SPEAKING THE SAME LANGUAGE: A PHENOMENOLOGICAL STUDY

INVESTIGATING LIBRARIAN AND WRITING INSTRUCTOR COLLABORATIONS

AND SHARED FRAMEWORKS IN FIRST-YEAR COLLEGE WRITING COURSES

A Dissertation

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AUTHORIZATION TO SUBMIT

DISSERTATION

This dissertation of Amy Rice, submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy with a major in

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Year College Writing Courses," has been reviewed in final form. Permission, as indicated by the

signatures and dates given below, is now granted to submit final copies.

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ABSTRACT

In this hermeneutic phenomenological study, the researcher interviewed librarians and writing instructors to understand their lived experiences of teaching information literacy in first-year college writing courses. The researcher's interest in the study was inspired by a rich collaborative relationship among the librarians and writing instructors at the researcher's institution. Although collaborations vary in depth, librarians and writing instructors often collaborate to teach information literacy skills. However, a key challenge of collaboration is navigating disciplinary differences. Understanding complementary disciplinary frameworks can help facilitate better collaborations. The researcher and participants reviewed the ACRL Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education, the WPA Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing, and the WPA Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition. Writing and information literacy skills and dispositions are among a host of factors that predict success and retention of first-year college students. Both information literacy and writing are complex skills to teach, and first-year students struggle to successfully synthesize sources into their writing. Study findings demonstrated a spectrum of collaborations between writing instructors and librarians: Emerging, Expected, and Expansive. Productive collaboration elements included buy-in and enthusiasm, communication, teacher preparation and experience, and focus on student engagement and learning. Counterproductive collaboration characteristics included lack of buy-in, discipline-related hindrances, communication issues, misunderstanding of each other's role, and teaching inexperience. Although some institutions had structured programs for first-year writing that required writing instructors and librarians to collaborate, successful collaboration was more dependent on strong relationships between

collaborators. Not all participants shared frameworks with each other, nor were all writing instructors familiar with the WPA Framework and Outcomes. However, when reviewing the frameworks during the study, many participants noted the potential of complementary frameworks to help them improve collaboration. Participants demonstrated varying degrees of interaction through discourse communities and communities of practice. Implications of the study center around three primary areas: promoting collaborations as a positive aspect of the student experience, advocacy and support for collaborations and interdisciplinary conversations within the structure of a higher education institution, and advocacy for inclusion of instruction preparation in core library science courses and professional development around teaching after librarians enter the field.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

Chapter I

Introduction

To write is to measure the depth of things, as well as to come to a sense of one's own depth. (van Manen, 1990, p. 127)

Both libraries and writing programs have been linked to persistence and success throughout a student's college career (L. L. Anderson & García, 2020; Beile et al., 2020; Croxton & Moore, 2020; Gaha et al., 2018; Garrett et al., 2017; LeMaistre et al., 2018; Miller, 2018; Nicholes & Reimer, 2020; Nichols Hess et al., 2015; Robison, 2017; Shao & Purpur, 2016; Thorpe et al., 2016). *Information literacy*, which the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) defines as "the set of integrated abilities encompassing the reflective discovery of information, the understanding of how information is produced and valued, and the use of information in creating new knowledge and participating ethically in communities of learning" (American Library Association, 2015, p. 8). Information literacy was one of the common goals of librarians and writing instructors, although writing instructors did not always use the term (Tewell, 2018); however, each discipline was interested in helping students critically find, evaluate, and write about their sources. The Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework), the Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (WPA Framework), and the Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition (WPA Outcomes) have some overlapping values such as critical thinking, careful reading and

understanding of texts, inquiry or source research, and communication (American Library Association, 2015; Bowles-Terry & Clinnin, 2020; Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011; Grettano & Witek, 2016; Kazan et al., 2021).

Although writing instructors and librarians had overlapping goals and strategies, they were separate disciplines with their own priorities and languages (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Kissel et al., 2017; Veach, 2012b). In some cases, writing instructors and librarians described information literacy concepts using the same words, yet each discipline interpreted them differently. Additionally, cultural norms sometimes took precedence over official definitions; students, in turn, could also interpret assignment instructions differently than either writing instructors or librarians (Broussard, 2017; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; LaFrance, 2016).

To collaborate effectively, writing instructors and librarians must be able to find common ground. Some practitioners found common ground by sharing pedagogical theories. Because of their different rates of development as disciplines, writing instructors and librarians may not have used the same theories at the same time. By one writing instructor and librarian's estimate, librarians' development of pedagogies was approximately 10 years behind the development of writing pedagogies (Elmborg, 2017).

Writing and information literacy collaborations could make more progress because the latest frameworks and theories have been better aligned, which would help align pedagogies that have been out of sync (Baer, 2016; Johnson & McCracken, 2016, 2018; Veach, 2012b). Researchers have been publishing case studies and books concerning their collaborative endeavors (Albert & Sinkinson, 2016; Auten & Thomas, 2016; Baer, 2016; Becker et al., 2022; Walsh et al., 2018).

Statement of the Problem

In a study at Northeastern University, 81% of students found an appropriate source for their papers, but fewer than half demonstrated proficiency in incorporating those sources into their writing (Carlozzi, 2018a). This finding produced similar results as major studies such as *The Citation Project* (http://www.citationproject.net/*)* and *Project Information Literacy* (https://projectinfolit.org/*).* Incorporating sources into writing is a foundational skill that students will need to employ throughout their academic careers and beyond (K. Carter, 2018; Hart Research Associates, 2013, 2018).

The literature review highlighted themes information literacy and writing instruction have in common, such as analysis of information sources, consideration of a variety of perspectives, and participating in the scholarly conversation (Baer, 2016; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Napier et al., 2018; Rapchak & Stinnett, 2018). To better serve first-year students in teaching them writing with sources, writing instructors and librarians must collaborate, which requires both sets of instructors to understand each other's disciplinary perspectives and to find common ground in language, frameworks, and standards (Albert & Sinkinson, 2016; Baer, 2016; Carlozzi, 2018b; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016).

Since writing professionals and librarians reported communication as something that would enable more effective collaboration (Jackson, 2017), a means by which they can achieve this may be in understanding the frameworks and language at play. This collaboration, in turn, will benefit students, as their interactions with the library and performance in the first-year writing classes are predictors of retention, persistence, and success, which ultimately affect their entry into the workforce (Allen, 2015; Booth et al., 2015; Garrett et al., 2017; LeMaistre et al., 2018; Nichols Hess et al., 2015; Soria et al., 2017; Thorpe et al., 2016).

Addressing questions of information literacy, researchers have investigated faculty perceptions (Baird & Soares, 2020; Blankstein & Wolff-Eisenberg, 2019; Bury, 2016; Cope & Sanabria, 2014; Dawes, 2017, 2019; Guth et al., 2018) and student perceptions (Angell & Kose, 2015; Fosnacht, 2020; Insua et al., 2018a; McCartin et al., 2017, 2019; Molteni & Chan, 2015; Wojahn et al., 2016); but fewer qualitative studies addressed librarian and writing instructor perceptions (Jackson, 2017; Saunders & Corning, 2020); in fact, qualitative methodologies as a whole were underrepresented and underappreciated in library science literature (Benedetti et al., 2018; Ford, 2020; Jamali, 2018). Books were more likely to focus on practical strategies for collaborative teaching than on the lived experiences of writing instructors and librarians (Baer, 2016; B. J. D'Angelo et al., 2016; McClure, 2016; Veach, 2018).

Background

Library instruction focused on information literacy, and writing instruction developed on a larger scale simultaneously. Following open admissions policies of the 1960s and 1970s, higher education institutions developed programs that remediated students to expected college-level performance in math, writing, and research (Ariew, 2014; Elmborg, 2003). Colleges and universities admitted a more diverse student body in racial and socioeconomic composition as well as college preparedness (Elmborg, 2003; Russell, 1991). These higher education admissions changes prompted a need for more developmental courses to ensure all students were ready to enter upper division courses with the skills they needed to succeed. Colleges and universities face similar challenges today, and an instructor can make few assumptions about student preparedness for postsecondary work in writing or research (Angell & Kose, 2015; Library Journal, 2017; Saunders et al., 2017). Even if students have had some information literacy instruction in high school, high school and college librarians rated their students' information

literacy skills low (Saunders et al., 2017). The researchers theorized that high school librarians were unsure what skills would be most helpful for students continuing to college. Others theorized students failed to transfer what they had learned to the college setting. Some students also reported a lack of confidence in their skills (Insua et al., 2018a; Saunders et al., 2017) Although the information literacy skills that school librarians teach could be applied to higher-level content, such as peer-reviewed journal articles, secondary schools likely had less access to this content. Therefore, students had fewer opportunities to master their information literacy skills (L. Farmer, 2021). Regulatory requirements also determined how many credentialed librarians schools were required to be employed, and some schools did not have librarians at all (L. S. J. Farmer & Phamle, 2021). Furthermore, higher education institutions must also consider students who completed their schooling at home or in a homeschool cooperative. Students with homeschooled educations reported confidence in finding information and citing that information, but they were less confident about their ability to write and format research papers correctly (Jones, 2010).

Lanning and Mallek (2017) argued students would need robust information literacy education when they entered college. They investigated 47 different demographic, institutional, and community variables to identify factors that affect ed student scores on a required information literacy pre-test and post-test. After analysis, they concluded that generally, high school students did not have college-level information literacy skills and high performing students did not perform much better in the pre-test than other students (Lanning & Mallek, 2017). At the same time, students must also navigate the transition from high school writing to college writing. Burdick and Greer (2017) surveyed 81 high school teachers who taught college preparatory writing or concurrent college credit writing classes to determine if there were

differences in content. They found closer alignment between secondary and postsecondary understandings of writing priorities than they expected to find. However, there were some differences between vocabularies. For instance, "thesis" meant a different thing to high school writing instructors than it did to college writing instructors (Burdick & Greer, 2017). The findings regarding information literacy and writing indicate that the programs that started in the 1960s and 1970s are still important for student success in postsecondary education.

Although writing instruction and library instruction programs share similar origins, timelines, and overlapping missions related to incorporating sources into writing, the next stage in their development took a different turn. One of the primary differences in development between library instruction and writing instruction was that writing instruction was considered an academic discipline (Baer, 2016; Elmborg, 2003; Veach, 2012b). Composition programs – and the writing centers that supported them -- were usually closely tied to an academic department. Association with an academic department resulted in two major benefits. First, graduate students in composition programs practiced their teaching skills to undergraduates in the same institution, thereby maintaining a close connection between theory and practice. Second, the association with an academic department provided credibility, a critical factor in campus culture (Baer, 2016; Elmborg, 2003). Writing instruction has moved apace from a remedial or basic approach, to process-based approaches, critical theory, and now to holistic approaches such as Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) (Baer, 2016; DeSanto & Harrington, 2017).

In contrast, the development of librarian instruction related to information literacy has proceeded less straightforwardly. As early as the 1920s, some librarians advocated for knowledge of both bibliographic and pedagogical knowledge (Salony, 1995). For a time, librarians disputed the necessity of library instruction as a widespread practice, though there

were some early exceptions (Block & Mattis, 1952). Block, a librarian, and Mattis, a writing instructor, developed instruction to help students navigate their first research paper, resulting in better papers from students, which benefited instructors and students alike. More important, students used their newly-developed research in other courses (Block & Mattis, 1952).

In the 1970s, professional library associations began devoting attention to instruction even while some course instructors seemed to be unaware that their students needed some instruction on the research process. Authors often attributed instructor unawareness to the way faculty learned to do research early in their academic careers (Salony, 1995; Whearty et al., 2017). Others suggested that the type of research faculty engaged in looked different than the traditional undergraduate research paper, which resulted in faculty underestimating the complexity of the research process (Baird & Soares, 2020; Kleinfeld & Wright, 2019; Veach, 2012a). For instance, some traditional undergraduate research papers required that students collect all relevant outside sources before beginning the writing process. However, other types of research writing were more likely to involve an *iterative process*: going back-and-forth from finding sources to writing, then finding more sources to incorporate them into the paper. The criticism leveled at the traditional undergraduate research paper was that it bore little resemblance to any other kind of writing with sources.

The first scholars to coin the term *information literacy* did so in the mid-1970s. Zurkowski (1974) defined an "information literate" as a person who valued information and used a wide variety of information sources and formats to improve their work. In a bicentennial symposium at Texas A&M Library, Burchinal (1976/2013), who was part of the team responsible for building ERIC (Educational Information Resources Center), identified the primary characteristic of information literacy: skillfully finding information for problem-solving

and decision-making. He envisioned every citizen becoming information literate, with information literacy education beginning in elementary school. Both Burchinal and Zurkowski viewed information literacy as something that extended beyond academics. In 1989, the American Library Association's Presidential Committee on Information Literacy set the stage to replace the traditional term *bibliographic instruction* with *information literacy instruction* (American Library Association, 2006; Ariew, 2014). Bibliographic instruction was construed as being collection and skills focused; information literacy instruction was considered student focused and emphasized problem-solving and the integral ways research and writing were related (Ariew, 2014; Baer, 2021). Library instruction has come a long way since the first suggestion of a systematic collaboration between a librarian and a writing instructor (Block & Mattis, 1952); however, not all librarians have fully embraced their role as teachers (Baer, 2016; Carlozzi, 2018a; Nichols Hess, 2020; Wheeler & McKinney, 2015). Librarians demonstrated a range of responses, from a fully-fledged teacher identity, to a belief that what librarians do is training, not teaching (Becksford, 2022; Wheeler & McKinney, 2015). Library science education has not kept pace with the changes in the role the library plays on college and university campuses (Baer, 2016; Becksford, 2022; Carlozzi, 2018a; Elmborg, 2003; Wheeler & McKinney, 2015).

Library science education is still more focused on information science than on pedagogy, even as librarianship in the field – particularly in academic libraries – involves instruction, both in one-on-one settings and in classrooms (Carlozzi, 2018a; Julien et al., 2018; Saunders, 2015). One study found 97% of reference librarian positions included instruction or information in the job description (Saunders, 2015). Another study showed 49% of all librarian jobs had some responsibilities related to instruction (Julien et al., 2018). Despite these statistics, librarians reported learning most of their instruction skills on the job and expressed a desire for library

science programs to provide more classes specifically addressing instruction (Goodsett & Koziura, 2016; Julien et al., 2018; Saunders, 2015). In a study conducted by Lundstrom et al. (2021) 85% of participants who expressed a lack of teaching preparation experienced teaching anxiety; conversely, 2/3 of participants who felt they were prepared to teach reported no teaching anxiety. Saunders (2015) and Valenti and Lund (2021) investigated library science program syllabi and course offerings. They, along with Dodson (2020) and Hensley (2015), discovered most programs had few instruction classes and they were rarely required. Saunders (2015) reported only two schools offered a practicum or field experience. Library science faculty generally specialized in a specific niche of information science, such as cataloging, special libraries, or information retrieval, and they rarely participated in library instruction for undergraduates (Elmborg, 2005). McNiff and Hays (2017) advocated for library science faculty to incorporate the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL) throughout the library science curriculum.

Elmborg (2017), reflecting on 40 years in the writing instruction and a librarian disciplines, estimated that information literacy instruction was developing approximately 10 years behind writing instruction (Elmborg, 2017). Part of the explanation for being 10 years behind may have been the disconnect between the academy (library science programs) and practitioners. Academy and practitioner disconnection resulted in theory and pedagogy developing more slowly, on the job, and "after the fact" (Elmborg, 2003, p. 71). However, some librarians fostered their teacher identities on the job. Experienced librarians reported six activities or areas of support they believed were helpful in developing their teacher identity: supportive relationships, professional learning, "writing and technology-rich teaching"

(Nichols Hess, 2020, p. 158), library-centric input, changing job statuses, and shifting responsibilities (Nichols Hess, 2020). Other reflective practices, such as the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL), could help librarians as they develop their teacher identities (Hays & Studebaker, 2019; Wilson-Mah et al., 2022).

Although they have different development rates, librarians and writing instructors recognized how their disciplines overlapped and informed each other. Researchers coined the terms *writing information literacy* or *writing from sources* to describe the interconnectedness of the two fields (Cumming et al., 2016; Kleinfeld & Wright, 2019; Scheidt et al., 2017), perhaps in part because information literacy itself may have been a contested term (Kissel et al., 2017; Tewell, 2018). Some practitioners expressed regret that early collaborative attempts were short-lived or were one-sided; a cursory look at the literature demonstrated that articles about collaborations primarily occurred in library literature, not composition literature. Therefore, compositionists were less likely to read about successful partnerships between librarians and writing instructors (Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016; Perez-Stable et al., 2020).

Research Questions

The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore the ways librarians and writing instructors use shared language or frameworks to collaborate in the first-year college writing courses. A qualitative researcher uses open-ended research questions to focus the direction of the study and to facilitate the full range of the participants' perspectives (Creswell, 2016; Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Therefore, the following questions will guide the study.

1. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors develop teaching collaborations in first-year college writing courses?

2. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors use shared vocabulary and disciplinary frameworks to facilitate understanding and cooperation in teaching first-year college writing courses?

3. How do librarians and writing instructors engage in communities of practice to learn from each other about teaching writing and information literacy concepts in first-year college writing courses?

Description of Terms

Clear definitions are essential in this study, in which one of the identified barriers to full collaboration was communication, and people interpreted terms differently (Jackson, 2017; Kissel et al., 2017). Norgaard and Sinkinson (2016) emphasized that no interdisciplinary work should occur without understanding each other's definitions. Therefore, the researcher will use the following terms in this study.

21st-century skills. A set of competencies that aid in employee success in the workplace. Although this set of skills shifts as employers change and adapt, the National Research Council has suggested a set of skills and competencies in three domains: cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal. Cognitive domains include knowledge of one's discipline and problem-solving abilities. Intrapersonal domains have to do with conscientiousness and self-regulation. Interpersonal domains involve teamwork and leadership (National Research Council, 2012).

Academic librarian (shortened to "librarian" in this study). An academic librarian works in a college or university; the minimum qualification for an academic librarian is a master's degree in library science. Some academic librarian positions require an advanced degree in another subject area (American Library Association, 2016).

ACRL Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL

Framework). The ACRL Framework provides a set of dispositions and practices that promote

information literacy in the context of academic work and in everyday life. The six frames can be

used by librarians and faculty in a variety of ways in instruction settings. The six frames are:

- Authority is Constructed and Contextual

- Information Creation as a Process

- Information Has Value

- Research as Inquiry

- Scholarship as Conversation

- Searching as Strategic Exploration (American Library Association, 2015)

Collaboration. At its core, collaboration involves a relationship between two or more

entities with a common goal. More important, collaboration requires deep listening, and each

party must be willing to find an alternative way of thinking (Douglas & Rabinowitz, 2016).

Additionally, some researchers have investigated a narrower concept of interdisciplinary

collaboration and noted some common needs, such as negotiation of definitions and terms, and

barriers, such as participants who may be territorial about their discipline (Lockhart, 2017;

Wilkes & Miodownik, 2018).

Community of practice. A community of practice is any group that "engage[s] in a

process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor" (Wenger-Trayner &

Wenger-Trayner, 2015, para. 4).

Critical thinking. The goal of critical thinking is making rational decisions about what

to do or believe. It involves two parts: using reason to evaluate the ideas of other people and

thinking reflectively to evaluate one's own ideas (Ennis, 1985).

Discourse community. Similar to a community of practice, but in a discourse community, the focus is on using shared language to achieve goals (Anders & Hemstrom, 2016).

First-year college writing (also known as first-year composition or first-year writing). First-year composition is a requirement at most postsecondary institutions and broadly focuses on rhetorical knowledge, critical thinking, reading, and composing (which includes finding, reading, and evaluating a variety of sources); and processes. First-year composition is merely the beginning of students' forays into writing in their chosen disciplines; writing is an ongoing learning process, not something a student can master in one course (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014). Although not all first-year composition courses include writing that incorporates outside sources, many do.

Other terms intentionally highlight the interconnectedness of writing and source research and distinguish this type of writing from other types, such as creative writing. They are as follows: *writing from sources*, *writing information literacy*, and *research (or researched) writing*. Norgaard (2003) wrote, "writing theory and pedagogy can and should have a constitutive influence on our conception of information literacy" (p. 124), and the disciplines of writing and information literacy can learn from each other. For this study, the author will use the term first-year college writing.

High-impact practices (HIPs). HIPs are educational practices that lead to improved engagement and retention for undergraduate students (Kilgo et al., 2015; Kuh & Documenting Effective Educational Practice Project, 2005).

Information evaluation. Information evaluation occurs when a person asks questions about the origins, content, and applicability to the current information need. Novices may learn

this by examining author credentials and characteristics of the publication itself, and experts look for more nuanced indicators of authority and recognize differences in disciplinary approaches to authority (American Library Association, 2015).

Information literacy. Information literacy is defined as "the set of integrated abilities encompassing the reflective discovery of information, the understanding of how information is produced and valued, and the use of information in creating new knowledge and participating ethically in communities of learning" (American Library Association, 2015).

One-shot instruction session. A single class session in which a librarian talks about information literacy and library sources (Teagarden & Carlozzi, 2017).

Retention and persistence. Retention is generally described as whether a student stays at the same institution from one academic year to the next. Similarly, ACT, Inc. also looks specifically at the first-to-second-year retention and persistence-to-degree rates (ACT, 2018).

Rhetorical perspective. The rhetorical perspective investigates authors' understanding of intended audiences and how they use language to convey meaning andx` persuade a specific audience (Burkholder, 2019).

Scaffolding. To help students learn a concept, instructors provide additional support at the beginning stages of learning. As students become more familiar with the concept, the instructor does not need to provide support (Ambrose et al., 2010)

Student Engagement. The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) defines student engagement as a cooperative venture between the student and the institution. The student invests effort and time into educational endeavors, and the institution designs and deploys educational activities that promote learning and encourage students to participate in them. Kuh and colleagues believe some of these institutional activities are more effective than

others and they are called high impact practices (Center for Postsecondary Research. Indiana University School of Education, n.d.; Kuh & Documenting Effective Educational Practice Project, 2005).

Student Success. Success is usually tied to academic achievement, which is predominantly measured by grade point average (GPA) (van der Zanden et al., 2018)

Synthesis. The process by which writers incorporate other sources into their writing (Carlozzi, 2018b)

Threshold concepts. Threshold concepts represent a type of understanding of a theory, idea, or practice that learners must understand before becoming proficient in an area of study. A threshold concept often can be "troublesome," that is, difficult to understand; it is also "transformative," causing a noticeable change in the learner's proficiency (Meyer & Land, 2003).

Transfer. When students have mastered a concept, they should be able to apply the concept to another class or real-life application, even to adapt the concept to suit their needs (Yancey et al., 2019).

Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (WPA Framework). The WPA Framework is a counterpart to the WPA Outcomes, focusing on what high school students need to know before entering college. It focuses on two main categories: habits of mind, 21st-century skills, and rhetorical knowledge (Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011).

Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition (WPA Outcomes).   The Council of Writing Program Administrators developed the WPA Outcomes lists the "knowledge, practices, and attitudes" that college students are expected to

develop during their first year (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014, para. 1). The various outcomes are broadly classified in three categories: processes, rhetorical knowledge, and a category including reading, critical thinking, and composing (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014).

Writing center. There are varied ways authors talk about the writing center. Still, the most succinct description is this: a writing center's primary purpose is to help people improve themselves as writers, not their writing, though improved writing may be a byproduct of how writing centers' work with developing writers (North, 1984).

Writing instructor. There are many terms that some use to describe the disciplines of composition and writing, such as composition, rhetoric and composition and writing studies. The terms may be contested (Horner, 2016). A writing instructor for this project will be considered anyone who is involved in teaching college and university students how to use critical thinking to develop a logical, researched, and persuasive argument in writing (Taylor, 2018). The National Census of Writing cites the types of instructors that are involved in teaching first-year composition at four year institutions: full-time faculty from English departments, Rhetoric & Composition departments, and other departments, with a variety of statuses: tenure-track, non-tenure-track, part-time, graduate student, and writing director (National Census of Writing, n.d.). For this study, a writing instructor represents anyone in these categories that teaches first-year college writing.

Writing program or composition program. In the university setting, a writing or composition program is staffed by "degree-based credentials in Writing Studies, Composition and Rhetoric, or related fields" ("Principles for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing," 2018, para. 2) or have done some training or professional development in teaching writing. Writing

programs teach students to determine the intended audience(s) of their writing and adjust writing accordingly, which requires approximately 20 different types of habits and skills involved in writing for academic and non-academic purposes ("Principles for the Postsecondary Teaching of Writing," 2018).

Significance of the Study

This study explored writing and information literacy collaborations to understand how two related disciplines found better communication methods and opportunities for collaboration through shared frameworks and vocabularies. One researcher conducted a quantitative survey that explored library and writing center partnerships (Jackson, 2017), which provided a valuable benchmark for further studies. However, more common types of research in collaboration were articles, presentations, and book chapters describing the results of collaborative efforts, such as lesson plans, student perceptions, or pre- and post-test results (Belzowski & Robison, 2019; B. D'Angelo et al., 2017; Díaz & Mandernach, 2017; Douglas & Rabinowitz, 2016; Mills et al., 2021; Murphy, 2019; Saunders & Corning, 2020). There were also studies that attempted to demonstrate how information literacy and writing connected to student success measures, retention, and persistence; few of these focus on both information literacy and writing (Croxton & Moore, 2020; Gaha et al., 2018; Garrett et al., 2017; Laskin & Zoe, 2017; LeMaistre et al., 2018; Mayer et al., 2020; Nicholes & Reimer, 2020; O'Kelly et al., 2023; Onyango, 2023; Robison, 2017; Rowe et al., 2021; Scoulas & Groote, 2019; van der Zanden et al., 2018). In other book chapters, librarians and writing instructors participated in dialogue about their collaboration (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Gregory & McCall, 2016; Johnson & McCracken, 2016; Maid & D'Angelo, 2016; Scheidt et al., 2016).

Although there were qualitative articles that investigated general faculty perceptions and general collaborations, the researcher found few qualitative studies in peer-reviewed journals that explored writing instructor and librarian relationships and collaborations using shared frameworks (Murphy, 2019). There were some articles discussing collaborations in a multitude of different disciplines (Bawa & Watson, 2017; Belzowski & Robison, 2019; Junisbai et al., 2016; Lowe et al., 2020; Routhieaux, 2015; Saunders & Corning, 2020) and proposals for incorporating framework elements into courses (Hurley & Potter, 2017; McMillen & Hill, 2005; Wray & Mulvihill, 2018). Calls for mutual understanding of each discipline's language and frameworks have been a consistent aspect of the literature (Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; B. D'Angelo et al., 2017; Friedman & Miller, 2018; Grettano & Witek, 2016; Guth et al., 2018; Hosier, 2019; Insua et al., 2018a; Murphy, 2019; Napier et al., 2018; Scheidt et al., 2018; Veach, 2012a). Some have found common threads in the disciplinary frameworks (Albert & Sinkinson, 2016; Anders & Hemstrom, 2016; Johnson & McCracken, 2016; Langan & Sachs, 2017).

Both disciplines would benefit from these mutual understandings, which would in turn benefit students (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Locklear, 2016; Pickard & Sterling, 2020; Refaei et al., 2017) and higher education institutions. Collaborations may enhance each discipline's scholarly output through co-presenting and co-writing about their experiences (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Scheidt et al., 2018). Some researchers have shown that collaborations led to improved conversations with other disciplinary faculty about information literacy and writing and may lead to advocacy for curricular change that embeds information literacy and writing throughout a college or university curriculum (Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; Teagarden & Carlozzi, 2017).

In addition to librarians and writing instructors, particularly those who participated in first-year instruction and those serving on faculty committees charged with decision-making, administrators may be interested in the benefits of interdisciplinary collaboration that fostered student persistence, retention, and success (Applegate, 2019; Garrett et al., 2017). Student success is usually a vital aspect of an institution's mission, and outside accreditors look for collaboration among departments and institutional evidence of student academic development (Goss, 2022).

Overview of Research Methods

The researcher used a qualitative phenomenological research design to investigate the experiences of librarians and writing instructors as they use shared language to facilitate collaboration (Creswell, 2016; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The researcher conducted the study of librarian and writing instructor collaboration through the lens of a community of practice to see how the participants learned from each other's disciplinary frameworks (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Although each person engages in a community of practice in unique ways, phenomenology explores common experiences among the participants (Creswell, 2016).

The study investigated the phenomenon of writing instructors and librarians collaborating in first-year writing courses. A total of 14 participants, seven librarians and seven writing instructors from seven different institutions, were recruited through purposeful criterion sampling to participate in two semi-structured interviews (Creswell, 2016; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Phenomenological research focuses on rich descriptions and seeks to understand the essence of a phenomenon. Because of this focus on detailed description, sample sizes generally range from three to 15 participants (Creswell, 2016). The interviews were video-recorded and transcribed. The researcher coded the transcribed interviews for themes based on participant

transcripts. Then the researcher used quotes to illuminate and explain the themes (Ajjawi &

Higgs, 2007; Saldaña, 2015). These themes and quotes served to describe the essence of the

phenomenon of librarians and writing instructors using shared language in community of

practice.

Chapter II

Review of Literature

Introduction

First-year college writing has been found to be one indicator of student persistence and success, and information literacy has been inextricably tied to writing with sources (Bensen et al., 2016; Garrett et al., 2017; Murray, 2015; Nicholes & Reimer, 2020; Shao & Purpur, 2016). Course instructors expected students to learn writing and research skills in the first-year writing courses, or they assumed students had these skills without considering how they learned them (Bensen et al., 2016; Stebbing et al., 2019; Yevelson-Shorsher & Bronstein, 2018). Although there were some challenges to successful college writing, including students who reported more confidence than their scores warranted regarding finding and incorporating sources (Keba & Fairall, 2020; Molteni & Chan, 2015), researchers suggested a potential area of development for better collaboration between writing instructors and librarians was a complementary set of frameworks that would enable faculty members in each of the disciplines to understand each other and enhance their teaching (Hensley, 2015; Margolin & Hayden, 2015).

A review of the literature demonstrates collaborations have been happening, and some writing instructors and librarians were using one or more of their disciplinary frameworks to inform their teaching (Friedman & Miller, 2018; McClure, 2016; Veach, 2018). Although a major study addressed the extent to which librarians and writing centers have collaborated (Jackson, 2017), few comparable qualitative studies outside the case study genre (Díaz & Mandernach, 2017; Matacio & Closser, 2017; Simons, 2017) addressed writing instructors and librarians using shared frameworks. Understanding the nature of collaborations may help build the case for a model for effective collaboration and continued connection to student success,

retention and persistence, and developing 21st century and workplace skills that employers expect.

Theoretical Frameworks

Two related theoretical frameworks informed the literature review and the study. Lave and Wenger's (Lave & Wenger, 1991) concept of a community of practice was developed to explain learning that occurs among coworkers. Because the study sought to investigate interdisciplinary collaboration and complementary disciplinary frameworks, the theoretical framework of discourse community entailed specific attention to disciplinary discourse.

Community of Practice

The work of Lave and Wenger (1991) centered on the ways apprentices learn – called *situated learning* – in communities of practice. A community of practice was defined as a group of people who "engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor" (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, para. 4). Lave and Wenger (1991) contended that it was not the master-apprentice relationship in which the apprentice learned most; instead, it was the relationships with other apprentices where most learning occurred. In groups like Alcoholics Anonymous, newcomers became legitimate peripheral participants, and Lave and Wenger (1991) also argued against the concept newcomers first observed before participating. Instead, newcomers learned the culture of the community of practice by participating in it.

As librarians and writing instructors work to foster a collaborative atmosphere, they must learn from each other. Though each participant may be more expert than novice in some aspects of teaching and working with students, librarians and writing instructors can learn from each other in their collective endeavor of teaching information literacy to foster student success. This

endeavor can be framed as a community of practice. Librarians have used the community of

practice model to learn from each other (Marshall & Wagner, 2019; Osborn, 2017) and to

facilitate interdisciplinary learning about information literacy (Becker et al., 2022; Kissel et al.,

2017; Wishkoski et al., 2018, 2019).

    In exploring how librarians and writing instructors could work together to help students

in first-year writing, the community of practice was a central theme. Lave (1991) described the

learning that occurred in a community of practice as situated learning -- that is, learning in a

social context -- and argued that identity development and mastery were happening at the same

time. Further, it was "legitimate peripheral participation" that enabled a person to develop both

mastery and identity (Lave, 1991, p. 63; Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 68). The idea of the

community of practice arose when observing apprenticeships. Although at first an apprenticeship

seemed to be about the relationship between the master and apprentice, anthropologists found

much of the learning of apprentices occurred when they interacted with other apprentices (Lave

& Wenger, 1991; Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015); the community acted as a "living

curriculum" (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015, para. 12).

    Another aspect of the community of practice was that participants find common ground

in their goals and potential impact on their area of interest (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Writing

instructors and librarians shared a goal of promoting student success in writing from sources. In a

community of practice, they could better understand which methods were more effective, in

addition to learning the vocabulary of each discipline (Kissel et al., 2017; Murphy, 2019).

    Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) argued that a community of practice did not

need to be intentional; sometimes it was a result of interactions among participants rather than

the intended activity. Though there were some elements that occurred organically, the following

characteristics must be present in order for a group to be considered a community of practice:

domain, community, and practice (see Figure 1). Domain was the shared interest or goal,

community referred to the relationships the members formed with each other, and practice

suggested members (practitioners) shared resources such as experiences and solutions to

problems that arose in their practice (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015).

Figure 1

"A social discipline of learning: Social learning capability in communities"
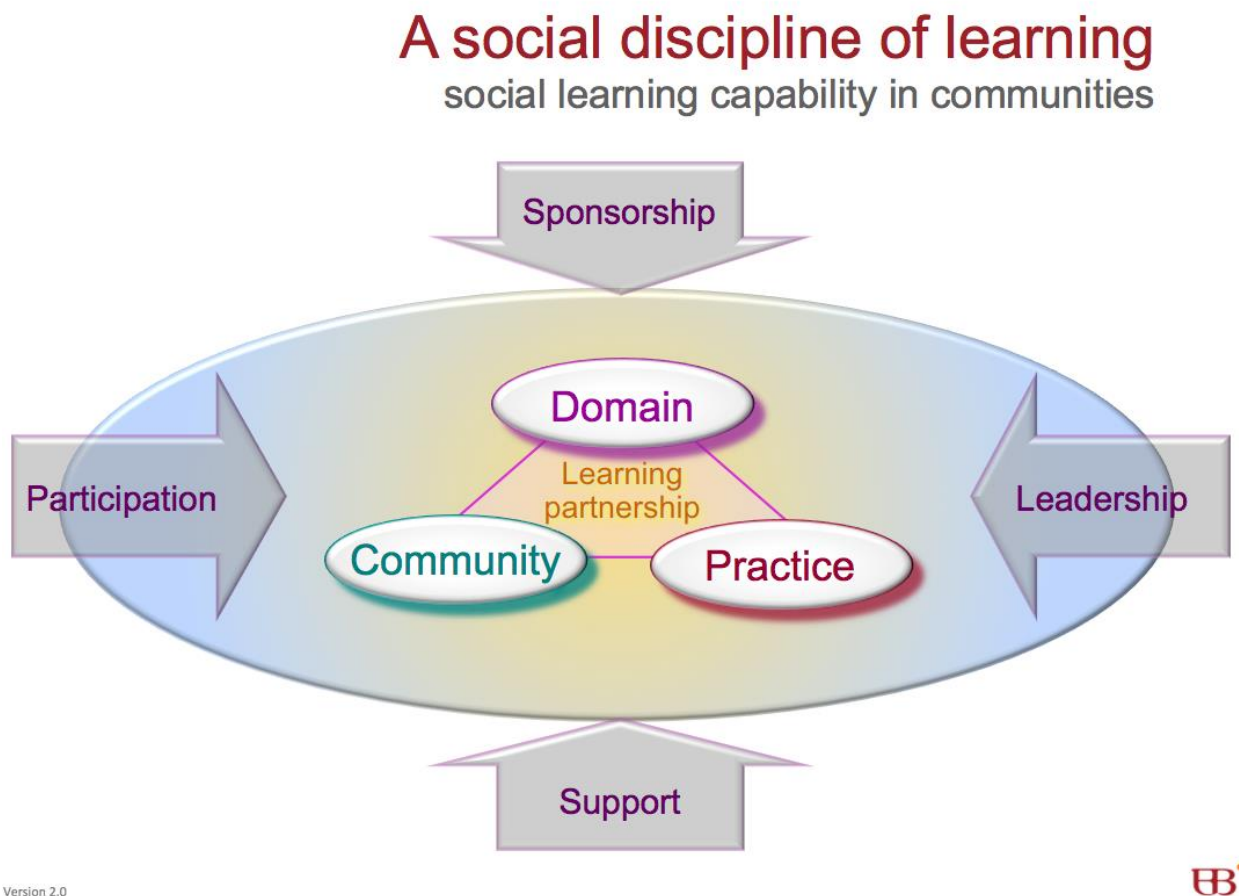
Note: Reprinted with permission (see Appendix A). E. Wenger and B. Wenger-Traynor, n.d.

(https://wenger-trayner.com/project/a-social-discipline-of-learning/)

Discourse Community

Similar to a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), a discourse community is a group of people who share values and important terms to achieve agreed upon goals (Hemstrom & Anders, 2018; Kissel et al., 2017; Swales, 2016); alternately, these kinds of communities may also be called learning communities (Rapchak & Cipri, 2015). The social nature of a discourse community means the group sets expectations of appropriate discourse (Burkholder, 2019; Elmborg, 2003; Locklear, 2016). Similar to a community of practice, a discourse community would not explicitly instruct newcomers in how to learn the discourse; rather, it is learned as an apprenticeship (Flowerdew, 2000; Gee, 1989). Discourse communities developed their own definitions, shorthand, and acronyms, and example of which was hospital codes (Swales, 2017), and in higher education, acronyms of various buildings and committees. Discourse communities influenced others and may be influenced by others, either for good or ill (Swales, 2016); therefore, discourse communities may also need to reexamine their enculturated language to determine if the language they used enabled harm or could be harnessed for promoting productive change (Bridwell-Bowles, 1992, 1995) while still preserving the discourse and language that makes each discipline unique. Librarians in their own discourse communities must do similar work (Rapchak, 2019). *Critical information literacy* encourages practitioners to reflect on unjust power structures inherent in the ways information is created, shared, and valued, and they pass on these critical skills to their students (Torrell, 2020; Whearty et al., 2017).

Unfamiliarity with discourse language between writing instructors and librarians has manifested itself in student confusion (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Kissel et al., 2017). However, understanding the nature of different discourse communities could help students navigate between the different discourse communities in which they participated (Bell, 2018; Burkholder,

2019; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Friedman & Miller, 2018; Veach, 2012a). The American Library Association has adopted a framework that includes rhetorical concepts embedded in its premises; therefore, knowledge of rhetorical language is necessary to fully understand it (American Library Association, 2015; Burkholder, 2019).

Although it may be difficult at first, Burkholder (2019) advised that librarians should use what they know about rhetoric to critique their own field and combat the prevailing notion that there research skills universally apply to all disciplines. Refuting the one size fits all approach fully could mean that course instructors would have to take more responsibility for information literacy in their own disciplinary contexts, and librarians would have an additional responsibility to help course instructors understand the "privileged nature of participation in their disciplines" (Burkholder, 2019, p. 309; Simmons, 2005). Librarians could offer their expertise as "disciplinary discourse mediators" (p. 309).

Common Goals of Information Literacy and Writing Instructors

Librarians and writing instructors shared common goals for their students. Though some authors described common goals in general terms such as student learning or preparation for academic and post-graduation life (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Baer, 2016; Refaei & Wahman, 2016), other researchers' goals fell into categories that related to students' finding, critically evaluating, and using information (Baer, 2016; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Kissel et al., 2017; Napier et al., 2018; Rapchak & Stinnett, 2018; Scheidt et al., 2018; Wallis et al., 2016; Walsh et al., 2018). Although common goals were a good starting point, full collaboration required more of both parties (Junisbai et al., 2016), the least of which would be creating a shared document describing their collaboration (Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016).

Common Vocabulary

Common goals may begin the collaborative conversation, but full collaboration required more than a common aim; at minimum, a shared document was necessary (Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016) and shared training and understanding of each other's curriculum were useful practices (Grettano & Witek, 2016; Napier et al., 2018). However, if the goal was deep collaboration, librarians and writing instructors needed to do more than share goals, documents, and training (Junisbai et al., 2016). They needed to foster a shared understanding of their disciplinary terms, particularly when the terms were so similar that students could not distinguish their meaning (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Refaei et al., 2017); for instance, librarians used the term *attributive tag*, and writing instructors used the term *signal phrase* to describe the way a writer introduced a source in their writing (Refaei et al., 2017). Schaub et al. (2017) found that an information literacy concept could be described in five different ways. Other vocabulary differences involved the ways in which instructors in many different disciplines described the types of sources required for assignments, including what they considered to be a primary source (Pickard & Sterling, 2020; Refaei et al., 2017; Scheidt et al., 2018). When a course instructor used the term academic source, librarians could work with the course instructor to clarify what they mean when the instructors asked students to find academic sources. An academic source could mean anything that was published by a professional journal or university press; however, the course instructor may have had something more specific in mind, such as a peer-reviewed article (Pickard & Sterling, 2020). A common vocabulary would help students transfer knowledge from a first-year writing course to their second-year courses and to make connections between writing and information literacy (Lancaster et al., 2016; Refaei et al., 2017). Librarians and writing instructors could improve collaboration as they shared common vocabulary and

understanding (Grettano & Witek, 2016; Scheidt et al., 2018). Additionally, a shared vocabulary could help writing instructors and librarians advocate for writing and information literacy across the curriculum and communicate with course instructors about shared concepts in writing and information literacy frameworks (Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; Guth et al., 2018; Radcliff & Wong, 2015). Although many researchers suggested a shared vocabulary was appropriate, some researchers instead argued that a shared vocabulary was not necessary if librarians and writing instructors understood and appreciated each other's disciplinary perspectives and could help students understand the commonalities and differences between them (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Veach, 2012a).

Since the ratification of the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework) (American Library Association, 2015), librarians and writing instructors have focused on shared frameworks (Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; Auten & Thomas, 2016; Friedman & Miller, 2018; Grettano & Witek, 2016; Guth et al., 2018; Johnson & McCracken, 2016; LaFrance, 2016; Refaei & Wahman, 2016; Saunders & Corning, 2020), in part because the ACRL Framework shared similarities with the Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (WPA Framework) (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014), the Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition (WPA Outcomes) (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014), and with *Naming What We Know: Threshold Concepts of Writing Studies* (Adler-Kassner & Wardle, 2015). These frameworks and guiding texts were not exactly the same, but they had complementary elements (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; Brewer et al., 2018; B. D'Angelo et al., 2017; Friedman & Miller, 2018). The overlapping concepts in the frameworks

could be especially useful for new writing instructors (Murphy, 2019; Norgaard, 2003; Norgaard et al., 2004). Two researchers observed the complementary language reduced the amount of *code switching* (i.e., navigating between librarian and writing instructor vocabularies) that instructors in each discipline had to engage in, which reduced friction in the collaboration process (Anders & Hemstrom, 2016, p. 80).

Writing and Information Literacy Frameworks and Defining Documents

Each of the frameworks for information literacy and writing took similar approaches to research and writing. They were meant to be applied to a wide range of research and writing contexts and focused on promoting transfer and metacognition. Each framework recognized collaboration with other disciplines as a necessary element in helping students develop skills and dispositions in both writing and information literacy (Baer, 2016; Grettano & Witek, 2016).

Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework)

The Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework) (American Library Association, 2015) was formally adopted in 2016 and slated to replace the ACRL Information Literacy Standards (Refaei & Wahman, 2016). The ACRL Framework approached information literacy through six threshold concepts, or frames:

- Authority is constructed and contextual
- Information creation as a process
- Information has value

- Research as inquiry

- Scholarship as conversation

- Searching as strategic exploration (American Library Association, 2015)

It was intended to be adapted and used as each institution deemed appropriate and was intended to work with a variety of disciplines; disciplinary faculty were also expected to work with librarians in developing discipline-specific information literacy instruction (Fisher & Calkins, 2016; Kuglitsch, 2015; Refaei & Wahman, 2016; Whearty et al., 2017). The major philosophical change from the ACRL Framework's predecessor was the change from a positivist (i.e., knowledge is absolutely objective and unchanging) (McNicol, 2016) to a constructivist perspective: information and its interpretations did not happen by themselves; they were social constructs and dependent on the context (Foasberg, 2015; Hosier, 2019). Therefore, information literacy must consider the social constructions of information – particularly in specific disciplines – and the context of the information need (Foasberg, 2015; Johnson & McCracken, 2016). The ACRL Framework could be a powerful tool in enhancing relationships among writing instructors and librarians (Friedman & Miller, 2018; Grettano & Witek, 2016; Johnson & McCracken, 2016; Lancaster et al., 2016), although there was some debate about the intended audience of the ACRL Framework (Kastner & Richardson, 2016; Kuglitsch, 2015; Lancaster et al., 2016). Ultimately, the ACRL Framework, similar to its writing counterparts, focused on inducting students into an academic and disciplinary community and fostering lifelong learning (Johnson & McCracken, 2016).

Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition (WPA Outcomes)

The WPA Outcomes Statement for First-year Composition (WPA Outcomes) was focused on three major learning outcomes that students were expected to develop during their first year: rhetorical knowledge; critical thinking, and reading and composing. In interviews with WPA Outcomes committee members about their decision-making processes, participants talked about their desire to ensure that the outcomes allowed enough flexibility to enable writing instructors to incorporate new technologies and expansive definitions of writing and composing (Sills, 2018). Although the committee valued flexibility, they also knew that flexibility would mean criticism regarding overly vague statements or outcomes that may have been difficult to measure (Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; Sills, 2018). The ACRL Framework also faced similar criticisms (Foasberg, 2015; Latham et al., 2019). Another common element between the WPA Outcomes and the ACRL Framework was the intent that the guidelines could be adaptable to local contexts (American Library Association, 2015; Sills, 2018). Other scholars have observed the common student learning objectives present in the ACRL Framework and the WPA Outcomes (B. D'Angelo et al., 2017; Friedman & Miller, 2018).

Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (WPA Framework)

The *WPA Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (*WPA Framework*)* was designed to complement the WPA Outcomes and was arranged by eight habits of mind (an intellectual focus) and five experiences (a practical focus) (Baer, 2016; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011, p. 5; Maid & D'Angelo, 2016; Refaei & Wahman, 2016). Designed by both high school and postsecondary instructors, the WPA Framework could serve

as a blueprint for students transitioning from high school to college (Baer, 2016; Bucy et al., 2016; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011), and instructors could also begin conversations about developing skills and dispositions that will serve them in academics and in their future workplaces (DeJoy et al., 2016). In contrast to the WPA Outcomes, the WPA Framework discouraged a checklist approach and an emphasis on finding answers. Instead, the WPA Framework habits of mind and experiences emphasized exploration and did not work well as a checklist (Maid & D'Angelo, 2016). The WPA Framework shared common features and language with the ACRL Framework. These common features helped facilitate conversations about collaboration, curriculum design, and disciplinary overlap (Anders & Hemstrom, 2016; Refaei & Wahman, 2016). Writing instructors and librarians hoped the common goals and language of the WPA Framework and the ACRL Framework would assist practitioners in the two disciplines to achieve the long-awaited goal of full collaboration (Duffy et al., 2016; Elmborg, 2003; Maid & D'Angelo, 2016; Norgaard, 2003; Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016; Refaei & Wahman, 2016).

Naming What We Know: Threshold Concepts of Writing Studies

Although *Naming What We Know: Threshold Concepts of Writing Studies* (Adler-Kassner & Wardle, 2015) is not an official publication of a disciplinary governing body, it closely aligns with the ACRL and WPA documents and researchers reference it frequently (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Baer, 2016; DeSanto & Harrington, 2017; Friedman & Miller, 2018; Holliday, 2017; Hosier, 2019; Johnson & McCracken, 2016; Stinnett & Rapchak, 2018). Adler-Kassner and Wardle's (2015) intent was to inspire conversations with people in other disciplines about writing (Hosier, 2019). The anthology of essays approached threshold concepts in writing. Some of these threshold concepts complemented and overlapped with each of the six ACRL

frames (Johnson & McCracken, 2016). Researchers suggested librarians and writing instructors could focus on common elements in designing collaborative projects while recognizing unique contributions from each discipline (Friedman & Miller, 2018; Stinnett & Rapchak, 2018).

Collaboration: Challenges and Benefits

Some may wonder why collaboration between writing instructors and librarians is so difficult. Part of the difficulty arose from their historical position in the academy in addition to the general disposition of higher education to trend toward silos (Baer, 2016; Klein, 2017). LaFrance (2016) found a barrier to collaborative success as a result of the parties' focus on correctness rather than learning or exploration, though neither discipline's governing frameworks endorsed such an approach. Other researchers found that course instructors' (sometimes outdated) assumptions about the role of the librarian in the classroom could become a barrier (Baer, 2016; Douglas & Rabinowitz, 2016; Tewell, 2018; Whearty et al., 2017; Wheeler & McKinney, 2015); still others suggest that in addition to librarians beginning conversations with faculty about what expertise they bring, they needed to have a similar teaching focus as the instructor (Douglas & Rabinowitz, 2016; Meulemans & Carr, 2013; Oberlies et al., 2021). Perez-Stable et al. (2020) found that some collaborations deepen over time, and one participant described the development as moving from a "service role to a partnership" (p. 62). Meulemans and Carr (2013) suggested librarians should develop a teaching philosophy statement to help course instructors understand the role of the librarians as teachers. Researchers also identified other potential barriers to collaboration: different work environments and interactions with students, differences in what each discipline believed was the most important part of writing with sources, and course instructors' underestimation of the complexity of the research process (Baer, 2016; Baird & Soares, 2020; Murphy, 2019; Schaub et al., 2017). In focus groups, participants

noted a barrier to collaboration was resources, including time and money. Course instructors perceived there was a lack of time to collaborate and were concerned about collaborations that required class time; others speculated that some course instructors may feel territorial about their subject content. Despite some participants' perceived lack of resources as a barrier, other participants noted that collaboration could help alleviate some resource-related pressures (Saunders & Corning, 2020).

One key barrier that could not be overlooked was the different statuses of librarians and course instructors, which may have resulted in a power imbalance with their collaborations (Alwan et al., 2018). The imbalance of power was exacerbated by the fact that librarians were rarely an instructor of record in courses (Meulemans & Matlin, 2019), and faculty perceived librarians to be in a subordinate role (Alwan et al., 2018). The perception of subordination had potential to manifest itself in *microaggressions*, "verbal or nonverbal, status-based slights, snubs, or insults, either intentional or unintentional" (Alwan et al., 2018, p. 29). Examples of microaggressions toward librarians were requesting instruction at the very last moment or expecting the librarian to be a kind of substitute teacher while the instructor is out. Yet, librarians may not feel they could say no (Meulemans & Carr, 2013). McCartin and Wright-Mair (2022) described this phenomenon as *deference behavior*, in which a person will accede to the wishes of another regardless of whether those wishes conflict with the person's principles, beliefs, or inclinations. Deference behavior could mean a librarian believed the course instructor's request for a specific type of instruction would be ineffective, yet the librarian would not feel empowered to say no or suggest another type of instruction. Other researchers discussed

deference behavior that was related to the service or helping orientation of the library profession (Fagan et al., 2021; Garcia & Barbour, 2018; Kirker, 2022; Meulemans & Carr, 2013; Perez-Stable et al., 2020). As a result of the service orientation, librarians were reluctant to say no or to redirect requests for instruction, even if proceeding would be counterproductive to student learning and engagement. Meulemans and Matlin (2019) encouraged librarians to change course instructors' perceptions of librarians by building relationships. Some of this relationship-building has occurred while librarians served with course instructors on faculty governance committees. Working on faculty governance has traditionally been a privilege reserved for librarians with faculty status (McCartin & Wright-Mair, 2022). However, some institutions included librarians in governance conversations even if they did not have faculty status (Weng & Murray, 2020); others argued that faculty status matters less than visibility and voice in campus decision-making, which often included, but was not limited to, faculty governance (Applegate, 2019).

Researchers have also identified some hallmarks of effective collaborations, such as shared goals and mutual appreciation of and interest in each discipline's expertise (Baer, 2016; Díaz & Mandernach, 2017; Perez-Stable et al., 2020; Saunders & Corning, 2020). Racelis et al. (2021) argued that many information literacy sessions "deliver decontextualized skills to students," and the way to improve integration was for the writing instructor and librarian to share knowledge and co-plan a session that is more integrated into the course (p. 243). Others discussed collaboration as a spectrum, ranging from merely sharing ideas to researching and writing together (Belzowski & Robison, 2019; Douglas & Rabinowitz, 2016; Refaei & Wahman, 2016; Saunders & Corning, 2020; Scheidt et al., 2018). In one such example of the collaboration spectrum, researchers provided to course instructors a menu of options that ranged from minimal to more advanced levels of collaboration. Librarian participants reported increased levels of

collaboration, even with some previously reluctant course instructors (Belzowski & Robison, 2019; Junisbai et al., 2016).

Collaborations provided benefits to the collaborators in a number of different areas. Librarians reported their teaching experience was more rewarding and student-centered as a result of collaboration, and instructors in each discipline learned to appreciate the other's contribution (Lancaster et al., 2016; Walsh et al., 2018; Whearty et al., 2017). In some cases, collaborative success resulted in more collaboration (Allen, 2015; J. Anderson et al., 2018). These collaborative relationships also led to advocacy to other faculty and administrators on campus. Artman and Frisicaro-Pawlowski (2018) suggested librarians and writing program administrators could leverage their collaboration and common language to persuade other course instructors that both writing and research required more attention than one class session or one introductory course. Baer (2016) advocated for another approach: writing instructors and librarians could suggest a shared research and writing class session that could appeal to course instructors who did not feel they could cede class time for both librarians and writing instructors. Other researchers suggested that writing instructors could help other course instructors understand the value of information literacy instruction, and librarians could bring an interdisciplinary perspective to the advocacy conversation (Baer, 2016; Kuglitsch, 2015; Veach, 2012a). Writing instructors and librarians could also help course instructors in each discipline create a set of research and writing expectations for students (Fisher & Calkins, 2016).

Margolin and Hayden (2015) claimed the most important benefit of collaborations between writing instructors and librarians was student improvement. If they identified students' perceived barriers to research writing, librarians and writing instructors could tailor their instruction to address these barriers. Librarians could also find other ways to help students in

addition to teaching them about the research process. For instance, they could work with writing

instructors to teach students how to read academic sources (Insua et al., 2018a, 2018b).

Researchers found that students improved their grades, used better sources, and were better able

to engage with those sources as a result of collaborations between librarians and writing

instructors (Allen, 2015; Lantz et al., 2016; Napier et al., 2018). Beyond the classroom, the skills

and dispositions students learned in research writing classes could be transferred to the

workplace (Cyphert & Lyle, 2016; Fourie & Julien, 2019; Widén et al., 2021).

Comparing Writing and Research Processes

Librarians and writing instructors may be a good fit for collaboration to teach students

information literacy because they have similar processes and similar theories and terminology (J.

Anderson et al., 2018; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016). Some researchers discussed the ways writing

and information literacy documents complemented each other (Johnson & McCracken, 2016;

Refaei & Wahman, 2016). J. Anderson et al. (2018) suggested one way to facilitate a

collaborative process was to ask what writers do and what researchers do, then find elements of

the frameworks that matched those concepts. Writing studies and library instruction have faced a

similar issue: they each must navigate other campus constituents' assumptions that writing and

information literacy were simple and skills-based, underestimating the complexity of the writing

and research process (Dawes, 2017; Margolin & Hayden, 2015; Veach, 2012a). Both writing and

information literacy instruction focused on similar areas: acknowledging the complexity of both

research and writing; investigating how authority is developed and used in writing and the

disciplines; and an approach to research that fostered curiosity and exploration (Friedman &

Miller, 2016; Lindenman et al., 2018). That is not to say that the two approaches are completely

alike. For instance, Veach (2012a) suggested composition might be considered art, but the

research process might be considered science. Although both areas emphasized organization, writing instructors focused on organizing information for a specific audience or rhetorical purpose, while librarians were more interested in organizing information to identify gaps in research (Refaei & Wahman, 2016; Walsh et al., 2018).

The ACRL Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (American Library Association, 2015) demonstrated that the field of information literacy was employing strategies remarkably similar to the WPA Framework and Outcomes (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011), and there were common themes in *Naming What We Know* (Adler-Kassner & Wardle, 2015). Each of these documents acknowledged a rhetorical approach to research and writing.

Information Retrieval

Researchers agreed that students were usually able to retrieve the right kinds of sources satisfactorily (Carlozzi, 2018b; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Jamieson, 2016), with Carlozzi (2018b) reporting 81% of students who participated in the study were able to successfully find academic articles. In a study conducted by Carter and Aldridge (2016), writing instructors reported that on the whole, students could find the correct kind of source required by the assignment prompt. Another researcher noted that if information literacy instruction was primarily about finding sources, these efforts would be deemed successful; however, information retrieval was only one aspect of information literacy, according to the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework) (American Library Association, 2015; Jamieson, 2016). Despite researchers' generally positive consensus about students' ability to retrieve information, Lantz et al. (2016) found conflicting results: student bibliographies showed statistically significant decreases in the

quality of their sources between annotated bibliographies early in the research process and the final bibliography of their research papers ($p < .001$).

Information Evaluation

The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) asked students to report on how many writing classes required them to use evidence to provide credence to a claim, or evaluate the claims others may make. Ninety percent of first-year and senior students reported writing activities that included evaluating sources. Eighty percent of first-year students and 74% of senior students reported making an evidence-based claim (P. Anderson et al., 2015).

Course instructors and librarians expressed concern about the ability of students to evaluate the reliability of information or determine whether the source was appropriate for their research (Bury, 2016; Guth et al., 2018; Julien et al., 2018; Leporati et al., 2019; Library Journal, 2017; Refaei & Wahman, 2016). Some believed students struggled because they viewed information as either true or not true and students did not yet understand the varying perspectives of scholars (Bury, 2016). Others believed that students lacked experience dealing with disagreements about a particular perspective within the same discipline; students seemed to be more comfortable with factual work and scholars who expressed similar views (Bury, 2016). In their evaluations, students tended to use generalities to describe the source's credibility and purpose. For instance, students seemed to think that the presence and quantity of evidence (which researchers interpreted to mean that the source students were evaluating had cited other sources) was enough of a criterion, or they noted one specific facet of evaluation rather than a combination of factors (Angell & Tewell, 2017; Rosenzweig et al., 2019; Wojahn et al., 2016). Carter and Aldridge (2016) found what students missed in their evaluation was discussion of the quality of the evidence. Instead, students were more likely to use the language of rhetoric

(pathos, logic, ethos) than the language of information literacy (credibility, authority, etc.), in part because they spent more time learning the rhetorical language than they did information literacy language (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016). Carter and Aldridge (2016) noted students were still novices and this was their first attempt to use the language of more than one discipline; therefore, they needed additional practice in disciplinary discourse before becoming proficient. Wojahn et al. (2016) demonstrated students' evaluations of credibility improved over the course of the semester, moving from vague to more specific. In other studies, students relied on the location they found the source, such as a library database, as the sole indicator of credibility (Angell & Tewell, 2017; Baer, 2016). Students believed, either implicitly or explicitly, that the library reviewed all sources in the databases it licensed (Angell & Tewell, 2017; Baer, 2016). The authors suggested this belief may be challenged using instruction sessions that focus on critically examining sources students found in library databases (Angell & Kose, 2015; Angell & Tewell, 2017). This remediation could result in improvement in one semester (Wojahn et al., 2016).

Information Synthesis

Course instructors placed high value on students' abilities to synthesize information in writing; being able to synthesize was considered the mark of a student who understood and could critically engage the material (Bury, 2016). However, students and course instructors both admitted source synthesis was a difficult task (Carlozzi, 2018b; Insua et al., 2018a; Refaei et al., 2017; Scheidt et al., 2018; Teagarden & Carlozzi, 2017). Students could often described the process of synthesizing sources into their writing, but when they were asked to do this in their research papers, they had trouble putting these principles into practice (Refaei et al., 2017). Students reported having difficulty knowing what to do with their sources once they had

retrieved them (Insua et al., 2018a; Wojahn et al., 2016). They were able to connect source material to real-world situations, but they could not describe the relationship of sources to each other (MacMillan & Rosenblatt, 2015). Although some students scored better on synthesizing class material than other sources such as academic articles, the difference was not large enough to suggest that students could synthesize one type of source but not another; instead, Carlozzi (2018b) theorized students were able to synthesize course materials better because instructors discussed them in greater detail in classes.

Although studies did not investigate why source synthesis was so difficult for students, another research team suggested that synthesis is made more difficult by reading comprehension issues, a difficulty course instructors and students corroborated (Baird & Soares, 2020; Gregory & McCall, 2016; Insua et al., 2018a, 2018b). There were calls for writing instructors and librarians to address teaching students how to read and write about sources (specifically, academic sources) in the first-year writing classroom (Kazan et al., 2021; Lantz et al., 2016; MacMillan & Rosenblatt, 2015; Margolin & Hayden, 2015; Teagarden & Carlozzi, 2017; Wojahn et al., 2016). Jamieson (2016) claimed students were successful at finding sources on their own. If finding sources was not the difficulty, others suggested class time should be devoted instead to facilitating students' reading for comprehension as well as addressing specific information needs (Chisholm & Spencer, 2019; Margolin & Hayden, 2015; Scheidt et al., 2018).

Scholarly Conversation

One metaphor that resonated for course instructors in many disciplines was the concept of sources as the means for scholarly conversation (Baird & Soares, 2020; K. Carter, 2018). This concept is represented in the *ACRL Framework* and in *Naming What We Know* (Adler-Kassner & Wardle, 2015; American Library Association, 2015). Course instructors expressed surprise

that students had trouble entering the scholarly conversation (Kleinfeld & Wright, 2019).

Looking at common research writing tasks could help explain students' difficulties. One

common method to help students analyze their sources better has been the use of annotated

bibliographies; however, students usually wrote annotations in isolation from each other and they

did not pick up the threads of conversation occurring among sources and scholars (Hosier, 2019).

Similarly, citing sources has often been framed as a way to proof-text an argument or as the

primary tool to avoid plagiarism (Locklear, 2016). Students would need to understand that each

source did not stand alone but interacted with other scholarship over a period of time (Johnson &

McCracken, 2016). They must first understand the conversation before they begin to enter it

(Johnson & McCracken, 2016; Locklear, 2016; Refaei et al., 2017; Wojahn et al., 2016).

Moreover, they must explore the conversations occurring in each separate discipline in which

they are a part. Indeed, scholarship as conversation has been considered the defining

foundational concept of writing and research (Johnson & McCracken, 2016).

One method researchers used to help students understand the concept of the scholarly

conversation is a term commonly known as the *Burkean Parlor* (Grettano & Witek, 2016; Refaei

& Wahman, 2016; Walsh et al., 2018). Burke's (1957) proposed metaphor for the scholarly

conversation asked the reader to imagine entering a parlor in which a conversation was already

going on. After listening to arguments on all sides and getting the general idea of what was being

argued, the reader then entered the conversation, which continues long after the reader has left

(Burke, 1957). The concept of the Burkean Parlor has informed writing studies for decades, and

Walsh et al. (2018) proposed that the metaphor served as an ideal boundary between writing and

information literacy as well as between academic and non-academic sources. Using this

metaphor, students were able to envision themselves as part of the scholarly community (Walsh

et al., 2018). Locklear (2016) noted the Burkean Parlor helped students think about source use as a method for entering the conversation rather than a one-sided attempt to prove their case. Others have attempted to update the Burkean Parlor metaphor for current audiences, because Gupta and Dasgupta (2021) discovered students did not have a frame of reference for the "reception room of 18th-19th century Euro-American bourgeois households that hosted stimulating conversations" (p. 140) that Graff and Birkenstein (2014) alluded to in their composition text. Instead, the students in Gupta and Dasgupta's (2021) class automatically thought of the beauty parlor, which opened up a conversation about a beauty parlor's similar role as a diverse gathering place in which many conversations occur. Radke (2018) uses the concept of a Starbucks. Sassi and Stevens (2019) preferred the term pop-up shop, suggesting that conversations often occur in a limited time window and serve a specific purpose.

Transfer

One of the common goals of course instructors, writing instructors, and librarians has been teaching students skills and dispositions that could be carried into another class and be used after they graduate (Refaei & Wahman, 2016; Stebbing et al., 2019). Structuring the writing and information literacy curriculum around students' desired community of practice or discourse community was one proposed way to promote transfer (Baer, 2016; Kuglitsch, 2015); moreover, transfer was most successful when students could apply concepts from one discipline to another (Kuglitsch, 2015; Refaei et al., 2017), not merely from courses in the same discipline. However, transfer did not automatically occur without some intervention from instructors as they made explicit connections between what students were learning and how they might apply their skills in different contexts (Ambrose et al., 2010; Kuglitsch, 2015).

Part of teaching for transfer involved scaffolding, providing additional support in the early stages of learning a topic until students gained more proficiency (Ambrose et al., 2010). Scaffolding enabled students to see a that what they learned previously could be built upon their present learning (Gregory & McCall, 2016). Gregory and McCall (2016) and Lancaster et al. (2016) documented collaboration between a writing instructor and a librarian to develop scaffolded assignments. They found these efforts resulted in more specific instruction at the students' point of need. Bowles-Terry and Clinnin (2020) shared the results of a professional development workshop teaching writing instructors more about information literacy. This resulted in writing instructors learning to scaffold information literacy into first-year college writing courses. The workshop was co-taught by a librarian and a writing instructor and employed a "train the trainer" model in which instructors learned about information literacy dispositions rather than more skills-based or mechanical skills. Bowles-Terry and Clinnin (2020) observed that one unexpected benefit of the program was not only enhanced collaboration between librarians and writing instructors, but improved collaboration among the writing instructors who participated in the study. Lechtenberg and Donovan (2022), focusing both on instructional effectiveness and sustainability, advocated for librarians shifting the kind of instruction they provided to students (usually one-shot sessions) and changing up the professional development they offered to course instructors. Rather than librarians protecting ownership of information literacy, they recommended that librarians instead offer professional development that focused on helping faculty build information literacy into their courses. Wishkoski et al. (Wishkoski et al., 2018, 2019) endeavored to mitigate instructors' *expert blind spots* to help them understand the ways in which they have implicit expectations and knowledge students did not know but would need to successfully complete an assignment. They created a

professional development workshop in which groups of course instructors and librarians looked at each other's assignments. Librarians and faculty from different disciplines offered their novice perspectives and asked clarifying questions that helped the assignment designers understand the places in which they would need to scaffold an assignment, write clear instructions, or modify part of the assignment (Wishkoski et al., 2019). Course instructors expressed appreciation for librarians' contributions and expertise as they contributed feedback about resources and student experiences (Wishkoski et al., 2018). Becker et al. (2022) developed similar workshops, and participating faculty noted the holistic perspective librarians brought to the conversation, thinking not only about the assignment but how it fit in to the overall course. Margolin and Hayden (2015) indicated librarians can consult and advise course instructors on scaffolded assignment design. Instructors in writing courses could help students better understand the connections between research, writing, and source synthesis when the instruction is scaffolded (Lundstrom et al., 2015; Secovnie & Glisson, 2019; Wojahn et al., 2016).

On a larger scale, Carter (2018) and Zanin-Yost (2018) proposed scaffolding information literacy and writing concepts and activities throughout the postsecondary curriculum, enabling an increase in the level of complexity as the student progressed from first-year to senior year. A holistic approach to research and writing across the curriculum required buy-in from other faculty and administrators; librarians and writing instructors must play the role of campaigners in favor of a scaffolded curriculum (K. Carter, 2018; Douglas & Rabinowitz, 2016; Jamieson, 2016; Julien et al., 2018; Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016; Refaei et al., 2017; Teagarden & Carlozzi, 2017; Wojahn et al., 2016).

Rhetorical Approaches

In a reflection piece, Burkholder (2019) traced the history of the concept of writing information literacy proposed by Norgaard (2003) and Norgaard et al. (2004) and examined the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework) (American Library Association, 2015) in the context of its rhetorical approaches. Burkholder (2019) also referenced a more recent work by Norgaard and Sinkinson (2016) in which the authors suggested one potential barrier to writing instructors and librarians fully embracing collaboration is the competitive nature of higher education. They claimed teamwork is sometimes devalued because one department could not take full credit. Similarly, other faculty members' perceived that doing research was a solitary pursuit (Baer, 2016). Other scholars suggested information literacy should be an academic discipline in its own right, which would pave the way for more effective collaborations across an institution, in part because connection to a discipline evokes credibility (Kuglitsch, 2015; Margolin & Hayden, 2015; Veach, 2012b; Webber & Johnston, 2017). Burkholder (2019) also observed that understanding rhetoric would help librarians understand the ACRL Framework better since the ACRL Framework wove rhetorical perspectives throughout (American Library Association, 2015). Others suggested information evaluation from a rhetorical lens paved the way for eliminating the "artificial divide between research and writing" (Anders & Hemstrom, 2016, p. 72).

First-year college students benefited from understanding the ways rhetorical context defined the parameters of research (Burkholder, 2019; Veach, 2012a). Without this understanding, students did not have the tools to participate in the scholarly conversation and would inadvertently violate the rules of a particular discourse community, or followed the rules

without understanding why the rules existed. Burkholder (2019) outlined some of the marks of a discourse community, saying that discourse occurred in a social context and the community set expectations for participants. Additionally, Kleinfeld and Wright (2019) claimed a rhetorical perspective would help students understand the purpose of citing sources. Locklear (2016) suggested a rhetorical approach to information literacy shifted from a product-based approach (the product being the traditional academic research paper) to a process-based approach. Although Kuglitsch (2015) emphasized that rhetorical approaches do not work with all disciplines, the rhetorical perspective would help mitigate student confusion about the types of sources they were trying to find by focusing on the purpose of the source (Bizup, 2008; Locklear, 2016).

This also may cause some discomfort among librarians, as fully embracing a rhetorical and contextual perspective will involve encouraging course instructors to educate students about their own disciplinary discourse communities; librarians will have to share ownership of information literacy (Burkholder, 2019). However, librarians could facilitate conversations about disciplinary interpretive conventions. At the same time, librarians could emphasize the benefits of scaffolding to help students practice and ultimately work interpedently to contribute to the discourse (Burkholder, 2019).

A popular rhetorical approach with the acronym of BEAM (background, exhibit, argument, and method) was developed by Bizup (2008) and could be an ideal tool to help writing instructors and librarians collaborate (Locklear & McNeilly, 2018; Rubick, 2015), since it highlights some of the same concepts in the ACRL Framework and some librarians already used BEAM alongside source evaluation tools (Brewer et al., 2018). Bizup (2008) claimed one of the things students found confusing was the shifting definitions of types of sources; each discipline,

for instance, meant something different when using the term primary source. Instead, students should look at sources in the context of the following four functions: background, exhibit, argument, and method (Bizup, 2008). Using BEAM, course instructors would not need to require a specific number of sources, but they would require that students find sources for each of the BEAM categories. Additionally, Bizup (2008) suggested students can use the BEAM concept to determine how the sources they are exploring cite other sources that fall into these four categories, thus enhancing reading comprehension and helping students focus on ideas rather than hunting for quotes (Bizup, 2008; Margolin & Hayden, 2015; Rubick, 2015).

High School to College

First year students face a number of challenges related to transitioning from high school to higher education. On the one hand, students expressed trepidation at not feeling prepared to do college level writing (Insua et al., 2018a) and librarians estimated approximately 30% are ready for college level research (Library Journal, 2017). High-achieving students who have high ACT scores and grade point averages (GPA) only have a slight advantage over other students regarding information literacy skills (Lanning & Mallek, 2017). On the other hand, some students overestimated their information literacy proficiency (Baird & Soares, 2020; Douglas & Rabinowitz, 2016; Georgas, 2015; Refaei et al., 2015). Overestimation of research skills may be attributed to the idea that a student who has been steeped in technology since birth is also good at finding and evaluating sources (Julien et al., 2018; Šorgo et al., 2017). Baer (2016) explained students become overconfident because they usually found some sources for their topic, even if the sources were not the best quality. In fact, they were more likely to give up on a search altogether if they were not able to retrieve sources on the first try (Baer, 2016).

Despite both high school and higher education librarians' assessment that many students arrive at college underprepared in information literacy skills and dispositions (Angell & Kose, 2015; Saunders et al., 2017), course instructors may assume students already have learned those skills or they may not consider how or when students would learn the skills (Simons, 2017; Stebbing et al., 2019). Moreover, high school librarians and college librarians prioritized different skills when they taught information literacy (Saunders et al., 2017), so there may be some additional instruction necessary as students transition from high school to college. That is not to say that students come unprepared in all areas.

Writing skills students learned in high school served them well in some respects. Students may draw more on high school experiences in writing instruction than on the new strategies they learn in first-year college writing (Blythe & Gonzales, 2016). For the most part, students did not write to discover or learn; they wrote to complete an assignment to the instructor's satisfaction. Although they selected sources based on rhetorical need, they were most concerned with making sure they presented a perspective on the topic that they believed the instructor required, even if they disagreed with that perspective (Blythe & Gonzales, 2016).

In other ways the lessons students learned in high school must be recalibrated to fit with the expectations of higher education course instructors. Many students mentioned *Wikipedia* as a common source that their high school teachers discouraged them to use, and some seemed to remember being taught to focus on primary sources, indicating there may be some confusion about the purpose of primary sources and the various ways primary sources are used within the disciplines (Insua et al., 2018a; Locklear, 2016). Students also looked for a perfect source that would fulfill all their research needs. The myth of finding a single perfect source is one of the many misconceptions students held about research (Hinchliffe et al., 2018; Insua et al., 2018a).

One way to help students make the transition from high school to college is to use what they have already learned and build upon their prior knowledge while providing them guidance to mitigate their misconceptions (Blythe & Gonzales, 2016; Insua et al., 2018a; Saunders et al., 2017).

Employer Expectations and 21st-Century Skills

In multiple surveys, employers have said they required employees that have skills in the following related areas: critical thinking/analytical reasoning; written and oral communication; and location, organization, and evaluation of information. New graduates sometimes fell short of these expectations (Hart Research Associates, 2013, 2014, 2018). Although Hart Research Associates identified the areas they would like to see graduates develop, such as critical thinking, research has been minimal in the areas of *determinants* of critical thinking (Goodsett, 2020; van Laar et al., 2020). Employers expected their employees to be able to determine the meaning of information (rhetorical), not merely to know where and how to retrieve the information (functional), which required the employee to determine an information need (Cyphert & Lyle, 2016). Information literacy and critical thinking go together, that is, information literacy cannot work without critical thinking, but they are not the same (Goodsett, 2020; Gregory & McCall, 2016).

Critical thinking involves intentionally using reason to make decisions (Goodsett, 2020; Wang, 2017). Effective teaching of critical thinking skills involves three discrete aspects: fostering a disposition to ask questions and seek evidence, developing metacognition skills, and promoting transfer to other settings (Goodsett, 2020). However, Willingham (2007) cautioned that critical thinking was more complicated to learn and apply. For instance, it was important for students to understand some components of metacognitive skills in order to apply critical

thinking, but metacognition alone would only take them so far. In addition to having enough time to learn and practice these metacognitive skills, students also needed to know their subject so they could apply their prior knowledge to the critical thinking situation. Instructors must focus on both knowledge and metacognitive skills at the same time. Willingham (2007) and Ambrose et al. (2010) emphasized the need for instructors to be clear about which skills they were teaching their students, demonstrating multiple ways to apply the transfer the knowledge and apply it to other contexts, and reinforcing the skill until students could apply the critical thinking strategy without prompting. Similar to Willingham's (2007) claim that critical thinking was a complex set of skills but was not in itself a skill, the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework) (American Library Association, 2015) described information literacy as a set of competencies and dispositions rather than a skillset.

The concept of transfer suggested that students were able to successfully use what they have learned in one setting to apply it or adapt it when they were in a different setting (Yancey et al., 2019). Without intentional teaching and practice, this skill was as difficult to master in critical thinking contexts as it was in information literacy contexts (Fourie & Julien, 2019; Goodsett & Schmillen, 2022; Willingham, 2007). Information literacy instruction addressed the disposition of inquisitiveness, focused on metacognition, and sought to promote transfer across disciplines and in real-world situations (American Library Association, 2015; K. Carter, 2018; Luetkenhaus et al., 2015; McCoy, 2022). When they graduated, students also needed to understand and be able to translate the language of academia to the language of the workplace (Cyphert & Lyle, 2016).

Finally, the information landscape of today's workplaces required a different skillset than in previous generations, sometimes referred to as 21st-century skills or 21st-century competencies. Although these competencies were not unique, there may be an expectation of employers that every prospective employee should possess them (National Research Council, 2012). The 21st-Century competencies included cognitive (i.e., memory, problem-solving, and subject knowledge), intrapersonal (i.e., intellectual openness, work ethic, and self-regulation), and interpersonal (i.e., teamwork, leadership) domains that once mastered, could be transferred to other educational settings and into people's lives outside academics (National Research Council, 2012). Some researchers made a further distinction between 21st-Century skills and 21st-Century digital skills (van Laar et al., 2020).

In the area of research and information literacy, employees needed to critically evaluate the credibility of sources, a reported area of weakness among students (Angell & Tewell, 2017; Bury, 2016; T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016). Researchers at Stanford University observed undergraduate students, history faculty, and fact checkers as they looked at websites to evaluate their credibility. What the researchers found was fact checkers were most adept at evaluating credibility because they employed lateral reading techniques in which they found other related sources to determine the veracity of the original claims. They found that experienced scholars and undergraduates alike faced challenges when evaluating internet sources. Using the techniques of fact checkers could help them improve their evaluation of internet sources (Addy, 2020; Jankowski et al., 2018; Russo et al., 2019; Wineburg & McGrew, 2017); Elmwood (2020) suggested a similar approach by encouraging students to ask the questions journalists do when they write a story (e.g., who, what, where, when, why, and how).

Connections to Student Success Measures

Although information literacy was a concern across disciplines (Foster, 2020), librarians and instructors first-year writing were particularly suited to the task of information literacy instruction, in part because of their shared commitment to helping students become critical researchers and writers (Ariew, 2014; Tewell, 2018). First-year college writing courses were ideal for information literacy and writing collaborations because nearly all students were required to take them and other faculty expected students would learn writing and research skills that could be transferred to other courses (Anders & Hemstrom, 2016; Bensen et al., 2016). Lambert et al. (2021) also noted that first-year college writing credits were easily transferrable to other institutions, were "nearly ubiquitous" in U.S. postsecondary institutions (p. 656), and were prerequisites for many classes. In another study, 97% of librarians reported doing some sort of instruction in first-year courses (Library Journal, 2017). During their first year, students were experiencing a number of transitions: high school to college, learning new academic vocabulary, and developing new support systems (Bucy et al., 2016). Murray (2015) conducted a survey of library directors that asked about activities and services that aligned with *high impact practices* (HIP), the practices that promoted student engagement and influenced student retention. Libraries were involved in other HIPs, and writing-intensive courses and first-year experience courses were the HIPs that many libraries had in common (P. Anderson et al., 2016; Deeken et al., 2019; Murray, 2015; Rapchak & Cipri, 2015). First year writing courses were considered a combination of both HIPs (DeJoy et al., 2016; Murray, 2015).

Information literacy and use of the library were just two of myriad factors influencing student success, therefore making them difficult to isolate from other factors; however, several studies have included information literacy and use of the library in their analyses of student

success (Kondo et al., 2021; O'Kelly et al., 2023). Information literacy instruction and increased use of the library both correlated to high grades; in contrast, lower library use was associated with students who leave the university (Allen, 2015). Researchers found students who attended more than one library workshop were seven times more likely to enroll in a second semester of college (Nichols Hess et al., 2015); others found students who used one or more library services were 78% more likely to persist, with additional persistence percentages predicted for every library service they added (Mayer et al., 2020). Bensen et al. (2016) found more improvement among African American students as a result of information literacy sessions.

Librarian involvement in various forms, ranging from presence in the class to full instruction sessions, resulted in positive effects on student performance and retention (Booth et al., 2015; LeMaistre et al., 2018; Thorpe et al., 2016), and students who solicited help from a librarian scored higher on course assessments and assignments and chose a wider range of sources for their assignments (Secovnie & Glisson, 2019; Shao & Purpur, 2016). In one study, researchers did not find a correlation between use of library facilities and outcomes; however, the use of library resources and students' interactions with librarians resulted in statistically significant effects on academic success measures. The three statistically significant practices were use of books ($p < .05$), use of web-based services such as article databases ($p < .05$), and consulting librarians for reference services ($p < .05$) (Soria et al., 2017). In another study, Kot and Jones (2015) found that students who attended a librarian-led research clinic had a 58% higher GPA. Information literacy sessions can also have a positive impact on transfer students (Harrick & Fullington, 2019; Robison, 2017). Garrett et al. (2017) found a strong direct correlation between grades in first-year writing, which often contains elements of information literacy instruction, and GPA in the students' major courses. Although success in all general

education courses predicted overall success, the courses with the most predictive power were those that covered writing, public speaking, and information literacy. Another study found that students who participated in a library session were 2.78 times more likely to pass their first-year writing course and 34.3 % more likely to persist to another semester (Rowe et al., 2021).

On the other hand, student failures in any of the first-year writing classes resulted in lower predicted graduation rates than course failures in any other discipline (Garrett et al., 2017). Failures in remedial writing predicted a graduation rate as low as 17 %. Failing either of the other writing courses the study institution's course sequences predicted a 38 % lower chance of graduating (Garrett et al., 2017). Studies also demonstrated that lack of library or information literacy skills indicated potential retention issues and risk of withdrawal from college. Lower library use was connected with students who ultimately left the institution (Allen, 2015). Overconfidence in library skills sometimes indicated overconfidence in other academic arenas (Angell & Kose, 2015). Statistically speaking, failure in a first-year information literacy course did not have a significant effect on overall graduation rate. However, researchers noted performance in this course could serve as one indication that a student required additional academic support; low performance in an information literacy class could warrant interventions such as tutoring and writing help from a student success center. Librarians often identified performance problems sooner than course instructors (Garrett et al., 2017; Moran, 2019).

Conclusion

Research demonstrated several points of convergence for librarians and writing instructors regarding information literacy, among them being common goals, vocabularies, and disciplinary frameworks and documents that helped foster collaboration and overcome barriers (Belzowski & Robison, 2019; Friedman & Miller, 2018; Guth et al., 2018; Murphy, 2019).

Responsibility for teaching various elements of information literacy, such as information retrieval, information evaluation, and information synthesis fell to both librarians and writing instructors (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Bowles-Terry & Clinnin, 2020; Insua et al., 2018a, 2018b; Julien et al., 2018). There were three primary areas where writing instructors and librarians promoted student success in writing and information literacy. First, they were instrumental in helping students make the transition from high school to college (Burdick & Greer, 2017; Gaha et al., 2018; Lanning & Mallek, 2017; Saunders et al., 2017); second, they played a role in improving retention, persistence, and success (Garrett et al., 2017; LeMaistre et al., 2018; Nicholes & Reimer, 2020; Nichols Hess, 2020); third, they helped students prepare for their lives after graduation and in the workplace (Fourie & Julien, 2019; Hahn & Pedersen, 2020; Widén et al., 2021; Yancey et al., 2019).

The theoretical frameworks of community of practice and discourse community could help facilitate the collaborations among librarians and writing instructors in first-year college writing (Lave, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wishkoski et al., 2019). Writing instructors and librarians could help each other understand the similarities and differences in their respective disciplinary frameworks (Baer, 2016; Burkholder, 2019; Friedman & Miller, 2018; Johnson & McCracken, 2016). The shared language in turn could assist in overcoming barriers to collaboration and reducing confusion among students (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; Klein, 2017; Murphy, 2019; Saunders & Corning, 2020). Furthermore, librarians and writing instructors could advocate for curricular changes to help students with their research and writing beyond the first-year college writing context (Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; Baker & Gladis, 2016; Gregory & McCall, 2016; Veach, 2012a). This phenomenological study will contribute to the available body of scholarship on using shared language and frameworks to facilitate

collaborations between writing instructors and librarians. The themes and narratives in this study

reflected the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors.

Chapter III

Design and Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors at four-year institutions using shared language or frameworks to facilitate collaboration in first-year college writing courses (American Council on Education, n.d.; Creswell, 2016; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Four-year institutions, according to the Carnegie Size and Setting Classification, were grouped by the percentage of full-time undergraduates enrolled and the percentage of those undergraduates that reside on campus. These institutions may offer other types of degrees, but institutions offering only associate or graduate degrees were not included in the four-year institution category (American Council on Education, n.d.). Understanding and appreciation of each discipline's frameworks and vocabulary is a means by which writing instructors and librarians could improve their collaboration (Adams et al., 2016; Friedman & Miller, 2018; Grettano & Witek, 2016; Napier et al., 2018; Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016; Pickard & Sterling, 2020), which in turn would benefit students.

Performance in writing and information literacy predicted student success in many areas (P. Anderson et al., 2015; Garrett et al., 2017; Nicholes & Reimer, 2020). Effective collaboration led to improved teaching and assignment design, which in turn promoted student success (Allen, 2015; Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; Insua et al., 2018a, 2018b; Lancaster et al., 2016; Lantz et al., 2016; Margolin & Hayden, 2015; Napier et al., 2018; Whearty et al., 2017; Wishkoski et al., 2018).

Major disciplinary frameworks for librarians (American Library Association, 2015) and writing instructors (Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011) shared common and complementary concepts (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Lancaster et al., 2016; Rapchak & Stinnett, 2018). Practitioners of each discipline could improve collaboration by understanding and appreciating each other's frameworks (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Grettano & Witek, 2016; Johnson & McCracken, 2016; Mills et al., 2021; Refaei & Wahman, 2016; Walsh et al., 2018).

Chapter III is divided into several sections describing the research design, recruitment and selection of participants following ethical human subject research procedures, data collection, data interpretation, the role of the researcher, trustworthiness, and limitations.

Research Questions

1. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors develop teaching collaborations in first-year college writing courses?

2. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors use shared vocabulary and disciplinary frameworks to facilitate understanding and cooperation in teaching first-year college writing courses?

3. How do librarians and writing instructors engage in communities of practice to learn from each other about teaching writing and information literacy concepts in first-year college writing courses?

Research Design

Among the characteristics of qualitative research, two aspects were relevant to this study: a focus on context and investigation into the lived experiences of participants (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Descriptive analysis of quantitative data could provide

insight into a particular phenomenon, as demonstrated when researchers connected the use of library services with student engagement indicators (Croxton & Moore, 2020; Lowe et al., 2020). However, a qualitative methodology has enabled researchers to capture information that may not be in typical data systems but could be important to develop a complete picture of the services and activities that support student success. Insua et al. (2018a, 2018b) demonstrated the impact of qualitative methods when they asked students about challenges and problem-solving strategies in their writing courses. Qualitative methodology enabled the researcher to gather rich data on each participant's lived experiences and to describe themes relevant to the phenomenon of using shared language in collaborations.

This study used a phenomenological approach to focus on each individual's experience while discovering themes that provided insight into the phenomenon of collaboration through the use of common language (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The goal in phenomenology was to "transform lived experience into a textual expression of its essence" (van Manen, 1990, p. 36). Different branches of phenomenology were based on different philosophical traditions. One branch of phenomenology began with Edmund Husserl (Laverty, 2003). Although Husserl trained Martin Heidegger in phenomenology, Heidegger departed from Husserl in espousing hermeneutic or interpretive phenomenology (Laverty, 2003; Sloan & Bowe, 2014), Gadamer focused on moving from the purely philosophical to the practical uses of phenomenology, and van Manen adapted hermeneutic phenomenology to create phenomenology of practice. Phenomenology of practice has worked well in disciplines such as nursing and education because studies of phenomena are rooted in everyday life and work and at the same time they study life and work (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Laverty, 2003; Sloan & Bowe, 2014; van Manen, 2016). One important difference between the two primary branches of phenomenology was

Husserl focused on epistemology, the study of knowledge, but Heidegger focused on ontology,

the "mode of being of the being (meaning) of [a] phenomenon" (Laverty, 2003; van Manen,

2016, p. 231) and the presuppositions and context that influenced the interpretations of each

participant's lifeworld (Laverty, 2003). Although van Manen agreed the words people used and

the meanings behind the words were important, he gave equal attention to the things people leave

unsaid and that may represent ideas they take for granted (van Manen, 1990). Another

characteristic of hermeneutic phenomenology is its participatory nature. The participants and

investigator dialogue with each other to discover and interpret lived experiences of a

phenomenon (Laverty, 2003). In an attempt to discover the essence of the being of collaboration

of librarians and writing instructors, the investigator and participants paid close attention to

words and interpreted meaning. This study was influenced by van Manen's phenomenology of

practice and used some techniques provided by other scholars in hermeneutic phenomenology.

Finally, a phenomenological approach to data entailed a focus on interpreting data rather than

analyzing data, which required an equal focus on the parts and the whole, described as the

hermeneutic circle (Groenewald, 2004; van Manen, 1990).

Participants

The researcher used purposive criterion sampling (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019) to

recruit participants for this study. Researchers have used purposive or purposeful sampling when

they needed participants who could best describe the problem or question being considered.

Researchers used specific criteria to determine participant eligibility (Creswell & Poth, 2018;

Leavy, 2017). In determining criteria for eligibility, the researcher ensured participants would be

able to provide ample and varied "thick description" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 316). The

researcher sought two participants per institution: a librarian and a writing instructor. The 14

participants represented seven different institutions. Eligibility criteria for these individuals included employment as a librarian or writing instructor at four-year institutions, who taught in some capacity in first-year college writing courses, and who had worked with their institutional counterpart (e.g., a librarian and writing instructor from same institution have collaborated together).

Before beginning data collection, the researcher participated in human research protection training offered by the Office for Human Research Protections (see Appendix B) and sought and received approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Northwest Nazarene University (see Appendix C). The researcher carefully reviewed all potential risks to the participants and benefits of the study and informed each participant how the data would be used and stored as well as reminding them they could withdraw from the study at any time. Each of the participants was asked to complete an informed consent form (see Appendix D).

To gather a sample, the researcher sought and received permission to post an invitation with a screening survey link (see Appendix E) to three different listservs: The Association of Christian Librarians (ACL), the College Library Director Mentoring Program (CLDMP), a program affiliated with the Association of College & Research Libraries, and WritingStudies-L (see Appendix F). The survey also asked potential participants to identify and provide information for a collaborative partner from their institution that the researcher could invite as a participant. As potential participants responded to the survey and met the criteria, the researcher sent them an invitation with a link to available interview dates and times (see Appendix G) and the initial materials for the study: a full description of the study and the informed consent (see Appendix D). The researcher recruited one librarian and one writing instructor from each institution. To ensure the most variation of experiences in participants, the sample size was 14

participants consisting of seven librarians and seven writing instructors. In qualitative research, sample sizes have varied from one participant to 325 participants; however, the typical range was 3-15 participants (Creswell & Poth, 2018), The sample size goal was theoretical saturation, the point at which no new insights could be discovered from participants, and including additional participants would be unlikely to yield new data (Hennink & Kaiser, 2022; Leavy, 2017; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; May, 2002).

Data Collection

The most common method of data gathering in qualitative research was the participant interview (Saldaña, 2011). Interviews allowed the investigator to explore first-hand accounts of how participants experienced a phenomenon. The interviewer's role involved encouraging the interviewee to talk at length about a topic, and the interviewer looked for meaning in the interviewee's account (May, 2002). In an ideal interview, the investigator and the participant have collaborated together in the process, and phenomenological interviewing required that participant and investigator participate in the meaning-making process together (Lauterbach, 2018; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; May, 2002; Rapley, 2004). An in-depth semi-structured interview allowed the researcher to set the general direction and to avoid pitfalls of interviewing, such as using closed-ended or multiple question formats (Saldaña, 2011) and emphasized flexibility for both interviewer and interviewee (Marshall & Rossman, 2016; May, 2002). Moreover, interviewing could benefit those who have not always had the freedom to tell their stories (Rapley, 2004; Saldaña, 2011). Phenomenological interviews focused on the central phenomenon being investigated (van Manen, 1990). Focus on the central phenomenon has included simultaneously gathering information and working with the participant to reflect upon the experiences they have shared. A researcher may schedule more time for an interview that

involves both gathering and reflecting, or a researcher may opt for more than one interview or reflective activity (Lauterbach, 2018; van Manen, 1990). For this study, the researcher conducted two 60-minute semi-structured interviews with each participant. Additionally, the researcher sent participants each of the information literacy and writing framework documents (Association of College Research Libraries Framework, Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition, Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing) and asked participants to review the documents as a frame of reference during the second interview.

Before conducting interviews with participants, the researcher consulted an expert panel to evaluate content validity by ensuring interview questions aligned with research questions and focused on the phenomenon (van Manen, 1990). The expert panel consisted of two librarians and two writing instructors. The panel reviewed the initial interview protocol (see Appendix H) and made suggestions to improve interview questions. Panelists made suggestions to clarify interview question syntax and to clarify ambiguous referents in the interview questions (i.e., asking whether an interview question should be addressed regarding any colleague or a specific colleague) (see Appendix I). After reviewing feedback of the expert panel, the researcher made edits to questions. These changes were minor and therefore did not require submission to the IRB for approval. The researcher conducted pilot interviews with a convenience sample of one librarian and one writing instructor (see Appendix H). Pilot interviews enabled the researcher to test methods and improve the interview process based on feedback from interviewees (Maxwell, 2013). Member-checking was conducted with pilot interview participants following the interviews. At the suggestion of one of the pilot interviewees, the researcher added a sub-question to the final interview protocol (see Appendix J). The researcher reflected on personal

experiences and biases as pilot interviews were conducted in order to understand how they influence analysis of the data.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven librarians and seven writing instructors. Interviews were conducted using Google Meet and were video recorded as part of the audit trail and to ensure the researcher could review and transcribe the interviews accurately. Participants signed an informed consent form that included permission for video recording after being briefed on the researcher's commitment to confidentiality and data security (see Appendix D).

In order to ensure a quiet and uninterrupted environment, the researcher conducted interviews in a secluded office and encouraged participants to minimize noise and distractions at their site. Interviews were saved on a Google Drive with two-step authentication protocol and only accessed by the researcher. Other participant documents include the informed consent, transcripts, and data interpretation documents. Interview questions are included in the interview guide (see Appendix F). To ensure the confidentiality of participants, the researcher assigned each participant a pseudonym and kept the information in a password-protected spreadsheet; any paper copies of data were kept in a locked file drawer (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). Participants were assured that interview transcripts would not be shared with their institutional collaborator. The researcher cautioned that participants might be able to deduce which participant was from their institution.

Each interview was approximately 60 minutes in length, with a 60-minute follow-up interview that included member checking. Before the second interview, the investigator sent a composite document of general themes developed from the first and second read-through of the transcripts of all previous participants' first interviews, and the investigator reminded

participants that they would likely see some themes that did not reflect their specific interview. Additionally, the investigator emailed copies of the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy in Higher education (ACRL Framework), the Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (WPA Framework), and the Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-year Composition (WPA Outcomes) for review before the second interview (American Library Association, 2015; Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011). The second interview allowed participants and researcher to build upon rapport, for participants to reflect on the first interview, including thoughts on the frameworks, and to add any clarifying thoughts based on their reflection (Josselson, 2013).

Heidegger's influence on hermeneutic or interpretive phenomenology suggested qualitative researchers must accept they cannot wholly separate their biases and experiences from the research process. Rather than the descriptive phenomenological practice of bracketing, that is, with the researcher trying to separate personal biases and assumptions in order to keep these separate from the data they were collecting, hermeneutic phenomenology instead encouraged researchers to reflect on the ways their experiences inform their interpretation of the phenomenon (Sloan & Bowe, 2014; van Manen, 1990). More concretely, a researcher must know and care about the subject under investigation in order to develop the study (Emiliussen et al., 2021).

Data Interpretation

Van Manen (2016) notes Heidegger may be surprised at the ways researchers have used phenomenology. Groenewald (2004) notes the term *data analysis* belies the very tenets of phenomenology (p. 49) because of its emphasis on breaking down data into small parts;

hermeneutic phenomenology data interpretation has sought to preserve the context of participants' responses by using larger portions of them.

In spite of myriad adaptations of phenomenology, one of the constants has been a general reluctance of researchers to prescribe a systematic method for using phenomenology in qualitative research. However, some researchers have written articles that provided more details about how they conducted their research to give others an idea of how they might use phenomenology (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007; Groenewald, 2004; Lauterbach, 2018). Van Manen (1990) also provided a kind of general "methodical structure" (pp. 30-31) for phenomenological investigations consisting of six principles: determining a phenomenon to study, focusing on lived experience, discovering the essential themes, *iterative writing* – "writing and rewriting" – to describe the phenomenon, and maintaining the Heideggerian practice of "balancing the research context by considering parts and whole" , often referenced as the hermeneutic circle (van Manen, 1990, p. 31). Keeping in mind the methodical structure of van Manen (1990), the researcher also used four of the five phases of analysis suggested by Ajjawi and Higgs (2007): immersion, understanding, abstraction, and synthesis.

Immersion

In the immersion phase of analysis, after the interviews have been transcribed verbatim and read several times while making general notes in the margins (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019), the researcher conducted first stage in vivo coding to capture the exact words of the participants (Saldaña, 2015). Strauss (1987) recommended including in vivo coding as part of the initial coding process because it ensured that the researcher focused on the words of the participants before making initial determinations about themes.

Understanding

After in vivo coding, the investigator began determining "first order constructs" (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007, p. 624) by re-reading the transcripts with in vivo codes and general notes in the margins, then highlighting common ideas and noting any differences in participant responses. Once first order constructs of participants were developed, the investigator conducted member checking during the second interview with the participants to ensure that the constructs being developed accurately reflected their experiences (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). After member checking during the second interviews, the researcher used the first order constructs to build initial themes. Themes in hermeneutic phenomenology represent the investigator's interpretation of the "experiential structures that make up that experience" (van Manen, 1990, p. 79) that enable others to understand the ontological nature of the phenomenon. Frechette et al. (2020) used Gadamer's questions as a guide to determining initial themes: "How is the phenomenon being expressed in this encounter? What is the meaning for the interviewee and the researcher about this element in relation to the studied phenomenon and why?" (p. 10).

Abstraction

The researcher used first order constructs and initial themes to develop second order constructs and secondary themes. The second order constructs and themes are the investigator's interpretations of the meanings of participants' experiences based on common and divergent elements of participants' responses. All phases of research required the researcher to be aware of biases and presuppositions that hindered an appropriate interpretation of the participants' lived experiences and the essential themes. Therefore, the researcher wrote journal entries describing the ways the data connected with the researcher's own experience of the phenomenon. This process is what van Manen described as epoché-reduction because the focus of the researcher

was on distilling the lived experience to its essence. For the hermeneutic phenomenologist, the focus should be on openness and questioning (van Manen, 2016).

Synthesis and Theme Development

In the synthesis phase, the researcher organized secondary themes under the primary themes and wrote more about the meaning of the primary themes. Keeping in mind the hermeneutic circle, the researcher switched back and forth between individual participant statements and the themes they illustrated. The researcher also investigated differences in participant constructs based on their disciplines to take note of experiences that did not fit with the themes. Once these were finished, the researcher summarized the themes and provided illustrative examples from the transcript that further described the theme.

Role of the Researcher

In contrast to quantitative research that used some kind of instrument to collect and measure data, in qualitative research, the "researcher *is* the instrument" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 45). The researcher used personal experiences, background, and knowledge to explore a research question (Strauss, 1987). In hermeneutic phenomenology, a researcher explored meaning-making of participants, but at the same time was also interpreting and deriving meaning from both participants' individual and collective responses (Sloan & Bowe, 2014). In other types of phenomenology, researchers attempted to bracket out any personal experiences and interpretations to discover an unfiltered view of participant responses (Sloan & Bowe, 2014; van Manen, 1990); however, absolute neutrality could be both impossible and "harmful to good research" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 24). Instead, the researcher made clear the experiences, knowledge, and background so the researcher was aware of the influences these had on the study (Sloan & Bowe, 2014).

This researcher is a library director with faculty status at a four-year small, highly residential (based on Carnegie Size and Setting classification) (American Council on Education, n.d.), denominational institution in the Northwest United States. All the researcher's professional librarian positions, including the current position, have included an element of information literacy instruction. As the researcher has participated in collaborative activities with writing instructors, the researcher has had a variety of collaborations with course instructors. These collaborative activities have had various degrees of success. One of the elements of the more successful collaborations was a mutual appreciation of librarian's and instructor's disciplinary vocabulary, and the researcher and course instructor found connections between the two vocabularies. Additionally, the researcher experienced the librarian's role as a mediator between course instructors and students (Wishkoski et al., 2018) and has helped students navigate the pain points of interpreting implicit and explicit expectations of assignments. Because of the researcher's interests and experiences surrounding the study, the researcher paid careful attention to and evaluated her own responses to the data being collected and analyzed in light of her previous experiences (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Trustworthiness

Rather than apply the same principles as quantitative studies to qualitative work, Lincoln and Guba (1985) used the general term *trustworthiness* to describe how qualitative researchers validated their work. This researcher used multiple interviews to satisfy one of the criteria of establishing the trustworthiness of a study and trustworthiness to the participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Data collected in interviews were validated for accuracy using member checking after each interview (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

Member checking, in which a researcher confirms with the participants that the collected data is accurate, has been considered to be one of the primary strategies for validating qualitative data (Maxwell, 2013; Saldaña, 2015). Participants were given a summary of the interview themes at two points: during the second interview and in writing after the themes had been further developed (See Appendix K).

Limitations

One limitation of this study is its intentional focus on first-year research writing in four-year institutions. Although community colleges may also have first-year writing programs, community college participants were not included in the study. Additionally, participant eligibility was limited to librarians and writing instructors teaching in first-year college writing courses. Prospective participants who served dual librarian and writing instructor roles were ineligible. Other curricular models, such as second-year research writing courses, were not included in this study.

When recruiting volunteers, those most likely to volunteer to participate were also likely to be supportive of the topic and may have been less candid about negative or unsuccessful aspects of topic. Further, the recruitment process may have deterred prospective participants who were still developing their collaborations and did not yet have a formal program. The focus on a phenomenological qualitative methodology entailed both a small sample size and an intentional emphasis on lived experiences of participants. Therefore, findings were not generalizable to a population or type of institution.

The researcher decided not to pursue questions regarding formal assessment of student performance in writing courses. Although the ultimate goal should be promoting student success, this study was designed to examine the lived experiences of the instructors, not the students.

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Chapter IV

Findings

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Introduction

This chapter outlines the findings and data interpretation of a phenomenological study of librarians and writing instructor collaborations in first-year college writing courses. The purpose of the study was to explore the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors to discover how they used shared language to enhance collaboration in a community of practice and discourse community. The findings of this study could be used to provide insight into barriers to overcome, successful collaborations that others may emulate, and ideas for providing professional development to librarians and writing instructors using shared frameworks. Additionally, expansion of this research could explore whether institution size or other factors may contribute to successful collaboration, assessment of student performance as a result of those collaborations, or advocacy for a scaffolded writing and information literacy program throughout all levels of university courses.

Research Questions

Interview questions and data interpretation centered around three central research questions:

1. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors develop teaching collaborations in first-year college writing courses?

2. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors use shared vocabulary and disciplinary frameworks to facilitate understanding and cooperation in teaching first-year college writing courses?

3. How do librarians and writing instructors engage in communities of practice to learn from each other about teaching writing and information literacy concepts in first-year college writing courses?

Reporting Participant Responses

The researcher sought to preserve the essence of participants' words by using verbatim quotes. Verbatim quotes were also an aspect of the coding and theming process: in the initial stage of coding and theming, the researcher used in vivo coding. At times, the researcher used brackets to add clarifying terms and ellipses to remove duplicate words and filler words such as "like" or "um." Because participant responses were often spontaneous and conversational, ellipses were also used when participants covered multiple topics in the same sentence. In addition to a goal of discovering the essence of the phenomenon of collaboration between writing instructors and librarians, another aspect of phenomenology the researcher employed was the hermeneutic circle, ensuring that an equal focus was on individuals and on the larger phenomenon. Finally, hermeneutic phenomenology entailed the researcher and participants making meaning together; therefore, the researcher contributed anecdotes as part of the meaning-making process.

Participants

Each participant was assigned a gender-neutral pseudonym to protect confidentiality. Table 1 shows participant names, roles, and experience length categories. Exact years of experience were not recorded to preserve participant confidentiality. Throughout this section, the researcher will use participant pseudonyms and general roles as identifiers (e.g., Alex, a librarian, or Gracen, a writing instructor).

Table 1

Participant Names, Roles, and Experience Length

Pseudonym	Role	Experience Length
	Librarians	
Alex	Non-faculty librarian	1-5 years
Chris	Faculty librarian	1-5 years
Ellis	Library administrator	11-20 years
Leslie	Faculty librarian	11-20 years
Quinn	Faculty librarian	11-20 years
Riley	Faculty librarian	6-10 years
Sam	Faculty librarian	11-20 years
	Writing Instructors	
Blake	Writing instructor	1-5 years
Brook	Writing instructor	11-20 years
Gracen	Writing program administrator	20+ years
Jordan	Writing instructor	11-20 years
Kai	Writing instructor*	6-10 years
Peyton	Writing instructor	6-10 years
Taylor	Writing instructor	20+ years

*Participant is a graduate student who is also the instructor of record in a first-year college writing course.

Findings From Research Question One: Collaboration as a Spectrum

Although the researcher sought information about participants' specific lived experiences in their collaborations in the first-year writing course context, some of the participant responses highlighted broad issues of how collaborators worked together successfully. Participants also responded with examples of challenging collaborations. When asked to provide examples of successful collaborations, participants described both the circumstances of the successful collaboration and the dispositional or behavioral characteristics of the collaborators. Responses regarding dispositions and behaviors fell into a few different categories: buy-in and enthusiasm,

communication, teaching preparation and experience, and a focus on student engagement and learning. Conversely, when participants provided examples of collaborations that were less successful, they described common characteristics, some of which are the opposite of good collaboration characteristics. For instance, the opposite of buy-in is the lack of buy-in. The researcher grouped participant responses about counterproductive collaborations into the following categories: lack of buy-in, discipline-related hindrances, misunderstanding of each person's role, and teacher inexperience.

Productive Collaboration Characteristics

Buy-In and Enthusiasm. Buy-in, enthusiasm, communication, teaching, and student engagement were the elements that, combined, led to what Gracen, a writing instructor, described as synergy. Gracen then described what synergy looked like in the first-year research writing classroom: before the librarian entered the classroom, the writing instructor had prepared students for the sessions by ensuring they had topics chosen for their research paper. Writing instructors were required to attend the sessions, to reinforce to the students the importance of learning from the librarian. Then the librarian incorporated students' topics into the session so the students understood the relevance of the session. Students completed a worksheet, the librarian graded the worksheet, and grades were submitted to the writing instructor. Gracen said incorporating the library research was "a wonderful, wonderful addition to our composition program." Gracen also said, "I was so grateful they are willing to do it, it takes a willingness on the librarians' part, right?"

Blake, a writing instructor, described working with librarians as "super central…the librarians are a really big part of my instruction." Blake described one of the librarians as

very committed and enthusiastic and knowledgeable. And so… it's…not just easy, but useful for me to work with [the librarian] … at the brainstorming stage. And I'm thinking about pedagogy…we talk about projects…a lot of things developed out of those conversations.

Blake credited the good collaborations to a "particularly…enthusiastic group of librarians," but also noted "there was enthusiasm on both sides." Leslie, a librarian, said the writing instructor with whom Leslie worked "was seeing...expertise that I could bring as being complementary" and Riley, a librarian, said, "we [librarian and writing instructor] were very much on the same page," and the writing instructor "[jumped] on the opportunity for me to come and collaborate." Sam, a librarian, described this level of collaborative enthusiasm as "something that you constantly kind of want to strive for but rarely falls into your lap." Taylor, a writing instructor, stated, "I'm such a cheerleader for this sort of thing," and said, "every time I introduce a librarian, I keep telling students that this is a valuable human – a literal human resource – that will make your life so much better." Alex, a librarian, said the writing instructor was "very easy to work with and a great mentor to librarians." Blake, a writing instructor, characterized the librarian as "very receptive to revising," and Peyton, a writing instructor, discovered the helpfulness of librarians who communicated often and offered a checklist of potential areas to cover in the instruction session.

Communication. Some communication practices could be called coordination. In some instances, there is one person who coordinates instruction across all first-year college writing sections. This coordination, mentioned by librarians Chris and Sam, usually involved making sure instructors and librarians have class times scheduled, rooms booked, and partners assigned.

Taylor, a writing instructor, provided a general idea of the types of assignments the class would be doing, "so [the librarian] could tailor the presentation to fit their particular needs." Jordan, a writing instructor, discussed how planning with a librarian works:

> And I usually find out who my instructional library partner will be at least a week or two before class starts. And so then we usually work in terms of scheduling first to try to figure out…a couple of days that seem to fit with my curriculum. We'll see if there's space in the library for our class session. And then that begins the kind of conversation about what they will cover in class.

Jordan had additional responsibilities that meant working with new writing instructors to ensure they were aware of the requirement to work with a librarian: "I do point [the requirement] out to them and remind them that…they ought to be thinking about where those two sessions would fit." Brook, a writing instructor, discussed meeting with a librarian to "map everything out" Peyton, a writing instructor, noticed that librarians would "communicate really well with the instructors and say…'What do you want me to cover?'" The librarians Peyton mentioned would also offer writing instructors an idea of what they typically would do in an instruction session. There were times when Riley, a librarian, would work on "gently persuading" a course instructor if the course instructor asked for a kind of instruction that might not have worked well. Ellis, a librarian, said it took confidence to "kind of suggest things or try and nudge [instructors] in a certain direction or try and do something more complicated with the collaboration." The researcher has observed that continued conversations can improve collaboration. Each party contributes their point of view and persuasion occurs on each side.

Teaching Preparation and Experience. Some librarian participants made positive comments about their own teaching preparation and experience, as did their writing instructor counterparts. For librarian participants who already had teaching experience, they noted the ways it helped them as they worked with writing instructors. Ellis said, "I definitely benefited from having a teaching experience when I started as a librarian," noting, "my classroom experiences really shaped my experiences as a librarian." Likewise, Quinn stated, "I'm grateful to have an education background and the curriculum mapping and lesson planning," and also believed librarians' work with writing instructors in first-year college research writing also meant other faculty noticed librarians' "instructional role and what we can help with." Kai, a writing instructor, noticed "it was very clear that [the librarian] was a teacher."

Three librarians noted the role of library science education in preparing librarians for a teaching role. Chris observed the lack of instruction requirements while working on a library science degree: "I think it would have been very easy to go through that program and pick interesting things that are about librarianship that would not particularly have set me up as well to be ready for the job" of instruction. Similarly, Sam noted that teaching is not a part of most core library curricula, saying, "The only reason I was lucky enough to have one instruction course under my belt was because I was on the school library media track initially." Recognizing the lack of teaching experience or education, Leslie said

> I soaked up every teaching-related professional development opportunity I could and I got involved in… professional development communities… .[I] felt like I knew about teaching, like I knew more about pedagogy. I knew about course design and some of the…best practices of active learning and things like that.

Focus on Student Engagement and Learning. Ellis, a librarian, said their writing instructor counterpart was "very committed to looking at the outcomes…and ensuring that students think about those, including the information literacy outcomes." Chris, a librarian, pointed to a writing instructor's commitment to student engagement by "draw[ing]…students' focus and reinforce[ing] for them that…this is important material." Jordan, a writing instructor, recounted a particularly successful collaborative class session in which the librarian and writing instructor were asking students to investigate the sources that an author was citing to teach source evaluation. "We didn't even have to say, like, 'Look at what [the author] is doing,' right. They already started to see that, like, either the source itself wasn't that…credible or the way [the author] was using it was not ideal," said Jordan. Other writing instructors observed individual activities librarians were doing to promote student engagement, such as "introducing students to this concept of…a lens or method source" to help students understand genre (Brook); "gamify" (i.e., make an educational game) an activity to help students brainstorm topics (Kai); and "moving around and checking in with different groups and letting them try things out" (Brook). Participants also spoke well of incorporating active learning strategies into the classroom. Six of the 14 participants expressed preference for active (or interactive) learning as a way to engage students; in Baer's (2021) study, 20.9% of librarians indicated one way their teaching had changed was that it had become more active. The focus on active learning is also supported by a study of librarian anxiety in which participants reported feeling ill equipped to engage students in the classroom (Lundstrom et al., 2021).

Counterproductive Collaboration Characteristics

Hallmarks of good collaborations among all participants abound, as do hallmarks of collaborations that required improvement. Although participants recalled working with good teachers, some participants would also reflect upon experiences in which teaching was less successful.

When asked about less successful collaborations, two participants described collaborations that went well, but execution of their ideas in practice did not turn out as expected. Sam, a librarian, and Jordan, a writing instructor, described an in-class activity that did not go as planned, not as a result of poor planning, but due to variables in the classroom such as the topics students chose. Some topics worked well for the in-class activity, but others did not work as well. Most of the participants described counterproductive collaborations that needed improvement in one of the following areas: lack of buy-in, discipline-related hindrances, communication issues, misunderstanding of each person's role, and teacher inexperience.

Lack of Buy-In. In the most extreme case, lack of buy-in simply means that the librarian was not invited to a class at all. Sam, a librarian, succinctly said: "[librarians] cannot get into that classroom." However, participants also regretted the lack of time for collaborations. Sam, a librarian, imagined writing instructors being reluctant to collaborate because it would "take up [their] precious time. Which, I mean, to be fair, they don't have much classroom time." Riley and Leslie, both librarians, talked about implementing "train the trainer" sessions for course instructors when they did not have time for one-on-one collaborations. Even successful collaborations may need to scale back when changes to curriculum occur. Gracen, a writing instructor, reduced the number of information literacy sessions from three to two per semester as result of the course changing from five credits to four credits. Time was also an issue for

librarians, said Kai, a writing instructor: "We only have a limited number of instructional librarians." Kai wondered whether their collaborations with librarians take too much of the librarians' time. In the researcher's experience, the number of first-year writing sessions had the potential to overwhelm librarians' capacity, particularly if the librarians were doing any grading as part of their collaborations.

Examples of successful collaborations included writing instructors priming their students to be ready for the information literacy session with the librarian. However, Chris, a librarian, faced a counterproductive collaboration situation in which the instructor repeatedly did not prepare students before the planned librarian visit, which prompted Chris to revise the instruction session on the fly, but not cover all the concepts or give students time to practice what they had learned. "It's super, super important that your students know the research assignment that is coming up and they have chosen a topic," adding, "We have had this conversation…but it's his class. I'm like, 'What can you do?'" These examples highlight an issue common to librarians, including this researcher: they could only visit a class or teach an information literacy session if the course instructor invited them to do so, and their power to make changes was limited if the instructor was not amendable to the changes (Meulemans & Matlin, 2019).

In two situations regarding lack of buy-in, part of the problem was attributed to adjunct instructors. Quinn, a librarian, said a new adjunct writing instructor "just sat in a corner and didn't say anything," which also affected students' engagement: "And I felt like maybe [the students] weren't invested, but I had to keep teaching the lesson." Similarly, Alex, a librarian, described an adjunct writing instructor that "really only wanted one [instruction] session," which meant that students had "less time to apply what they're learning." Blake, a writing instructor, described lack of buy-in as a librarian who lacked enthusiasm and it "[felt] like the librarian

[was] bored." Ellis, a librarian, said the instructor only wanted "students to learn how to plug the keywords into the database and get articles and they [wanted] me to demo how everything is done and that's it." Further, "not only do I feel hampered, but I feel like the students aren't learning what they could or should be learning and the person is maybe just not taking it seriously." Ellis also believed some collaboration challenges occurred because of writing instructor inexperience, even going to far as to say "some people have honestly never thought about" collaboration. However, Ellis added that ongoing relationship-building that may yield better collaborations:

> being sure that I continue to have a positive one on one, person to person relationship with that person, and then in the hope that maybe over time if you build just a little bit of trust, that maybe you can say, "Hey, what if we try this?"

Discipline-Related Hindrances. Disciplinary differences play a part in less successful collaborations. Jordan, a writing instructor, described a mismatch between Jordan's and a librarian's teaching style, which Jordan speculated was influenced by the librarian's previous job in a business-oriented environment. Ellis, a librarian with a literature background, observed the difference in research styles of disciplines other than literature. Those disciplines may be "research heavy in ways that literary criticism is not." This difference could manifest itself in how a writing instructor with a literature background related to a librarian who was teaching research for a broad range of disciplines. Gracen, a writing instructor, attended two types of conferences: conferences for literature instructors and conferences for writing center professionals. The notable difference between these two types of conferences was writing center professionals "willingly come to just provide support and share their research and share their ideas and encourage you to try them out rather than…being protective and selfish about them."

This kind of disciplinary influence may also play out when a librarian works with a literature instructor who teaches first-year college writing. Brook, a writing instructor, noted that a librarian's previous discipline had been lecture-based, which served to explain why the librarian's instruction sessions were lecture-heavy. Brook also described a situation in which a librarian's teaching was significantly different in two disparate classes, a first-year college writing class and a "writing in the disciplines" class. In the writing in the disciplines class, Brook observed, "[the librarian is] like a different person, I think because of the material, because it's her subject. Because it's her subject, she feels comfortable, she feels knowledgeable." In contrast, in the first-year college writing class,

> the students, I could tell, were losing interest because it was too dry. I [was] just kind of interjecting. When they hear my voice, they kind of snap in, so just kind of interjecting is what I tried to do to keep everybody kind of engaged and to get her to think outside the box a little.

Communication Issues. Communication issues ranged from failure to check institutional email, as Chris, a librarian, recalled issues with adjunct instructors. Communication can also be a lack of preparation of both writing instructor and librarian. Sam, a librarian, recounted a time when "I came and I started talking to the students as if they already knew what was going on," adding, "I kind of had the instruction planned around them…knowing their topics, but they did not know what I was talking about." Similarly, both librarian and writing instructor must communicate regarding assignment expectations, and the librarian should also share the assignment and expectations with other librarians that may encounter students in a consultation when they come to the library to ask questions. Gracen, a writing instructor, said that occasionally, students go to librarians for help, and librarians may take the student in a different

direction than the writing instructor wanted. The researcher has found a regular part of a librarian's job is attempting to interpret assignment guidelines when helping students.

Misunderstanding of Each Other's Role. Seven of the 14 participants said something about misunderstanding what librarians do, which may also factor into writing instructors' buy-in. Librarians and writing instructors alike challenged the concept that librarians are primarily focused on teaching students how to find information. Chris, a librarian, stated course instructors' "conceptualization of getting help from the library is…searching skills, like it's not…information literacy, it's behavior…you type here and you find this, you type here and you find this…I'm more to it than that." Jordan, a writing instructor, and Riley, a librarian, both described challenging collaborations in which course instructors did not know what librarians do. Peyton, a writing instructor, noted that before working with librarians more, "I wasn't really familiar with what librarians do or what they're supposed to do." Peyton, referring to writing instructors who take on the teaching of writing and information literacy concepts rather than partnering with librarians, suggested writing instructors would be reassured if they knew "maybe they don't have to do it all," and emphasized a need for "getting the word out" about what librarians can do, relationship-building, and communication. Sam, a librarian, got the sense that some course instructors felt territorial and did not see the need for librarian partnerships: "We can teach this, we don't need librarians to come in." Blake, a writing instructor, described being surprised by a librarian-taught information literacy course:

> And I remember it being…if I can be perfectly honest…I was surprised. I was like, "Oh
>
> this is helpful." And I mean, obviously that should have been the case in retrospect…but
>
> at the moment… there was a lot that I didn't…know going into teaching first year comp.

Blake later said, "But yeah, I mean the fact that I was surprised by the value of even that first general...information literacy session, maybe is indicative of my lack of exposure."

Ellis, a librarian, suggested both librarians and writing instructors face a similar issue:

>One barrier can be that I think not all librarians are comfortable with the writing piece of things. So I think some librarians really see themselves as, you know…my job is to work on the research and they just feel like you're not necessarily equipped to kind of to think about the writing side of things. Conversely, some writing faculty don't fully understand that we can do more than just teach students how to use the databases, but that we can actually take that additional step to get them to not just evaluate the sources, but…think about how they might incorporate them into a paper or think about how they might synthesize them with other sources or something like that. So that lack of realization can sometimes be a barrier.

A narrow understanding of the librarian's role was evident in some participants' discussions of the difference in focus between skills-based and training approaches to information literacy and approaches that covered more of the habits and dispositions described in the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework (ACRL Framework), the Writing Program Administrators Framework (WPA Framework), and the Writing Program Administrators Outcomes (WPA Outcomes). This conflict manifested in a few different ways. Chris, a librarian, said a writing instructor would ask the librarian to teach students all the details of a particular citation style, but the librarian believed it was a better use of time to talk about the primary motivation of citing sources: ethical use of information. Ellis, a librarian, observed the ACRL Framework helped transform teaching, saying, "I've always been more interested in bigger concepts than the actual search." Jordan, a writing instructor, recalled when a librarian

was demonstrating advanced search techniques in a first-year college writing class, saying, "I think the big picture is getting lost here." Jordan and this researcher agreed that advanced search techniques may not belong in a first-year college writing class, but the techniques may be appropriate in a more advanced course in the second, third, or fourth year.

Teaching Inexperience. Participants spoke about teaching skill as a challenge to collaboration most often, with 10 of 14 participants saying something specifically about teaching. Although Blake, a writing instructor, did not feel writing instructors were taught to teach, saying, "I wasn't necessarily taught how to teach, you know," Blake then described a common experience of writing instructors: teaching as a graduate student. Kai, a graduate student and writing instructor, also said, "[graduate students are] all instructors of record here." Once out of graduate school, writing instructors often teach full course loads. In contrast, librarians may not have the same graduate school experiences or opportunities to teach credit-bearing courses once they complete their library science degrees. Blake, also acknowledged solidarity with librarians: "I'm not sure that librarians get that much instruction in how to teach" and talked about learning teaching skills alongside librarians. Quinn, a librarian, observed that "not all librarians are instruction librarians." Quinn's statements about the different areas of librarianship echo the findings of studies in the literature review. Although teaching is part of approximately 97% of reference librarian job postings (Julien et al., 2018; Saunders, 2015), only 49% of librarian job postings in all categories include teaching (Julien et al., 2018). Quinn added, "our library director…says it's important…that we all take part in teaching within the [first-year program] because not all our librarians are instruction librarians. But we do all help teach these courses," because "even if maybe teaching feels a bit uncomfortable for them, it's a way for them to stay connected with the students." The vast range of teaching experience and teaching

identity among the librarians in this study complements other studies investigating teacher

identity (Becksford, 2022; Kirker, 2022; Nichols Hess, 2020). Table 2 shows the prior teaching

job experiences and educator training experiences of writing instructors and librarians.

Table 2

Participant Teaching Experience and Education

Participant	Role	Prior teaching experience and education
Alex	Librarian	Teaching abroad
Chris	Librarian	Library science program: electives related to instruction
Ellis	Library administrator	Graduate school (English)
Leslie	Librarian	None
Quinn	Librarian	BA in education; MA in education (requirement for school librarian); teaching abroad
Riley	Librarian	None
Sam	Librarian	One course in teaching (due to a brief time in school librarian program)
Blake	Writing instructor	Teaching ESL, non-native speakers
Brook	Writing instructor	Graduate school
Gracen	Writing Program Administrator	Graduate School
Jordan	Writing instructor	High school teaching, Master of Arts in Teaching
Kai	Writing instructor*	Previous job teaching writing at university level; graduate school
Peyton	Writing instructor	High school teaching, graduate school
Taylor	Writing instructor	Previous job teaching, graduate school

*Participant is a graduate student and the instructor of record in a first-year college writing

course.

Two librarians, Leslie and Riley, did not identify previous experience or education in teaching,

but both described their affinity for teaching and how they learned teaching after they started

their positions as librarians. Their experiences demonstrated that two decades later, Elmborg's (2003) assessment of library teaching experience and education – occurring on the job and after their formal library science education – still applies. The researcher agreed that her library science program did not make pedagogy a priority. Yet, her first professional academic librarian position involved teaching. She believed her public speaking ability – rather than her teaching knowledge or skill – was a factor enabling her to obtain her first academic librarian job. Sam, a librarian, described initial attempts at library instruction:

> I really wasn't teaching students how to find these resources on their own, or any of these kind of larger information literacy skills, like matching your information source, like to the information that you need. I was just like, "This is how you use the library, this is how you use the catalog." It was very routine and skills-based rather than concept-based.

At the same time, Sam recalled, "I remember feeling bad about the fact that that left no room for student interaction or input, but not seeing any other way to do it." Blake admitted, "It's very easy for us as instructors – I mean, including librarians here – to rely on talking at people, and even with the best intentions, we spend a lot more time talking at" students rather than making efforts to teach in an engaging way. Taylor, a writing instructor, said of less successful librarian instruction sessions: they "fall a bit flat." Instead, Taylor wondered if the instruction sessions could be more like "a living thing" and more relevant to an assignment. Blake, similarly, said that in less successful instruction sessions, librarians seemed as if they were "checking a box." Taylor and Gracen, both writing instructors, acknowledged that every teacher has had a bad teaching session. Gracen, therefore, was more inclined to remediate a librarians' poor instruction session by making additional comments after the librarian was finished: "You know, even in the midst of the session…I would make a list as he was talking. And then I would…fill in the gaps."

Others, however, were more reluctant to invite a librarian back into the classroom after a less successful instruction session. Kai, a writing instructor, described one such session:

> This librarian just wasn't a good teacher. Like, I don't think they felt comfortable standing up and talking in front of students. I don't think that that was a thing that they were used to being asked to do in their job. And so…despite my efforts to…collaborate and communicate, it wound up being…a boring class for my students and so I didn't go back to that librarian because I just didn't want that to be my students' impression. Like, there was nothing really wrong with it…they explained the databases that they could use or whatever, but…it was such night and day from what I knew I could get from other librarians, that I was like, "Nope, we're not doing that again."

Peyton, a writing instructor, described having similar reservations, saying some of the librarians "were not the best public speakers" and who "felt awkward and maybe didn't know how to communicate with students." Therefore, Peyton said, "I'm not sure if I would ask this person to do this again." Chris, a librarian, expressed frustration that a writing instructor appeared to lack confidence in Chris's teaching abilities, stating, "Actually, teaching is my job and this is my discipline." The researcher has experienced both scenarios in her career. She appreciated when course instructors gave advice on improving teaching, and she also heard course instructors who expressed reluctance to bring back a librarian if the session went poorly or if the librarian was not a good fit with the instructor.

A Spectrum of Collaboration

Based on characteristics derived from the participant responses and subsequent theming and coding of interview transcripts, the researcher grouped participant responses into three distinct categories that described a spectrum of collaboration. Participant responses reflected

both a specific category of collaboration with their institution counterpart for this study and

occasionally described a different category of collaboration with another institutional colleague.

Collaboration activities could also change over time, so a collaboration category may change

accordingly. Although there are systematic elements that could make collaboration easier, a

systematic or structured approach did not automatically result in rich collaborations. Indeed,

interpersonal relationships influenced participants' category of collaboration more than structure

did. Table 3 shows three categories of collaboration and some defining characteristics.

Participants demonstrating categories of collaboration described one or more of the

characteristics, but all characteristics did not need to be present.

Regardless of which category participants described, several expressed a desire to move

beyond a basic or traditional library session, which might properly be identified as a

bibliographic instruction session rather than an information literacy instruction session, as

described in Chapter II (Ariew, 2014). A bibliographic instruction session was one in which the

instructor's focus was skills, whereas in an information literacy session, the instructor focused on

problem-solving. Participants described basic bibliographic session characteristics in several

different ways: Brook, a writing instructor, and Ellis, a librarian, both used the term "point and

click." Blake, a writing instructor, felt the sessions could feel like "checking a box" or were

"generic." Brook, a writing instructor, noticed a librarian used a "canned" search rather than

demonstrating the trial and error it took to get such a precise search. Kai, a writing instructor

described the session as basic or traditional or "info dump." Jordan, a writing instructor, said this

type of session was merely "showing where the databases are." Sam, a librarian, said she would

use a digital library guide to point out various links, but would not consider it teaching. Chris, a

librarian, noted that an instructor might request a session that was focused on the small details of

citation mechanics. The researcher has observed – and even taught – these kinds of sessions and has expressed a similar desire to develop sessions that are more engaging to librarian, instructor, and students.

Table 3

Collaboration Categories and Characteristics

Category	Collaboration characteristics
Emerging	May not yet have a class session prepared or may still be experimenting with strategies for teaching
	Relationship building
	Sharing documents, learning about each other
	3-5 years to fully establish
Expected	1-3 sessions
	Instructor longevity may be a factor
	Documentation (often with librarian and writing instructor contributions)
	Assignment/course design
	Integration
Expansive	3+ sessions
	Co-teaching in a session
	Extend to other scholarly efforts: conference presentations, article writing, grant writing

Collaboration Category One: Emerging. In the Emerging category, librarians and writing instructors are working toward at least one information literacy session for a class, but they have not yet solidified their plans to the participants' satisfaction. The Emerging category involves relationship-building, conversation, and negotiating shared documents. Each party must have enthusiasm, trust-building, and buy-in to successfully collaborate.

Gracen, a writing instructor, and Ellis, a librarian, reported development stages lasting up to five years before they felt established, while Sam, a librarian, talked about the ways a session

or assignment had been adjusted over the course of three years. The researcher also remembered the beginning of a collaboration with a writing instructor. Because there were no set expectations, the researcher encouraged the writing instructor to think about when and how often to use librarian instruction in the classroom.

Sam, a librarian, also described collaboration as something that only began to be important after establishing relationships with course instructors. At the beginning of Sam's career as an instruction librarian:

> I barely even took the time to find out what the assignment was. I would just kind of come in and do my set routine. And if I remember correctly, the main reason that I started shifting was...[becoming] friends with the [course instructors] ... outside of the workplace and just being able to go out with and talk about work in a more informal setting.

Sam said those informal conversations "helped me be a little bit more thoughtful about what I was doing." This researcher has found this to be true in her own experience working with course instructors; however, the researcher also has had personal relationships with course instructors that did not lead to more productive collaborations. Some of the aforementioned characteristics that hinder collaboration still applied. For instance, despite the researcher's personal relationship with a course instructor, the course instructor declined the researcher's offer of library instruction. Although the course instructor did not provide a reason for declining, the researcher speculated three probable reasons, each of which has been discussed in literature about collaborations: lack of time, a misunderstanding of what the librarian could do, or a previous negative experience with another librarian (Baer, 2016; Saunders & Corning, 2020; Whearty et al., 2017).

Riley, a librarian, classified collaboration with the writing instructor: "I don't think we're quite there yet," and described ways they were working toward a more formalized collaboration, including sharing documents and learning from each other. Peyton, a writing instructor, brainstormed ways to facilitate collaboration and suggested writing instructors should ensure their students are prepared for an instruction session with the librarian by familiarizing them with the assignment ahead of time. Peyton's suggestion reflected some of the previously discussed hallmarks of good collaboration. As previously noted in Chapter III, there are fewer responses demonstrating an Emerging category of collaboration because a limiting factor could be prospective participants opting not to apply to participate because they did not feel the collaborations were fully developed.

Collaboration Category Two: Expected. Category two described those institutions in which there was an expectation that writing instructors and librarians would collaborate in the first-year college writing context, usually for a minimum of one session. Some of the structured collaborations have been extant for years, even decades. Chris, a librarian, said the "collaboration has been in existence almost for longer than I have." Ellis, a librarian, said

> [There] was already some really well-established collaboration between librarians [and the first-year writing program]. So one of the librarians who was already here had worked with the program kind of from the ground up to guarantee that information literacy would be part of it. And faculty teaching in the program were divided up among the research and instruction librarians…we each had…partners we worked with for the semester…That structure really shaped my approach to collaboration, because from day one, it was like, these are your partners for the semester working in this fundamental

course, you know? And so there was immediately a pattern that developed of saying,
"OK, these are the people I'm working with this semester, so I'm going to reach out to
them."

Brook, a writing instructor, said, "one of the tenets of [the writing program] was a
collaboration with the libraries." Gracen, a writing instructor, described the initial planning for a
new collaboration:

> [I] worked with a librarian to set up the connection between college composition classes
> and the library…[we talked] through what we do in the classroom and then how the
> library piece could fit in with it, so…there would be that connection made…it's not
> different from, but it's part of [the writing program]…we could…weave it together to
> make it work.

Additionally, Gracen said, "The librarians and I worked together with creating a structure, a
pedagogical approach" in addition to collaborating on an assignment and worksheet.

In most cases, category two collaborations involved a librarian working with students for
at least one class session, though participants talked about adding more sessions as appropriate.
Quinn, a librarian, said, "We have a library session in every first-year program, their first
semester writing course…it's in their documentation as an essential component to have a library
session…then a follow-up assignment using what was learned in the library session." Ellis, a
librarian, felt the collaborations were so established that there is no longer a specific requirement
for the number of sessions anymore:

> It's not explicit anymore about how many times the class meets with the librarian, and it
> used to be, but we actually loosened it up a little bit because…from my standpoint in the
> library, I can say I felt like it was integrated enough into the program at that point that we

could be [flexible] as long as we specified that they did have to meet with a librarian, that it was still a required part of the class. We no longer had to dictate how many times because we were well enough integrated with the program that we could sort of work it out more effectively from one class to the next to make it work effectively.

In contrast to category one collaborations, much of the communication in category two collaborations was about coordinating class sessions and trying out new ideas rather than establishing a mutually respectful relationship. Alex observed:

every class has a librarian partner…so we're sort of embedded in the course. We're usually on the syllabus so that they can reach out…with questions. And we come in anywhere from one to three times during the semester to teach on various topics. So the collaboration is made a little easier in that sense, in that like I'm not actively working to form relationships to get into the classroom. That's already been done for me, which is the hardest part.

Similarly, Taylor, a writing instructor, said the "librarian was in my class actually this week just giving a preview of the class." Brook, a writing instructor, said

I talk about [the librarian] in class all the time. Somebody has a question. I say, "OK, well, jot that down so that when we go to see [the librarian], she'll be able to answer it." And she's going to send a message out at the end of this week saying, you know, "Looking forward to seeing you on Tuesday." So it's just part of…integrating her into the classroom community.

The structure and expectations of their institutions helped writing instructors and librarians fast-track their collaborations. Quinn said,

That groundwork [of expecting collaboration] was already laid. We already had a curriculum mapped through. And so it's really opened up other doors for us and of faculty sending their students to us because they know what we can help with.

Taylor, a writing instructor, stated collaboration was "just part of the expectation of the program," and the program included regular meetings and professional development opportunities involving librarians and writing instructors. Jordan, a writing instructor, said, "Our librarians have helped create the part of the 'playbook' that gives ideas about how to achieve the learning objectives." The playbook included teaching tips from writing instructor and librarian perspectives.

An established and programmatic collaboration between first-year research writing instructors and librarians may have additional benefits, such as regular meetings and professional development opportunities. Kai, a writing instructor, worked with the librarian counterpart to "come in and…co-[teach] a workshop" to other writing instructors. Quinn, a librarian, said "all of the course instructors in first year program have monthly lunch and learns" that Quinn also attends.

However, an expectation of collaboration did not always translate to a rich collaborative experience. This finding corresponds to Lockhart (2017), who indicated a requirement to collaborate does not always produce effective collaborations. For example, Alex, a librarian, said:

The level of collaboration has really varied depending on the instructor that I'm working with. Sometimes they sort of are just like, "Here's what I want you to cover. And these

two times." OK, cool. Sometimes it's like they're asking me… "What do you want to

do?" And then I'm sort of setting the agenda.

Collaboration with the same partner over time may help build this relationship, Alex added

regarding the writing instructor counterpart for this study: "We're both a lot more comfortable

collaborating with each other." The concept of partnership was reflected in other participant

responses and supported by Perez-Stable et al. (2020). One example of this was Brook, a writing

instructor, who repeatedly referred to "partner" or "partnership" during the course of the

interviews. The presenter observed participants as they talked about their co-collaborators,

noting many participants spoke positively and warmly about them. They seemed to have respect

for each other's disciplinary contributions and genuinely like each other.

Ellis, a librarian, also noted how structure could take a basic collaboration to a deeper level:

So I benefited from a lot of structure, which I was then able to turn into one on one

relationships, which you can kind of go from there to…to make things even better. But

definitely it's – part of it is just the good fortune of walking into an established program.

When the researcher asked how writing instructors and librarians approach collaboration,

they described varying levels of involvement. Taylor, a writing instructor, noted the librarians

"design [instruction sessions] based on what they know about our curriculum." Quinn, a

librarian, said, "[librarians] might reach out ahead of time and maybe ask [the writing

instructors] for some assignment details or if there's anything specific they want us to go for,"

Quinn added that during the librarian-led session, writing instructors were "expected to be there

and often pop in with course or assignment connections." Brook, a writing instructor, said, "[the

librarian] and I meet early in the semester and map everything out." Jordan, a writing instructor,

started with asking, "'What kinds of objectives do I have?' And then the librarian usually

suggests ways of approaching that [objective]." Kai, a writing instructor, described the collaborative process:

> So we…sat down together and talked for an hour about…[the] research assignment in my class and like, the ideas that I had for…the kinds of things students might be researching…And so we kind of came up with…a collaborative lesson plan together that was a little bit different from your normal…tour of the databases info-dump library session.

Ellis, a librarian, described the collaborative process with a writing instructor:

> And so I think the best collaborations we've had have been when we kind of sit down together and she has her assignments and I kind of have my information literacy ideas, and we sort of map out together what our students are going to do during the class period

Ellis also noted that collaboration involved determining each person's role in the process:

> how is she going to lead them to that class period in the class periods before? And then what assignment? What do they have to bring to the next class period to follow up? …we talk about…integrating it into her class…I can't count the number of times that we've had…a shared Google Doc where we're both kind of typing on it or one of us starts it and then the other one edits. And then…on the Google Doc, from our separate offices, [we] are kind of working on this until we have something that we agree that we can use. And then that turns into…the in-class exercise, but it's often also the exercise that tells them, "This is what you do for the next class period, and this is how we're following up"…when the two of us are collaborating really well…[there is] lots of communication…lots of integration, rather than seeing it as a single isolated class period and often just like shared documents until we're both happy with what we see.

A factor that may have helped sustain expected collaborations for some participants was instructor and librarian longevity. Brook, a writing instructor, Ellis, a librarian, Gracen, a writing instructor, and Quinn, a librarian, each noted that there were one or more people who worked on developing the initial structure of the collaboration and had worked to nurture that collaboration over the years.

Collaboration Category Three: Expansive. The third category of collaboration may occur outside of or in addition to a structured first-year college writing program. Expansive collaboration characteristics included collaborating on assignment design and shared documents, but some collaborations expanded into collaborative course design in which the information literacy concepts and the librarian's teaching was embedded into the course at multiple points. Blake, a writing instructor, said, "Yeah, I would say usually librarians are in my classroom, minimum of twice a semester, but up to maybe four times depending on which projects I'm teaching," and Kai, a writing instructor, noted, "I think that students can tell the difference when something's been…meaningfully integrated into their course." Sam, a librarian, reflected on the holistic approach the writing instructor took to information literacy instruction in the first-year writing classroom:

> she even kind of shifted her whole syllabus around to accommodate that new kind of
> working relationship. So she…moved dates around for when the [librarians'] materials
> would be due. And when [the librarians] would come visit and she also…made [the
> instruction session] mandatory. So she built it into her grading process, where students
> had to demonstrate that, they actually viewed the materials

Leslie, a librarian, described a session with the writing instructor in which the librarian and writing instructor each picked a source related to a relevant topic. Then they presented the source

to the class, the class voted on the best source, and they discussed ways to determine whether a source was credible or not. Students said they had a much better understanding of how it worked. Leslie also described the writing instructor's approach to determining what will be covered in an instruction session:

> She's reached out to me with a really intentional idea…"My students are gonna be working on research. I want them to…do X. Let's brainstorm possibilities." And the sessions have been really collaborative and I've had a good sense coming in of what she's doing in the class so that I could tie it together.

Notably, participants describing category three collaborations referred to some of the sessions as co-teaching. Kai, a writing instructor, observed

> I think it starts to gel for students, when there's…a legitimately co-taught session with a library instructor where…some of that [interdisciplinary vocabulary] translation can happen live, right? So [a librarian] talking about a concept then…as [a writing] instructor, it's my job to…look for those opportunities to connect it back to things we've been doing in our class…doing that real kind of collaboration. And I think that's exciting for students who [are able] to see…smart people working together and having different perspectives and ways of describing things.

Both Jordan and Kai, writing instructors, used the term co-teaching when referring to their librarian counterparts. Jordan also said, "I think it would be great if I could co-teach with an instructional librarian and have them more actively involved in my class." At the same time, both participants discussed the institutional and departmental structures that can impede interdisciplinary co-teaching.

Finally, expansive collaborations involved activities such as co-presenting at conferences, writing articles, and writing internal and external grants. Brook, a writing instructor, noted, "There were a couple of conferences I went to with different librarians and people were always like, 'Wow, this is such a cool collaboration.' And they wanted to hear more about it." However, Brook also lamented that "changing labor conditions" meant conference presentations and interdisciplinary scholarship were things they had to give up. Blake, a writing instructor, said, "My colleague and I, the librarian that [I] work most closely with, she and I applied for an award specifically, on...using library instruction…in a classroom." Kai, a writing instructor, likewise, worked with colleagues and "got a grant to do some research and teacher inquiry work around writing information literacy," which involved "collaborative work around…rethinking the ways that we teach information literacy in first year writing." The researcher and colleagues have co-presented with a writing instructor at a writing conference and have proposed presentations at librarian conferences.

Findings about the collaboration spectrum demonstrated the diversity of experiences and methods for writing instructors and librarians to work with each other in first-year college writing courses. Understanding the characteristics of successful and less successful collaborations provided context for understanding the categories of collaboration. Emerging collaborations relied on planning on relationship-building as a solid foundation. Expected collaborations maximized structure to encourage librarians and writing instructors to work together; however, structure alone did not guarantee good collaboration. Participants in expansive collaborations demonstrated the power of creativity and strong relationships. Because the study was examining lived experiences, none of participants' collaboration examples were

intended to be a blueprint; however, the anecdotes may provide inspiration and ideas for others who want to collaborate.

Findings From Research Question Two: Developing Potential of Shared Frameworks

The researcher discovered that sharing of frameworks was less common than she assumed or expected. Additionally, organic sharing of disciplinary frameworks often occurred in small increments and on a "need to know" basis. Participants from two institutions reported exploring each other's frameworks as part of an application process for a grant or award. These participants demonstrated how sharing frameworks enriched their approaches to teaching students in first-year college writing courses. Regardless of their prior knowledge of either the librarian framework (ACRL Framework) or the writing frameworks (WPA Framework and WPA Outcomes), participants noticed the common elements among them when they had a chance to review the documents. Before the second interview, the researcher emailed three documents for each participant to review: The Association of College & Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework), the Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (WPA Framework) and the Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition (WPA Outcomes). Participants who reviewed the ACRL Framework and the WPA Framework and WPA Outcomes found common themes to use for discussion about information literacy and writing in the first-year college writing classroom. Table 4 shows a cross-referenced list of the concepts among the three documents that participants identified as connected or overlapping. As noted in Chapter II, Grettano and Witek (2016) created a similar comparison chart.

Table 4

Comparison of Common Elements of Frameworks and Participant References

ACRL Framework	WPA Framework	WPA Outcomes	Participant references/roles
Research as inquiry	Reading, writing, critical analysis	Critical Thinking, Reading, Composing	Ellis (L), Jordan (WI), Quinn (L)
Information creation as a process	Curiosity; openness; creativity; persistence; flexibility; developing flexible writing processes	processes	Jordan (WI), Kai (WI), Leslie (L), Quinn (L)
Scholarship as conversation	Rhetorical; critical thinking	Critical thinking, reading, composing (not explicit)	Alex (L), Ellis (L), Jordan (WI), Kai (WI), Leslie (L)
	Critical thinking; knowledge of conventions (genre & context)	Critical thinking; knowledge of conventions (genre & context)	Jordan (WI), Leslie (L), Peyton (WI), Sam (L)
Authority is constructed & contextual (rhetorical influences)	Credibility (under critical thinking); rhetorical	Credibility (under critical thinking); rhetorical	Ellis (L), Jordan (WI), Kai (WI), Leslie (L)
Introduction	metacognition	metacognition	Jordan (WI)
Searching as strategic exploration			Kai (WI), Brook (WI)

Note: Participant mentions and role (L for librarian, WI for Writing Instructor)

Participants from two institutions demonstrated a clear understanding of each other's

frameworks and vocabularies. In each of these cases, participants sought out opportunities to

share knowledge, one through an internal grant application process and the other through a

professional organization. Sam, a librarian, was surprised to discover that the writing instructor who proposed the application for an award was already familiar with the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework (ACRL Framework):

> I almost feel like everything that I would tell her she already has researched and knows about because she approached me about writing an award together. [She said,] "Yeah, I think that we can incorporate the ACRL Framework and I was like, "How do you know about the ACRL?"

Sam, in reviewing the Writing Program Administrators Framework (WPA Framework) and Writing Program Administrators Outcomes (WPA Outcomes), noted the common elements and shared goals of writing instructors and librarians: "that whole middle section – the critical thinking, reading, and composing – just feel like [librarians and writing instructors are] completely on the same page there of learning objectives for students." Sam also observed that librarian knowledge of writing instructor frameworks enabled librarians to "speak their language and address them in terms that they're already familiar with." Similarly, Blake, a writing instructor, noticed common goals and purpose when reviewing the ACRL Framework: "At least looking at the ACRL Framework…Oh my gosh, they're all like, this is all relevant for what we're talking about." Blake also commented about the content of first-year college writing classes and its relationship to librarians and information literacy:

> Mostly what I do is the research and writing process…and when [the librarian] comes in [and says]…"Research is recursive, and it's cyclical and…you start here and you go back," I mean, it's the exact same thing I'm telling them about the writing process.

Kai, a writing instructor noted improved student work as a benefit of framing writing and research as a recursive approach, saying, "[students] are automatically doing both processes [writing and finding sources] better, more nuanced, when they're more integrated.".

Kai also said information literacy was a topic of conversation among other writing instructors:

> But I think that especially in our first-year writing program, were talking about information literacy all the time…and I think that especially among my graduate student colleagues, it's actually one of the issues that I hear people…talking about most in their teaching is…how to teach research…Because I think it's one of the things that people often confront when they're new teachers…you think it's gonna be an easy thing to teach, but [it is a]…massively complex…thing you are trying to help students figure out how to do.

Kai added, "I mean, a lot of those frameworks documents reflect, the sort of general idea of…all of this stuff is a process and all of this stuff is more complicated than it seems."

Working on a grant-funded information literacy project helped Kai fully understand the overlapping goals of librarians and writing instructors: "When we were doing this info literacy project, we found that many of the sort of goals that the libraries had around information literacy were also really good articulations of…what we're trying to teach in our classes." Kai further described those overlapping goals:

> I think the whole idea of…writing as a conversation…comes up all the time [as a] metaphor in comp as a field. But it's also one that I think is really compatible with information literacy in terms of, you know, thinking about who gets a seat at the table or…who we want to have in a conversation. Lately, I've been thinking a little bit more

about…asking my students to…curate the conversation or think about what voices they

want to privilege, things like that as we're trying to think about…what types of

knowledge we value, what things we might overlook, whether there are certain

perspectives that we might actually actively make a choice to exclude from the

conversation for different reasons.

Kai identified some concepts that corresponded to one of the six major ACRL frames (and those

may overlap with WPA): scholarship as conversation, authority is constructed and contextual,

and information has value.

More important than merely recognizing the connections between what librarians do and

what writing instructors do, Kai talked about how this might help improve teaching:

And when I first saw this, I was like, "Wow, these – especially the big questions and

frames – were really valuable and that they helped give me as a teacher language for

some things that I'd been…working on in my classes with my students around

information literacy. But because…I don't read as much scholarship about information

literacy, I don't think I had [a] link for it because more of the scholarship that I read is

around writing pedagogy. But this was like, really intuitive feeling language that it could

adopt, which was really cool.

Kai went on to describe how understanding of ACRL Framework changed the way Kai thought

about developing assignments:

[The ACRL frames are] really useful to me in thinking about…how to craft an

assignment or…even what to do in an individual…class period. So, if my goal is for my

students to exhibit curiosity, then that says some things about how I'm gonna lay out their

research project, right? Or if my goal is for them to view research as a process, then I'd

better not just have one research day and expect all their research to be done after that,

right?…There needs to be multiple stages, just like I would for writing.

In a similar theme, Brook, a writing instructor, reflected on the value of a librarian demonstrating a database search strategy that was complicated, noting that if students only saw the librarian conducting a carefully constructed search, they became frustrated when their own searches were more complicated. Though Brook did not explicitly reference the ACRL Frame of "Searching as Strategic Exploration," the anecdote was a good example of the iterative nature of searching for information. A librarian conducting a database search in which there is some degree of trial and error can connect this concept to the ACRL frame as well as the concepts of process in the WPA documents. The researcher talked about the ways she used unsuccessful searches to help illustrate the ways similar search terms can produce different results, along with tips on how to find better sources. Viewing the search process as iterative could help alleviate concerns that Kai, a writing instructor, expressed about finding ways to use Searching as Strategic Exploration:

In the context of a first-year writing classroom, I think the one that I would expect the most hiccups around… [is]searching a strategic exploration. Because often, the way that you conceive of a writing assignment doesn't leave as much space for that…If searching is going to be like a more iterative process with more steps, then it means that process has to be built into the way you conceive of a writing assignment, but…I think sometimes the research gets to be a little bit of an afterthought.

Kai also discussed the work the writing instructors and librarians did together during the grant-funded project:

We clustered around…outcomes which were hybrids of the [ACRL and WPA] frameworks. One was the idea of like, authority being constructed and contextual [from

the ACRL Framework] and I think we tied that a little bit into ideas of like social justice

and whose voices are heard things like that in different communities or…who might have

the right to speak on certain issues [ACRL Framework, WPA Framework, WPA

Outcomes]. And then the other one, we looked at was the citing as communication

[ACRL Framework] and…citation as a conversation too [ACRL Framework].

Leslie, a librarian, listed the goals librarians and writing instructors have in common:

developing critical/savvy information users and citizens [ACRL Framework, WPA Framework,

WPA Outcomes], developing curiosity [WPA Framework], and scholarship as conversation

[ACRL Framework, WPA Framework, WPA Outcomes]. Despite these common goals, the

language of writing and the language of librarians is still different. Leslie described a scenario in

which a writing instructor helped Leslie relate better to students through language:

> [I] had the language of…Authority is Constructed and Contextual [from the ACRL
>
> Framework] in my mind, I think, so I kept referring in class, as I was talking with
>
> students…to authority, authority, authority…and the writing instructor was like, "I think,
>
> you know, try credibility," like she was sensing that…[the concept of authority] was just
>
> not resonating with students and so I was like, "Okay, that's interesting."… So yeah
>
> trying to…pay attention…and to learn from [writing instructors] on the language that
>
> they're using…with their students that they think resonates the most…is something that I
>
> think about, too.

At two institutions, knowledge of a framework was mostly one-sided. Brook, a writing

instructor and Alex, a librarian, both referenced the BEAM method (Background, Evidence,

Argument, Method) (Bizup, 2008) of teaching research writing. Alex noted a common element

in writing instruction and information literacy instruction, which BEAM helps illustrate:

"different types of sources can accomplish different things," and added that "the skills [librarians] were trying to pass on to students are in line with…[writing instructors'] priorities." Brook, a writing instructor, said, "BEAM works nicely, particularly in terms of…situating yourself in the conversation and then with the application of the disciplinary lens" to help students understand that sources may be used for different purposes, and sources vary from discipline to discipline. The researcher and Brook talked about the benefit of BEAM as a bridge between writing and information literacy. The researcher has also been part of conversations between a writing instructor and her librarian colleagues to consider using BEAM as part of an assignment in the first-year college writing course to help students better understand and evaluate sources. Riley, a librarian, focused primarily on the ACRL Framework and on making the ACRL frames more understandable and memorable for both students and course instructors:

> Basically what I did was I just rewrote the [ACRL Framework] in the sense of…I just gave each one of the frames and a new title and it's a custom word…All that was based on the fact that if I really want to make sure that this is…what I base everything on and this is what I'm telling other teaching faculty, that this is what we're doing, I need them to be able to have it stuck in their head.

Librarian participants were more likely than their writing instructor counterparts to be familiar with their disciplinary framework (the ACRL Framework) prior to the second interview, and in many cases, they incorporated elements of the ACRL Framework into their documents and practice. Riley and Ellis, both librarians, each noted that the ACRL Framework is the "national standard" for information literacy. Ellis, a librarian, said the ACRL Framework concepts are written into the institution's internal guiding documents for the first-year writing program, and Ellis "[brought] portions of the [ACRL Framework] to some of [the first-year

writing program meetings] to just talk to the faculty about [the ACRL Frameworks]" and their meaning. Ellis believed talking about the ACRL Framework was important "just to be sure that people know something about where things are going in this field, and where some of the suggestions that we in the library are making, are coming from." Ellis also advocated for continued conversation between librarians and writing instructors: "I mean, not just informal conversation and collaboration, which is always wonderful, but conversation about actual national standards and documents and outcomes and sharing those across the fields, just that it's reinforced that it's important and valuable, right?" Quinn, a librarian, said that although the guiding documents are influenced by the ACRL Framework and available for anyone to read, Quinn viewed the documents as "more for [librarians] on our end." Similarly, Chris, a librarian, used concepts from the ACRL Framework, such as "scholarship as conversation" and "research as inquiry" but reworded them because the ACRL Framework was "very narrow disciplinary verbiage" that could impede both student understanding and collaboration with course instructors. Jordan, a writing instructor, said, "I was introduced to [the ACRL Framework] before by our librarians. So just an understanding of [the ACRL Framework] was really interesting because there's a definite overlap between the disciplines."

Writing instructors also referenced information literacy concepts without necessarily identifying them as information literacy, and Chris, Ellis, and Riley, librarians, talked about the varied definitions and interpretations of information literacy. The researcher has encountered various course instructors who said they did not really understand the concept, even as they may have been teaching the basic principles in their courses. Riley said of a writing instructor: "the [writing instructor] might not have used [information literacy], but that was certainly evident in how [the writing instructor] spoke to our students and what she wanted to see from them."

Jordan, a writing instructor, described information literacy as "critical thinking…in action." The varying perspectives and comfort regarding the term information literacy has been discussed in the literature (Baird & Soares, 2020; Becker et al., 2022; Whearty et al., 2017).

Writing instructors were more likely to relate to the general concepts of the Writing Program Administrators Framework and Outcomes (WPA Framework and WPA Outcomes), even if they had not used the WPA Framework or WPA Outcomes before. Taylor and Gracen, writing instructors, discussed using latest scholarship and learning writing concepts at conferences, though neither referenced any sort of framework or standard. Two participants named specific textbooks they use in writing courses. Gracen, a writing instructor said: "we mainly have used the *St. Martin's Handbook*." Kai, a writing instructor, said: "We were teaching off of *They Say, I Say*…a pretty common comp textbook." Although neither mentioning a standard nor a textbook, Taylor, a writing instructor, summarized the goals of a first-year writing class in this way: "[students] argue their own thesis and engage with the scholars, be able to represent them fairly and be able to put them in conversation with one another," concepts that are used in both ACRL and WPA Frameworks. Ellis, a librarian, taught composition classes before the WPA Framework and WPA Outcomes were released. Jordan, a writing instructor, also said, "I hadn't seen [the WPA Framework] before." Other writing instructors who have 11-20 or 20+ years of experience in the field started their careers as writing instructors before the WPA Framework and Outcomes were released, so they were less likely to be aware of them. However, the principles in the WPA Framework and Outcomes are not unique; similar principles may be found in other writing instruction texts. Therefore, writing instructors with 11-20 and 20+ years of experience recognized and often used the same principles as the WPA documents in their teaching.

Librarians also noted the ways the disciplinary language must be translated for others outside the discipline to understand and embrace it. Ellis, a librarian, suggested that instead of starting by talking about the ACRL Framework, librarians should start by referring to the WPA Framework and WPA Outcomes, saying, "[The ACRL Framework is] another slightly different way of framing…[information literacy and writing] concept[s]. So maybe borrowing some of that language from the composition documents to help talk to [writing instructors], to give some context" would help bridge that disciplinary gap. Quinn, a librarian, said the librarians developed a guiding document with the ACRL Framework in mind, "But at the same time, we wanted things that were kind of more tangibly taught than some of the [ACRL] Framework, how they're written." Alex, a librarian, said, "I was just talking to somebody and they were like, basically [librarians] need the actual [ACRL] Framework" and faculty need a translated version of the ACRL Framework, adding

> [an ACRL frame] I feel that people can grab onto really quickly is the scholarship as conversation…So I use that one more than anything just because…it's a quick grab and you can make that connection and they'll be like, "Oh yeah, we do the same thing."

Alex, a librarian, also expressed frustration that the ACRL Framework must be translated: "I think that's what's frustrating for me is like any time I feel like I have to translate something for someone else, I wish it had been that way in the first place."

Participants connected the ACRL Framework frames, "information creation as a process" and "research as inquiry" to the WPA Framework habits of mind of creativity and persistence (Quinn, librarian).

Jordan, a writing instructor, noted the connections between skills librarians teach and the habits of mind that the WPA Framework lists:

> reading the [WPA Framework] habits of mind and I really liked it. …I put down the topic selection and creativity with keywords, persistence with researching…[for example] go past the first page of Google results. But when you're researching, [you have] got to be a bit more patient.

Jordan further explained how the librarians and writing instructors made these connections:

> So the research as inquiry framework, you know, scholarship as conversation, those couple, I think, were referenced in the session that the librarians put, and that was part of our professional development series that I…facilitate…it's interesting to see if that sort of overlap, I mean, the dispositions in the framework for post-secondary writing especially. I was kind of curious to see because I hadn't seen those before. But there are a lot of those habits of mind dispositions that really align with what I was just saying…curiosity, openness…metacognition.

Jordan connected the concept of critical thinking that is in both the WPA Framework and Outcomes, to the ACRL Framework. Although the ACRL Framework does not specifically mention critical thinking in its primary frames, there is a footnote that links critical thinking to metaliteracy. Jordan noted that 'a big part of that critical thinking involves searching, searching for things…to develop your own ideas and then to be able to evaluate those kinds of things." Jordan continued, "I see those parts [information literacy and critical thinking] very much overlapping because I know that our instructional librarians are interested in those things, too."

Jordan went on to say:

> I was introduced to [the ACRL Framework] because…one of the key information literacy
>
> objectives for the first course in our first-year writing class is about…[students] using
>
> sources not to confirm what [they] already have concluded, but to try to come to a new
>
> understanding and to gain some sort of new alternative ways of thinking about [a topic].

Jordan also made the connection between the ACRL Framework and the rhetorical language in

both WPA documents: "I think the rhetorical emphasis in the writing side is really reflected in

the…'authority is constructed and contextual' framework." As previously discussed in Chapter

II, the ACRL Framework has been written with rhetoric in mind (Burkholder, 2019), and the

rhetorical perspective has been used to teach writing from sources (Kleinfeld & Wright, 2019;

Locklear & McNeilly, 2018; Rubick, 2015).

As they reviewed and compared the ACRL Framework, the WPA Framework, and the

WPA Outcomes, participants demonstrated the potential of understanding each other's

disciplinary motivations, negotiating vocabulary differences, and getting clarification when

something in one of the documents was confusing. The researcher was familiar with the ACRL

Framework but learned about the WPA Framework and Outcomes from a writing instructor

colleague. The researcher's librarian colleague and the writing instructor learned from each other

when they reviewed the frameworks. Each party better understood the other's perspective after

reviewing their disciplinary documents. Because of this experience, the researcher was surprised

that fewer writing instructors were familiar with the WPA Framework and WPA Outcomes.

However, disciplinary differences may help provide some context. The American Library

Association (ALA) is the primary accrediting body for library science programs, and although

there are other professional organizations for librarians, many have had similar ALA-accredited

educations. In addition, the Association of College and Research Libraries is a sub-group of the American Library Association and the developer of the ACRL Framework. There was more diversity of experiences among writing instructors, and they could come from a number of disciplines and sub-disciplines. For instance, some writing instructors were graduate students in literature programs; others had a more writing-focused graduate school experience. Moreover, the graduate schools did not have a common, discipline-specific accreditor. Some writing associations, such as the Writing Program Administrators, produced standards and guiding documents. Others, such as the Conference on College Composition and Communication, produced position statements, which were responses to current issues in the field. Two participants, Jordan, a writing instructor, and Ellis, a librarian, referenced a position statement on critiquing use of language in the context of justice issues. Writing instructors have a number of different options for guidance on how they teach writing, in addition to texts that address teaching writing. The researcher chose the WPA Framework and Outcomes because writing and information literacy articles and books have referenced them and demonstrated their compatibility with the ACRL Frameworks. Having common points of reference could be an important factor in helping writing instructors and librarians develop communities of practice to enhance collaboration. However, based on participant responses and the researcher's experience, sharing these frameworks will entail conversation between the two disciplines to negotiate and contextualize the nuances of vocabulary in the ACRL Framework, the WPA Framework, and the WPA Outcomes.

Findings From Research Question Three: Communities of Practice and Discourse Within and Between Disciplines

Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015) defined a community of practice as a group "engage[d] in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor" (para. 4). Because of its broad definition and as result of the recruitment process, librarians and writing instructors participating in the current study qualify as members of a community of practice by the nature of their interactions with each other. Closely related to the concept of community of practice is discourse community, which primarily differs in its definition by its focus on shared language to promote understanding (Swales, 2016). Communities of practice need not occur intentionally; therefore, this section included some instances in which colleagues learned from each other in the context of their everyday work. However, this section also included participant responses that described the creation of intentional communities of practice. Based on participant responses, the researcher identified two kinds of communities of practice: a community of practice among disciplinary peers (e.g., only librarians or only writing instructors) and a community of practice between librarians and writing instructors.

A community of practice among one's peers often occurred with very little effort, and it could be as simple as sharing instruction ideas with each other in a shared office, as Kai, a writing instructor did, or using a shared document to trade instruction tips, as Alex, a librarian, did. Geographic proximity was beneficial for both a community of practice among peers and with a community of practice between librarians and writing instructors. Jordan, a writing instructor, said having an office in the library has facilitated "a really good, close relationship" with librarians. Blake, a writing instructor, and Sam, a librarian, both referenced the ways they can easily connect with colleagues in the same building. Quinn, a librarian, said the writing

center director's office shares a wall with Quinn's. Kai, a writing instructor, described the

conversations that occur naturally because another graduate student shares the office: "The other

grad student, who I share an office with, we do a lot of...sharing of resources and stuff. So I'm

always aware of...what she's doing in her class." The researcher believed proximity was pivotal

in fostering productive conversations with a writing instructor because the writing instructor and

the researcher were in the same building, a learning commons, that housed many support

services for students. The learning commons planning process involved developing a philosophy

that encouraged collaborations between learning commons departments. The researcher observed

that although collaboration has continued since the writing instructor has moved to another

office, they missed the serendipitous hallway conversations that often result in sharing their

respective disciplinary knowledge with each other.

Communities of practice among peers can take the form of a mentoring relationship.

Quinn, a librarian, described a graduated approach to taking on a new instructional role:

So I was given one class to work with [during] my first semester, in the first year

program to get my feet on the ground, and then the next year I was in charge of it. And so

I [would] kind of follow along the first time and then take over.

Quinn extolled the benefits of this approach: "I was able to observe my colleagues and

then…pair it with my background knowledge" in addition to other professional development

opportunities. Chris spoke of a similar scaffolded approach during the first years of librarianship:

My colleagues, definitely, from the beginning they were very, open and very, very

encouraging. I watched the three who were the instructional services librarians at the

time…all three of them invited me to watch them teach. [They would] follow up and ask

questions and invited me to observe additional teaching if I wanted to. They made sure

that I felt like I was comfortable and ready.

Ellis, a librarian, described the mentoring that influenced teaching:

[I] was also just really influenced by some of the librarians I worked with in my first

years as a professional librarian who were able to help me kind of think about good ways

to collaborate with faculty, to develop classes, good ways to handle teaching when it's

just a single class period. So I had some good mentors early on.

Sam, a librarian, also spoke of an influential mentor:

I was lucky to have a really great co-worker. …we had the same title and he was later

career and he was really kind and kind of helped mentor me through that first year of

doing instruction, like teaching me how to reach out to other faculty to try to kind of like

"stump," you know, for your services and also just building the instruction.

In addition to this mentor, Sam talked about an entire support system: "viewing your

colleagues and other librarians as sources of support and people to learn from and people to lean

on." Although Riley spent some time as the only librarian at one institution, moving to a larger

institution enabled her to mentor others: "I was more the veteran." But Riley was also careful to

follow up that having more experience did not mean she could not learn from colleagues.

Participants also described the benefit of graduate student cohorts. Peyton, a writing instructor,

recalled the camaraderie of a group of graduate students:

So there's a lot of collaboration with fellow new teachers. And then they put us in training

with people that have been doing it for a few years. …it was basically like people that had been

doing it for a while, sharing what they did with us.

Jordan, a writing instructor, said that graduate school offered seminars in working with librarians:

I think [the seminars] addressed…best practices in collaborating with library partners. So, yeah, I think that sort of was pretty fundamental. Then planting a seed about using those sessions, not as standalone introductions or scavenger hunt, but more opportunities to continue the…critical thinking and practice that I'm trying to do in my class.

Brook, a writing instructor, also noted the ways experienced instructors influenced how Brook thought about teaching:

The way that [my writing colleagues] talk about source use and integrating sources into first year writing, that really kind of changed my approach to teaching because I kind of was able to get students to think…in a more complicated way about how to use sources [than students used sources in high school].

Another example of a community of practice among peers is a shared Google Doc, explained Alex, a librarian:

[Librarians use a] shared Google Drive for instruction resources for the librarians at our institution to share resources with each other that we used in teaching. And that has been really helpful and thinking and helping me to rethink my instruction and the way that I work with these classes…just seeing the way the other librarians do it.

A community of practice among peers may extend beyond one's institution and may include professional organizations. Gracen, a writing instructor, said that in addition to learning from colleagues in a local context,

With the writing center community, I've attended many of their conferences. …and they are very generous in their willingness to talk about pedagogy. And if they come up with something new, they share it or they have had success with something, they share it.

Thirteen of 14 participants noted an instance in which they had learned from their institutional counterpart. Librarians, including the researcher, often hear a variation of this statement from course instructors: "I always learn something" in a library instruction session. Quinn, Leslie, and Chris, librarians, reported that course instructors have said a variant of the previous statement. Chris added that instruction sessions can help both students and writing instructors: "…I like that [a] little light bulb goes on…all the way in the back row to the writing instructor." Jordan, Taylor, and Peyton, writing instructors, echoed similar sentiments. Jordan goes one step further, naming a specific concept librarians taught: lateral reading as a means to evaluate sources. Lateral reading has been proposed as an effective way to help students better evaluate the information they find online (Addy, 2020; Elmwood, 2020; Jankowski et al., 2018; Russo et al., 2019). Peyton also listed a few concepts that librarians helped explain, including increased exposure to research databases outside the literature discipline: "I didn't really know about any [databases] outside of literary research."

Gracen, a writing instructor, understood that "the fact that we had a librarian actually teaching in our department" helped when the writing program was in its infancy and developing its collaboration with the library. In a similar way, Riley, a librarian, spoke of the benefit of understanding a writing instructor's perspective on writing courses. The researcher learned from a writing instructor about creating student-centered feedback practices. Leslie, a librarian, said, "I feel like I've learned a lot from writing instructors about how the writing and research process...intersect and...how it is iterative." Quinn, a librarian, discovered a writing instructor

colleague approached a search differently and observed, "…it's so interesting to see how she thought of a similar thing, but completely differently than I've ever thought of before." Alex, a librarian, believed one way to share expertise was to share "my perspective on what students struggle with in the [research and writing] process" when an assignment required students to use skills that are more complex than first-year students typically use. Quinn recognized the value in seeking input from both colleagues and students, giving students informal surveys after instruction sessions and asking course instructors, "How do you think it went? What do you want different next time?" Jordan, a writing instructor, has shared information with a librarian about an evolving conversation about plagiarism in writing instructor professional organizations and in major studies such as *The Citation Project* (Jamieson, 2016). Because of their conversation in the context of this study, the researcher also learned about the plagiarism discourse occurring among writing instructors, and they discussed a nuanced approach to plagiarism.

Participants reported learning from institutional counterparts in some unusual circumstances. Jordan, a writing instructor, first learned about lateral reading when attending a librarian candidate's interview presentation: "I wasn't even on the search committee, it was just the invited talk that was open to everybody…and one of those invited talks, I learned about lateral reading." Leslie explained the value of teaching lateral reading: "first [and] second year students are struggling with reading and reading critically and reading deeply and...it's also a really helpful way of...evaluating information in a critical way." Ellis, a librarian, said working with a writing instructor on a project assessing student papers: "our combined knowledge really, I think, helped us to kind of understand some of…the difficulties that students were having with citing sources and what sorts of things were they understanding by the end of the first year."

Sam, a librarian, advocated for more co-teaching as a way for librarians and writing instructors to learn from each other:

> I just did a presentation on this recently because I think that co-teaching is such an invaluable way to develop your teaching skills because you get to watch a number of different people model different teacher identities and different methods teaching styles ways of engaging students and making class more interactive.

> Sam's observation about the benefit of co-teaching in developing better teaching skills is supported in the work of Oberlies et al. (2021).

Although communities of practice can occur serendipitously, some participants described intentional and systematic communities of practice. Quinn, a librarian, said, " [there] was a monthly professional development meeting with all of those instructors in the English courses. So I'm kind of the library rep to attend all their meetings and trainings and present to them…library things." In these professional development times,

> Typically, it'll include maybe a couple of different instructors [saying], "OK, so this is one of our course outcomes or learning goals. Here's how I do this in class" …these conversations going on between the instructors. …And so for them to share these teaching ideas, it always turns into [saying], "Oh my gosh, I love that. I'm going to try that in class."

Taylor, a writing instructor, said, "So sometimes they do offer faculty development sessions for the groups of professors who teach those classes with librarians," adding that they are an "opportunity for understanding motivations for certain things and making suggestions back and forth." Jordan also mentioned regular meetings, saying, "I know that I have learned quite a bit from instructional librarians in particular."

Blake, a writing instructor, described the collaborative work with librarians as an "invested community of people who are all...working together," which is a succinct way of describing a community of practice. Although Blake may not have identified it as a community of practice, two institutional participants were intentional in using the term. Leslie, a librarian, said the librarians and writing instructors used a community of practice model for a summer workshop, though they used the term "inquiry groups" to describe it to workshop attendees. Kai, a writing instructor, explained,

> We had a really cool opportunity, which is that a number of first-year writing instructors and a number of librarians got a grant to do some research and teacher inquiry work around writing information literacy. So we had some summer funding...to do some collaborative work around...rethinking the ways that we teach info literacy in first year writing.

Kai, a writing instructor, said, "I knew that one of my goals was going to be to try to integrate that a little bit more in our teacher training," so Kai and Leslie, a librarian co-taught a workshop to introduce graduate teaching assistants in the writing program to their interdisciplinary community of practice work, thereby expanding the pool of knowledge from the original group of grant participants to all graduate teaching assistants.

In large and small ways, participants were engaged in communities of practice, with their disciplinary peers and with others outside their discipline. However, there were several different ways participants learned from each other, and more than one writing instructor learned new things as they observed librarians in the first-year writing classroom. Librarians also learned writing instructors' perspectives on the intersection of writing and information literacy. More extensive and intentional communities of practice were helpful, as was a structured approach of

regular meetings and professional development. Participants from two institutions noted the

benefit of having funding to advance their structured and intentional approaches.

Chapter V

Discussion

Introduction

Librarians and writing instructors are in a key position to help students integrate sources into their writing effectively. Courses that predicted success of first-year college students included public speaking, information literacy, and writing (Garrett et al., 2017). How well students performed in a first-year college writing class may give institutions some sense of their future success throughout students' postsecondary education (Garrett et al., 2017). Librarians and writing instructors are both concerned about information literacy, and their respective disciplinary frameworks reflect common interests regarding information literacy and source use, including critical thinking, reading, searching for and evaluating sources, and negotiating disciplinary conventions (American Library Association, 2015; Bowles-Terry & Clinnin, 2020; Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011; Grettano & Witek, 2016; Kleinfeld & Wright, 2019). It has taken many years for information literacy and writing instruction to be in sync on their approaches (Elmborg, 2017; Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016). However, students continue to struggle with appropriately finding sources, evaluating their credibility, and synthesizing them into their writing (Carlozzi, 2018b; Insua et al., 2018a; Jamieson, 2016).

Librarians and writing professionals expressed a need for better communication to improve collaboration (Jackson, 2017). Specifically, although writing instruction and information literacy instruction had overlapping concepts and goals, they were still distinct disciplines. Although the underlying information could be similar, each discipline had different

priorities in their teaching, and confusion arose when they used different terms (T. Carter & Aldridge, 2016; LaFrance, 2016). Writing instructors and librarians would benefit from a mutual understanding of the major frameworks for each discipline (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Artman & Frisicaro-Pawlowski, 2018; B. D'Angelo et al., 2017; Langan & Sachs, 2017; Murphy, 2019). Improved communication and collaboration would benefit students (Pickard & Sterling, 2020; Refaei et al., 2017) and instructors (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Scheidt et al., 2018; Whearty et al., 2017). Books and case studies (Albert & Sinkinson, 2016; J. Anderson et al., 2018; Auten & Thomas, 2016; Baer, 2016), and conference presentations (B. D'Angelo et al., 2017) featured discussions of collaborations between writing instructors and librarians. Other studies investigated collaboration between librarians and a variety of disciplinary instructors (Díaz & Mandernach, 2017). Few peer-reviewed, qualitative studies explored librarians and writing instructors' lived experiences of collaboration in first-year college writing courses.

The purpose of this study was to explore the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors in first-year college writing courses, with a specific focus on shared language and communities of practice. The study used hermeneutic phenomenology and phenomenology of practice to interpret data collected from semi-structured interviews of participants. The researcher chose hermeneutic phenomenology as the methodology due to its emphasis on the participants' words and lived experiences and the way the researcher is embedded in meaning making with participants and the importance it places on language (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007; Laverty, 2003; van Manen, 2016). Because each collaboration is unique, the researcher believed it was important to capture the essence of the phenomenon through the words of the participants, ensuring that neither the participant nor the phenomenon dominated the interpretation. In phenomenology, balancing the parts with the whole is called the hermeneutic circle.

Understanding the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors in collaborative work may help others begin conversations about finding a shared frame of reference to enhance collaboration. Enhanced collaboration ultimately could benefit students in the first-year college writing courses, which may improve overall success, retention, and persistence (Garrett et al., 2017). Additionally, expansion of this research could explore whether institution size or other factors may contribute to successful collaboration, assessment of student performance as a result of those collaborations, or advocacy for a scaffolded writing and information literacy program throughout all levels of university courses. The following research questions helped guide the study.

1. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors develop teaching collaborations in first-year college writing courses?

2. In what ways do librarians and writing instructors use shared vocabulary and disciplinary frameworks to facilitate understanding and cooperation in teaching first-year college writing courses?

3. How do librarians and writing instructors engage in communities of practice to learn from each other about teaching writing and information literacy concepts in first-year college writing courses?

In this chapter, the researcher discusses and interprets findings from participant interviews in the context of the research questions and the theoretical framework Lave and Wenger's (1991) community of practice. Additionally, the researcher incorporated a related lens of discourse community to investigate how librarians and writing instructors shared language and collaborated together (Swales, 2016). The key difference between a community of practice and a discourse community is discourse community's emphasis on language in the context of a

discipline. The researcher will also consider recommendations for further study and implications of the research for stakeholders.

Summary of Findings

The researcher collected data from each participant using two, 60-minute semi-structured interviews in which the researcher and participant explored lived experiences of collaboration in first-year writing courses. The first stage of data interpretation involved transcribing, reviewing the transcriptions multiple times, and interpreting meaning from the transcripts (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007; Saldaña, 2015). The researcher attempted to preserve the verbatim words of participants by using in vivo coding before assigning first-order and second-order themes and developing further interpretation (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007).

To recruit participants, the researcher used purposeful criterion sampling, then asked each participant to suggest the name of a collaborative counterpart as a potential participant within the same organization (e.g., a librarian would be asked to provide information about a writing instructor with whom the librarian had collaborated) (Creswell, 2016; Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The participant pool consisted of a total of 14 participants: seven librarians and seven writing instructors from seven different four-year residential institutions. The Carnegie Size and Setting classification classified institutions that had a certain percentage of undergraduate students, some of whom resided on campus. These institutions may offer other programs or degrees in additional to the baccalaureate degree; however, this classification does not include community colleges, institutions classified as nonresidential, or standalone graduate schools (American Council on Education, n.d.). Each participant had experience with collaboration in first-year writing courses. Participants represented a number of different levels of experience in the profession. Three participants were in the "1 to 5 years" category, three participants were in

the "6-10 years" category, six were in the "11-20 years" category, and two had more than 20 years of experience in their profession. Each participant contributed rich descriptions of their collaborations, shared vocabulary, and shared learning with the collaborative counterpart they identified in the recruitment process and with others in the span of their careers (Creswell, 2016). The researcher told participants she would not share interview information with their collaborative counterpart, but that based on context, they may have been able to identify some characteristics of their counterpart in the discussion of findings because of their relationship. However, the researcher carefully preserved participant confidentiality so it was less likely that anyone aside the collaborative counterpart would be able to identify participants.

In addition to discussing confidentiality during the informed consent review before the first interview, the researcher reassured participants throughout the process that she would preserve confidentiality and that they could decline answering a question that made them uncomfortable. Speaking candidly about a colleague may have caused some discomfort, particularly when discussing collaborations that may not have been as successful as participants hoped. Similarly, participants may have experienced discomfort when talking about their institutional context. Some participants expressed discomfort or reluctance to discuss specific details about collaborations when doing so might have presented a colleague in an unflattering way.

Although there were aspects of the interview process that may have made them uncomfortable, participants expressed enthusiasm regarding contributing to the study. Their candor about successful and less successful collaborations, sharing vocabulary and frameworks, and participating in communities of practice provided rich data for the researcher to use in the interpretation process. The researcher also shared some of her own experiences with participants,

which is an aspect of building rapport and interpreting meaning with participants (van Manen, 2016). Hermeneutic phenomenology entails a mutual effort of participants and researcher to discover meaning from the phenomenon being studied (van Manen, 1990). Participants expressed a desire to contribute to the body of knowledge about first-year college writing collaborations and they were interested in using the findings to enhance their collaboration or to advocate for expanded collaborations, institutional support or incentive for interdisciplinary work, or curriculum revision.

To ensure trustworthiness in the qualitative study, the researcher conducted two interviews per participant, kept a research journal, and conducted member checking at two points in the data collection process (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 2013; Saldaña, 2015).

Participant and researcher meaning-making produced findings that contribute to overall understanding of the phenomenon of collaboration in first-year college writing courses, shared vocabulary or frameworks and communities of practice. Three primary themes emerged based on participant responses and researcher interpretation of the data: collaboration as a spectrum, developing potential in shared frameworks, and communities of practice within and between disciplines.

Collaboration as a Spectrum

Because of the diverse experiences of participants, the researcher found few universal experiences. Instead, participant responses and researcher interpretation revealed a spectrum of collaborations, ranging from collaborations the researcher categorized as in an emergent phase, to collaborations that expanded beyond traditional collaborations in first-year college writing courses. Other studies have described collaboration as a spectrum (Junisbai et al., 2016; Saunders

& Corning, 2020). The researcher grouped participant responses about collaboration into the following categories: Emerging, Expected, and Expansive.

However, there were also some characteristics of collaborations in general that were worth exploring. In the interview process, participants described characteristics of productive collaborations and characteristics that were counterproductive to collaboration. Productive characteristics included buy-in and enthusiasm, communication, teaching preparation and experience, and a focus on student engagement and learning. Counterproductive characteristics included lack of buy-in, discipline-related hindrances, communication issues, misunderstanding of each other's role, and teaching inexperience. Various studies have identified these characteristics as factors in the collaboration discussion: buy-in and enthusiasm (or lack thereof) (Alwan et al., 2018; Baer, 2016; Bawa & Watson, 2017; Matacio & Closser, 2017; Whearty et al., 2017); teaching preparation and experience (or lack thereof) (Lundstrom et al., 2021; McCartin & Wright-Mair, 2022; Murphy, 2019; Oberlies et al., 2021); focus on student engagement and learning (Matacio & Closser, 2017; Oberlies et al., 2021); and a misunderstanding of each collaborator's role (Belzowski & Robison, 2019; Fagan et al., 2021; McCartin & Wright-Mair, 2022; Meulemans & Matlin, 2019; Saunders & Corning, 2020). The collaboration practices participants used also reflect principles of a community of practice and discourse community.

Emerging. Participants describing Emerging levels of collaboration may have still been communicating and negotiating what those collaborations might look like in practice. Some participants described Emerging collaborations taking three to five years to develop. In this time period, they may share documents, learn from each other about their respective disciplines, and potentially experiment with the first in-class sessions. Each of these three activities represented

an aspect of community of practice and discourse communities. The domain was first-year

college writing, community was the partners involved, and practice was developing documents

and instructional materials. Discourse community elements are most evident in the ways

participants negotiated their disciplinary boundaries and common elements through language.

They also were attempting to form a new discourse community that incorporated information

literacy and writing. Literature supports the elements of an Emerging collaboration, such as

developing mutual appreciation of each other's role – and sometimes navigating a power

differential (Alwan et al., 2018; Díaz & Mandernach, 2017; Junisbai et al., 2016; Meulemans &

Matlin, 2019), and developing documents and using some shared language (J. Anderson et al.,

2018; Murphy, 2019; Norgaard & Sinkinson, 2016). The researcher recalled the initial stages of

a collaboration, including trial and error. Even after each party is mostly satisfied with the

product of the collaboration, they recognized the need to make changes over time in response to

student responses and demonstrated understanding or lack thereof. This research question

elicited fewer responses from participants because many participants were in collaborations in

the expected or expansive categories. The Limitations section of Chapter III covers this

limitation. Because of the recruitment process, prospective participants were more likely to have

established collaborations.

Expected. Expected collaborations often demonstrated a more structured or systematic

approach to collaboration in first-year college writing courses. Participants described implicit

expectations of programs and explicit expectations in documentation that was often developed by

librarians and writing instructors, an element of community of practice and discourse

community. In expected collaborations, a librarian is generally involved in a minimum of one,

but up to three, class sessions discussing information literacy. Participants also described other

structural elements, such as shared program documents and professional development, characteristics supported in the literature (Bowles-Terry & Clinnin, 2020; Napier et al., 2018; Wishkoski et al., 2018). In expected collaborations, relationship-building was still an element, but the expectation of collaboration meant participants could focus on developing good instruction. The researcher has experienced elements of an expected collaboration. For those programs or classes, the researcher expects that a minimum of one class session will be scheduled, and course instructor and librarian often meet beforehand to plan instruction. However, the researcher's librarian colleagues occasionally experienced lack of buy-in when some instructors were not enthusiastic about the assignment expectation.

Expansive. Participants in expansive collaborations brought an additional element of collaboration, including additional sessions beyond the expected one to three, collaborative projects branching out into co-presenting and co-writing, or referring to at least one class period as co-teaching. One participant even expressed a desire to expand to a fully co-taught course: Jordan, a writing instructor said, "I think it would be great if I could co-teach with an instructional librarian and have them more actively involved in my class." Brook, a writing instructor, lamented that due to changing conditions at the institution, librarians and writing instructors did less collaborative work around publishing and presenting at conferences. Brook recalled other conference attendees' desire to hear more about the collaborations: "There were a couple of conferences I went to with different librarians and people were always like, 'Wow, this is such a cool collaboration.' And they wanted to hear more about it." Edited volumes included two groups of researchers who called for librarians and writing instructors to publish and present together (J. Anderson et al., 2018; Scheidt et al., 2018); in another edited volume, Johnson and McCracken (2018) encouraged the concept of co-teaching multiple information literacy sessions.

Finally, there were several presentations and co-written academic articles (B. D'Angelo et al., 2017; Kazan et al., 2021; Napier et al., 2018; Racelis et al., 2021; Walsh et al., 2018). Participants from two institutions sought funding to further explore their collaborative relationships and improve classroom experiences for students. Although there were other factors that enabled these collaborations to expand, the presence of an incentive meant that the collaborators had material support from either the institution or a professional organization. Becker et al. (2022) supported providing incentives for course instructors and librarians to work together on information literacy initiatives. The researcher and a colleague presented at a conference together, supported by institutional funds. They found in conversations with other conference attendees that the level of collaboration they presented was uncommon. Participant responses and the researcher's experience suggested that expansive collaborations involved specific interpersonal relationships. Suggested best practices or ways to facilitate expansive collaborations may not be feasible.

Developing Potential in Shared Frameworks

One surprising result emerging from participant responses was the wide variety in how much or how little they shared disciplinary frameworks. Although librarians were familiar enough with the Association of College & Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education (ACRL Framework), writing instructors did not have the same universal familiarity with either the Writing Program Administrators Framework for Success in Postsecondary Writing (WPA Framework) or the Writing Program Administrators Outcomes Statement for First-Year Composition (WPA Outcomes). Factors in this disparity between the two disciplines' familiarity with frameworks have to do with the varied pathways one might take to become a writing instructor and the number of professional associations writing instructors

can join. There is no single accrediting body that governs writing instructor education. Writing instructors can go a number of different directions in their careers, including earning a doctorate in literature. Some participants noted their degree in literature necessitated teaching writing. Another direction is earning a degree that is more focused on writing center or writing tutoring. Each of these sub-specialties have their own professional organizations, which may issue their own guidance on best practices, standards, frameworks, or positions. Therefore, there is no single framework that writing instructors share. In contrast, Dodson (2020) found there were only 62 library science programs accredited by the American Library Association, and an ALA-accredited degree (or equivalent) is the minimum requirement for academic librarians. The ACRL Framework was developed by the higher education arm of the ALA. There are very few other competing frameworks for librarians.

Although writing instructors had less familiarity with the WPA Framework and Outcomes, participants at two institutions reported learning about the common elements of the ACRL and WPA documents because doing so was a required element of an application process (i.e., a grant and an award). Sharing at these institutions was intentional and participants described the benefits of shared frameworks in their teaching and collaboration.

The researcher provided the ACRL Framework, the WPA Framework, and the WPA Outcomes for participant review before participants' second interviews. When participants reviewed the frameworks, they noticed overlapping themes between the librarian framework (ACRL Framework) and the writing frameworks (WPA Framework and Outcomes) and discussed ways they could use the shared understanding.

Some writing instructors said their teaching was informed by a textbook, what they learned at conferences, and what they learned in scholarly writing. Librarians were more subtle

in using the ACRL Framework, incorporating elements of the framework into their teaching practices or guiding documents, but often translating or rephrasing them. Others brought up elements of the ACRL Framework when they deemed it relevant to a conversation with a colleague or in the context of a meeting. Participants described how they could use their knowledge of each framework to start conversations with their collaborative colleagues about the ways their disciplines intersect. The researcher's and some participants' experiences suggest there is potential in intentionally creating discourse communities to discuss shared frameworks to gain better understanding and to negotiate and interpret framework terms together. The researcher has had rich conversations with a writing instructor about their respective frameworks, including the ACRL Framework, the WPA Framework, the WPA Outcomes, and *Naming What We Know: Threshold Concepts in Writing Studies* a text that shares elements of the frameworks, but is not itself a framework (Adler-Kassner & Wardle, 2015; American Library Association, 2015; Council of Writing Program Administrators, 2014; Council of Writing Program Administrators et al., 2011). These conversations have informed their approaches to first-year college writing. As a starting point, librarians and writing instructors will need to determine some common frames of reference. Because participants observed the overlap between the WPA Framework, WPA Outcomes, and ACRL Framework, these would be conversation starters, even if writing instructors did not currently use the WPA documents as guidance.

Communities of Practice and Discourse Within and Between Disciplines

Participants described situations in which they learned from their colleagues and from each other. Before conducting the study, the researcher often heard variations of course instructors' common refrain: "I always learn something when a librarian visits," and participants

corroborated this experience. Librarians also said they learned from writing instructors, and the researcher recalled instructive conversations with writing instructors. Because a community of practice does not need any intentional focus, these pockets of learning could be classified as a community of practice. Moreover, some participants described the ways they learn from their peers and from other colleagues because they often crossed paths with each other, or shared workspaces. They recounted anecdotes about developing friendships that fostered collaboration and understanding. The researcher has benefited from being in the same building a writing instructor and the writing center, and the researcher could also think of chance encounters that facilitated collaboration. However, the researcher also observed that a personal connection may not always translate to a productive collaboration.

Participants described more sustained and intentional communities of practice, such as mentoring and other departmental supports, with peers in their discipline. Other participants were part of expected collaborations, a characteristic of which was regular meetings and professional development opportunities for course instructors and librarians. Participants at two institutions leveraged award and grant applications to develop communities of practice around shared frameworks; at the same time, because they were sharing disciplinary language, these communities of practice could also be classified as discourse communities. Various book chapters and studies provide examples of interdisciplinary communities of practice and discourse (Kissel et al., 2017; Wishkoski et al., 2018, 2019).

Conclusion

Findings from this study indicated there were common characteristics present in productive collaborations and some characteristics that hindered collaboration. Characteristics such as buy-in and enthusiasm, teacher preparation, and experience were often the pivotal factors

that either promoted or hindered collaboration. The researcher classified collaborations into three different categories: Emerging, Expected, and Expansive. Emerging collaborations represented the stage of discovery, sharing, and experimenting, possibly before a single class session has been taught. Expected collaborations often included a structural element, such as regular meetings or guiding documents, and an expectation of librarian involvement in one to three class sessions. Expansive collaborations were context and relationship-specific and included an additional element, such as more than three class sessions, and a closer connection between collaborators. Overall, participants' personal rapport combined with a strong desire for collaboration was more important than structure, but structure may be a way to foster such relationships.

Although sharing formal frameworks was less common than the researcher expected, participants who reviewed the disciplinary frameworks side-by-side during the study (ACRL, WPA Framework, WPA Outcomes) found common elements that they believed were helpful in understanding each other. Some participants described the ways reading the frameworks had affected how they view their teaching.

Participants discussed the many ways they learn from their peers and from other disciplinary colleagues. Although a community of practice does not need to be formalized, participants' learning sometimes seemed to occur sporadically. Location or proximity, such as shared offices or departments close to each other, made a difference in encouraging spontaneous and repeated conversations with colleagues, a finding corroborated by the researcher's experience in a learning commons. Discourse communities were even less common, although the participant who described a community of practice in which writing instructors and librarians were reviewing each other's frameworks, so the specific focus on language would fit the

description of a discourse community. Although the researcher would not discount sporadic or spontaneous ways people learn from each other and learn each other's languages, collaborators would benefit from more intention in how they learn from each other.

Recommendations for Further Research

An expanded qualitative study involving more investigators and participants may enable researchers to draw more conclusions, and another direction to take the research could be focusing on a specific type of institution characteristic, such as size or location. One of the limitations of the researcher's choice of methodology is its small sample size, not uncommon in the area of qualitative phenomenological research involving in-depth interviews. The small size allowed for rich descriptions and rich data about participants' lived experiences in specific settings. Findings suggest general characteristics that could apply to collaborations in a variety of different settings. However, the data limits how extensively the researcher can generalize across all collaborations and institutions.

The researcher suggests that further research could be done in the following areas. Because the researcher found the WPA documents had not been universally adopted by writing instructors, another study could explore writing instructors' use of other types of documents to guide their philosophy and pedagogy.

Some participants mentioned having internal documents of various types; discourse analysis may be an appropriate method to investigate the documents as artifacts. Researchers could also request documents and interview participants about their documents.

The researcher did not explore student engagement or performance in this study, although investigating the benefit of writing instructor and librarian collaborations would be a logical next step. Researchers could investigate student performance on a writing assignment after they have

participated in a collaborative writing and information literacy class or session. Student engagement could be examined using focus groups or in-depth interviews. Researchers could also attempt to trace student performance from first year to graduation. Student engagement might also be explored by asking them to submit an evaluation of the writing instructor and librarian.

Implications for Professional Practice

Although it was not in the scope of the study, a few participants observed that collaborations resulted in benefits to students, a finding supported by literature about librarian involvement in first-year college writing courses (Garrett et al., 2017; Mayer et al., 2020; Nichols Hess et al., 2015; Rowe et al., 2021; Secovnie & Glisson, 2019). Therefore, teaching collaborations should be celebrated and advertised as part of the admissions process for prospective students and their parents. Additionally, collaborations can expand beyond the classroom experience and into advocacy and curricular change. There is evidence that first-year courses such as first-year college writing are key indicators of student success, retention and persistence; however, students cannot learn all the necessary writing, information literacy, and critical thinking skills in their first year. Together, writing instructors and librarians can advocate for a scaffolded writing and information literacy curriculum from first year to graduation.

Administrators may be interested to know that such connections exist between first-year courses and student persistence and success. Knowing this, they may be more apt to include writing instructors and librarians in retention initiatives. Administrators may also want to consider finding ways to better support interdisciplinary collaborations by eliminating bureaucratic barriers or offering additional incentives for developing interdisciplinary collaborations (Becker et al., 2022; Lechtenberg & Donovan, 2022). Collaborators would then

have more freedom to co-teach writing and information literacy classes. This is particularly important because of some accreditors' focus on interdisciplinary work.

Literature, researcher experience, and participant responses suggest that writing instructors and librarians might benefit from expanding their reading and learning base to include their collaborative partner's disciplinary conversations. The researcher has benefited from a practice of sharing relevant information with a writing instructor, and the writing instructor has done the same. However, the researcher could find disciplinary journals that each partner could read to foster understanding and conversation. Librarians could ask about or look for other frameworks that writing instructors are using to guide their teaching and look for connections between them and the ACRL Framework. When an opportunity arises, librarians will be able to use the writing documents as a way to find common ground with the writing instructor. When deciding where to present and publish, librarians and writing instructors should attempt to disseminate their scholarship either in the other discipline's venues (e.g., a librarian and writing instructor publish in a writing journal, or vice versa).

The researcher and a few participants noted the role of proximity in facilitating collaboration. At minimum, librarians and writing instructors may want to consider regular meetings together. Some librarians set up office hours in departmental spaces to be closer to both students and faculty. Another option may be rethinking where faculty and librarian offices are placed so they are closer to each other.

Participants, researcher, and literature have discussed librarian education and its disconnect from a large percentage of academic library positions. Carlozzi (2018a) emphasized the need for library science programs to address teaching elements because all types of librarians do some variety of teaching. Study findings suggest that at minimum, a library science program

should include a core course on teaching theory and best practices and presentation skills. Library science programs might consider additional field experience, internships, or volunteer hours focused on teaching.

The researcher recognizes curricular reform is a long process. While library science programs work to update their curriculum, individual academic libraries should consider creating or providing access to professional development opportunities focused on librarians' teacher development. This may mean readings in areas like the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL), but it may also entail forming partnerships with other campus partners, such as schools of education or teaching and learning centers to provide robust training to librarians.

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Appendix A

Permission to Use Social Discipline of Learning Image
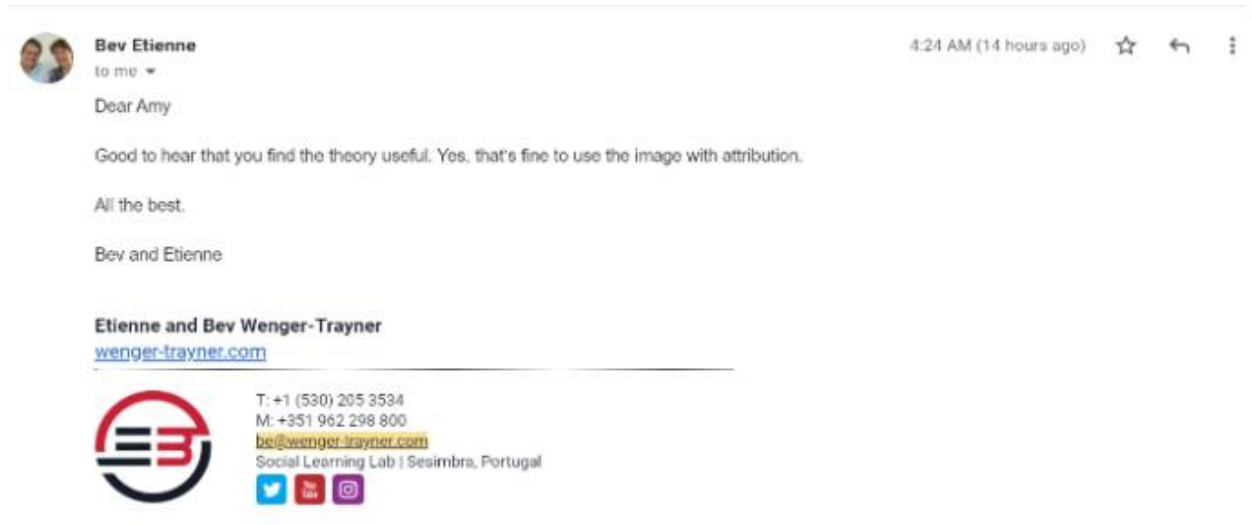
Appendix B

Human Research Protection Training Certificates

Congratulations!

You have completed OHRP's learning module:

Lesson 1: When HHS Regulations Apply

OHRP does not collect information about who completes this training. Please fill out the information below and print this page for your records.

Name: Amy Rice

Date: March 15, 2022

Congratulations!

You have completed OHRP's learning module:

Lesson 2: What is Human Subjects Research?

OHRP does not collect information about who completes this training. Please fill out the information below and print this page for your records.

Name: Amy Rice

Date: March 26, 2022

Congratulations!

You have completed OHRP's learning module:

Lesson 3: What are IRBs?

OHRP does not collect information about who completes this training. Please fill out the information below and print this page for your records.

Name: Amy Rice

Date: 04/12/2022

Congratulations!

You have completed OHRP's learning module:

Lesson 4: Independent Review of Research

OHRP does not collect information about who completes this training. Please fill out the information below and print this page for your records.

Name: Amy Rice

Date: 04/13/2022

Congratulations!

You have completed OHRP's learning module:

Lesson 5: Human Research Protection Training

OHRP does not collect information about who completes this training. Please fill out the information below and print this page for your records.

Name: Amy Rice

Date: 04/13/2022

Appendix C

Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval

IRB Approval   External   ➤   Inbox ×

Heidi Curtis   Wed, Jun 15, 10:43 AM (5 days ago)
to me, Dennis ▾

Hi Amy

Dear Amy,

The IRB has reviewed your protocol: 0323. You received "Full Approval". Congratulations, you may begin your research. If you have any questions, let me know.

Northwest Nazarene University

Heidi Curtis

IRB Member

Appendix D

Qualitative Informed Consent

A. PURPOSE AND BACKGROUND
Amy Rice, a doctoral student in the Department of Education at Northwest Nazarene University is conducting a research study related to collaborations between librarians and writing instructors in first-year college research writing courses.

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are a healthy volunteer, over the age of 18.

B. PROCEDURES

If you agree to be in the study, the following will occur:

1. You will be asked to sign an Informed Consent Form, volunteering to participate in the study.

2. You will be asked to complete a screening survey online that will take 5-10 minutes.

3. You will answer a set of interview questions and engage in a discussion on your collaborative activities related to first-year writing. This discussion will be video recorded and is expected to last approximately 60 minutes.

4. You will be asked to participate in a follow-up video-recorded interview lasting 30 minutes.

5. You will be asked to reply to an email at the conclusion of the study asking you to confirm the data that was gathered during the research process.

These procedures will be completed at a location mutually decided upon by the participant and principal investigator and will take a total time of about 90-105 minutes.

C. RISKS/DISCOMFORTS
1. Some of the discussion questions may make you uncomfortable or upset, but you are free to decline to answer any questions you do not wish to answer or to stop participation at any time.

2. For this research project, the researcher is requesting demographic information. Due to the make-up of the librarian and writing instructor populations, the combined answers to these questions may make an individual person identifiable. The researcher will make every effort to protect your confidentiality. However, if you are uncomfortable

answering any of these questions, you may select "other" and indicate you prefer not to answer.

3. Confidentiality: Participation in research may involve a loss of privacy; however, your records will be handled as confidentially as possible. No individual identities will be used in any reports or publications that may result from this study. All data from notes, audio tapes, and disks will be kept in a locked file cabinet, password protected computer, or in password protected files. In compliance with the Federalwide Assurance Code, data from this study will be kept for three years, after which all data from the study will be destroyed (45 CFR 46.117).

4. Only the primary researcher and the research supervisor will be privy to data from this study. As researchers, both parties are bound to keep data as secure and confidential as possible.

D. BENEFITS
There will be no direct benefit to you from participating in this study. However, the information you provide may help librarians and writing instructors better understand the factors influencing collaborations using shared language or frameworks to help first-year students incorporate sources into their research writing.

E. PAYMENTS
There are no payments for participating in this study.

F. QUESTIONS
If you have questions or concerns about participation in this study, you should first talk with the investigator. **Amy Rice** can be contacted via email at arice@nnu.edu**,** via telephone at 208-467-8609. If for some reason you do not wish to do this you may contact Dr. Dennis Cartwright**,** dissertation chair, Northwest Nazarene University, via email at dcartwright46@gmail.com, via telephone at 208-880-9781, or by writing 623 S. University Blvd, Nampa, Idaho 83686.

Should you feel distressed due to participation in this, you should contact your own health care provider.

G. CONSENT
You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep.

PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH IS VOLUNTARY. You are free to decline to be in this study, or to withdraw from it at any point. Your decision as to whether or not to participate in this study will have no influence on your present or future status at Northwest Nazarene University.

I give my consent to participate in this study:

_____   _____

Signature of Study Participant   **Date**

I give my consent for the interview and discussion to be video recorded in this study:

_____   _____

Signature of Study Participant   **Date**

I give my consent for direct quotes to be used in this study:

_____   _____

Signature of Study Participant   **Date**

_____   _____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent   **Date**

THE NORTHWEST NAZARENE UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD HAS REVIEWED THIS PROJECT FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH.

Appendix E

Site Permission Letters

May 20, 2022
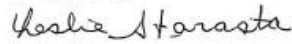
Northwest Nazarene University
Attention: Institutional Review Board
Helstrom Business Center 1st floor
623 S. University Boulevard
Nampa, ID 83686

RE: Research Proposal Site Access for Ms. Amy Rice

Dear Institutional Review Board Members:

This letter is to inform the IRB that the Association of Christian Librarians Discussion List has reviewed the proposed dissertation research plan including subjects, intervention, assessment procedures, proposed data and collection procedures, data analysis, and purpose of the study. Ms. Rice has permission to conduct her research using ACL members. The authorization dates for this research are July 1, 2022 to May 1, 2023.

Respectfully,

Leslie Starasta

Leslie Starasta
Association of Christian Librarians President

May 22, 2022

Northwest Nazarene University
Attention: Institutional Review Board
Helstrom Business Center 1ˢᵗ floor
623 S. University Boulevard
Nampa, ID 83686

RE: Research Proposal Site Access for Ms. Amy Rice

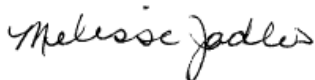Dear Institutional Review Board Members:

This letter is to inform the IRB that the Writing Studies Listserv (WRITINGSTUDIES-L) has reviewed the proposed dissertation research plan including subjects, intervention, assessment procedures, proposed data and collection procedures, data analysis, and purpose of the study. Ms. Rice has permission to conduct her research using WRITINGSTUDIES-L members. The authorization dates for this research are July 1, 2022 to May 1, 2023.

Respectfully,

Signed: Samuel Stinson

Samuel Stinson (signature)

Samuel Stinson, Minot State University
Holly Hassel, North Dakota State University
Writing Studies Listserv Moderators

May 23, 2022

Northwest Nazarene University
Attention: Institutional Review Board
Helstrom Business Center 1ˢᵗ floor
623 S. University Boulevard
Nampa, ID 83686

RE: Research Proposal Site Access for Ms. Amy Rice

Dear Institutional Review Board Members:

This letter is to inform the NNU IRB that the College Library Director Mentor Program
(CLDMP) has received the proposed dissertation research plan.

We understand that Ms. Rice will be sending a call to participate and screening survey to all
members to the newdirmentor-l listserv. Participants will be chosen from respondents to the
screening survey. Data will be collected using semi-structured interviews. I also understand that
this study is a qualitative phenomenological study and that Ms. Rice will be contacting 4-5
librarians and 4-5 writing instructors for two in-depth, video-recorded interviews. Ms. Rice will
present details of the study to the participants, including details about their voluntary
participation, opt-out options, and confidentiality, and participants will be asked to sign an
informed consent.

I also understand that this study will be reviewed by NNU's Institutional Review Board (IRB),
and that the collected data will be saved in a Google Drive with two-step authentication. At the
conclusion of the study, I understand that Ms. Rice will keep the data for three years in
compliance with the Federalwide Assurance Code, after which the data will be destroyed.

Ms. Rice has permission to post and invitation to send a call for participants on the
newdirmentor-l board. The authorization dates for this research are July 2022-May 2023.

Respectfully,

Melissa Jadlos
Lisa Johnston,
Co-Directors of CLDMP

Appendix F

Listserv Recruitment Invitation

<date>

Dear Colleagues,

My name is Amy Rice, and I am a doctoral student in the Graduate Education department at Northwest Nazarene University. As part of my dissertation, I am conducting a research study examining the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors who are collaborating to teach information literacy in the first-year research writing classroom. I am specifically investigating how librarians and writing instructors use their respective disciplinary frameworks to learn from each other in a community of practice and to enhance their collaboration.

Your contribution to this project would be invaluable to understanding the ways in which librarians and writing instructors can improve collaboration, which in turn may improve overall student success. My research has been approved by Northwest Nazarene University's Institutional Review Board.

If you are interested in contributing to the study or know someone who might be interested, please click on the link below to start a brief screening survey to determine your eligibility to enter the pool of participants for this study. If you know someone who may be interested, please forward this email.

The survey includes a series of multiple-choice and short-answer questions. It will take you approximately 5-10 minutes to complete. You may close the survey at any time. Based on your survey answers, you may be invited to participate in two 60-minute, video-recorded interviews (via Google Meet) at dates and times that are convenient for you.

If you have questions or concerns about this study, you are welcome to speak with me first via email at arice@nnu.edu or telephone at 208-467-8609. My faculty supervisor, Dr. Dennis Cartwright, may also be reached via email at dcartwright46@gmail.com, or telephone at 208-880-9781.

Complete the Screening Survey

https://forms.gle/8KQkWpi4nWVRW4vG8

Thank you,
Amy C. Rice, M.S., M.A.
Doctoral Student
Northwest Nazarene University
Nampa, ID

Appendix G

Participant and Partner Letters

July 1, 2022

Dear _____,

My name is Amy Rice. I am a doctoral student at Northwest Nazarene University, studying the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors collaborating in the context of first-year research writing. The Institutional Review Board has approved my research at NNU.

Thank you for your investment of time to participate in this study! The next step is scheduling two interviews. Each interview will be a semi-structured, video-recorded interview using Google Meet. The first interview will be scheduled for 60 minutes and the second interview will be scheduled for 60 minutes.

Please let me know your preferred day and time for an interview. I am including a short poll from which you may choose your preferred dates and times.

The process is completely voluntary, and you may opt out of the study at any time. You may also decline to answer any questions you are uncomfortable answering. You are not obligated to answer all of the questions. You may also ask any clarifying questions of me.

If you have questions or concerns about participation in this study, are welcome to speak with me first via email at arice@nnu.edu or phone at 208-467-8609. My faculty supervisor, Dr. Dennis Cartwright, may be reached via email at dcartwright46@gmail.com, via phone at 208-880-9781or by writing: 623 S. University Drive, Nampa, Idaho 83686.

Thank you again for your participation!

Amy C. Rice, M.S., M.A.
Doctoral Student
Northwest Nazarene University

July 1, 2022

Dear _____,

My name is Amy Rice. I am a doctoral student at Northwest Nazarene University, studying the lived experiences of librarians and writing instructors collaborating in the context of first-year research writing. The Institutional Review Board has approved my research at NNU.

Your colleague, _____, recommended you as a participant in this study.

Because I am aware that collaborations may be context-dependent, I plan to interview a librarian and a writing instructor from the same institution. Your contribution to this project is invaluable to understanding the ways in which these communities of practice improve collaboration, which in turn may improve overall student success.

If you would like to participate, you may fill out a brief screening survey, and you may mention the name of your referrer in the collaborative partner section. Next, please indicate your availability for two interviews. Each interview will be a semi-structured, video-recorded interview using Google Meet. The first interview will be scheduled for 60 minutes and the second interview will be scheduled for 30 minutes.

Please let me know your preferred day and time for an interview. I am including a short poll from which you may choose your preferred dates and times.

The process is completely voluntary, and you may opt out of the study at any time. You may also decline to answer any questions you are uncomfortable answering. You are not obligated to answer all of the questions. You may also ask any clarifying questions of me.

If you have questions or concerns about participation in this study, are welcome to speak with me first via email at arice@nnu.edu or phone at 208-467-8609. My faculty supervisor, Dr. Dennis Cartwright, may be reached via email at dcartwright46@gmail.com, via phone at 208-880-9781 or by writing: 623 S. University Drive, Nampa, Idaho 83686.

Thank you again for your participation!

Amy C. Rice, M.S., M.A.
Doctoral Student
Northwest Nazarene University

Appendix H

Initial Interview Protocol

Reviewing Informed Consent with Participant

To facilitate note-taking and accurate representation of what you discuss today, I am going to record our interview. For your information, only I and my dissertation chair will be privy to the recordings. In compliance with the Federalwide Assurance Code, the recordings will be destroyed after three years. In addition, you must sign a form devised to meet our human subject requirements. Permission to be videorecorded was a separate signed line in the Informed Consent that you signed. The informed consent also highlighted the following: (1) all information will be confidential. The dissertation will use a pseudonym in place of your name and a number in place of the name of your institution, (2) your participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time if you feel uncomfortable, and (3) we do not intend to inflict any harm. Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study.

The interview is scheduled for a duration of 60 minutes. During this time, I have several questions I would like to cover. If we run out of time, we may resume any unfinished questions during the second 30-minute interview.

Introduction

You have been selected as participants in this study because you meet the criteria of the study: you are a librarian or writing instructor involved in first-year college research writing and you have experience collaborating with your librarian/writing instructor partner. This research project focuses on the ways librarians and writing instructors collaborate in the first-year college research writing context. I am particularly interested in the use of librarian and writing frameworks that include but are not limited to, the ACRL Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education and the WPA Frameworks/Outcomes for writing.

A. Interviewee Background

1. What is your name? (This is for the researcher's records only; you will be assigned a pseudonym)
2. Where do you work?
3. What is your current job title?
4. How long have you been at this institution?
5. How long have you been in your discipline?
6. Tell me about how you came to choose your career path

B. Main Interview Questions

7. Think back to your first experience as an academic librarian/writing instructor. What shaped your experiences with instruction/teaching?
8. Please describe your approach to collaborating with others in a teaching setting
9. Possible follow-up: how did the collaboration originally develop? (e.g., organically? Strategically/structurally?)
10. Please describe how your collaborations changed over time
11. Thinking back to the first time you had an interaction with another instructor (librarian or writing instructor) in the context of first-year research writing, what do you recall about that experience?

12. Tell me about an experience of collaboration in the first-year research writing context that was particularly successful.
13. How long did it take to get to the level of "successful"?
14. Tell me about an experience of collaboration that was unsuccessful.
15. What actions did you or your collaboration partner take to salvage the unsuccessful collaboration?
16. In what ways did your education and professional development help improve collaboration? Overcome barriers?
17. Please describe an experience in which you learned from a colleague about improving teaching in the first-year research writing context
18. Please describe a situation in which you have shared your disciplinary knowledge with your collaboration partner. And vice versa?
19. Describe a situation in which you and your partner dialogued about disciplinary frameworks (e.g. ACRL Framework, WPA Framework/Outcomes) to foster mutual understanding.
20. What are some common elements of your discipline's framework and your partner's discipline's framework?
21. What elements [of the frameworks?] make collaboration more difficult?
22. How have you tried to overcome that barrier?
23. Any additional comments/things we missed?

Conclusion:

Thank you for your participation in this study.

After I have an opportunity to analyze the data, I will e-mail you with the results and ask for feedback. Mainly I want to ensure that I captured the essence of our discussion, accurately portraying our discussion and your thoughts. This study will conclude on April 1, 2023.

In the meantime, if you have any questions or concerns, you may contact me via email at arice@nnu.edu or telephone at 208-467-8609. You may also contact Dr. Dennis Cartwright, my faculty supervisor, at 208-880-9781 or dcartwright46@gmail.com.

I appreciate your commitment to participate in this study!

Appendix I

Expert Review Panel

Expert Panel Instructions

The following questions are the proposed protocol for a phenomenological semi-structured interview. In an ideal interview, the investigator and the participant collaborate together in the process, and phenomenological interviewing requires that participant and investigator participate in the meaning-making process together (Lauterbach, 2018; Marshall & Rossman, 2016; May, 2002; Rapley, 2004). Phenomenological interviews must maintain focus on the central phenomenon being investigated (van Manen, 1990). This may include simultaneously gathering information and working with the participant to reflect upon the experiences they have shared; a researcher may schedule more time for an interview that involves both gathering and reflecting, or a researcher may opt for more than one interview or reflective activity (Lauterbach, 2018; van Manen, 1990).

1. Please review and rate the proposed interview questions for content validity related to the purpose of the study and the research questions.

2. Please suggest strategies for producing better outcomes (e.g., clarify syntax, suggest a follow-up question, ask about the relevance of the question, etc.).

Use all the space you need for your contributions.

RQ1 Interview Questions
RQ1: In what ways do librarians and writing instructors develop teaching collaborations in first-year college research writing courses?

1. Please describe your approach to collaborating with others in a teaching setting
4 responses

Legend:
- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant
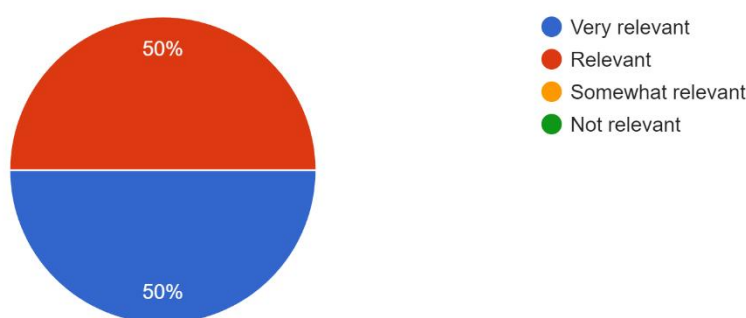
Comments

- Consider changing "others" to "librarians" - I would currently answer this question with information about both librarians and other writing instructors. (Maybe that is fine for your purposes, though!)

- If the goal of this question is to get the participant talking, this it's a useful question. I find it very broad and would have a hard time answering. Who are the "others"? What qualifies as a "teaching setting"?
- If asked this, I would wonder whether it was referring to colleagues only or possibly students (as in, a collaborative teacher-student situation).
- If responses aren't forthcoming do you need additional follow-up questions such as what steps do you take, how much time, etc. Does collaboration need to be defined more?

2. Possible follow-up: how did the collaboration originally develop? (e.g., organically? Strategically/structurally?)

4 responses

Legend:
- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant

100%

Comments

- If the person being interviewed is responding about one example, this is a great question and has the potential to elicit a number of responses. But clarifying the collaboration might be helpful here- teaching faculty? Academic support service providers?
- Good question that may prompt responses if they aren't forthcoming.

3. Please describe how your collaborations changed over time
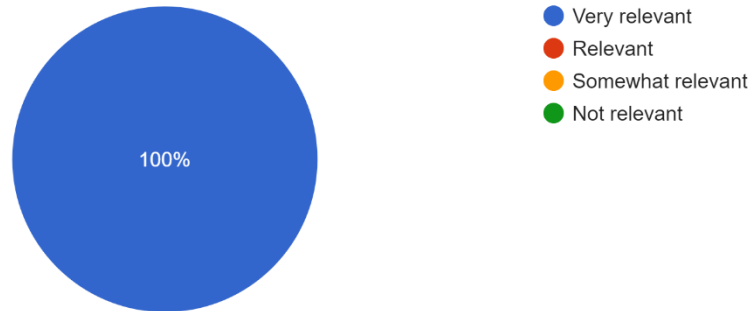
4 responses

Legend:
- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant

25%
75%
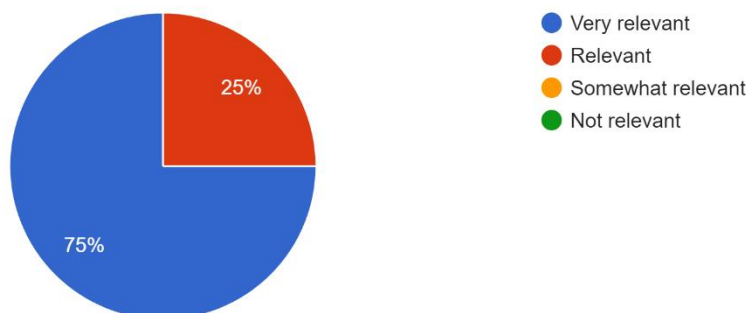
Comments

- This is a question that has the potential to unlock a lot of interesting responses.
- Good question. I like 4 and 5 as follow-ups.

4. Tell me about an experience of collaboration in the first-year research writing context that was particularly successful.
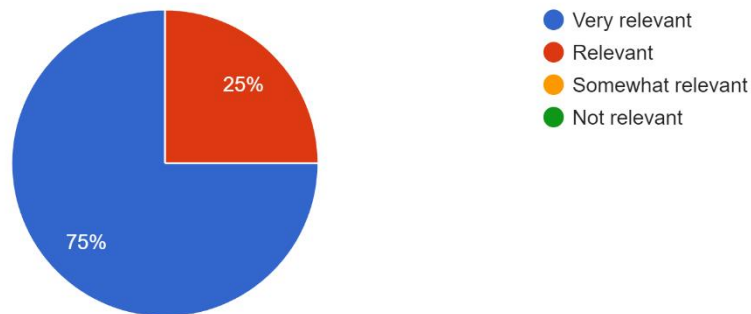4 responses

Comments

- I like the specificity of this question.

5. Tell me about an experience of collaboration that was unsuccessful.
4 responses

Comments

- I assume this is a follow up to question #4 and is still about first year writing collaborations?
- Does the question need to be rephrased to a softer "not as successful" or "did not go as planned"?

RQ2 Interview Questions

RQ2: In what ways do librarians and writing instructors use shared vocabulary and disciplinary frameworks to facilitate understanding and cooperation in teaching first-year college research writing courses?

6. Describe a situation in which you and your partner dialogued about disciplinary frameworks (e.g. ACRL Framework, WPA Framework/Outcomes) to foster mutual understanding.

4 responses

- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant

100%

Comments

- By "mutual understanding," do you mean an understanding of each person's approach to teaching/expected outcomes?
- Great question!

7. What are some common elements of your discipline's framework and your partner's discipline's framework?

4 responses

- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant

25%

75%
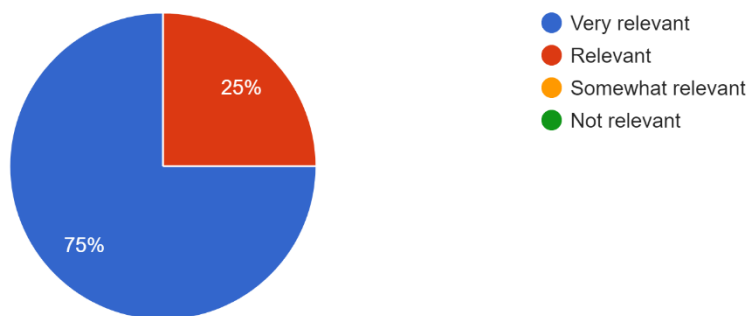
Comments

- Respondents might need a prompt or a reminder of the shared frameworks? I wouldn't be able to talk about the other discipline off-hand, even though I've had those conversations before.

- I wonder whether this question should precede Q6.
- I like this question. Being able to vocalize shared elements demonstrates true understanding.

8. In what ways did your education and professional development help improve collaboration? Overcome barriers?

4 responses

- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant
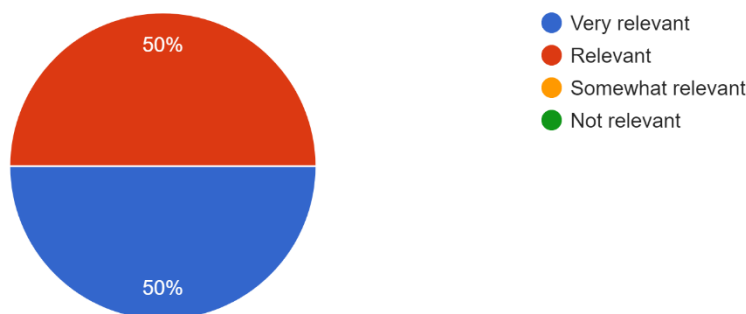
Comments

- In what ways has your education or professional development contributed to or improved collaboration with your partner?
- A possible follow up might be- have you and a writing center collaborator shared space in a professional development context? Attended the same conferences, presented together, etc? ALSO- the reserve of your question- in what way did your librarian training hinder your understanding of how to/ways of collaborating with other disciplines? Something like that perhaps.
- Does this reference a specific PD they participated in or ed/PD in general?

RQ3 Interview Questions
RQ3: How do librarians and writing instructors engage in communities of practice to learn from each other about teaching writing and information literacy concepts in first-year college research writing courses?

9. Think back to your first experience as a librarian/writing instructor. What shaped your experiences with instruction/teaching?

4 responses

- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant

75%

25%
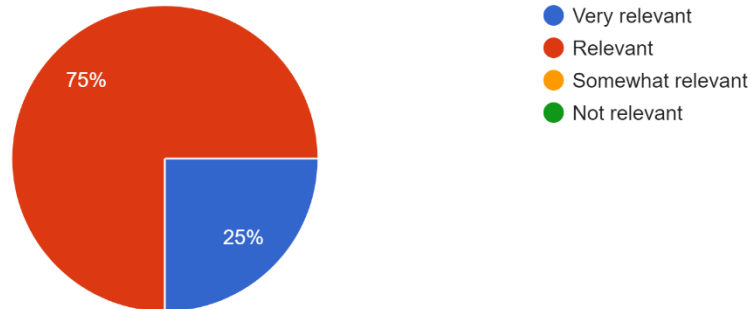
Comments

- Since this is a reflective "first experience" type question, perhaps a follow up about time-like "how long until you were comfortable with x" or something.
- The second half of this question feels a little vague.

10. Please describe an experience in which you learned from a colleague about improving teaching in the first-year research writing context

4 responses

- Very relevant
- Relevant
- Somewhat relevant
- Not relevant

100%

Comments

- Please describe an experience where you learned something from a colleague that improved your teaching in the first-year research and writing course.
- Any kind of colleague?
- Do you want the colleague to be from the other discipline or does it matter?

Appendix J

Final Interview Protocol

Introduction

To facilitate note-taking and accurate representation of what you discuss today, I am going to record our interview. For your information, only I and my dissertation chair will be privy to the recordings. In compliance with the Federalwide Assurance Code, the recordings will be destroyed after three years. In addition, you signed a form devised to meet our human subject requirements. Permission to be videorecorded was a separate signed line in the Informed Consent that you signed. The informed consent also highlighted the following: (1) all information will be confidential. The dissertation will use a pseudonym in place of your name and a number in place of the name of your institution, (2) your participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time if you feel uncomfortable, and (3) we do not intend to inflict any harm. Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study.

The interview is scheduled for a duration of 60 minutes. During this time, I have several questions I would like to cover. If we run out of time, we may resume any unfinished questions during the second 60-minute interview.

You have been selected as participants in this study because you meet the criteria of the study: you are a librarian or writing instructor involved in first-year college research writing and you have experience collaborating with your librarian/writing instructor partner. This research project focuses on the ways librarians and writing instructors collaborate in the first-year college research writing context. I am particularly interested in the use of librarian and writing frameworks that include but are not limited to, the ACRL Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education and the WPA Frameworks/Outcomes for writing.

A. Interviewee Background

1. What is your name? (This is for the researcher's records only; you will be assigned a

    pseudonym)

2. Where do you work?

3. What is your current job title?

4. How long have you been at this institution?

5. How long have you been in your discipline?

6. Tell me about how you came to choose your career path

B. Main Interview Questions

7. Think back to your first experience as an academic librarian/writing instructor. What shaped your experiences with instruction/teaching?

   - Follow-up: please describe a moment in which you began to feel comfortable in your instruction/teaching.

8. **For librarians:** please describe your approach to collaborating with writing instructors in a teaching setting

   For writing instructors: please describe your approach to collaborating with librarians in a teaching setting

9. Possible follow-up: how did this collaboration [from previous question] originally develop? (e.g., organically? Strategically/structurally?)

   - Follow-up: thinking about where your discipline is situated within your institution, what are the boundaries? Can you describe a situation in which the boundaries helped or hindered collaboration?

10. Please describe how your collaborations changed over time

11. Thinking back to the first time you had an interaction with another instructor (librarian or writing instructor) in the context of first-year research writing, what do you recall about that experience?

12. Tell me about an experience of collaboration [with your interview counterpart] in the first-year college research writing context that was particularly successful.

13. How long did it take to get to the level of "successful"?

14. Tell me about an experience of collaboration in the first-year college research writing context that seemed less successful or didn't go as planned.

- Followup: what actions did you or your collaboration partner take to salvage the unsuccessful collaboration?

15. In what ways has your education or professional development contributed to or improved collaboration with your partner?

16. In what ways have your education/professional development hindered your understanding of how to/ways of collaborating with other disciplines?

17. Please describe an experience in which you learned from a colleague about improving teaching in the first-year research writing context

18. Please describe a situation in which you have shared your disciplinary knowledge with your collaboration partner. And vice versa?

19. Describe a situation in which you and your collaborative partner (in first-year college research writing) dialogued about disciplinary frameworks (e.g. ACRL Framework, WPA Framework/Outcomes) to foster mutual understanding about each other's discipline.

20. What are some common elements of your discipline's framework and your partner's discipline's framework?

21. What elements [of the frameworks?] make collaboration more difficult?

22. How have you tried to overcome that barrier?

23. Any additional comments/things we missed?

Conclusion

Thank you for your participation in this study.

After I have an opportunity to analyze the data, I will e-mail you with the results and ask for feedback. Mainly I want to ensure that I captured the essence of our discussion, accurately portraying our discussion and your thoughts. This study will conclude on April 1, 2023.

In the meantime, if you have any questions or concerns, you may contact me via email at arice@nnu.edu or telephone at 208-467-8609. You may also contact Dr. Dennis Cartwright, my faculty supervisor, at 208-880-9781 or dcartwright46@gmail.com.

I appreciate your commitment to participate in this study!

Appendix K

Member Checking Email

<date>

Dear _____,

Thank you for your participation in interviews for my research study. Your responses and those of the other participants resulted in the themes in the attached document.

What I would like to know from you is whether the themes (or facets of these themes) accurately capture our discussions. Please do keep in mind that the themes are the combined result of several interviews. If you have any suggestions or suggested edits, I appreciate your input.

Thank you again for your participation in this study. It was a pleasure talking with you about the ways librarians and writing instructors work together and learn from each other. I hope the results of this study will inspire more collaborations that help serve students.

Sincerely,

Amy C. Rice, M.S., M.A.
Doctoral Student
Northwest Nazarene University