know how to account for positive emotions that have been described.

July 31, 2020

Read Scott and Barnes, 2011

Search for additional articles that focus on peer relationships, collabs, teams. Consider the threat to professional identity as a factor (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993).

The above memo ended after the July 31, 2020 entry; however, this memo progressed to a series of handwritten notes, used as an accompanying guide for the literature review, to distinguish emotion labour from what I observed in the data. The notes also allowed me to work through the attributes of emotions in the context of professional identity and peer-to-peer or team contexts:

Research Notes (excerpt from notebook #11)

January 2021

Emotional labor

Other keywords: emotions, mood, feelings

How emotions are expressed, regulated, strategized to align with “socially desired” expectations for the workplace or “display rules”

Surface and deep acting strategies

Generally, emotional labor is taxing for employees but good for orgs (Cote, 2005)

Emotional labor and identity

Stronger association with positive role congruence/identity

Role incongruity impairs one’s sense of “authentic self”

Hochschild refers to the difference between emotions that [sic] expressed from emotions that are felt: “Display is what is sold, but over the long run display comes to assume a certain relation to feeling” (2012, p. 68 – ebook). This difference is significant because I think this is the most I can describe. I don’t have data to move beyond librarians’ felt emotions (feelings). This limits emotional labor as an explanation.

The lit search for studies on felt emotions in collaborations/teams/peer-to-peer was not productive, except for Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) citing Kahn (1981) for affective responses. What is the difference between emotions and affective responses?

I identified felt emotions in more articles related to service employees. Does this mean there is a gap in recognizing felt emotions in teams/collabs? Or does this represent a link to an emotional dimension of service-based relationships that is also observed in peer-to-peer collabs (assuming peer-to-peer functions ideally)? Or do the emotions represent a response to a threat that, in an ideal collaboration, should not emerge? I don’t think I can answer these questions with my data. Focus on the significance of librarians’ feelings.

Following this note and relying on Hochschild’s distinction between expressed and felt emotions, I aimed to focus on understanding felt emotions. While I did observe a group of librarians employ “acting” to disguise their true feelings of anger during a business meeting (Hochschild, 2012, p.39), I did not have sufficient data to explore whether librarians employed one or both of Hochschild’s emotional

labour acting strategies, surface acting and deep acting to suppress negative (e.g., anger, frustration) emotions in their collaborative relationships with discipline faculty (Hochschild, 2003; Rupp, McCance, and Grandey, 2007). This gap left space for me to consider the librarians' feelings without constraint.

Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) referred to "affective responses" citing the work of Robert Kahn (1981), an American psychologist and social scientist. I used this lead to explore the next avenue of work related to emotions. From the work of Kahn and Zajonc (1980), I learned that one mode of processing affective responses comes from processing incoming information that, I argue, can include meaning the librarians derived from their exposure to collaborative tensions. An affective or felt response, such as anger or frustration, results from a cognitive analysis of a situation or context. In other words, before the librarian feels something about their perceived role in a collaboration, they have evaluated information, verbal or non-verbal cues, from the discipline faculty collaborator. This aligns with the work of Jordan and Troth (2021), who put forward the notion that forms of team conflict are "inherently emotional" because they can represent threats to individual or group goals (p. 200). In the case of the faculty librarians, the threats that arise from the other three collaborative tensions are focused on their professional legitimacy. Upon further reflection, I understood that the identification of the affect tension aligns with symbolic interactionism, in that feelings can be understood to represent a facet of one's reality (Denzin, 2007). They emerge from the social world and provide meaning for the librarians depending upon the context (Fine, 1993; Hochschild, 1983).

It was also observed in the data that faculty librarians who experienced strong feelings during their collaborations with discipline faculty would rely on library colleagues to help them make sense of their negative experiences, to cope during a difficult period, or to bolster their sense of professional identity. Many librarians found that sharing their feelings with colleagues, and having conversations about their experiences, was a helpful way to realign their professional identity after

exposure to collaborative tensions. Conversely, it was also observed in the data that faculty librarians' identity can be impacted if they feel they are being negatively perceived by their librarian colleagues. It can be surmised that faculty librarians who share their feelings with other librarians, as part of a self-validation process, have established a sense of interpersonal trust.

Interestingly, among the librarians who shared their experiences with negative feelings, there were no instances in which they recounted having a deliberate, proactive conversation about these feelings with their collaborators. Without further study, I cannot determine the reasons the librarians do not have candid conversations with discipline faculty about feelings that were generated from the collaboration; however, I can speculate that the informal hierarchy may have a bearing on this, as well as the fact that faculty librarians are working across boundaries and striving to maintain a professional reputation. Do they anticipate that such a conversation would be ineffective and potentially undermine the relationship? Unlike their conversations with other librarians, they may not consider it an opportunity to self-validate. Instead, the feelings remain intact as a distinct type of collaborative tension, while the librarians continue to "just make it work" as a collaborative partner [L2:24].

While I did not have sufficient data to offer a well-formed explanation of why librarians do not share their feelings with discipline faculty, it was important to situate my general observation against what is known about workplace well-being. Contrary to the faculty librarians' practice, the literature indicates that it is beneficial, as part of a team or group-based task, to resolve emergent conflicts and tensions (DeDreu, Van Dierendonck, Dijkstra, 2004), and to deal directly with tensions relating to differences in viewpoints (Tjosvold, 1998). Jehn (1995) notes that conflict resolution can be a sensitive process in groups with a high level of interdependence because the act of openly sharing can intensify team members' interactions (p. 262), paving the way for additional conflicts to occur and affect the teams and its

members. The data analysis from this study suggests that the level of interdependence between faculty librarians and discipline faculty is variable and not always mutual. This leads me to question whether the lack of interdependence is a variable that reflexively or consciously influences librarians' decision to withhold their feelings from discipline faculty when tensions arise. It is also possible that withholding their feelings exacerbates the tension. They may surmise that the collaborations tensions do not mutually impact the discipline faculty, and sharing their own feelings in these instances would cause more harm than benefit to the collaborative effort.

An affective response, as part of the autonomous collaborative experience, highlights an important challenge for faculty librarians: The importance of regulating their feelings to balance their own needs against the broader benefits of the collaborative work and its outcomes. This is not to suggest that discipline faculty do not have to regulate their own feelings; however, the data does not provide enough information to elaborate on the affective response experienced by discipline faculty in their collaborative relationships with faculty librarians.

5.7.2. Positive Outcomes for Collaborations

The faculty librarians were explicit in what motivated them to take part in cross-boundary collaborative projects with discipline faculty. The motivating factors include:

- o making significant contributions to the learning outcomes of students;
- o contributing their expertise to academic initiatives in the areas of teaching, learning, and research;
- o cultivating a network of peer faculty, external to the library;
- o influencing decisions and collaborative outcomes that contribute to the university's mission; and
- o developing and improving their practices as a faculty librarian.

It was described in the section above that some of these factors are compromised under library-based performance appraisals and the pressure to contribute to statistics that are designed to demonstrate the library's institutional impact and value. As a result, these pressures also take the form of a secondary risk or threat to the librarians' professional identity. However, the risks represent one side of the outcomes associated with faculty librarians' collaborative work. The data analysis also demonstrates that the librarians deeply value collaborations that can contribute to their professional development and expand the range of their cross-boundary experiences. Included as part of their development is the success of their collaborations with faculty, and how they navigated difficult social situations that emerged from the relationship. Many of the faculty librarians shared that the positive experiences provided them with an opportunity to self-reflect and improve their understanding of how to navigate collaborative work:

"I have learned a lot from the faculty. I think the problems we have solved together taught me a lot. I started working here when I was 22 years old. I didn't know much. I started in a junior faculty position only three months after being a student myself. And at that age you just start to understand how people work. Every relationship with every faculty member has taught me something that improved how I work" [L18:21].

"It was maybe three years before I lost my fear of working with [discipline] faculty. I know now I didn't have the right skills but today I have no problems speaking directly to the chairs or the deans. Collaborating as much as I do helped me mature and become confident. I needed that but also a better skill set for interacting" [L26:49].

In addition, since different feelings are present in human relationships, they give the professional an opportunity to deal with them and, sometimes, to modify them, as shown in the example below:

“My feeling is that it is a privilege to learn when working alongside other faculty, with other professionals, with staff and students, too. Recognizing this took me some time but I am a better librarian because of the work I have done with faculty over the years and even now” [L25:34].

The opportunity to collaborate with discipline faculty was deeply valued, as well as their recognition of the faculty librarian’s role. The discipline faculty were mentioned in a positive way by the librarians, who valued their opinion:

“I am always struck when they [discipline faculty] say thank you, you did a great job for the student. So when they understand I have something important to contribute, you know, not just here’s a book and here’s an article, it’s very important to me” [L2:39].

Some of the faculty librarians spoke about collaborations becoming tense if they asserted themselves on behalf of the students and their learning outcomes. Even so, the librarians expressed deep gratification for acting on behalf of the students. In these instances, navigating the tensions that arose through these differences in opinion, were outweighed by their advocacy for student learning:

“I love our students so much. I don’t work at the desk anymore, but I loved those years and that time in my career. Now I access students through partnerships with faculty. It’s a trade-off because it is a lot of work and it’s difficult work with some faculty but the students make it worthwhile and when they do well it absolutely changes my perspective on why I do what I do...” [L14:16-17].

It has been demonstrated that faculty librarians are exposed to a range of collaborative tensions that generate challenging situations in their relationships with discipline faculty but, for some of the librarians, the professional growth it provides also contributes to professional satisfaction:

“This is not a boring job. Everyone thinks it must be quiet and boring. There’s always something happening if you work with [discipline] faculty” [L1:1]

Overall, the findings presented from this chapter demonstrate that faculty librarians encounter dialectical challenges during their cross-boundary collaborations with discipline faculty. These tensions challenge their professional identity and raise threats to their professional legitimacy. They manage their collaborative relationships by employing different strategies to counter legitimation threats: Compromising, Persuading, and Retreating.

The relationship that faculty librarians, particularly those in teaching roles, hold with discipline faculty is the most important in helping them fulfil their institutional role, yet its dynamics remain problematic, as articulated through the grounded theory model: Negotiating the Turn of Professional Legitimation. The following chapter will situate the findings against the current literature to articulate its theoretical and practical contributions.

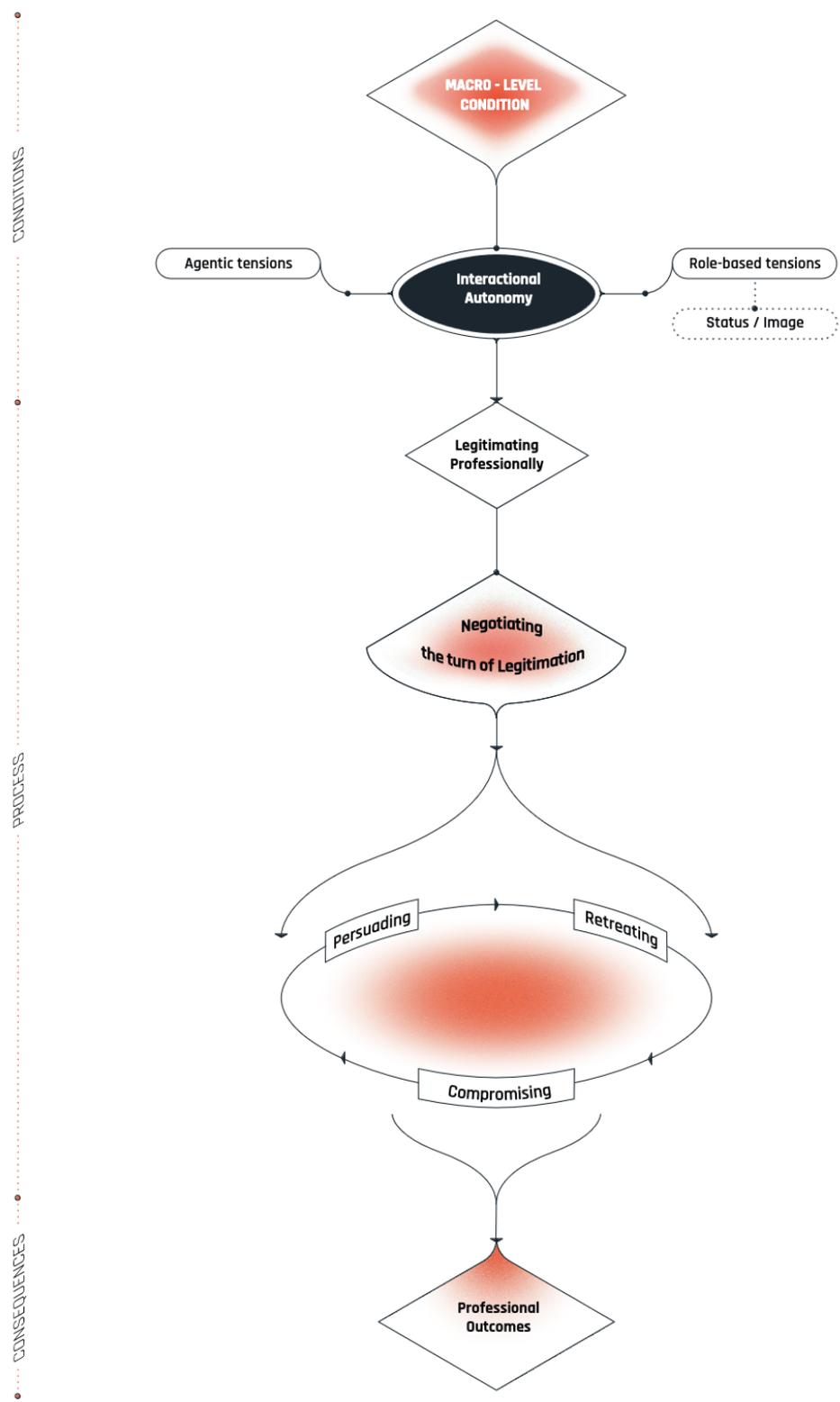
CHAPTER SIX: Discussion and Contribution of Data Findings

6. Implications of the Grounded Theory Model

Constructivist grounded theory was used to examine the social aspects of faculty librarians' collaborative experience with discipline faculty. In this chapter, I discuss the grounded theory and conceptual process model that emerged from this study, representing the collaborative experience of faculty librarians: ***Negotiating the Turn of Professional Legitimation***. I return to key data findings to discuss the dynamic, interrelatedness of the three phases of the conceptual model: Conditions, Processes, and Consequences, and to explain how the model supports the grounded theory. The discussion contextualises the data findings with the literature to situate the relevance of the grounded theory and its contributions to professional practice and theory. The grounded theory does not resolve the social problems faculty librarians encounter in collaborations with discipline faculty; instead, it conceptualises how they negotiate the interplay of social processes identified to occur during their autonomous collaborations with discipline faculty.

Negotiating the Turn in Professional Legitimation represents a processual model synthesizing two critical organizational scholarship domains: collaboration and professional legitimacy. The grounded theory process emphasises the reciprocal relationship between collaboration and legitimacy as experienced by the faculty librarians. While collaborative work has the potential to amplify professional legitimacy and contribute to the effectiveness and sustainability of cross-boundary collaborations, the relationship between these constructs can also disrupt collaborative processes and outcomes. See Figure 14. Conceptual Model of Faculty Librarians' Collaborative Process.

Figure 14. Conceptual Model of Faculty Librarians' Collaborative Process



Below, I present an overview of the significant contributions of the grounded theory model. These contributions align sequentially with the three phases of the conceptual model: Conditions, Processes, and Outcomes. This unique model offers a new perspective on the social aspects of faculty librarians' collaborative experience, revealing the complex dynamics of their interactions with discipline faculty:

1. **Conditions:** The grounded theory acknowledges the influence of contextual factors for autonomous collaborations, including the lack of institutional mandates or guiding practices for collaboration and competing disciplinary or professional norms for collaborations. These contextual elements contribute to the rise of collaborative tensions that subsequently influence the emergence of legitimation threats. The findings indicate that autonomous, cross-boundary collaborations should not be conceptualised in the same way as mandated collaborations.

2. Collaborative **Processes** as Catalysts for Legitimation: The grounded theory posits that autonomous collaborative processes serve as catalysts for faculty librarians' professional legitimacy. Ideally, librarians' collaborative endeavours foster the equal exchange of expertise and ideas, amplify feelings of credibility and value, and present an opportunity for peer recognition. However, when collaborative tensions arise, the librarians' sense of legitimacy is threatened. The threat, identified as the downward 'turn' in professional legitimation, leads to a series of mitigating behaviours that potentially modify a peer relationship into an informal hierarchy. The study findings indicate that feelings of de-legitimation within autonomous, cross-boundary collaborations often remain a hidden part of the collaborative experience, which can affect the faculty librarians' collaborative identity and compound other negative feelings of de-legitimation, including

collaborative disengagement and burnout. Therefore, legitimating is identified as a disruptive, socially constructed sub-process of autonomous collaborations.

3. **Outcomes:** The study findings also demonstrate that legitimation threats in autonomous, cross-boundary collaborations have the potential to counter the benefits of autonomous collaborations identified in other studies, including innovation, agility, and knowledge transfer.

Finally, the grounded theory of *Negotiating the Turn of Professional Legitimation* represents an iterative social and political process that explains how faculty librarians respond to and manage the emergence of variable relational tensions in their autonomous collaborations with discipline faculty. The salience of the tensions that arise signals to the librarians if their legitimacy is threatened. The faculty librarians' responsive behaviours are actioned to achieve their professional goals and preserve their professional identity and agency. *Negotiating the Turn of Professional Legitimation* reflects the interplay of simultaneous processes that directly impact the relational structure and specific dimensions of collaboration, including its agility, stability, and effectiveness.

6.1. The Contributions of the Conceptual Model

Comparing the conceptual model against existing literature is important to establish its practical and theoretical significance. Through a comparative analysis, I provide a foundation for how my model complements and extends existing knowledge, theories, and frameworks. Additionally, by situating my model against the existing literature, I showcase its relevance and applicability to other contexts. Such comparisons also allow for the identification of limitations. Below, I follow the model's three phases to structure the discussion: collaborative conditions, processes, and outcomes. The discussion of these three phases is followed by a

summary of the study's practical and theoretical contributions and the transferability of the findings.

6.1.1. Conditions in Autonomous, Cross-Boundary Collaborations

A critical outcome of the study is identifying the distinction between autonomous and mandated collaborations and determining that they cannot be conceptualized similarly. The findings from this outcome contribute to a deeper understanding of how autonomous collaborations emerge without the benefit of institutional mandates and guidelines, specifically in cross-boundary collaborations.

Autonomy within collaborative relationships represents a crucial aspect that delineates voluntary from mandated collaborations; however, the distinction between the two forms of cooperation is not rigorously studied in the literature. Autonomous collaborations are characterized by voluntary engagement and negotiated agreements, offering collaborators greater flexibility and ownership over the collaborative process (D'Amour et al., 2008). Without pre-established terms accompanying mandated collaborations, the autonomy allows collaborators to tailor their approach to the collaborative work, adapt to changing circumstances, and influence greater control over decision-making processes. Ideally, these conditions foster a sense of ownership and deepen the commitment among collaborators. The research by D'Amour et al. (2008) further highlights the benefits of autonomy in promoting creativity, innovation, and self-governance within collaborative teams, thereby enhancing the quality and relevance of outcomes. Similarly, Bourgault et al. (2008) emphasize how autonomous collaborations enable participants to leverage their expertise and experience, leading to more robust problem-solving and decision-making processes.

Conversely, collaborations mandated by institutional policies or frameworks may entail different power dynamics and accountability mechanisms (Bourgault et al., 2008; Kezar and Lester, 2009). In mandated collaborations, participants may

collaborate due to external directives or requirements, which can influence their level of commitment and engagement. Kezar and Lester (2009) argue that mandated collaborations often prioritize compliance and adherence to predefined goals and standards, potentially constraining participants' autonomy and creativity. Moreover, Lahiri et al. (2017) and Magee and Galinsky (2008) suggest that mandated collaborations may be characterized by hierarchical power structures, where decision-making authority is centralized, and collaborators have limited autonomy to shape the collaborative process. In a study of board directors, He and Huang (2011) support this assertion, noting that team members develop perceptions of each other's competence and expertise, leading to an informal hierarchical structure that shapes collaborative dynamics and facilitates decision-making processes.

I returned to a table first presented in Chapter 1 to compare autonomous and mandated collaborations (See Table 1). The framework, developed by Patel et al. for a transnational project to create collaborative engineering workspaces, outlines attributes and processes of mandated collaborations that influence and contribute to its efficacy. Their model consists of top-level factors and sub-factors. Initially, I reflected on this model to build a critical discussion about the differences between autonomous and mandated collaborative conditions. Still, I noted that the framework by Patel et al. is derived from something other than direct observation of collaborative endeavours. Instead, the authors relied on existing teamwork performance models and frameworks for collaboration to generate a template (Patel et al., 2012, p. 23). Their framework was also problematic for a comparative study because the literature that supports it was selected to generate a framework with enough flexibility to capture collaborative factors across all levels (i.e., organizational, team, dyadic, individual) (2012, p. 3). I did not want to conflate levels of analysis in my study, so my table reflects only an individual-level analysis and represents the faculty librarians' collaborative experience.

I present a framework that is inspired by Patel et al. by replicating their use of the terms 'main factors' and 'sub-factors'; however, to reflect the spirit of constructivist grounded theory, my main factor and sub-factor labels are generated directly from my data analysis and findings, thereby reflecting different phrasing and points of emphasis.

Due to the limitations of my data, it is not presented as a guide to successful collaborations or as a formal framework. Instead, the table should be regarded as a preliminary guide to visualising its key attributes and distinguishing them against a known framework for mandated collaborations.

Table 10 below highlights the main factors and sub-factors for autonomous collaborations. The main factors provide the basis for autonomous, collaborative work, and the sub-factors represent key attributes of the main factors. At this point in the discussion, I present only the Conditions of autonomous collaboration. As the discussion progresses, I will expand the table in two phases to encompass Process, Relational Skills, Barriers, and Outcomes.

Table 10. Conditional Factors of Autonomous Collaborative Work in Cross-Boundary Collaborations Between Faculty Librarians and Discipline Faculty

Main factors	Sub-factors					
Conditions	Lack of institutional or organisational support	Librarian or discipline faculty initiative	Proactive networking/outreach	Mutual agreement to collaborate	Competing disciplinary or professional norms	Variability in collaborators' level of commitment

In Table 10, Conditions represent the sub-factors characterizing the emergence of autonomous collaborations. The lack of institutional support is the primary distinction between autonomous and mandated collaborations. Without the benefit of pre-assigned collaborators, pre-determined outcomes, or a set of guiding norms for collaboration, greater emphasis is placed on the other sub-factors in this

category. Librarians or discipline faculty must recognize a need to collaborate, identify an appropriate collaborator, and then be proactive in their networking or outreach efforts to establish a collaborative relationship. The absence of institutional or organizational support can pose significant challenges to cross-boundary collaborations. With clear guidance or mandates, collaborators may be able to align their efforts with overarching goals and objectives. Research by Kezar and Lester (2009) highlights that the lack of institutional support can lead to ambiguity regarding roles, responsibilities, and decision-making processes within collaborative teams. This ambiguity may result in conflicts, inefficiencies, and disengagement among participants, ultimately undermining the effectiveness of collaborative efforts.

Another sub-factor of Conditions is that faculty librarians or discipline faculty must take the initiative to collaborate, predicated on whether the discipline faculty recognise the need to collaborate. Research into identifying factors contributing to the likelihood of collaborative participation has been undertaken in the public administration literature (McNamara, 2012). Findings indicate that collaborators must believe in the work of the collaboration, agree upon its value for themselves *and* their collaborators, and recognize the right of the collaborator to participate in the work. Each of these points is critical but cannot be taken for granted in an autonomous collaboration. Faculty librarians need to reflect on the extent of their influence and understand what the individual discipline member believes about the collaboration and its outcomes.

Competing disciplinary norms for different types of joint work can impact autonomous dyadic collaborations, particularly in research and professional settings. Ahuja (2022) emphasized the challenges of professional identity threats in interprofessional collaborations, particularly in multidisciplinary teams. Mellin et al. (2011) highlight the significance of professional identity in interprofessional collaborations, emphasizing the need for a strong sense of professional identity and

the ability to identify shared and unique knowledge and skills as prerequisites for effective collaboration. Furthermore, Roche and Rickard (2017) provided insights into defining success within interdisciplinary sustainability science teams, shedding light on the normative dimensions of collaborative work. The study's results contribute to informed discussions about how success is gauged within science collaborations, emphasizing the importance of understanding collaborative endeavours' disciplinary and normative dimensions (Roche and Rickard, 2017). These findings demonstrate the impact of disciplinary norms on collaborations while underscoring the relationship between disciplinary norms, professional identity, and collaborative practices.

However, integrating disciplinary norms can be difficult, especially when team members from different professional backgrounds are brought together. Conflicts may arise from differing views on pedagogy, research methodologies, or problem-solving approaches, which can impede communication and the successful integration of knowledge (Carlile, 2004; Klein, 2014; Nowotny, 2016). These challenges are further compounded by ambiguities in role definition, where individuals need help to align their established professional norms with those of the collaborative team, leading to professional identity crises (Nowotny, 2016).

Different disciplinary norms can also trigger identity threats when individuals perceive that their professional norms—and consequently their identities—are being overshadowed or disregarded. According to Beech, MacIntosh, and McInnes (2008), such threats can provoke defensive responses, including disengagement or conflict with team members whose norms are perceived as dominant. Furthermore, negotiating professional legitimacy becomes a crucial task within these settings. Team members or collaborators must demonstrate the relevance and applicability of their disciplinary norms to the collaborative goals to enhance their legitimacy and influence within the team (Ashforth, Schinoff, and Rogers, 2016).

An additional sub-factor to recognize is that autonomous collaborators often exhibit differing levels of commitment among collaborators. This variability can significantly impact the dynamics and effectiveness of collaborations. Given the need for formal structure and oversight typical in these collaborations, understanding how variations in commitment influence collaborative efforts are crucial.

6.1.2. Processes in Autonomous, Cross-Boundary Collaborations

As a primary factor, Processes represent the individual social processes identified in the autonomous collaborative experience of faculty librarians. Functional, collaborative processes are crucial to maintain individual work engagement and achieve positive outcomes. My guiding framework indicates that autonomous collaborations are based on several processes: the establishment of shared goals, coordination of logistics, establishment and utilization of collaborators' expertise, a decision-making mechanism, and managing threats to individual professional legitimacy. Each sub-factor is critical in developing a collaborative environment conducive to success. See Table 11.

Table 11. Conditional and Processual Factors of Autonomous Collaborative Work in Cross-Boundary Collaborations Between Faculty Librarians and Discipline Faculty

Main factors	Sub-factors					
Conditions	Lack of institutional or organisational support	Librarian or discipline faculty initiative	Proactive networking/outreach	Mutual agreement to collaborate	Competing disciplinary or professional norms	Variability in collaborators' level of commitment
Processes	Establishing goals/outcomes	Coordination and logistics	Establishing collaborators' roles and expertise	Developing a mechanism for decision-making	Managing professional legitimacy threats	
Relational Skills	Communication	Demonstrating respect for time and expertise	Conflict (tension) management			
Barriers	Lack of shared incentives and goals	Lack of interdependence	Threats to professional legitimacy	Diminished professional agency	Development of informal hierarchy	Lack of accountability

The foundation of any successful collaboration is the establishment of shared goals. Shared goals act as a unifying force, aligning all participants' diverse objectives and expectations toward a common endpoint. This alignment is critical because it ensures that all efforts are directed towards achieving mutually agreed-upon outcomes, minimizing wasted resources and duplicated efforts. With shared goals, collaborative efforts can quickly become cohesive, with each participant or subgroup pursuing their agendas, which may not only diverge but also directly conflict. Thus, shared goals are not merely a formal requirement; they act as a guiding strategy for the collaborative project, ensuring collaborators are consistent in their collective efforts. When collaborators do not align on shared goals or outcomes, problems can arise that threaten to diminish the success of collaborative efforts. These problems originate from misaligned expectations, leading to several specific challenges, including lack of cohesive direction, miscommunication, reduced motivation, and compromised outcomes. As indicated from the data findings, the result is often a compromise of individual aims, which can reduce the potential and impact of the collaborative outcomes.

Effective collaboration also requires a process for coordinating the logistics of the project. This may involve managing resources, scheduling, and integrating different workflows. Coordination ensures that resources are used efficiently and that all participants have what they need to fulfil their roles at the right times. It prevents bottlenecks and delays in the workflow, facilitating a smoother execution of tasks. Effective logistical coordination demands a proactive approach to foresee potential challenges and constraints, thereby pre-empting issues that could derail the collaborative process. In many instances, there was an assumption on the part of discipline faculty that faculty librarians would manage logistics. Despite librarians' efforts to promote sharing of these tasks, discipline faculty viewed faculty librarians on a level similar to teaching assistants or graduate assistants. Many faculty librarians

claimed in these instances they felt subservient or in a role comparable to a secretary.

The success of collaborative ventures also strongly depends on the appropriate identification and integration of expertise. Each participant in a collaborative process brings a unique set of skills and knowledge that can significantly enhance the quality of the output. Recognizing and utilizing this expertise optimizes the problem-solving process and enhances innovation by incorporating diverse perspectives and specialized knowledge. Establishing expertise within the group helps assign tasks more effectively, ensuring that the most competent individuals handle every aspect of the project. Moreover, this recognition of expertise fosters respect and trust among team members, vital for a collaborative culture. Effective collaboration relies on trust and a shared purpose (Williams, 2007). When collaborators recognize misunderstandings about their roles and capabilities, trust can erode, reducing motivation and willingness to cooperate. Generally, the discipline faculty regarded the faculty librarians as trustworthy, reliable, and competent. But the librarians were seldom acknowledged for the expertise they associated with their own roles. In this case example, trustworthiness was valued and a positive contributor toward collaborations, but this attribute related more to librarians' being dependable, instead of librarians as competent, highly knowledgeable partners.

Another critical element in the collaborative process is the establishment of mechanisms for decision-making that are inclusive and transparent. Collaborative decision-making processes help synthesize diverse perspectives and find a middle ground where conflicting ideas and opinions can be reconciled. Such mechanisms should allow for equal participation, providing a platform where every member has a voice, and their inputs are valued. Structured decision-making processes prevent the dominance of any single group or individual, thus maintaining a balance of power and ensuring that decisions are made in the project's best interest and not merely to

serve individual interests. However, this is an idealized way of working and was not reflected in the collaborations between faculty librarians and discipline faculty, where collaborative decision-making was led primarily by discipline faculty with the expectation that librarians carry out the assigned task. Faculty librarians felt the spirit of the collaboration was diminished when decision-making was unilateral.

Several factors contribute to the erosion of professional legitimacy within teams: role ambiguity, lack of recognition of collaborative capability, and threatened or diminished professional agency. Collaborative processes can sometimes threaten professional legitimacy, particularly in interdisciplinary settings where different fields may have varying standards, norms, and expectations of professional practice. Participants may feel that their professional identity or expertise needs to be more valued, leading to conflicts and personal dissatisfaction. Collaborative processes must have mechanisms in place that recognize and validate the professional contributions of all participants. Addressing these threats involves establishing clear roles, respecting professional boundaries, and fostering an environment where different professional cultures are acknowledged and integrated (Beech et al., 2008). Inadequate recognition of contributions can further diminish an individual's sense of legitimacy (Wackerhausen, 2009).

Diminished legitimacy can result in decreased commitment to collaborative goals, disengagement, and collaborative burnout (Meyer, Ashforth, and Nicholson, 2013). It can also lead to defensive behaviors, including social withdrawal and reduced cooperation. Collaboration requires careful management to align shared goals, coordinate logistics effectively, harness and respect expertise, establish democratic decision-making processes, and safeguard professional legitimacy.

Relational Skills are also included in the framework. Relational skills represent individual skills described by study participants when recounting their autonomous collaborative experiences. Generally, these are skills that both collaborators exercise to achieve their collaborative goals and for which each assumes individual

responsibility. When considering the challenges of interdisciplinary collaborations between librarians and faculty, it is important to recognize that the differences in epistemic cultures and priorities can present challenges for an autonomous collaboration. The challenges are deeply rooted in each group's distinct disciplinary perspectives to the educational process, which shape their communication and collaborative approach.

Librarians are primarily concerned with skills for life-long learning, fostering information literacy, and developing critical thinking skills. Their broad goals emphasize acquiring learning abilities that transcend specific content areas. This approach is grounded in library science, which views information literacy as essential to education, equipping students with the skills to navigate and synthesize diverse information sources effectively.

On the other hand, faculty members are invested in delivering the substantive content of their specific academic disciplines. Their specialization influences their approach, prioritizing depth of knowledge and expertise in particular subject areas. Faculty members often focus on methodologies and content unique to their fields, aiming to deepen students' understanding and expertise in specific domains. These divergent focuses can lead to contradictory priorities in collaborative efforts, such as joint teaching initiatives and research. For instance, while a librarian might stress the importance of teaching students to evaluate information sources critically, a faculty member may prioritize deep understanding and analysis of specific theoretical or conceptual content. This discrepancy can lead to misalignments in collaborative projects, where integrating process-based and content-based approaches becomes a significant challenge.

Resolving these differences necessitates not only effective communication but also a mutual understanding and respect for each party's professional perspectives and educational goals. Engaging in open dialogues that explore these disciplinary differences is paramount. Librarians and faculty members must strive to

establish common goals that acknowledge and integrate both the process-oriented approach of librarians and the content-focused approach of faculty. This integration can be facilitated through collaborative projects that include information literacy and mastery of content, effectively bridging the gap between process and substance and fostering comprehensive student learning.

The literature underscores the necessity of empirically exploring strategies to enhance such collaborations. Newman's review highlights the need for more empirical studies on effective interdisciplinary collaboration strategies, indicating a crucial gap in the literature that, if filled, could offer valuable insights into managing and optimizing collaborations between faculty (2024). His call for a shift towards more empirical investigations aligns with the need to develop practical strategies for facilitating collaboration across different disciplinary boundaries within educational settings.

Exploring conflict resolution within interdisciplinary collaborations, especially between librarians and faculty, requires a nuanced understanding of the epistemic differences and how these impact social interactions. The reviewed articles provide a comprehensive overview of the complexities of managing conflict and identity within such collaborative frameworks.

Löhr et al.'s study on conflict prevention and management systems in collaborative projects, including research initiatives, highlights the importance of establishing mechanisms to manage and resolve conflicts effectively. Their findings suggest that by embedding conflict management systems into the fabric of collaborative efforts, organizations can enhance communication, improve relationships among team members, and ultimately increase the success of collaborative outcomes. This approach is particularly relevant when considering the differing priorities between librarians, who focus on the learning process, and faculty, who emphasize substantive content. By preventing conflict escalation and

fostering an environment of open communication, both parties can better align their efforts toward the common goal of student education.

Jordan and Troth's research on the role of emotional intelligence in conflict resolution within teams sheds light on the social dynamics that influence collaborative success (2021). Their findings indicate that higher levels of emotional intelligence among team members lead to more effective conflict resolution strategies, thereby improving team performance. This aspect is crucial in understanding the librarian-faculty collaboration, as managing emotions can bridge the gap between differing priorities and foster a cooperative rather than confrontational atmosphere.

Finally, focusing on managing multiple identities in interdisciplinary collaborations, examines how individuals navigate their roles and responsibilities within collaborative settings. This research is particularly pertinent when considering librarians and faculty who must reconcile their professional identities with the collaborative identity that emerges within educational projects. The study underscores the potential for identity conflict and the necessity for strategies that help individuals negotiate their roles effectively, ensuring that collaboration does not erode personal and professional identities. For librarians and faculty, understanding and addressing the epistemic differences can lead to more effective partnerships, ultimately enhancing the educational experience for students. Integrating conflict management systems, cultivating emotional intelligence, and respecting individual identities within these collaborations are critical for minimizing conflicts and maximizing collaborative success. This approach resolves the immediate challenges of differing priorities and strengthens the institutional capacity to adapt and thrive in an interdisciplinary environment.

Barriers are also included as a factor in the guiding framework. Barriers can be described as features of autonomous collaborations that disrupt the collaborative relationship between faculty librarians and discipline faculty.

In autonomous collaborative work, the formation of informal hierarchies emerges as a pivotal element that influenced the collaborative social dynamics for the faculty librarians. Insights from the literature highlight the challenges and potential pitfalls associated with these informal structures, which, if not managed, can significantly hinder the collaborative process and innovation outcomes (Lahiri et al., 2017; Patel et al, 2012). In the absence of a predefined hierarchical structure, control may disproportionately rest with specific individuals based on social capital or tenure rather than merit or relevance to the task. Such informal power distributions can lead to conflicts, particularly when they stifle the contributions of other team members or are not aligned with the firm's strategic objectives (Lahiri et al., 2017). While informal hierarchies can provide necessary leadership and direction in some contexts, they must be carefully balanced to prevent adverse impacts on collaboration and innovation.

The mechanisms of accountability are usually absent from autonomous collaborations. Without formal accountability structures, a notable role ambiguity emerges that can lead to inefficiencies. Individuals may not fully understand their responsibilities or how their efforts contribute to collaboration's overarching goals. This ambiguity can dilute the sense of individual responsibility, potentially leading to decreased commitment and performance. Moreover, the identity struggles induced by accountability pressures have been documented in studies in the arts (Stockenstrand, 2019), nursing (Rubio-Navarro, 2020), and education (Vangrieken et al., 2015). The results of these studies indicate that lack of formalized accountability can lead to conflicts and inefficiencies, as the different parties involved may have divergent goals and expectations that cannot be adequately reconciled due to the absence of a clear accountability framework. This can result in a collaborative environment where participants lack important clarification about their roles, power structures are threatened, and collaborators lack reassurance about the collaborative environment.

6.1.3. Outcomes in Autonomous, Cross-Boundary Collaborations

The collaboration literature indicates the process-outcome relationship is not straightforward or easily conceptualised (Gray and Wood, 1991; Thomas, Perry, and Miller, 2008). Logsdon (1991) analyzed two instances of social problem-solving in cross-sectoral collaborations, asserting that the resolution of tangible issues represents a successful outcome of collaborations. Meanwhile, Huxham (1996) contends that collaboration produces both pragmatic and ideological results. The outcomes identified in the guiding framework are a direct reflection of the interplay of processes and the extent to which they are functional or dysfunctional. See Table 12 below.

Table 12. Conditions, Processes, and Outcomes of Autonomous Collaborative Work in Cross-Boundary Collaborations Between Faculty Librarians and Discipline Faculty

Main factors	Sub-factors					
Conditions	Lack of institutional or organisational support	Librarian or discipline faculty initiative	Proactive networking/outreach	Mutual agreement to collaborate	Competing disciplinary or professional norms	Variability in collaborators' level of commitment
Processes	Establishing goals/outcomes	Coordination and logistics	Establishing collaborators' roles and expertise	Developing a mechanism for decision-making	Managing professional legitimacy threats	
Relational Skills	Communication	Demonstrating respect for time and expertise	Conflict (tension) management			
Barriers	Lack of shared incentives and goals	Lack of interdependence	Threats to professional legitimacy	Diminished professional agency	Development of informal hierarchy	Lack of accountability
Outcomes	Successful achievement of goals	Compromised emotional well-being	Collaborative rigidity or instability	Collaborative inertia (Huxham and Vangen, 2004)	Changes to collaborative relationship	Collaborator disengagement or burn-out

The first Outcomes sub-factor reflects a tangible outcome. *Were the goals of the collaboration achieved?* Following Logsdon's perspective, achieving tangible outcomes is often considered a hallmark of collaborative success. Such outcomes can be varied and substantive, ranging from resolving specific issues to attaining defined objectives that benefit multiple stakeholders (e.g., student learning objectives). The faculty librarians who spoke of successful collaborations addressed the advantages of tangible outcomes, including building trust and cultivating a positive reputation for collaborative work. Their evolving relationship with a discipline faculty member also helps create a professional network for expanding collaborative outreach.

One disadvantage to achieving tangible outcomes is that reaching them often requires faculty librarians to compromise their goals and collaborative participation. The discipline faculty dominated the decision-making process, including identifying collaborative outcomes. In these examples, the emphasis on concrete outcomes led to a power imbalance, whereby faculty librarians lose professional agency. While a positive result may have been reached, the process to achieve it involved disparities between the librarian and discipline faculty collaborators.

From the data already presented in Chapter 5, it has been established that faculty librarians often feel their professional knowledge and experience need to be acknowledged and understood within a collaboration, leaving them unable to contribute to its terms and outcomes in a way they identify as meaningful. These experiences can contribute to librarians participating in the collaboration without an equal measure of agency and, in some cases, causing the collaborative relationship to devolve into an informal hierarchy. The data also suggests that librarians who encounter these challenges experience various feelings. Below are interview excerpts representing librarians' feelings of worry, sadness, discomfort, and anger when confronted with collaborative tensions. Surprisingly, there is little existing

research on the connection between collaborative processes and the emotional well-being of collaborators. A search of keywords, including anxiety, stress, burnout, emotional well-being, and pressure, led to few substantive results, aside from some research in clinical medicine (Chang and Cato, 2020; Martinussen et al., 2012).

However, the study findings indicate that autonomous collaborations generate tensions, ambiguity, and power imbalances, leading to feelings of diminishment, anxiety, and stress. Future research could contribute to a better understanding the emotional experience of this important aspect of organizational work life.

The flexibility inherent to autonomous collaboration is strongly associated with creativity and innovative problem-solving (Bruns, 2013; Kristiansen, 2014). However, the same flexibility can also make delineating responsibility and individual accountability difficult. When collaborators are unclear about roles due to role ambiguity and misaligned expectations, the lack of ownership can negatively affect individual commitment to the collaborative outcomes.

While flexibility is valuable in fostering innovation and adaptability, flexibility without a balance of structure can lead to weakened accountability. The lack of mutual accountability in dyadic collaborations is an understudied area, and the study findings indicate that further research is needed to understand its effects.

Understanding the nature of collaborations is fundamental to appreciating how individuals, teams, and organizations function and succeed. Distinguishing the conditions and processes of autonomous collaborations from mandated collaborations is important because they influence social dynamics, professional identity, and legitimating factors. Furthermore, the potential challenges in autonomous collaborations have not been well studied in the literature.

The current literature presents autonomous collaborations as voluntary alliances where participants collaborate out of mutual interest or perceived value from working together. These collaborations are often driven by intrinsic motivation,

where the parties involved see a direct benefit in sharing knowledge, resources, or skills. The self-directed nature of autonomous collaborations can lead to higher levels of creativity and engagement among participants (Huxham and Vangen, 2004; McNamara, 2012; Patel, Pettitt, and Wilson, 2012). Since the collaboration is self-chosen, participants are typically more committed and bring more enthusiasm and energy to the endeavour. This intrinsic motivation is linked to enhanced problem-solving capabilities and innovation, as collaborators are likelier to explore unconventional ideas and solutions freely.

On the other hand, mandated collaborations are those formed through external directives, where individuals or teams are instructed to work together to achieve specific organizational goals (Huxham, 1991). These collaborations do not originate from the parties involved but from policy, strategy, or managerial decisions. While they can effectively achieve specific, predefined outcomes, mandated collaborations can suffer from a lack of genuine commitment from the participants if they do not perceive the collaboration as beneficial beyond fulfilling an obligation. The success of these collaborations often hinges on strong leadership and clearly defined roles and objectives aligning with the overall organizational goals.

The description above presents an ideal scenario for how autonomous collaborations should function and what they can achieve. My findings do not contradict the potential for ideal performance and outcomes. However, my study findings reveal that conditions can emerge during autonomous collaborations that generate social tensions related to identity, agency, and legitimacy. How collaborators manage these tensions can positively or negatively affect the collaborative work and its outcomes.

The separate understanding of autonomous collaborations expands on the existing knowledge about collaborative processes by emphasizing the role of choice and intrinsic motivation in collaborative success. The literature suggests that while

both types of collaborations can be effective, the dynamics of voluntary collaboration can lead to more sustainable engagement and innovative outcomes due to the alignment of personal interests with collaborative goals. This insight is particularly relevant in knowledge-intensive work environments where innovation and flexibility are prized.

Conceptualizing autonomous and mandated collaborations under the same framework could obscure critical differences in their functioning and outcomes. Future research should explore distinct theoretical models that address autonomous versus mandated collaborations' unique challenges and dynamics. Understanding these distinctions can help design more effective collaborative strategies tailored to the nature of participation, governance structures, and motivational drivers appropriate for each type. Such differentiation is crucial for policymakers, organizational leaders, and participants to manage and harness the benefits of cross-boundary collaborations effectively.

Both autonomous and mandated collaborations can involve participants from different professional jurisdictions, often requiring integrative approaches to problem-solving (Huxham and Vangen, 2005). They aim to achieve outcomes unlikely to be realized by any single entity acting alone, leveraging collective capacities to address broader issues (Huxham and Vangen, 2005). Additionally, they require coordination, conflict resolution, and communication mechanisms to manage the diversity of perspectives and interests (Thomson and Perry, 2006).

Maintaining legitimacy among autonomous collaborators is a pivotal element for the success of collaborative efforts, especially when participation is grounded in voluntary engagement and mutual interest. In the realm of collaborations, legitimacy refers to the perceived appropriateness and validity of the collaborative effort by its participants, rooted in their shared norms, values, and expectations. This perception of legitimacy is crucial for fostering trust and commitment, essential for the

sustainability of collaborative work, particularly in environments where participants can disengage at their discretion.

The significance of legitimacy is particularly pronounced in dyadic relationships, where two parties are directly involved. In such relationships, the dynamics of collaboration are often intensely personal and highly dependent on the continuous mutual recognition of each party's contributions and status. The dyadic nature of the relationship amplifies the need for a strong sense of legitimacy, as the collaboration's success directly hinges on interpersonal interactions and the alignment of both parties' goals and values. When both members of a dyad view their joint efforts as legitimate, they are more likely to invest significantly in the relationship and experience personal growth and fulfilment. This mutual commitment fosters a productive partnership characterized by trust and reciprocity, leading to achievement and satisfaction.

However, the need for more legitimacy in a collaborative dyad can help the collaboration and the participants' identities. Without a foundational belief in the joint effort's validity and appropriateness, individuals may question the collaboration's value and role within it. This erosion of legitimacy can reduce individual agency—the capacity to act independently and make free choices. As legitimacy wanes, so too does the confidence with which individuals engage in the partnership, potentially stifling initiative and creativity. Moreover, a lack of legitimacy can harm the collaborators' personal and professional identities. In any collaborative project, particularly in tightly knit dyadic relationships, individuals often see their participation as a reflection of their professional and personal selves. When the collaboration is perceived as illegitimate or failing, it can lead to a crisis of identity, where individuals feel that their professional capabilities and intentions are misunderstood or undervalued. This situation can lead to significant emotional and psychological distress, further diminishing their engagement and contribution to the collaboration. Furthermore, the impact of diminished legitimacy extends beyond the

immediate relational dynamics to affect broader interactions with external stakeholders, such as peers, other colleagues, and industry contacts. A collaboration that needs more legitimacy might fail to garner respect and recognition from these broader circles, potentially undermining both participants' professional reputations and future partnership opportunities. On the other hand, a collaboration that maintains its legitimacy can open doors to new professional opportunities, enhancing both participants' reputations and paving the way for future success.

Maintaining legitimacy in autonomous collaborations, particularly in dyadic relationships, is critical not only for the operational success and effectiveness of the collaboration but also for protecting and enhancing the personal and professional identities of the individuals involved. Ensuring that all participants view the collaboration as appropriate, valuable, and aligned with their values not only paves the way for a successful partnership but also supports individual agency and identity affirmation within the collaborative framework. This alignment is crucial for fostering an environment where innovation, trust, and mutual respect can flourish, leading to sustained engagement and impactful outcomes.

6.2. Theoretical Contributions: Navigating Legitimacy in Autonomous Collaborations

Legitimizing was identified as a critical sub-process of collaboration and emerged as the major construct of the grounded theory developed from this study. When the analysis led me to identify legitimation as a sub-process within autonomous collaborations, I explored the literature to confirm if my concept aligned with the legitimacy theory or if my interpretation explained an entirely different concept. After examining the literature on legitimation as a process, I discovered that the definition of legitimacy, in general, is problematic. Legitimacy studies have been based on different logics, resulting in different conceptualizations with little consensus about commonly shared criteria or constructs (Deephouse and

Suchman, 2008; Suddaby, Bitektine, and Haack, 2017). In a 2022 review article, Schoon identified 25 types of legitimacy presented in the literature, noting that types, as well as the use of different levels of analysis, allow researchers to establish conditions in which legitimacy occurs, resulting in "exacerbated theoretical and substantive fragmentation" (p. 483). The breadth and complexity of research on legitimation raised the question of how my findings could be compared against the legitimation literature without the benefit of a commonly shared conception of its definition and how it is operationalized. Using the review studies of Schoon (2022) and Suddaby et al. (2017), who produced nearly identical sets of criteria for studying legitimacy and legitimation as a process, I was able to situate my findings against two criteria that are shared among key studies:

1.) Legitimation requires at least two entities: an audience and an object. The audience evaluates the legitimacy of the object through beliefs, opinions, perceptions, or their relationship to it. In my study, the audience is discipline faculty, and the objects are faculty librarians.

2.) Legitimation involves expectations between the audience and the object of legitimacy. Suddaby (2017) states that expectations can be established through interaction, and legitimation can be co-constructed and negotiated between individuals (p. 458). However, this becomes problematic when the negotiation process is weighted in favour of one party due to conflicts in institutional expectations of the professions.

I could also position my study findings from a process-based perspective.

The study of legitimation from a process perspective requires analysis in terms of movement, activity, events, change, and temporal evolution" (Langley, 2007, p. 271).

Process-oriented studies of legitimacy tend to produce stage models that demonstrate how a phenomenon occurs and moves through time.

- o How do I know legitimacy is a part of the autonomous collaborative experience?
- o Which social norms or expectations (opinions, beliefs, perceptions) are used to benchmark legitimacy?
- o How do objects (faculty librarians) secure legitimacy?
- o What meanings suggest legitimacy has occurred or not?

- o Is there a tipping point in which legitimacy is secured or not?
- o How do objects (faculty librarians) respond if legitimacy is not secured?

In the final analysis, I theorize that professional legitimation as a process reflects the interplay of different sets of tensions that faculty librarians negotiate within the context of their autonomous collaborative relationships. I argue that professional legitimation by faculty librarians is a complex phenomenon consisting of social and political processes with the potential to validate or minimise the professional roles that are the object of legitimacy, resulting in the formation of informal relational hierarchies and threatening the known advantages of collaborative work.

In addition to theorizing about professional legitimation as a sub-process of collaboration, my study contributes to new insights into how faculty librarians legitimize their roles. There is little existing research on the legitimizing process of faculty librarians. The author 2009 used Abbott's Systems of Professions theory for a historical analysis of how librarians redefined their professional roles when advances in library technology disrupted the traditional domain of academic librarians (O'Conner, 2009). The study describes academic librarians' claims to educational jurisdiction by presenting information literacy as a competency librarians could use to gain access to students. Although the article contributes to a historical perspective of librarians' challenges to redefine their role, it does not elaborate on the social dynamics of legitimization.

Other researchers have studied how individuals new to a profession have access to legitimating resources that grant them authority in their role (Mausethagen, 2013; Reay, Golden-Biddle, and Germann, 2006). As one example, Reay et al. (2006) describe embeddedness, the degree to which individuals or roles are enmeshed within the networks and culture of an institution, as a resource that an employee can use to generate change and drive innovation. The authors explain

how the right level of embeddedness, paired with legitimacy granted from externals, is an opportunity that provides professionals with the requisite credibility and relational networks essential to make positive change. Following this logic, I argue that faculty librarians are challenged by the embeddedness of their roles – including their perception of the roles. While the advantages of leveraging established networks are a process used by the faculty librarians in this study, an overreliance on these existing relationships can also create a form of collaborative inertia (Huxham and Vangen, 2004). For librarians deeply integrated within the traditional approach to collaboration (i.e., networking for opportunity), considerable effort and disruption would be required to facilitate meaningful change. The study's findings indicate that the current process is already bound by role ambiguity, diminished agency, and a lack of shared accountability. With varying degrees of embeddedness and perceptions of legitimacy, faculty librarians' efforts put them at risk for institutional exclusion (Abbott, 1988; Ashcraft et al., 2012). Although the analysis shows that faculty librarians are making efforts to distinguish themselves in their professional roles, they are also interested in closing the gap between themselves and discipline faculty, being viewed as partners in the university's educational mission rather than subordinates. As my model indicates, the dilemma in this approach is that legitimacy is not always granted. Further research can consider the conditions under which legitimacy is granted or not. For example, does it help librarians' legitimacy to be perceived as a partner or not?

6.2.1. Reviewing the Sensitizing Concepts: What Was Learned?

The analysis from this study demonstrates important links between faculty librarians' socially based professional identities (faculty member and librarian). The analysis cannot determine which identity is more critical to librarian participants. Still, it can specify conditions under which the identities become salient and their effect on the librarians. This discussion can be facilitated through Social Identity Theory

(SIT) (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). The SIT framework stresses the interaction between external perception and social identity, as well as social contextual factors that either support or threaten the value of one's social identity. The theory posits that individuals categorize themselves as belonging to relevant in-groups, which bring together individuals with common characteristics and distinguish them from those who belong to out-groups. Not surprisingly, SIT asserts that individuals view their in-groups more favourably than their out-groups.

For faculty librarians, the intersection of SIT and professional identity brings the discussion back to the concept of Third Space professionals (Whitechurch, 2008), which describes those professionals who occupy a space in which two professional cultures meet and become hybridized (librarians who are also faculty and librarians). Third, Spaces are regarded from divergent perspectives. Whitechurch (2012) describes them as places of opportunity where differences between professionals can be leveraged (p. 22-23). However, Shelley (2010) refers to the ambiguity and relational power struggles encountered by those who occupy it.

Previous research shows that librarians with faculty status rely on this in-group attribute to gain access to disciplined faculty, improve their visibility, and reaffirm their value as faculty colleagues (Freedman, 2014). The participants were emphatic in their belief that discipline faculty do not understand their roles or professional capabilities (Branch-Mueller and de Groot, 2016; Freedman, 2014; Garcia and Barbour, 2018). Most librarian participants also described how they must manage discipline faculty expectations of their roles and how this was a chronic source of tension when developing collaborative relationships. The faculty librarians also discussed managing faculty expectations around their collaborative work. The tension lies between wanting to collaborate with faculty and contribute to student learning as part of their librarian role and not wanting to compromise their professional identity to make the relationship work. This tension describes the

opportunity and power struggle that Whitechurch and Shelley associate with Third Space professionals.

Social Identity Theory can also be valuable in understanding cross-boundary collaborations. For example, one study used the theory to discover that cross-functional teams in sales and operations planning shared a superordinate identity they leveraged to create a shared state of mind, thereby improving team performance and effectiveness (Ambrose, Matthews, and Rutherford, 2018). Depending on the situation, individuals may identify with different relevant groups based on their profession and perceived position in the social hierarchy; this phenomenon is referred to as the salience of social categorization. In an academic medical centre, a paediatric resident may identify as a physician when talking to nurses, a paediatrician when talking to patients, or a student when interacting with a clinical professor (DeBegnino and Kellogg, 2014). The difference in social representations between in-groups and negative attitudes towards out-groups can lead to conflict. Depending on how those with more power enforce these structures and whether they are accepted and viewed as legitimate, they can affect relationships between groups with different statuses.

Legitimation is also connected to autonomous, cross-boundary collaborations and as supported by study findings, accompanied by tensions related to role ambiguity and misperception, status, and disparate levels of collaborative agency. This point is supported by a hypothesis by Kislov, Hyde, and McDonald (2017). In their study on the legitimation processes of boundary spanners in different contexts, they expand on Lave and Wenger's idea of 'legitimate peripherality' (1991), a gradual process by which peripheral actors in a professional field begin to learn and internalize the "inclusive ways" of situating themselves within that field (2008, p. 36). Lave and Wenger present legitimate peripherality as a concept that emerges within the perimeters of a single profession. Still, Kislov et al. reconsider this concept as it may apply to boundary spanners and consider the tensions that may arise as a

result: Boundary spanner may leverage the 'in-between' nature of their position to define their role as they cross fields; or their lack of power and status may result in "denied access" to the professional field (p. 1425). Ibarra and Obodaru (2016) explore liminality as a concept that is also relevant to the discussion of ambiguity surrounding faculty librarians' roles in cross-boundary collaborations. Unlike the predictable and structured transitions of the past, Ibarra and Obodaru argue that liminal phases often lack a clear trajectory and can extend indefinitely, leading professionals to experience a persistent state of "betwixt and between" (p. 53) — neither fully embodying one role or another. They also refer to liminality and the socialization of one's professional role. For example, an employee who participates in a collective socialization setting (e.g., airline pilots) is more likely to have a predictable response to the role for which they are being socialized than an employee who experiences individual socialization (e.g., a hire for a newly created position), who would demonstrate a more innovative response toward crafting their role (Ibarra and Obodaru, 2016, p. 54). Likewise, for faculty librarians whose roles socialized differently than discipline faculty, the liminality challenges their identity. Faculty librarians would benefit from more university support without well-defined and standardized scripts rather than relying solely upon themselves to carve out their professional space. Within each institution, CoP provides an opportunity to support faculty who collaborate and to improve practice for autonomous collaborations instead of allowing them to emerge based on opportunistic but dysfunctional relationships.

The tensions faculty librarians encounter in cross-boundary collaborations align with the concept of liminality. The reality is that faculty librarians' have already crossed traditional and historical jurisdictional boundaries by participating in the classroom, engaging with discipline faculty research projects, and assuming leadership for initiatives related to publishing and scholarly communication. This means that much of their work is already shaped by tensions related to the

expansion of their jurisdiction or boundary-spanning, which can create a point of contention in collaborations with one actor who may be competing for jurisdiction and knowledge claims (Abbott, 1995). The application of liminality and faculty librarians' identity also highlights the interplay between their internal self-perception and the external social identities imposed by or negotiated as a part of their cross-boundary collaborative work (Beech, 2011).

A second item related to the discussion of boundaries is that they are often defined and controlled by more powerful occupational groups who use boundaries to maintain an advantage over subordinate ones (Baker, Egan-Lee, Martimianakis, and Reeves, 2011). Historically, librarians' roles have been defined by their interactions with students and discipline faculty, which has resulted in discrepancies between their professional identity and value and how others understand their roles. See Table 2. Aligned and Discrepant Perceptions of Faculty Librarians' Roles. Due to professional boundary maintenance, undermining faculty librarians' roles has legitimized the dominance of the teaching faculty – regardless of the horizontal organizational structure between all faculty members. In response, evidenced by the data findings, librarians engage in a series of response behaviours, each with a different strategy:

The ways in which faculty librarians interpret and understand their world--their meaning-making, from a constructivist perspective--is an important consideration in the discussion of the conceptual model. The librarians' education and professional experiences form the professional lenses through which they view the world, including the collaborative experience. The same can be said of the discipline faculty with whom they collaborate. They also bring their perspective to a collaboration with a faculty librarian.

Social constructionism, in the context of a collaborative relationship, frames the shared experience that the faculty librarian and discipline faculty member co-create through interaction (Young and Collin, 2004). How the perspectives of faculty

librarians and discipline faculty inform their choices regarding how to move through collaboration is how they socially construct their interaction.

The theoretical foundations of professional identity in the context of collaborations, especially concerning legitimacy, are complex and draw from several theoretical frameworks, including social identity theory, legitimacy theory, and theories of professional practice. When these theories are applied as lenses for the study's conceptual model, it is understood how professional identities are constructed, negotiated, and perceived by others and how legitimacy acts as both a catalyst and a barrier within the collaborative process.

Social identity theory suggests that an individual's identity is partly derived from the groups they belong to and the value they attach to their group memberships (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). These groups can be formed in professional settings based on one's profession, role within an organization, or alignment with certain disciplinary norms. Each group has distinct sets of norms, values, and expected behaviours, contributing to forming professional identity. This theory helps to explain how professionals identify with their roles and, more broadly, how they navigate their roles within cross-boundary teams where multiple professional identities converge.

Legitimacy theory, mainly as discussed by Suchman (1995), is pivotal in understanding how professionals are perceived within collaborative settings. In this context, professional legitimacy refers to a generalized assumption that the actions of a professional are desirable or appropriate within a socially constructed system of norms, values, and beliefs. In collaborative settings, the legitimacy of each professional's role influences how their contributions are valued and how much influence they wield. Diminished legitimacy can lead to reduced influence and threaten an individual's professional identity, as others might see their contributions with a different value or integrity than the individual perceives.

A scholarly literature review provides a critical view of how the threat to professional identity emerges when one's professional legitimacy is diminished during collaborative work. This review synthesizes findings from various theories and studies relevant to the role of professional identity and its relationship to professional legitimacy.

The construction and negotiation of professional identity within collaborations and teams are significantly influenced by the dynamics of legitimacy. As Pratt et al. (2006) suggests, professional identity is not static but evolves through social interactions and is heavily influenced by contextual factors. For instance, professionals in cross-boundary teams must continuously negotiate their roles and contributions, often needing to reassert their professional legitimacy in the face of competing norms and expectations from different professional domains.

The legitimacy of different professional roles can be particularly contentious. According to research by Nkomo (1999) and Slay and Smith (2011), professionals from stigmatized groups or those whose professional norms are less recognized within the team may experience challenges to their professional legitimacy. This can lead to what Slay and Smith describe as identity threats, where professionals feel that their ability to enact their role is compromised by perceptions that undervalue their contributions or expertise.

Professional identity is often defined as how individuals perceive themselves within their professional roles, which is crucial for their sense of self-worth and effectiveness within the workplace (Ashforth and Mael, 1989). On the other hand, professional legitimacy relates to others' recognition of one's competence and authority in a professional domain (Suchman, 1995). Diminished legitimacy can lead to identity threats, particularly in collaborative settings where different professional norms and values intersect (Beech, MacIntosh, and McInnes, 2008).

Research indicates that professional legitimacy is foundational for effective collaboration and team cohesion. When questioned or undermined, legitimacy can

trigger a "role identity crisis" (Ashforth and Mael, 1989), leading individuals to struggle with their self-conception and perceived value in the team. Clouder et al. (2012) discuss how peer facilitation in interprofessional learning can challenge and reinforce professional identity. Facilitators find that their legitimacy is reinforced through positive peer interactions, but it can also be threatened when discrepancies arise between self-perception and how others view their contributions.

6.3. Practical Contributions of the Conceptual Model and its Findings

For faculty librarians and administrators, this study's conceptual model presents the conditional and experiential stages of autonomous collaborations with discipline faculty. Each stage provides important information that librarians and professional leaders can embrace as part of their professional competencies and incorporate into their collaborative practice (American Library Association, 2010; Association of College and Research Libraries, 2017). Through the grounded theory's processual model, a theory has emerged that has explanatory power to contribute to knowledge about how faculty librarians make sense of their collaborative work with discipline faculty. The collaborative work of faculty librarians is exposed for its challenging social dynamics that generate tensions, diminish professional agency, and threaten professional legitimacy. For example, the model's conditions suggest that faculty librarians benefit from more rigorously examining the term collaboration and clarifying its meaning and how it is understood and operationalized within the profession. As noted above, there is a need for faculty librarians to distinguish how they conceptualise the difference between mandated, or institutionally driven collaborations, compared to autonomous collaborations that are driven by individuals who choose to work together. Aside from the lack of distinction in the library literature, this distinction has received little attention in organizational literature aside from the work of Madeleine McNamara, a scholar in the field of public administration (2012). Although this study is not intended to

distinguish types of collaboration, I believe the findings represent a valuable contribution by isolating and highlighting the operationalization of autonomous collaborations.

The conditional phase of the model suggests that faculty librarians, in their collaborative work with discipline faculty, are challenged by emergent tensions related to role ambiguity, role misperception, and lack of status. The cumulative effect of these tensions contributes to another tension, diminished professional agency. Identifying these tensions knowledge is helpful for understanding faculty librarians' barriers when developing and sustaining collaborative relationships with discipline faculty.

The legitimating stage of the model provides new information about the meaning of the collective tensions that arise during autonomous collaborations and why librarians struggle to be conferred legitimacy; that is, the discipline faculty recognize them for the value and expertise they contribute to the collaboration in a way that aligns with the librarians' sense of professional identity. This is one important link I have established between collaboration and legitimacy literature, and it will be discussed further in this chapter.

Also, within the legitimating stage of the model, I found that faculty librarians respond to legitimacy threats by engaging in different, responsive behaviours, allowing them to negotiate or manage their collaborative identity within the relationship. The analysis indicates that faculty librarians' behavioural responses to legitimation threats or de-legitimation often remain camouflaged, specifically when librarians enact Compromising and Retreating behaviours. Their efforts to camouflage this work and their accompanying feelings negatively impact their professional identity. Knowing the outcomes from the exposure to legitimation threats and subsequent responsive behaviours used to mitigate those threats can destabilize the collaboration and compromise its outcomes.

I also argue that while responsive behaviours, similar to the ones identified in this study, have been recognized as a form of identity work (Alvesson and Willmott, 2002; Sveningsson and Alvesson, 2003), individual behaviours, as separate processes, are not well studied in the context of collaborative dyads or collaborations in general. These gaps are important to understand to provide a more complete picture of how a threatened or legitimate identity is situated in collaborative relationships.

My conceptual model contributes to the professional field, using faculty librarians as a case study to provide an overview of autonomous collaborations' conditions, processes, and outcomes. The findings provide more depth to the nature of autonomous collaborations and, in doing so, bridge the boundaries between collaboration and legitimacy research.

Finally, my work as a library director and faculty librarian was influenced by what I learned during the study and the findings. I have gained a meaningful sensitivity toward collaborative endeavours, my own and those undertaken by faculty librarians who report to me. I have revisited my criteria for evaluating the collaborative work of librarians, focusing less on quantitative data (i.e., how many collaborations) and, instead, having more discussions with direct reports about relationship-building, networking, and the value of saying 'no' when professional boundaries are threatened.

6.3.1. What Can Collaborators Do at the Point of a Downturn?

The previous discussion highlights threats to professional legitimacy that create a negative downturn and undermine success in autonomous collaborations. The question remains: What can autonomous collaborators do during a downturn of their professional legitimacy? The question can be answered in one of two ways. The first answer suggests that there is a structural solution from

an organizational perspective. The second answer assumes that the solution comes directly from individual collaborators.

From a macro-level perspective, institutional barriers within academia can be barriers to interdisciplinary or cross-boundary initiatives. Traditional university structures can be organised into departmental silos that resist change and foster territorial behaviour (Klein, 2021). Such divisions are exacerbated by frameworks prioritising high-impact research disciplines, leaving minimal support for other disciplines and third space professionals. This system stifles the potential for some collaborative projects, as academic institutions fail to reward collaborative initiatives that transcend disciplinary and professional boundaries. The lack of recognition diminishes the legitimacy of cross-boundary research, reinforcing an environment that marginalizes collaborators attempting to cross these boundaries.

One approach to address the problem is establishing institutional mechanisms that formally recognize and reward autonomous collaboration. Klein (2021) argues that academic institutions must evolve their promotion and reward systems to acknowledge boundary-crossing endeavours. By institutionalizing metrics that value cross-boundary outcomes, professionals are incentivized to engage in collaborative efforts without fear of undermining their legitimacy within their respective disciplines. This systemic shift can also facilitate the legitimacy of professionals working across fields.

As a complement to incentivizing autonomous collaborations, the creation of professional networks or communities of practice (CoP) is another potential strategy to support collaborators. However, it has some of the same limitations experienced by the faculty librarians who participated in this study.

According to Jones et al. (1998), networks can serve as platforms for professionals to establish credibility and share knowledge. Such networks can create a collective identity that supports cross-boundary collaboration, providing a buffer against legitimacy threats by emphasizing the shared goals and values of the

network members. Professionals within these networks can leverage their collective influence to advocate for institutional changes that further legitimize interdisciplinary work.

Rooted in social learning theory, CoPs engage in collective learning through shared practices, experiences, and expertise (Nicolini et al., 2022). They are instrumental in bridging the gap between diverse disciplines, providing a platform for members to coalesce around shared objectives and create a common understanding that transcends disciplinary boundaries.

Firstly, CoPs foster a shared identity essential for interdisciplinary or cross-boundary collaboration. As Lave and Wenger (1991) suggest, this shared identity emerges through mutual engagement in collaborative activities, which enables participants to develop a sense of belonging and shared purpose. This collective identity acts as a unifying force, helping individuals from diverse disciplines align their goals and priorities to support the collaboration's overarching aims.

Moreover, CoPs facilitate the development of a shared repertoire of resources that community members can use to negotiate shared meaning and resolve disciplinary differences. Members can develop a common language crucial for interdisciplinary work through continuous interaction and negotiation. This shared language, as noted by Nicolini et al. (2022), aids in bridging epistemological divides and fostering mutual understanding among collaborators, thereby contributing to the achievement of shared goals.

A significant theme in COP's literature is the concern with legitimacy. In interdisciplinary collaborations, unclear boundaries and potential conflicts between professional norms frequently undermine professional legitimacy. Duguid (2008) mentions how the social aspect of practice often gets overlooked. Still, Wenger's work suggests that the mutual engagement of members can lead to the negotiation of legitimacy while recognizing that this is a complex issue intertwined with power dynamics. Similarly, Duguid (2008) suggests that clear boundary definitions are

essential for maintaining legitimacy, as the ambiguity surrounding membership in CoPs can create tension. In interdisciplinary or cross-boundary collaborations, professional legitimacy can be threatened by the need for clear boundaries and the potential for conflict between distinct professional norms. CoPs play a vital role in mitigating these threats by providing a structured environment where professionals can establish credibility through their contributions. According to Nicolini et al. (2022), CoPs inherently involve learning and knowledge sharing mechanisms, which affirm individual competencies and reinforce the group's collective expertise. This collective affirmation fosters a sense of professional legitimacy that helps individuals navigate interdisciplinary collaborations more confidently.

Communities of Practice are discussed in the library literature as a mechanism for fostering professional development, enhancing knowledge sharing, and driving innovation within library environments. Research has highlighted the utility of CoPs in creating structured platforms for librarians to share tacit knowledge, which is crucial but often challenging to document and transmit (Reale, 2022). However, with limited exceptions, CoPs have not been explored in dyadic collaborations with discipline faculty (Belzowski, Ladwig, and Miller, 2013). Considering the extensive history within the library literature that describes collaboration challenges with discipline faculty, it is worthwhile to pursue practices that generate productive strategies from a collective setting.

While CoPs are offered as one strategy for addressing the downturn of professional legitimation, they are similar to collaborations because hierarchies and politics also challenge them. CoP members can struggle to navigate these issues and assert their professional roles (Knox et al., 2023).

Leadership within interdisciplinary collaborations also plays a pivotal role in mitigating legitimacy threats. Professionals assuming leadership roles in organisational or institutional settings must exhibit a leadership style that prioritizes understanding boundaries and power dynamics in CoPs and other professional

networks. Leaders must learn about the difficulties of establishing legitimacy, notably when professional boundaries are blurred.

As a practical response, library leaders can redefine success for faculty librarians in forward-facing roles and reconceptualize guidelines for successful performance and promotion without compromising the rigor of appraisal systems. This reform can be achieved by moving from the traditional model, which is heavily focused on collaborative engagement, to one that allows success to be achieved and recognized through individual endeavours.

My data shows that many of the social elements of effective collaborative work have yet to be considered by faculty librarians. The legitimation process between faculty members may be improved if additional efforts were made to reflect on the social dynamics of joint work. As noted in the introductory chapter, despite librarians' valuable contributions to prior research on collaboration, much of it lacks standardized conceptualization and operationalization of practice. This gap has resulted in a loss of the conceptual richness of the constructs and the potential for ambiguity and misinterpretation in practice.

For this reason, universities and libraries can place greater emphasis on faculty training programs focused on self-reflection, self-awareness, and mindfulness. Exposing faculty to these skills, emphasizing their applicability to cross-boundary relationships, could lead to more awareness of their assumptions, preconceptions, and behavioural patterns.

As stated above, a second answer to addressing the downturn of professional legitimacy focuses on the individual collaborator and what they can achieve in their professional practice without the benefit of organisational changes and strategies.

One challenge with addressing the downturn of professional legitimacy for one collaborator is that the other collaborator may need to perceive that power dynamics are a part of their collaborative relationship. If one collaborator perceives

they are equal to the other or that power is not a factor in the relationship, resolving the problem through dialogue may be insufficient.

Future research could explore these collaborative interactions further, particularly focusing on developing strategies individuals can implement to nurture and protect their professional identities during collaborative work.

6.4. Transferability of Findings

Individuals develop a sense of self based on their roles, the expectations of their profession or discipline, and their personal experiences as members of their respective groups. In autonomous, cross-boundary collaborations, individuals engage with others from diverse professional backgrounds, which can challenge their established collaborative practices and exert stress on their professional identity. This study uses faculty librarians and discipline faculty as case examples. However, academic counsellors collaborate with student affairs professionals, nurses collaborate with physicians and other clinicians, architects collaborate with engineers, and marketing experts collaborate with accountants. When these professionals come together to work toward specific outcomes, they may need help aligning their collaborative practice and professional identity with their collaborators' expectations and perceptions. Concerns of professional legitimacy arise when professionals feel that their expertise is questioned or undervalued due to role-related tensions, including ambiguity and diminished agency.

Understanding and addressing professional identity and legitimacy concerns can minimize conflict and contribute to a more cohesive dynamic in cross-boundary, autonomous collaborations. For example, addressing identity and legitimacy concerns can enhance policy implementation and community engagement effectiveness in public and non-governmental organisations, where projects often require collaborative efforts between policymakers, field workers, and researchers. In fields like media and design, where projects are frequently collaborative and cross-

disciplinary, fostering an environment that respects diverse professional identities and acknowledges the legitimacy of all contributions can enhance creativity and innovation.

The study's findings on autonomous cross-boundary collaborations can be widely applicable across different professions by recognizing and addressing the challenges related to professional identity and legitimacy. By understanding these dynamics, organizations can design better collaboration strategies, create supportive environments, and ultimately enhance the effectiveness of their collaborative efforts. This approach benefits the individuals involved by affirming their professional roles and expertise and enhancing a collaborative endeavours' overall productivity and innovation potential.

CHAPTER SEVEN: Summary, Study Limitations, and Future Research

7. Reflections on Constructivist Grounded Theory and Its Application

Every research methodology takes the researcher on a unique path of discovery. Researchers who choose constructivist grounded theory, and adhere to its abductive approach, will understand that the trajectory for its application is without pre-defined milestones and a well-marked marked finish line. Reflecting on my experience with constructivist grounded theory, I can share that the research process and analysis were hallmarked by periods of ambiguity and doubt but rewarded with a vast amount of learning. Because constructivist grounded theory uses an abductive approach to theorising, I was not constrained by fixed ideas or theories about my data. I could think creatively about its explanations before checking the literature to know if my ideas could be situated in, or contribute to, a particular body of literature. This process provided me with the opportunity to explore a range of literature and topics that would have remained unfamiliar to me if I had followed another qualitative methodology. Aside from recognizing the important learning that happened during the writing of this thesis, reflecting on its outcomes also signals questions about the study's limitations and future directions for other researchers.

7.1. Study Limitations

I collected data from both faculty librarians and discipline faculty; yet, I successfully recruited more faculty librarians, resulting in a smaller data set representing the experience of discipline faculty. A related limitation of my study is that data was not collected from dyads composed of faculty librarians and discipline faculty; instead, the data collected from interviews was based on the two groups' previous dyadic experiences with individuals not represented in the data pool. This

means that the interview data reflect participants' perceptions of their collective past experiences, and how they constructed meaning from those experiences, rather than capturing actual the experience and participant actions that occurred in dyads composed of study participants (Baxter, 2011). Another limitation of not studying the faculty in dyads is that I did not account for the act of initiation and whether the role of the initiator influences the formation of an informal hierarchy. The analysis of the findings, and a review of the literature, indicate that faculty librarians are often the initiators of collaborative relationships with discipline faculty; however, I cannot quantify this information, and it did not factor in my study design.

Another limitation related to the discipline faculty participants is that, with few exceptions (Christiansen, Stompler, and Thaxton, 2004; Zanin-Yost and Dillen, 2019), they seldom publish or describe elsewhere their collaborative experiences with librarians, resulting in a small amount of pre-existing literature by which to compare the study findings.

Although there are shortcomings in the interpretation of my study findings based, in part, on my chosen study design; my iterative data analysis and theory-building relied heavily on a comparison to a large body of relevant, multidisciplinary literature. Incorporating the discipline faculty into the analysis also enriched the final discussion.

This study did not analyse demographic variables that could be identified as influential in social relationships such as age, gender, or ethnicity. Additionally, with some exceptions, it was not always possible to know the gender of librarians and discipline faculty who were referenced in participants' accounts. For example, a participant may refer to a collaborator as 'they,' 'librarian,' or by personal name or honorific title. For this reason, I chose not to track the gender pairings of participants' collaborative encounters as a part of my study. However, I acknowledge that librarianship is dominated by women and an examination of gender could provide important insight into the collaborative tensions and the collaborative

process. Future researchers could isolate gender, as well as other demographic variables, to determine the extent to which they influence the perception of one's status in a peer-based, professional social relationship or if there is a correlation between tolerance levels toward legitimation threats and age, gender, or years of professional experience.

A final note on limitation is that this study focused on faculty librarians employed at universities in the United States. Faculty status is not common for librarians who work in other parts of the world and is not the status quo for all academic librarians in the United States. The educational requirements for librarians in different countries can also vary, which may contribute to how they are perceived. These variables limit the transferability of this study's findings to other countries where the professional standards for librarians may be different. However, this limitation also presents an opportunity for research into different contexts to see whether similar processes emerge when librarians collaborate with discipline faculty.

7.2. Future Research Directions

In most cases, constructivist grounded theory research findings stop at the point of "propositional knowing" (Heron and Reason, 2008, p.368, 373), that is, the researcher's interpretation of the participants' experiences. At the endpoint in this study, presenting propositional knowing as an outcome of inquiry paves the way for future researchers to use its findings to develop subsequent lines of research and apply different methodologies to their study.

The pursuit of studying faculty librarians' social experiences in autonomous collaborations contributed to an improved understanding of how legitimating processes are enacted. These findings can also lead to different kinds of research projects based on related constructs, at different levels of analysis, and with the application of other methodologies. From what this study reveals about faculty librarians' legitimation experience, more questions arise about the levels of personal

endurance in tension-fraught, autonomous collaborations. The 'turn' represents a critical moment in the legitimation as a sensemaking process, but it is unknown if, or to what degree, endurance or tolerance is a contributing factor in the decision to employ one or more of the facilitative and response-based processes identified in this study. The notion of collaborative endurance could be studied in the context of commitment, burnout, motivation to adapt responsive behaviour, and repeat versus one-time collaborations.

Another potential investigation could assess patterns of legitimation processes at the meso-level (within a single library) to understand how the librarians' experiences are related, and what factors contribute to the development of the patterns (e.g., interaction experience compared to the different academic disciplines), and which patterns are more likely to result in a successful collaboration. Based on appropriate data collection, this investigation could contribute to the literature on disciplinary and professional cultures. Following a similar line of thinking, there is also an opportunity to assess and compare the collaborative reputations of individual libraries to understand how their reputations are established, what constitutes a departmental or unit-level collaborative reputation, and to identify reputational risks (e.g., role misperception, differences in perception amongst disciplines). The collaborative conditions presented in this study (See Figure 6), could also be examined, through a social constructionist lens, to understand if unit-level interactions influence or modify the conditions.

Future studies could also be undertaken to study legitimacy in its relationship to the value of faculty librarians place on professional autonomy, whose roles have a strong relational component. To my knowledge, this has not been measured in previous studies and it would be a valuable construct in expanding the knowledge of legitimation. Greater awareness of professional autonomy will give faculty librarians a more realistic perspective of what is required of them to negotiate the realities of

autonomous collaborations and their individual response behaviours when their legitimacy is threatened.

From an administrative perspective, there is an opportunity to study how library administrators manage, support, and assess librarians working through the relational problems identified in this study. Do they empathise? Do they lead them through the discomfort? Do these problems influence performance reviews? This study's findings demonstrate that collaborative social processes are complex and reflect how a librarian collaborator approaches networking, relationship-building, problem-solving, compromising, leveraging their role, and sharing. How these capabilities are assessed for librarian practitioners remains an unanswered question in the library literature. An examination of collaboration as a competency could help guide library administrators so they can better support their faculty librarians and ensure that appropriate assessment practices are used.

As I worked through the analysis and reflected on the persistent problems associated with cross-boundary collaboration, specifically those that occur under autonomous conditions, I began to consider if collaborative capability could be developed as a distinct competency for librarianship and other professions for which collaboration is an expectation. The literature on workplace competency and competencies reveals philosophical differences about how they are developed and assessed, and to the extent they contribute organisational value (Eilström and Kock, 2008; Sandberg, 2001). However, exploring the potential of collaborative capability as a skills or value-based competency could contribute to an improved understanding of how to approach the processes that accompany cross-boundary collaborations, and to work within the bounds of individual differences.

An unexpected learning outcome for me, but only peripheral to the study findings, relates to homophily within cross-boundary collaborations. McPherson and Smith-Lovin's 2001 study about homophily in social networks states that similarity of variables, including shared ethnicity, age, gender, and difference in status rankings,

is a means for connecting people despite differences in other types of attributes. The authors state that this idea typifies the concept that individuals tend to have greater contact with people like themselves (p. 416), regardless of the nature of the relationship (e.g., marriage, friendship, professional colleagues) (p. 418). To my knowledge, there are no studies that examine the influence of homogeneous variables in faculty librarian-discipline faculty dyads. Yet the findings of this study suggest the negative influence of status-related homophily (i.e., limited formal education or perceived educational attainment), and it would be interesting to measure the degree to which status variables are an influence in any phase of the faculty librarian-discipline faculty relationship (e.g., networking, providing service support, or collaboration) and whether these variables change post-relationship.

The final suggestion for taking this research forward is to investigate the impact of legitimating efforts, specifically how legitimating work changes perception or inspires change in a collaborative relationship. Do these efforts highlight and reinforce differences between professional actors? (Hornsey and Hogg, 2000; Kramer, 1991), Do they influence collaborative agility? Or do they dispel misperceptions and improve mutual understanding? This focus would improve the understanding of legitimation as a process and clarify its practical implications in real-world settings.

Ultimately, academic librarianship is a profession that is continually reflecting on what it can do to remain engaged with the teaching disciplines, against a backdrop of ever-changing technology and institutional priorities. As such, it is an interesting arena in which to explore the dynamics of collaboration, legitimation, and identity construction through a lens that has not previously been studied. The grounded theory model presented in this study contributes to the ongoing discourse on collaboration by bridging the theoretical realms of collaboration and professional legitimacy, offering a processual perspective for comprehending their

complex interactions in settings where autonomous collaboration is a common occurrence.

7.3. Conclusion

This thesis has elucidated the complex dynamics underpinning autonomous, cross-boundary collaborations among faculty librarians, presenting a grounded theory, **Negotiating the Turn of Professional Legitimation**, that acknowledges the influence of contextual factors and the complex processes of legitimation that occur within these collaborations. Central to this exploration is the recognition that collaborative conditions such as the absence of institutional mandates, and the existence of competing disciplinary norms, shape the collaboration by fostering dialectical tensions that lead to professional legitimation threats. The findings argue that autonomous collaborations are distinctly different from their mandated counterparts and should be conceptualized as such, given their unique challenges and the adaptive strategies they necessitate.

Further, the research highlights that while collaborative processes have the potential to act as powerful catalysts for enhancing professional legitimacy, they also pose significant risks when collaborators' perceptions and expectations are misaligned. The ideal scenario—where collaboration leads to an equal exchange of expertise and mutual recognition—can elevate a librarian's sense of professional legitimacy, reinforcing their identity and value within the academic community. However, the emergence of collaborative tensions can precipitate a downward turn in professional legitimation, transforming peer relationships into informal hierarchies and fostering feelings of de-legitimation. This study has shown that such threats are not only prevalent but often hidden, affecting librarians' professional identity and exacerbating feelings of disengagement and burnout.

Moreover, the outcomes of these legitimation threats reveal a paradox within autonomous collaborations. While such collaborations are valued for their agility and capacity for facilitating knowledge transfer, the presence of persistent legitimation threats can significantly diminish these benefits. The findings of this study, therefore, serve as a critical reminder of the need for a nuanced understanding of the conditions, processes, and outcomes of autonomous collaborations. By bringing to light the role of legitimacy within these interactions, this research paves the way for developing more supportive frameworks that can enhance collaborative experiences and mitigate the risks associated with these autonomous engagements. This deeper understanding could ultimately lead to more effective, resilient, and fulfilling collaborative practices among faculty librarians, harnessing the full potential of their collective expertise in the dynamic landscape of academic institutions.

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Appendix A: Data Protection for Participant Information Sheet

The organisation responsible for protection of your personal information is the University of Reading (the Data Controller). Queries regarding data protection and your rights should be directed to the University Data Protection Officer at imps@reading.ac.uk, or in writing to:

Information Management & Policy Services,
University of Reading, Whiteknights, P O Box 217, Reading, RG6 6AH.

The University of Reading collects, analyses, uses, shares and retains personal data for the purposes of research in the public interest. Under data protection law we are required to inform you that this use of the personal data we may hold about you is on the lawful basis of being a public task in the public interest and where it is necessary for scientific or historical research purposes. If you withdraw from a research study, which processes your personal data, dependent on the stage of withdrawal, we may still rely on this lawful basis to continue using your data if your withdrawal would be of significant detriment to the research study aims. We will always have in place appropriate safeguards to protect your personal data.

If we have included any additional requests for use of your data, for example adding you to a registration list for the purposes of inviting you to take part in future studies, this will be done only with your consent where you have provided it to us and should you wish to be removed from the register at a later date, you should contact: [redacted for the final study]

You have certain rights under data protection law which are:

- Withdraw your consent, for example if you opted in to be added to a participant register
- Access your personal data or ask for a copy
- Rectify inaccuracies in personal data that we hold about you
- Be forgotten, that is your details to be removed from systems that we use to process your personal data
- Restrict uses of your data
- Object to uses of your data, for example retention after you have withdrawn from a study

Some restrictions apply to the above rights where data is collected and used for research purposes. You can find out more about your rights on the website of the Information Commissioners Office (ICO) at <https://ico.org.uk>

You also have a right to complain the ICO if you are unhappy with how your data has

Appendix A. continued

been handled. Please contact the University Data Protection Officer in the first instance.

Below information to be added unless covered in other areas of the Information Sheet (see guidance for what needs to be included):

- The purposes of the use of personal data (what the study is for)
- The categories of personal data that are not obtained directly from the participant (if applicable)
- The recipients or categories of recipients of the personal data (to include third parties the data may be shared with, for example, other researcher at HEI's, organisation or job role)
- The details of transfers of the personal data to any countries outside the EU including international organisations (if applicable).
- The retention periods for the personal data.

The details of the existence of automated decision-making, including profiling (if applicable – more information on whether this would apply to your study can be found here:

<https://ico.org.uk/for-organisations/guide-to-the-general-data-protection-regulation-gdpr/individual-rights/rights-related-to-automated-decision-making-including-profiling/>

Appendix B: Recruitment Email Template

Dear Participant Name,

My name is Amy Andres. I am a doctoral research associate at the Henley School of Business, University of Reading. I am also Director of Libraries at Virginia Commonwealth University in Qatar.

You are among several (academic librarians *or* insert professional title) that I would like to invite to take part in a study on the professional identity of academic librarians in the United States. I am inviting you because (personalize here).

In my constructivist grounded theory study, I will explore the ways in which academic librarians construct their professional identity in a university setting. I anticipate that your experiences will greatly enrich the theory that I hope to generate from this body of research.

I live in Qatar, but I would like to conduct interviews and observation at universities in the United States during the second and third weeks in (insert month). I anticipate an interview would last for approximately one hour. I would also ask you if there is opportunity for me to observe a setting in which you interact with (non-librarian university professionals or librarians) (e.g., classroom, meeting, social event).

I appreciate your consideration of my request. I am also happy to answer any questions you have regarding the nature of the study or what is expected from your participation.

Thank you.

Amy Andres
Doctoral Research Associate, Henley School of Business
Director of Libraries, Virginia Commonwealth University in Qatar



Appendix C: Subject Expertise or Liaison Areas of Faculty Librarian Participants

Faculty Librarian Participant Code	Subject expertise or assigned subject liaison area(s)
L1	Sociology, Anthropology
L2	Engineering
L3	Entrepreneurship, Management, Human Resource Management, and Marketing
L4	Democracy and Justice Studies, First Nations, and Global Studies
L5	Public Administration
L6	Social Work
L7	Archeology and Conservation Studies
L8	Scholarly Communications
L9	Education (Graduate School)
L10	Multi-/Interdisciplinary Studies
L11	Gender and Queer Studies
L12	Business (Graduate School)
L13	Psychology
L14	Advertising, Radio and Television, Public Relations and Image Management
L15	Ethnic Studies
L16	Comparative Literature, German Language Literature, French Language and Literature
L17	Education
L18	Political Science, Environment Policy and Planning, Urban Studies and Affairs
L19	Linguistics and Teaching English as a Second Language
L20	Anthropology and Political Science
L21	Liberal Arts and Sciences
L22	Business, Marketing, Supply Chain Management, Global Management, Human Resource Management
L23	Psychology
L24	Early Childhood Education and Teaching
L25	Sociology and Psychology
L26	Business Administration
L27	Sustainability and Environmental Studies
L28	Management Science, Quantitative Research Methods
L29	Journalism and Communication
L30	Social Work
L31	Education

Appendix C. continued:

L32	Cultural Minority, Gender, and Ethnic Studies
L33	Asian Studies and Civilization, Japanese Language and Linguistics
L34	Philosophy, Psychology, Sociology
L35	Communications and Speech Rhetoric
L36	Public Administration and Social Service Professions
L37	Research and Experimental Psychology
L38	Elementary Education and Teaching

Appendix D: Academic Major or Program of Discipline Faculty Participants

Discipline Faculty Participant Code	Academic Major or Program
DF 1	Education
DF 2	History
DF 3	Sociology
DF 4	Business Administration & Management
DF 5	English Language and Literature
DF 6	Religious Studies
DF 7	Communications, Media Industries
DF 8	Public Policy
DF 9	Film Studies
DF 10	Environmental Studies
DF 11	Higher Education Leadership
DF 12	Psychology
DF 13	Anthropology
DF 14	International Business, Trade and Commerce
DF 15	Architecture
DF 16	Geology, Earth Science
DF 17	Classical Studies
DF 18	Psychology
DF 19	Women's Studies
DF 20	Medieval and Renaissance Studies

Appendix E: Recruitment: Faculty Librarian Participant Information Sheet



Participant Information Sheet: Faculty Librarians

Doctoral Research Associate: Amy Andres

Working Title of Study:

*The social negotiation of workplace discrepancies related to professional image and role:
A multidisciplinary study of academic librarians*

Study Summary:

The aim of the study is to explore and describe the social negotiation processes academic librarians use when they encounter workplace discrepancies and ambiguities related to their professional image and role.

The study will contribute to the understanding of professional identity processes experienced by librarians who work within higher education in the United States.

Terms of Participation:

The research undertaken for this study forms part of my academic qualifications for the Doctoral of Business Administration at Henley Business School, University of Reading. I invite you to take part in my pilot study because a critical component of the research requires interviewing academic librarians who are strategically engaged with the university community.

The inclusion and exclusion criteria for the main study are appended to the end of this document.

If you agree, you will be asked to participate in an interview lasting approximately 45-60 minutes. During the interview I will ask you questions related to the following areas:

Appendix E. continued:

Participant Inclusion Criteria

Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Participant is willing and able to give informed consent for participation in the study	Participant is unwilling and able to give informed consent for participation in the study
Participant agrees for in-person interview (or video conference interview) to be audio recorded	Participant does not agree for in-person interview (or video conference interview) to be audio recorded
Any gender, aged 18 years or above	Less than 18 years of age
Employed by a public, doctoral-degree granting institution located in the United States	Employed by any university other than a public, doctoral-degree granting university located in the United States
Employed in a general library that serves all academic departments	Employed in a subject-specific library (e.g., law, medicine, music)
Minimum of 2 years in current position	Less than 3 years in current position (prior to data collection)
Participants must have the word 'librarian' in their job title	Librarians whose job title does not contain the word 'librarian' (e.g. Scholarly Communications Specialist, Information Scientist)
Faculty status employment (contract and terms)	Contract and terms for employment groups other than faculty
Strategically engaged with faculty from outside of the library	Not directly engaged with non-library faculty

Appendix F: Recruitment: Discipline Faculty Participation Sheet



Participant Information Sheet: Discipline Faculty

Doctoral Research Associate: Amy Andres

Working Title of Study:

*The social negotiation of workplace discrepancies related to professional image and role:
A multidisciplinary study of academic librarians*

Study Summary:

The aim of the study is to explore and describe the social negotiation processes academic librarians use when they encounter workplace discrepancies and ambiguities related to their professional image and role.

The study will contribute to the understanding of professional identity processes experienced by librarians who work within higher education in the United States.

Terms of Participation:

The research undertaken for this study forms part of my academic qualifications for the Doctoral of Business Administration at Henley Business School, University of Reading. I invite you to take part in my pilot study because a critical component of the research requires interviewing academic librarians who are strategically engaged with the university community.

In view of geographical restrictions, the University of Reading has approved that inclusion criteria for the pilot may be amended. The inclusion and exclusion criteria for the main study are appended to the end of this document.

If you agree, you will be asked to participate in an interview lasting 45 minutes.

During the interview I will ask you questions related to the following areas and based on your personal experience:

- Academic collaborations within a university context
- Academic libraries and librarians
- Perception of academic librarians

Appendix F. continued:

- Examples of encounters and/or collaborations with academic librarians
- Professional identity within higher education

You can choose not to answer any particular questions and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time.

With your permission, I would like to record the interviews and take notes, so the interview content can be referenced for subsequent analysis.

Confidentiality

The interviews will be professionally transcribed and retained as digital files. The field notes will be copied and digitized. The electronic files generated from the interview will be encrypted and stored digitally. The original field notes will be kept secure and will not be accessible by anyone other than the researcher. The electronic files may be retained after the completion of the study for inclusion in publications directly related to this research (subject to participants consent to do so).

Your identity will remain confidential throughout every stage of data collection and analysis, and in the final study report. A separate key will be encrypted and stored digitally. not be included in the final report. Your name and identifying information/institution will be coded and known only by the researcher.

A copy of the completed study will be made available to you upon request.

The project has been subject to ethical review in accordance with the procedures specified by the University of Reading Research Ethics Committee and has been given a favourable ethical opinion for conduct.

If you have any further questions about the project, please feel free to contact me at the email address below.

Name of researcher: Amy Andres

[REDACTED]

Date: January 15, 2019

Appendix F. continued:

Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria
Participant is willing and able to give informed consent for participation in the study	Participant is unwilling and able to give informed consent for participation in the study
Participant agrees for in-person interview (or video conference interview) to be audio recorded	Participant does not agree for in-person interview (or video conference interview) to be audio recorded
Any gender, aged 18 years or above	Less than 18 years of age
Employed by a public, doctoral-degree granting institution located in the United States	Employed by any university other than a public, doctoral-degree granting university located in the United States
Member of teaching faculty <i>or</i> Professional/administrator in an academically-oriented, non-teaching department	Students, employees from administrative departments (e.g., Finance, IT)
Minimum of 3 years in current position	Less than 3 years in current position (prior to data collection)

Appendix G: Participant Consent Form: Interview



Participant Consent Form

Title of research project:

The social negotiation of workplace discrepancies related to professional image and role:
A multidisciplinary study of academic librarians.

Consent terms:

1. I have read and had explained to me by the researcher, Amy Andres. The information sheet relating to the project and any questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
2. I agree to the arrangements described in the information sheet insofar as they relate to my participation.
3. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw from the project at any time.
4. I agree to the interview being audio recorded.
5. I agree to the primary data being used in publications directly related to this research. I understand that data will be retained securely for this purpose.
6. I have received a copy of this consent form and of the accompanying information sheet.
7. I am aged 18 or older.

Name of participant:

Signed:

Date:

Contact details of Researcher:

Amy Andres



Appendix H: Observation Activity Participant Consent Form



Participant Consent Form

Title of research project:

The social negotiation of workplace discrepancies related to professional image and role:
A multidisciplinary study of academic librarians.

Consent terms:

1. I have read and had explained to me by the researcher, Amy Andres. The information sheet relating to the project and any questions have been answered to my satisfaction.
2. I agree to the arrangements described in the information sheet insofar as they relate to my participation.
3. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw from the project at any time.
4. I agree to the interview being audio recorded.
5. I agree to the primary data being used in publications directly related to this research. I understand that data will be retained securely for this purpose.
6. I have received a copy of this consent form and of the accompanying information sheet.
7. I am aged 18 or older.

Name of participant:

Signed:

Date:

Contact details of Researcher:

Amy Andres



Appendix I: Field Guide for Observation

(based on Charmaz, 2014; Creswell and Poth, 2018)

What to observe	Includes	Note
Human flow	Individuals who enter, leave, or otherwise spend time in the setting, how do individuals become part of the activity	Profession, title, department
Verbal behaviors	Who speaks, to whom to they speak, how long do they speak, who initiated the interaction, tone of voice	Dynamics of interaction, gender, ethnicity
Physical behaviors	Who does what, with whom they may interact, who initiated contact, who does not interact, use of personal space	Body language, facial expressions
Appearance	Dress, gender, ethnicity, physical appearance	Anything of interest or specific to one's profession
Leaders	Hierarchy, who stands out, who takes leadership (formal or informal), what do they do that identifies them as leaders	Characteristics of these individuals, how they differ from others, how they treat others
Setting	Where, what is the purpose of the space	Draw a map of the layout (or photograph, if permitted)
Activity	What is the goal of the event, what are the outcomes, are materials included, who created materials, who has access to materials, length of activity	Collect any activity materials/objects, if permitted Describe the interaction surrounding activities
Action	Nature of discourse, is there action, who asks questions, who responds, who acts or initiative (e.g., decision), does anyone explain their action, any difference of opinion, any agreement	Describe the interaction surrounding actions

Appendix J: Observation Field Notes Template

OBSERVATION NOTES

Date:	Permissions recorded:	
Location:	Y / N	
Participants:	Photographs allowed:	
Purpose of event:	Y / N	
Length:		
NOTES		
Descriptive	Memo	Reflection
Human flow		
Verbal behaviors		
Physical behaviors		
Appearance		
Leaders		
Setting		
Activity		
Action		
Other		