Information in transition:

Examining the information behaviour of academics as they transition into university careers

Thesis submitted to Charles Sturt University for the Doctor of Philosophy

Rebekah Willson
BA (Hons.), MLIS

May 2016

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Certificate of Authorship

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Name: Rebekah Willson

Signature:

Date: 20th May, 2016

Abstract

Transitions are often times of upheaval. A transition, even when positive, may be disruptive as familiar contexts, supports, and resources change. While early career academics are highly trained and experienced, the transition from doctoral student to academic involves a series of new roles and responsibilities within a new information environment, an environment that has been influenced by neoliberal ideals and become increasingly corporatised and managerial in nature. Within information behaviour research there has been a lack of research that focuses specifically on periods of transition, particularly on individuals in transition over time. Additionally, while there is information behaviour research on academics, it does not address the experiences of academics as they start their careers. This research addresses those gaps.

This research used constructivist grounded theory and critical discourse analysis as methodologies to explore the information behaviour of 20 individuals transitioning from doctoral students to academics in Australia and Canada. Academics in the humanities and social sciences, who had recently moved from full-time doctoral studies to full-time academic positions, were followed for a period of between five and seven months. To triangulate the data, three data sources were used: two in-depth interviews, multiple check-ins, and documents. Interviews were analysed using grounded theory analysis, documents using critical discourse analysis. Two theoretical frameworks were used to provide analytical lenses: neoliberalism and Transitions Theory. Several major themes emerged from this research that contribute to both information behaviour research and Transitions Theory.

In looking at academics' work, the number and variety of administrative and managerial tasks universities require academics to perform greatly increases their information needs. Administrative work becomes a layer over all academic work. However, universities frequently fail to provide the information academics require, leaving information needs unfulfilled. Because of this, early career academics frequently seek information from their more senior colleagues,

rather than relying on textual sources. Senior colleagues provide timely, convenient, and comprehensive information. Physical proximity and the building of collegial relationships promote information sharing, informal information exchanges, and serendipitous information finding that is of great use to early career academics. Social information is instrumental for early career academics' settling in to their new positions, as doctoral studies often fail to provide an accurate picture of academic life or to fully prepare students for research, teaching, service, and administrative roles. Comparing and contrasting previous experiences to their current experience is one way that early career academics use new information to learn new ways of working and develop a sense of belonging in academia. From these findings, the theory of Systemic Managerial Constraints (SMC) emerged. SMC views the managerialism that results from neoliberalism within universities as pervasive and constraining both what work early career academics do and how they do it. However, colleagues help to ameliorate the effects of SMC and early career academics learn, as they transition, to enact their personal agency to enable them to do the work that they value.

Acknowledgements

My first thanks goes to the academics who participated in my study. During each interview and in reviewing the interview transcripts (again and again), I was stuck by the generosity of people so busy with their own work, but still willing to help me with mine. I feel honoured and privileged that these individuals shared with me their stories of transitioning from doctoral students to academics. I have endeavoured to respectfully and rigorously analyse and represent our discussions of those experiences. Thank you.

In many ways I felt like it “took a village” to raise this thesis. I want to thank my sister, Elizabeth, who went through the PhD before me. Thank you for all your support and advice. (And I almost feel like I need to thank Skype for allowing us to stay in touch.) Also, thank you to Elizabeth and Jon for allowing me to stay with you during data collection in Canada. To my parents, you supported me in moving around the world and continue to support me in all I do. Your encouragement and help mean the world. I want to thank my friends, Jacquie and Wade, my PhD buddies. Without you and our discussions over coffee, this thesis would have been a lonely road.

I want to thank all of those who gave me practical support. Joy, who lent me her car so I could travel to do data collection in Australia, Michael and Harriet, Barb, and Michelle who all housed me during my data collection trips in Australia and Canada. I also want to thank the Faculty of Education and Charles Sturt University for the generous scholarships and the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada for the doctoral fellowship (752-2014-0499).

And lastly, I want to thank my supervisor, Professor Lisa Given, and my co-supervisor, Professor Annemaree Lloyd. In particular, I want to thank Lisa for showing me throughout my doctoral studies what kind of an academic I want to be. Thank you for your guidance and mentorship. (And for letting me live in your house when I was moving across the world. Twice.)

Chapter 1: Introduction

Talk to people undergoing a transition, such as starting a new job or having a baby, and often you will hear stories of stress, upheaval, learning, and adaptation. More than a problem to be managed or a sequence of linear development, transitions contain complexities that must be understood by taking into account multiple contexts and diverse pathways (Fenwick, 2013). Transitions are periods of time in which individuals' lives are disrupted as they move from one phase of their lives into another (Chick & Meleis, 1986); people typically undergo an adaptation process to transitions, moving from being consumed by transition to integrating the change into their lives (Schlossberg, 1981). This integration is a necessary part of transitions; it is important to individuals (i.e., for personal development, well-being and achievement of goals), to the economy (i.e., organisations spend time and money to train and orient workers to improve worker satisfaction and productivity), and to society (i.e., as it is made up of individuals who must be able to navigate through the stages of life). This research examines one of the major life transitions, moving from higher education to the workplace, by investigating the transition of humanities and social sciences (HSS) academics as they move from doctoral programs to academic positions in Australian and Canadian universities.

Transitions are times of change and of increased information need. Moving from doctoral student to academic involves a series of transitions, both personal (e.g., moving cities, entering new social circles) and professional (e.g., starting a new position, teaching new classes). Each of these transitions requires new information. Sub-fields of information science have examined some of the aspects of information and transition. Research within information literacy has examined aspects of exiting school and entering the workforce, such as the information literacy skills of graduating students (e.g., Salisbury & Karasmanis, 2011), the transfer of information literacy skills from school to the workplace (e.g., Herring, 2011) and workplace information literacy skills learning (e.g., Li & Hung, 2010; Lloyd & Somerville, 2006). Research within information

behaviour has examined individuals' experiences in times of transition, such as students starting university (e.g., Stutzman, 2011), women during pregnancy (e.g., McKenzie, 2003), immigrants in a new country (e.g., Caidi and Allard, 2005; Caidi, Allard, & Quirkey, 2010; Kennan, Lloyd, Qayyum, & Thompson, 2011; Lloyd, Kennan, Thompson, & Qayyum, 2013), and patients experiencing an illness (e.g., Ankem, 2006). What has been little explored is: 1) academics as a population, to document the doctoral student to academic transition, specifically; or, 2) the information activities related to the transition period itself. This study addresses this gap in the current information science literature.

This study came from a desire to understand how transitions impact the day-to-day experience of individuals and their use of information. As a former academic librarian I taught large numbers of information literacy instruction sessions to undergraduate students. I became interested in how graduating students take the knowledge and skills they learn in university into the workplace. Being a doctoral student, I was also interested in how graduating PhD students take knowledge and skills from their doctoral studies into their first continuing academic position. I was interested in the information behaviour of newly hired academics. Individuals undergoing a transition are often viewed at one point in time (e.g., Park & Lee, 2013; Yeoman, 2010) or before and after an event (e.g., Herring, 2011), missing the experience of the transition as it is happening. As the term transition implies, there is a movement from one phase into another that takes place over a period of time. The changes in individuals' understandings and behaviours, and their adaptation and socialisation to new contexts, require special consideration. What information science is lacking is an understanding of the experience of transition as it relates to information activities, situations and environments. There is a need to understand how individuals undergoing change seek information as they take on new roles in new contexts. While the university's role as an institution of higher learning is familiar to doctoral students from their studies, this environment shifts when they take on an academic position, becoming a place

of full-time employment. Students, as emerging early career academics,[1] are familiar with academic culture; thus, past experiences form part of new academics' conceptions of their new workplaces. However, their ways of working and their understandings must be adapted to the new culture (Bosetti, Kawalilak, & Patterson, 2008). These adaptations include the information behaviours in which new academics engage in the workplace and in everyday life. Often these spheres are not examined in conjunction, but there are benefits to looking at them together as they are interconnected (Given, 2002). There is a need to understand how new information situations and environments are understood and used. In particular, the current climate of higher education – being in a period of corporatisation, increased managerialism, and the construction of an audit culture (e.g., Archer, 2008; Chomsky, 2015; Giroux, 2002, Kimber & Ehrich, 2015; Lorenz, 2012; Readings, 1996) – has the potential to impact both the work early career academics do, as well as how they accomplish that work. In order to address this gap in information behaviour research, it is imperative that an inclusive approach be used. This research takes a social constructionist perspective and uses qualitative methods to explore academics' experiences with information, both professional and personal. The results of this study contribute to our understanding of information practices during transition, address the current research gap in information science, and inform recommendations that may help individuals adjust to their new roles.

Transitions in academe

Academics' environments must be understood in order to understand academics' information needs, how they seek information and how they use information once it is found. Transitions involve movement, both a moving *toward* as well as a moving *from.* Transitions involve multiple contexts, by

[1] Early career academics will be used rather than the titles lecturer (used in Australia) and assistant professor (used in Canada). Early career academic refers to academics in full-time continuing and probationary positions, whether permanent or contract positions. For other vocabulary terms, please see Appendix A.

nature. The university contains many contexts (including the political, policy, institutional, departmental and informational) that exist simultaneously and affect the experience of new academics. Each of these contexts enables and constrains activities, creating a unique world with pressures and competing demands specific to place and time. While academics have a certain degree of flexibility in their schedules and autonomy in pursuing teaching, research and service goals, academics from across different countries are also constrained by multiple factors including budgetary constraints, new technologies, an emphasis on learning outcomes, external pressures to produce 'relevant' research, a focus on attracting students, and a need to wade through bureaucracy (Austin, 2002b; Côté & Allahar, 2011; Hil, 2012). Into this atmosphere of increased monitoring, early career academics undergo many transitions as they take on the numerous roles that make up an academic position, such as researcher, teacher, committee member, and administrator. These numerous roles and multiple contexts contribute to the university environment that new academics enter, and this environment is one of pressure. Stress, lack of time and heavy workloads encapsulate the experience of many academics (e.g., Austin, 2002a; Fredman & Doughney, 2012; Hil, 2012; Murray, 2008). Transitions have implications for the information behaviour of early career academics, particularly as instability during transitional periods can mean frequent changes in context, needs, and available resources. The transition from doctoral student to academic will be covered briefly here and will be addressed in more detail in Chapter 2.

Doctoral student training

There has been an increase in interest about doctoral student training around the world in recent decades (e.g., Green, 2012; McAlpine, Jazvac-Martek, & Hopwood, 2009). In the concluding chapter of their book about doctorates across the world, Powell and Green (2007) discuss differing models of supervision, a focus of many countries' doctoral training on generic skills, and confusion on the status of students as staff or student; the authors indicate that many countries deal with similar issues in doctoral education. Students may begin to learn about the many facets of an academic career in doctoral

programs before ever being hired (Austin, 2002a). Doctoral programs are supposed to be the start of multiple processes of socialization into the roles of PhD student, academic life, and the discipline (Austin, 2002a). However, doctoral students may have misconceptions about what academics do, not thinking about those aspects of academic positions that cannot be "seen" (Bieber & Worley, 2006, p. 1021). They may have limited understanding of the multiple roles that comprise academic positions, for example, student advising, institutional service, and community engagement (Austin, 2002b). Some of these misconceptions may come from students' undergraduate interactions with academics (Bieber & Worley, 2006), while others may come from doctoral students being left to figure out how to work within the university environment on their own with little guidance about what faculty positions entail (Austin, 2002b). Doctoral students are in an interesting position within the university as they work under the supervision of an academic; they are moving toward independence in their work, but have not yet achieved it. This is the traditional model of apprenticeship, in which students are trained in a research degree to prepare them to become academics within the university (Bieber & Worley, 2006). Under this model, doctoral students may learn from supervisors and other faculty about the day-to-day life of academics. Some doctoral students gain teaching and/or service experience during their doctoral program in addition to their research training. Other doctoral students are given little guidance about the roles and expectations of academics (Austin, 2002b; Walker, Golde, Jones, Bueschel, & Hutchings, 2008), leaving them unprepared to transition into the complexities of the academic role.

Academic roles: Research, teaching, and service

The information environment in academia is complex, with academic positions being comprised of multiple roles and multiple informational contexts, including discipline, government, institution, and academic unit. In Australia, as university budgets have been cut back, there are pressures to increase revenues and calls for increased accountability for how public monies are spent (Hil, 2012). In teaching, this leads to an increased focus on learning outcomes

to demonstrate learning taking place in the classroom. Budgetary cuts also encourage universities to focus on recruiting students, particularly those from overseas, which can put universities in competition with one another and turn students from learners into consumers (Hil, 2012). This context has an impact on classroom practices, including what is taught and how it is taught. In Canada, governments want the learning that takes place to be of demonstrable benefit to society, often leading to pseudo-vocational training in undergraduate programs that prepare students for the working world (Côté & Allahar, 2011). Around the world the focus on skills training in doctoral education has led to concern over whether doctoral education is shifting to a "functionalist" perspective (Powell & Green, 2007, p. 259), concerned more with transferrable skills than disciplinary expertise. Into this environment, new academics come to teach, a role with which they may or may not have experience. Some doctoral students are tutors, teaching assistants, or, particularly near the end of their degrees, may take on contract teaching. Some may receive instructional training during their studies. For other students they lack not only training but also experience. As with research, there is an expected increase in independence in teaching with continuing appointment positions. Often academics are teaching more subjects, more senior subjects, and may take on the development of new curricula in the first few years of their careers. Teaching, with its immediacy of in-class hours and student needs, often takes priority over other roles and new academics often spend substantial amounts of their time on teaching-related activities (Laudel & Gläser, 2008; Murray, 2008). The time spent on teaching can create difficulties in completing numerous other required tasks.

Research is a major aspect of academics' roles. It is also an aspect of the role of the academic that is of interest to governments and policy makers. Similar to teaching, budget cuts have increased calls for research that is relevant to society to be produced (Côté & Allahar, 2011) and granting agencies often set new priorities to encourage research in particular areas. There is also increased pressure to undertake research that produces results in shorter periods of time through assessment exercises, such as the Excellence in Research for Australia (ERA) initiative, which evaluates the research output of university departments and uses the evaluation data for some funding decisions

(Australian Government, Australian Research Council, 2012). It is into this research culture that new academics transition, as they attempt to establish themselves as independent researchers. Early career academics are expected to carry out research on their own and are also expected to create a research plan that will guide their activities as they complete their probationary years of employment. One important element of probationary review is research funding. The competition for funding dollars is strong, but grant writing is an academic activity that many doctoral students have not attempted (Sugimoto, 2012; Weidman & Stein, 2003) and requires mentorship (Hemmings, 2012; Sugimoto, 2012).

It is difficult to determine the extent to which the service role is addressed in doctoral education, as the literature on doctoral education rarely mentions this topic. When research has examined doctoral students' preparedness for taking on internal and external service activities, it has found students feel less prepared for this role than for research and teaching (Schwartz & Walden, 2012). While doctoral programs may provide opportunities to gain service experience (such as serving on a university-level committee), available opportunities may be limited. Also, the concept of service is broader than representation on committees and can include service to the department, the faculty, the university, the community, the profession or the discipline. Challenges to gaining service experience can include the lack of definition around what service is, learning about what service opportunities are available, or understanding how best to accomplish service work alongside other academic tasks. Much academic service work includes committee work, which requires knowledge of how universities are structured, how to read and write policies, how to work within committee structures and how meetings are run. New academics may feel pressure to take on a large amount of service work, as they are concerned with meeting probationary requirements in their new position. Teaching, research and service requirements for achieving a continuing appointment vary greatly from institution to institution. In the United States, for example, many new academics are unsure of tenure requirements and unsure how to meet those requirements (Austin, 2002b). Lack of understanding around requirements may begin with doctoral training, where

students' lack of training in teaching and service often leaves them feeling unprepared for their new academic roles (Austin, 2002b). New academics face the many challenges that all academics face, but some may have little experience or training from doctoral programs to help deal with those challenges.

Personal transitions

Beyond the professional issues, new academic positions often come with personal transitions. In many countries, universities typically do not hire their own doctoral graduates into continuing appointments; this means that new academics will be starting work at a new institution and potentially in a new city. Some academics may move great distances, across country or around the world, to take up a new position. When doctoral graduates are hired by their alma mater, this may reduce the number of transitions new academics experience – but may also introduce new challenges, as individuals move from the former role of 'student' to the new role of 'colleague' with existing peers. Similarly, the path to continuing appointments varies across institutions. Some doctoral students may be hired as teaching staff and begin their doctorates, part-time, after being hired.

Academics may also be more likely than other professionals to move to take up a position, as available jobs in specialised fields may be rare (Desjardins, 2012; Gluszynski & Peters, 2005). Moving cities requires arrangements for belongings to be moved, new accommodation to be found, and a new household to set up, including things such as finding a new Internet provider and turning on the electricity. A new city also requires orientation, learning how to navigate the city, public transportation and where to find services such as a doctor and a hairstylist. A new city can also pose challenges for social engagement and support. Family and friends may be left behind, meaning that a new support system must be developed. Family may also move, meaning that there are others undergoing transitions as well. The number of personal transitions that accompany a professional transition can be numerous. The information environments of early career academics are complex. In a new

and changing environment individuals may have increased information needs and, as their context remains unstable for considerable periods of time, these needs may shift.

Research problem

This research falls within the information science subfield of information behaviour. For the purposes of this study, information behaviour is defined as a human-centred approach to research that examines information needs, as well as information seeking, use, and practices that occur within a particular context and are purposive, unintentional or passive. This definition has been influenced by the work of many information behaviour researchers, including Case (2012), Wilson (2000), and Savolainen (2008b). Information behaviour research has often examined individuals and groups who are undergoing life changes; however, transitions have rarely been the explicit subject of study. During times of change and upheaval, such as moving from a doctoral student to becoming an academic, information needs come to the fore and information behaviours may change. Resources that were familiar and accessible in a previous context may no longer be available in a new information environment; or, the new environment may have to be monitored regularly for change and to determine where to find information, particularly who in the new environment can act as a resource. As environments and roles change for early career academics, the ways to use information, enact roles, and accomplish tasks need to be determined. As new academics are given new roles in the areas of research, teaching, and service, they may be faced with having to balance more and new information needs and tasks than in their experience as a doctoral student. For example, when serving on university committees, new committee members are often required to learn more about university governance, which they may have not previously understood. Whether or not the research, teaching, and service responsibilities are new, early career academics may take on these roles in a new context that has particular ways of working, which must be learned by newcomers. In addition to new roles and

environments, new academics may have more independence in their work than they had as a doctoral student, requiring changes to identity and new ways of working. These are some of the many issues that early career academics may grapple with as they make the transition from student to academic. Despite conducting research with participants who are in periods of transition, some information behaviour research has treated individuals as though they are static in time and place. Transitions are rarely the focus of analysis in information behaviour research. There is a twofold gap in the current research in information behaviour. The first is a lack of understanding how being in a transition impacts individuals' information behaviour. The second is a lack of knowledge of information behaviour in the specific transition from doctoral student to academic. As information needs are heightened by transitions and previous modes of seeking information may change in new environments, examining information behaviour in times of change is vital. And while the particulars of transitions may differ between circumstances, transitions are experienced universally.

In using transitions as the focus for study, this research examines new academics' information behaviours as they move into their first faculty positions. This research defines transition as a process of change between periods of relative stability, which occur over a specific period of time, requiring adaptation. This definition has been influenced by research, such as Chick and Meleis (1986), Schumacher and Meleis (1994), and Kralik, Visentin, and van Loon (2006). A transition is characterised as a period within certain boundaries and limits, which helps frame the period under examination. While transitions are ongoing and may vary, they are not permanent. They may be experienced as times of both fluctuation and stabilisation (Fenwick, 2013). Transitions also provide a focus on the temporal, as 'transition' implies a time of pre-transition, transition and post-transition. Pre-transition is experienced in doctoral programs, transition is beginning the tenure-track position and post-transition is when the academics no longer consider themselves as 'new.' However, this is not to imply that these are distinct, linear "phases" of a transition. Rather they can be conceived of as overlapping circles of experience,

with new experiences constantly arising, resolving, and retreating. Each of these is important in understanding the change that takes place.

Transitions also provide a focus on the spatial, as they are movements not only in time but also in space. Transitions are the spaces between states or roles or contexts. Personal and social contexts of transition must be examined, including the individual (what individuals are required to do on a daily basis both in the academic position and at home), the workplace (work roles and job tasks in the university, such as administrative work, reporting on work accomplished and probationary evaluations) and the academic (teaching, research and service roles, in addition to positions such as advisors, supervisors and leaders). There is also the physical environment to consider, the office, the academic unit, the faculty, the university and the home in which they work. In order to gain a more holistic picture of academics' experiences as they go through transition, the complex and multiple aspects of individuals' contexts must be taken into account. This inclusive examination may contain the individual, work, home, society, history and culture.

In examining individuals' experiences with and use of information, affect, expectations, skills, prior training and social networks must also be included. The significance of this work is that it addresses a current research gap in information behaviour, focusing on the impact of a transition to how academics carry out their information work and take on the practices of their profession. In addition to contributing to information behaviour research, this study also provides a better understanding of the transition experienced by new academics by focusing on the voices of those experiencing the transition. Early career academics enter a complex environment, taking on a number of complex roles. These roles are important to disciplinary studies, to tertiary education, and to society beyond tertiary education, which benefits from student learning and research discovery. The results of this study inform the scholarly literature in education and information studies and can also guide university administrators and academics' understandings of the supports needed for successful career transition.

Research questions

This research takes a social constructionist approach to examining academics' personal and professional information behaviour and information practices during transition. In this research, information behaviour is defined as a human-centred approach to research that examines information needs, as well as information seeking, use, and practices that occur within a particular context and are purposive, unintentional or passive. Information practices are defined, according to Savolainen (2008b), as "a set of socially and culturally established ways to identify, seek, use, and share the information available in various sources" (p. 2). To examine these issues, two major research questions are posed, each with sub-questions:

1. What are the academic and everyday information experiences of academics as they transition from doctoral education to their first full-time, lecturer/assistant professor positions in universities?
    a. During transition, what are the information practices in which academics engage?
    b. What are academics' perceptions of the change in their information practices (needs, seeking, use), if any, during transition?
    c. What are academics' perceptions of the change in their information environment?
2. How do participants perceive the impact of their social environment on their information practices?
    a. How does the social environment of academe affect academics' information practices?
    b. What information behaviours do academics engage in during transition to become a part of new social contexts?
    c. What environmental factors (physical environment, political environment and social environment) enable or constrain academics' information behaviours?
    d. What impact, if any, do academics perceive university and departmental policies and procedures have on their information activities?

These questions, including the definition of terms and discussions of categories, are discussed more thoroughly in Chapter 2, placing this research in the context of the published literature, and Chapter 3, in discussing methodology and methods of the study.

Study design

The participant group for this study was chosen for their unique position, which contributes to the significance of the research. Academics work in information-driven fields, both requiring large amounts information and creating new information. Academics also have roles with potentially great impact, both in teaching the next generation of university graduates and in setting research agendas that guide academic inquiry. Academics' work also contributes to society's understanding of culture, society and the world. For this study, academics in the humanities and social sciences (HSS) were chosen as the focus. Humanities have been defined as "the branches of learning (as philosophy, arts, or languages) that investigate human constructs and concerns as opposed to natural processes (as in physics or chemistry) and social relations (as in anthropology or economics)" (Merriam-Webster, 2013). Social sciences are those branches of learning that investigate social relations. The government of Canada defines HSS as those disciplines that are not related to the natural sciences, engineering or health (Government of Canada, 2015). As these definitions are broad, disciplines whose primary purpose is the investigation of human constructs or social relations were selected. Academics in such disciplines have many similarities in their ways of carrying out research and teaching. Particularly the humanities have been characterised as solitary disciplines (e.g., Stone, 1982; Watson-Boone, 1994). Humanities and social science academics were chosen over academics in health or in STEM (science, technology, engineering and medicine) disciplines, as academics in these disciplines are very frequently the focus of study and often have substantially different research and teaching processes and models, such as a laboratory model.

The geographic locations for this study were chosen for their similarities and differences, providing opportunities to look at variance and contributing to the significance of this research. Canada and Australia are both Commonwealth countries with 'western' education systems that emphasize the importance of higher education for societal success. However, the differences between the countries provide useful contexts for examining transitions. (For a glossary of

vocabulary used in academia in Australia and Canada, please see Appendix A.) Canada uses a coursework-based model for PhD education (similar to the United States), which typically includes coursework, comprehensive exams, candidacy defence and a dissertation defence with external experts. Australia uses the dissertation-only model for PhD education (similar to that used in the United Kingdom), which typically does not include coursework or comprehensive exams, but includes a candidacy defence and a final review process in which theses are sent out for examination by external, expert readers. Of particular interest, the Australian government has implemented the ERA research assessment model, which uses the evaluation data gathered to determine some funding decisions for universities (Australian Government, Australian Research Council, 2012). This model has the potential to greatly affect Australia's research culture, changing the operations of researchers and influencing research agendas to produce "safe" research that will have outputs that can be counted by assessment metrics (e.g., Geuna & Martin, 2003, p. 296). Although similar schemes are used in the UK, New Zealand and other countries, Canada has not yet adopted research evaluation schemes of this type. Examining transitions in these two contexts allows for an examination of the impact of specific (yet different) government policies on academics' research and everyday lives.

Information behaviour was chosen as the sub-field through which to examine this research as this sub-field deals with information needs, seeking and use. It provides a lens to examine the types of information required by new academics, how they seek that information, and how they use that information in their work once it is found. In addition, information behaviour deals with issues such as how individuals conceptualise their information environments, how they access and manage the information they accumulate and how technology becomes a part of the way they deal with information. Added to this, information behaviour deals with information in the professional, as well as the personal, realm.

Thesis outline

This chapter provided the rationale and the context for the proposed study. Transitions of doctoral students into faculty positions was discussed, including what those transitions entail and how little is known about the impact of transitions on information behaviour.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature in three areas: the context of academics' transition from doctoral student to academic, information behaviour, and transitions. Continuing from Chapter 1, this chapter begins by discussing the transition doctoral students will make but in greater detail, paying particular attention to the workplace roles of teaching, research and service, as well as to workplace and personal changes. The context in which individuals will encounter transitions within the larger context of the university is set, first as a doctoral student and then as an academic. Roles, expectations, social aspects and resources are discussed in reference to academics' experience within higher education. The discussion of contexts is ended with a discussion of the specific information context in which academics reside, including resources and technology. Once the context is set, Transitions Theory is then defined, characterised and the factors that mediate transitions are discussed. The review then turns to information behaviour and the related concepts of information needs, information use, internal context and external context. Once described in generalities, the information behaviour of doctoral students and academics is reviewed. Lastly, transitions and information are brought together through the review of the scant literature on information behaviour of individuals in transition, highlighting the gap that exists in understanding the information behaviour of academics during transitions.

Chapter 3 explores the approach taken to the research, which includes the epistemological, theoretical and methodological underpinnings of the research, as well as the methods that were used in carrying out the research. The procedures used to collect data are covered, including the ethics in working with this population and the specific actions required for each method. From there the data analysis is discussed, as well as the quality and rigour of that data. Limitations to the research are also examined.

Chapter 4 depicts the findings and discussion. Four major themes are presented: *University as monolith: Dictating what academics should do and how*, *Information exchange as social enterprise*, *Settling in: Mediating between the known and unknown*, and *Sturm Und Drang: The affective experience of transition*. Added to these major themes is an overarching theme, which is a proposed theory to better understand the informational experience of academics, entitled *Systemic Managerial Constraints* (SMC).

Chapter 5 concludes the research, recounting the contributions this research makes to information behaviour and Transitions Theory, in addition to the implications this research has for higher education.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter overview

In moving from a doctoral student to an academic, early career academics experience a change in role, status, activities and structure. The new role comes with new information needs, new information environments, new responsibilities, and a new standing within academe. This literature review is structured into three sections. The first section covers aspects of context at the level of the university, doctoral students, and academics. The second section discusses transitions, including aspects of the transition from doctoral student to academic and Transitions Theory, its definition, characteristics, and aspects that mediate transitions. The last section reports on information behaviour, information behaviour of doctoral students and academics, as well as information during transitions.

Contexts

When examining the experiences of individuals or groups, it is important to take into consideration the contexts in which they live and work, including those aspects of the environment that influence in lasting and more predictable ways (Courtright, 2007). The contexts in which doctoral students and academics work are complicated spaces. These contexts have the potential to influence both students and academics and change the workplace and programs in which academics work.

University context

Recently, much has been written about what many see as trends within higher education around the world towards treating universities as corporations (e.g., Chomsky, 2015; Côté & Allahar, 2011; Ginsberg, 2011; Giroux, 2007;

Hil, 2012; Kimber & Ehrich, 2015; Lorenz, 2012). Writing about the Australian context, Hil (2012) describes the shift toward "economic rationalism, commercialisation, managerialism, corporate governance" that changes the understanding of the mission of universities and what comprises academic life (p. 7). In treating universities like businesses, a payment for service mentality develops, with students positioned as consumers (Côté & Allahar, 2011; Hil, 2012). The business model also means an increase in the administrators and managers hired at universities (Ginsberg, 2011), which contributes to the establishment of an audit culture that increases the scrutiny of academics' work in the name of accountability and transparency. This shift is often accompanied by a decrease in government funding and an increase in workloads (e.g., through cutting professional staff positions and shifting administrative work to academics), casualisation (i.e., fewer permanent academic jobs and increasing casual and adjunct positions), and pressure for external income (such as grants and student tuition). The new pressures contribute to precariousness within higher education (Chomsky, 2015) and a renewed debate over the purpose of the university (e.g., Giroux, 2010a). Concerned with the implications of the move toward corporatisation and decreasing budgets in universities, these concerns and criticisms, amongst others, are also being seen in doctoral education.

Doctoral education context

There is much debate over the meaning of the doctoral degree and its purpose (e.g., Lee, Brennan, & Green, 2009; Park, 2007; Pearson, Cumming, Evans, Macauley, & Ryland, 2011; Snyder & Beale, 2012). There have been calls for PhD programs to better prepare students for life in academia, providing training in teaching and service (e.g., Austin, 2002b), in addition to calls for PhD programs to prepare students for a life outside academia, as the number of continuing appointments decrease and governments call to increase the human capacity of the labour force (Park, 2007). While some of this discussion has come from the debate around professional doctorates, it is also part of the

discussion of the PhD. Those interested in the outcomes of higher education – including governments, industry, and universities – debate the issue and this discourse reflects their perspectives, questioning whether the doctorate serves the "knowledge economy, lifelong learning or human capital education" (Pearson et al., 2011, p. 529). While, traditionally, doctoral education has been viewed as increasing disciplinary knowledge and training academics (e.g., Bieber & Worley, 2006), there has been much discussion about doctoral programs providing the knowledge economy with highly trained knowledge workers and increasing human capital for the workforce (e.g., Danby & Lee, 2012). Despite the changes within universities and the debate around the purpose of doctoral education, doctoral students continue to be educated and prepared for careers in academia.

Context for doctoral students

In order to better understand the transition of doctoral students to academics, it is necessary to look at some of the aspects of doctoral students' context and to acknowledge that doctoral students come from varied backgrounds, with varied experience of and knowledge about academia. The formal and informal curriculum within the program of study impacts not only on students' disciplinary knowledge but also on their understanding of how to be an academic. The context in which doctoral students find themselves is influenced by the doctoral program curriculum, people in their lives, the resources available and the job prospects at the end of the program. It is in this context that doctoral students continue to develop their academic identities and where learning and information behaviours are further formed.

Doctoral education

Doctoral education differs between Australia and Canada. Typically, Australia uses a thesis-only model, whereas Canada uses a coursework and examination model. The typical route to the Australian PhD program is an honours undergraduate or masters-by-research degree and demonstrated

capacity to undertake research (Evans, 2007). The PhD degree is intended to take no less than three and no more than four years of full-time study, with four years as the point at which doctoral funding stops. It is difficult to get current data on completion times for doctoral students; however, completion time for full-time students has been approximately four years (Evans, 2007). Doctoral programs focus on a major research project and include training in research skills that can be broadly defined as coursework but no exams (Evans, 2007). Students are under the guidance of their principal supervisor and at least one other supervisor. In their first year, students begin working on a proposal for their research. This proposal, to show an understanding of the discipline and specifics of the research study, generally must be approved by a committee, typically within the first year of study, and has a written, oral and interview portion (Evans, 2007). At this point the student is endorsed as a doctoral candidate. The majority of the work is self-directed, with supervisory input.

In Canada, the typical route to a PhD program is a research-based masters degree (Maheu, 2007), though course-based masters are becoming a more popular path. The length of the PhD degree varies greatly between programs. While it is difficult to get current data on completion times is typically expected to last between 4-6 years full-time; in 2007 the average completion time was 5 years 10 months (Maheu, 2007). The most common form of doctoral thesis supervision is by committee, which includes a supervisor (Maheu, 2007). Typically, the first year of the program is devoted to formal coursework. If the doctoral program has comprehensive exams, the second year is often spent preparing for these exams, which vary greatly in their composition between institutions. The comprehensive exams, which may have both a written and oral defence component (Maheu, 2007), are typically set to test students' disciplinary knowledge, as well as their knowledge of their specific sub-field(s). In addition to coursework and exams, there is a candidacy exam that requires doctoral students to develop a written proposal of research and do an oral defence for their committee. After successful completion of the candidacy exam, the student becomes a doctoral candidate and begins data collection.

Within the Australian system, once the research has been completed and the thesis has been written, it is sent out for examination by up to three external examiners and universities are encouraged to include an international scholar as one of the external examiners (Evans, 2007). Upon successful examination of the written work, students complete the program. Within the Canadian system, once the research has been completed and the thesis has been written, a committee is formed that consists of the supervisor and other scholars, which typically includes both internal and external members, with the student defending the thesis orally (Maheu, 2007). Upon successful oral examination, students complete the program.

Social context

During the doctoral program, supervisors play a major role in students' social context. The supervisory relationship can take many different shapes, ranging from one supervisor to several committee members and/or co-supervisors, and can also include informal relationships with other academics. Supervisors are important to doctoral students' development and can play a significant role in guiding and supporting students (Baker & Pifer, 2011; Gardner, 2008; Hopwood, Alexander, Harris-Huemmert, McAlpine, & Wagstaff, 2011), with many students developing close relationships with supervisors, obtaining mentorship and guidance on topics such as careers and academic roles. Of course, this is not the case for all students, some of whom receive little guidance, support, or mentoring (Baker & Pifer, 2011). In addition to supervisors, doctoral students name peer relationships and relationships with friends and family outside academia as being important to their experience in doctoral programs (Austin, 2002a; Hopwood, 2010; Sweitzer, 2008). While family and friends are identified as providing support, peers are identified as the main source of subculture transmission to doctoral students (Weidman & Stein, 2003), helping one another through the requirements of graduate programs (Austin, 2002a). While doctoral studies in the humanities and social sciences have traditionally been thought of as engaging in solitary research activities (e.g., Stone, 1982; Watson-Boone, 1994), the social relationships with

supervisors and peers are important to doctoral students' experiences within academia (Hopwood et al., 2011).

Career prospects

Career prospects are a large part of the current debate about doctoral education. Full-time continuing positions are being reduced and replaced by part-time, casual, and contract positions (e.g., Austin, 2002a; Chomsky, 2015; Golde & Dore, 2001; Kimber & Ehrich, 2015); overall, the number of continuing appointments in universities is decreasing (e.g., Bieber & Worley, 2006; Hil, 2012; Park, 2011). Despite the decreasing positions, many students in doctoral programs plan on working in academia and may have unrealistic expectations of what the job market is like (Bieber & Worley, 2006). One study in Canada showed that over half of students finishing their doctorates planned to work in higher education and approximately one third planned on taking further training or study, including postdoctoral fellowships (Gluszynski & Peters, 2005). More doctoral students strive to publish from their dissertation and plan to do postdoctoral research as the competition for academic positions increases.

Context for academics

Early career academics must make the transition from doctoral student to an academic work context. It is in this new context that new academics begin to apply what they have learned about being academics, where the realities of academic life are experienced, and where information behaviours are modified to fit new information environments. The contexts in which academics find themselves have many influences including academic roles and expectations, colleagues within the university, and the resources available.

Academic roles and expectations

Much of the current discourse about academic life positions academics as unsatisfied with their current situations, including feeling underfunded (e.g., Austin, 2002a), overworked (e.g., Murray, 2008,) and having to take on more managerial tasks (e.g., Bentley, Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure, & Meek, 2012; Fredman & Doughney, 2012). The lack of funding is often discussed in relation to education systems and universities, generally, which are then borne by academics who are called on to do more with less. This is also part of the discourse around being overburdened, as academics often feel they have a lack of time, they are stressed and some are feeling burned out (Murray, 2008).

One of the sources of stress for new academics is institutional performance evaluation. In the mid-1990s, Menges (1996) described the first years of an academics' working life as "characterized by stress, dilemmas about how to allocate time to competing responsibilities, uncertainty about what is expected o f them, and dissatisfaction with feedback about their progress" (p. 169). More recent research shows that new academics have difficulty understanding the probationary criteria of the institution, particularly around the evaluation of teaching and service (Murray, 2008). Many new academics may also experience a lack of clarity around expectations and a shortage of regular feedback (Austin, 2002b). Individual institutions set the performance criteria and expectations for their staff. With the exception of academics who are in teaching-only or research-only positions, performance as an academic is judged based on research, teaching and service. The percentage of time spent on each activity varies according to the university, but typically research-intensive universities expect a 40-40-20 division of labour on research, teaching, and service respectively, and more teaching-focused universities expect a 60-30-10 division. Academics are required to do research and the outcomes of that research are further evaluated by granting agencies in obtaining external funding and by peer reviewers in dissemination. As part of research expectations, academics are expected to obtain grants from external funding agencies; this can be difficult for new academics who are still trying to get their research agendas off the ground (Laudel & Gläser, 2008). Academics must also

disseminate the results of their research at scholarly conferences and, most importantly, through publications. The type of publication that is valued most highly (such as monographs or peer-reviewed journals) depends on the discipline, but within academia early career academics consider their "research productivity" to be of central importance to career progression and success (Sutherland, 2015, p. 13). Many new academics find this requirement to publish difficult with their fledgling research agendas and the time pressures they feel from other aspects of the job, such as teaching (Murray, 2008).

Across many countries many academics state they spend much of their time on teaching (Golde & Dore, 2001; Hemmings, 2012; Laudel & Glaser, 2008). This may be especially true of new academics as preparation for new and different classes means that many new academics spend large amounts of time on preparing lectures and materials, as well as marking (Murray, 2008). Student evaluations are an important part of the evaluation of academics' teaching across institutions; other evaluations such as portfolios or peer-evaluations may vary from university to university. The importance of teaching is often dependent on the department or university context and new academics may feel a tension between stated and real priorities (Adcroft & Taylor, 2011). Many academics report an emphasis on teaching in university mission statements; however, that emphasis may not always be experienced in day-to-day work as academics are told, directly or indirectly, to do minimum requirements to get good teaching evaluations and spend time on the things that are more important for continuing appointment evaluations, such as research (Adcroft & Taylor, 2011).

Service is the area of performance that often seems to get lost in the shuffle of other tasks; it is not a focus for many early career academics (Mullen & Forbes, 2000). Service is a requirement of the academic role, but one that may be unclear or vary greatly in type and scope (e.g., Murray, 2008). Typically new academics are expected to conduct service work but learning which opportunities for service are available and which should be taken up may be difficult, particularly when new academics often have little experience with service work. Service work is viewed by some early career academics as an imposition that is not valuable towards career advancement (Mullen & Forbes,

2000), while at the same time being very time consuming (Greene et al., 2008; Murray, 2008). Colleagues, particularly colleagues in positions of authority, are helpful to early career academics to provide with information about their various roles and the expectations of those roles (Greene et al., 2008; Murray, 2008; Rosch & Reich, 1996).

Social context

The immediate academic environment (whether called a department, unit, school, or division) is often a main area for collegial interaction, as it is the primary place of work for academics (Mills, Bettis, Miller, & Nolan, 2005). Because departments are relatively small and comprised of members from similar disciplinary backgrounds, members may share beliefs, norms, and values; this can establish a culture and becomes a source for its members to define their identities and roles within the institution (Mills et al., 2005). The departmental group often is also a major source of socialization for early career academics (Rosch & Reich, 1996). It is through working with and talking to colleagues that much of the day-to-day understanding of the departmental and institutional culture takes place. Another way institutions orient new academics is through mentorship (Mullen & Forbes, 2000; Trowler & Knight, 2000). Mentorship, which may or may not be a formal university program, can foster collegial relationships and help in socialization by providing a place for new academics to ask questions. New academics, however, may be reluctant to ask questions because they are not sure who to ask or fear appearing incompetent to their more experienced colleagues (Rosch & Reich, 1996). Additionally, relationships with other academics may not be established, meaning mentorship does not always take place. Lack of time, opportunity, and an isolationist culture can impede the development of relationships, leaving early career academics on their own to negotiate new identities and "make sense of the roles, responsibilities, and expectations" that are part of their new positions (Bosetti et al. 2008, p. 102).

Universities and departments are also made up of people who also have competing demands, differing ideas about the work of the institution, and how that work should be enacted, which creates politics, power struggles, competition, and personality conflicts. New academics must learn the 'micro-politics' of their departments (Trowler & Knight, 2000, p. 33) and how the power structures within departments impact work such as meetings, collaborative teams, and socialising (Mullen & Forbes, 2000). Within departments academics interact on a frequent basis as struggles around curriculum, budgets, and policies take place. Disciplinary politics may also come in to play both between and within disciplines. While fitting into collegial settings, establishing relationships with colleagues involves complex negotiations, but they are an important aspect of academics' work contexts.

Transitioning From doctoral student to academic

The transition from doctoral student to academic involves a number of changes. While these changes may be unique to individuals and their situations, there are many experiences of change that all new academics share. The transition includes changes to professional roles, information needs, and personal lives.

Research roles

One of the changes in research from doctoral student to academic is research independence, as there is no longer any supervision of research projects (Laudel & Gläser, 2008). While this process begins during doctoral studies (Baker & Pifer, 2011; Lovitts, 2005), this change can be intimidating as academics become solely responsible for the research they undertake and for creating their research plans. The development of a research plan is a complex task that requires, amongst other things, evaluating skills, resources, trends in the field, and timelines to develop a feasible research agenda. New academics need to establish their research plans while working independently, often for

the first time, and trying to determine how they will proceed with their research; this can include decisions on whether to continue with the research started during their PhDs or move in a different direction (Laudel & Gläser, 2008). In addition to a research plan, obtaining research funding is another important and often new aspect to academics' research. Often, obtaining research funding is expected and is a part of performance evaluation. Obtaining grants is an important part of being productive for early career academics (Sutherland, 2015) but it is also an activity that has been identified as requiring mentorship (Hemmings, 2012). There may be additional challenges in obtaining external funding as large funding bodies partially base their funding decisions on track record; new academics often have difficulties winning grants (Laudel & Gläser, 2008). Even a small seed grant can increase the confidence of early career academics, which can lead to more research opportunities (Hemmings, 2012). But a lack of funding can make starting new research difficult, which can be compounded by a lack of time to devote to publishing and building the track record due to other aspects of academics work.

Teaching roles

New academics come to teaching with a wide variety of experiences, some having had tutoring or teaching assistantships[2], others taking on casual or contract teaching positions while completing their doctoral studies, others having no experience at all. Early career academics are often dealing with teaching loads that are higher than they were used to, prepping new subjects or courses[3] and taking on more and different teaching, and learning to deal with issues such as curriculum development, areas with which they may have received little or no training in doctoral programs (Austin, 2002b; Walker et al., 2008). While many may have taught previously as tutors, teaching assistants, or part-time instructors, new academics often start positions at new universities,

[2] The term tutor is used in Australia and teaching assistant is used in Canada, both referring to paid teaching work consisting of aiding the academic responsible for an academic unit; it may also include teaching part of that academic unit.
[3] An academic unit is referred to as a "subject" in Australia and a "course" in Canada.

which may entail teaching new subjects or courses, learning about online education for the first time, or developing new curricula. For academics coming into positions with less experience in teaching, working with students may bring new challenges. Academics are expected to have office hours and juggle the demands of students in multiple classes, including managing the online learning management system. They may also be expected to supervise their own honours or masters students. Academics are more independent in their teaching than doctoral students hired to assist with teaching, so while the university or department may provide mentoring or teaching support, ultimately they are responsible for dealing with problems or questions that arise. Whatever their previous experience, many new academics spend a substantial part of their time on teaching in their initial years of work (Laudel & Gläser, 2008; Murray, 2008), which can make juggling research and service alongside the teaching role particularly challenging.

Academic service roles

Service is often a poorly defined aspect of academic work but can include work for the department, the faculty, the university, the community, the profession, or the discipline. It can be administrative, such as governance, administrative, or policy work; it can also be scholarly, such as sitting on editorial boards or conference program committees. Doctoral students may have a limited understanding of institutional service (Austin, 2002; Bieber & Worley, 2006) but it is a requirement of the job and part of the evaluation for continuing appointments. While service may be varied, it can be very time consuming (Greene et al., 2008; Murray, 2008). While service is discussed as one of the three roles of an academic position (i.e., research, teaching, and service), very little research on doctoral education mentions service, emphasising the lack of profile and importance this work is given. To date, we have very little research on this experience. While doctoral students may be involved in student groups or sit on committees, the requirements of other types of service may be new to early career academics. Discovering what service

opportunities exist can pose challenges for new academics, as well as the organisational structure of committees, departments and universities in which the service will take place. Aspects of committee work, such as working on policy documents and academic governance, also require very specific skills, as well as a general understanding of the organizational context in which the service work is occurring. How to undertake service in the organizational context is another new aspect of starting a new position with new responsibilities.

New information needs

Particularly when new to an institution or position, information requirements are focused on what information is needed to understand and work within that particular environment. Lloyd and Somerville (2006) describe three sources of required information: textual information (texts that provide conceptual knowledge to help knowledge about a role or task), social sources (information from colleagues in a workplace that reveal workplace culture and values), and, physical sources (the physical body of an experienced worker as a site of embodied knowledge). Early career academics, particularly those new to a university, require a vast array of information. They require information about university policies on such topics as research ethics processes, funding application development, and workplace policies. They must also find out about evaluation and promotion processes, including any official polices and requirements. In the teaching role, academics need information on such topics as the degrees offered, the classes available, grading policies, classroom policies (such as plagiarism), how to use learning management systems and how to order textbooks from the bookstore. They require information on the scope of research, teaching, and service roles, as well as practical information about how to enact roles within a particular institution. Early career academics often have an incomplete picture of the university or their roles within it, having only some pieces of information, rather than the whole picture; thus, academics may need to fit those pieces together to create a better understanding

of the landscape (Bosetti et al., 2008). However, information may not be easily accessible, with information residing in complicated bureaucracies or concentrated in the hands of professional staff (Bosetti et al., 2008).

Changes in starting in a new workplace

There are a large number of changes that take place when starting in a new workplace. Universities and workplaces are "radically different activity systems, with quite distinct objectives, mediational means, rules, divisions of labour, and so on" (Le Maistre & Paré, 2004, p. 45). In the case of early career academics, universities are workplaces, which are familiar environments to doctoral students who are not only students but may work as lecturers, teaching or research assistants; however, in the transition from student to academic, universities move from being primarily institutions of higher learning to a workplace. Workplaces also have their own unique geographies, political structures, and cultures that must be acquired to work there. The university is an employer and there are levels of bureaucracy that have to be understood and worked with to succeed in that environment.

Many bureaucratic aspects of the workplace must be addressed in order to accomplish academic work. Although doctoral student tutors, teaching assistants, research assistants, or casual lecturers will have experiences with the university workplace bureaucracy, there are changes in how these aspects are encountered when the employment becomes full-time. Academics have different sets of rules, regulations, and paperwork related to contracts, holidays, benefits, work expectations, rights and obligations of employment. Access to an information system, or a "computer hardware and software system designed to accept, store, manipulate, and analyze data and to report results, usually on a regular, ongoing basis" ("information system," Reitz, 2014), is required by academics to get started on their work, often requiring time and effort (and calls to the technology department) to get properly oriented (Selwyn, 2014). New academics are also given physical spaces and resources in the university, but often the physical resources must be changed to accommodate academics'

needs; so begins a process of ordering new bookshelves or finding out who to contact to get degrees hung on the office wall.

While it is impossible to catalogue all of the changes an academic will undergo in transitioning to their first academic position, it is important to consider the types of changes that may occur to better understand new academics' experiences. Personal and professional contexts are new information environments and require new information activities. Similarly, learning details of academics' earlier contexts is just as important to understand from where the individual came. By looking at transitions themselves, it is possible to understand these experiences in new and deeper ways.

Transitions Theory

Transitions have been the subject of examination in many fields, including psychology, counselling, organisational studies, education, and nursing. While the subject of study, many disciplines take an empirical, rather than a theoretical approach. In reviewing the literature, Transitions Theory stood out as a theoretical framework that explores the definition of transitions, as well as "types and patterns of transitions, properties of transition experiences, transition conditions: facilitators and inhibitors, process indicators, and outcome indicators" (Meleis, Sawyer, Im, Hilfinger Messias, & Schumacher, 2000, p. 16). Therefore, this review of Transitions Theory will focus on nursing, which is the primary discipline to make use of this approach. Starting in the 1980s, nursing researchers, particularly Afaf Ibrahim Meleis, began developing a theory of transitions and explicitly explored the theoretical underpinnings of transitions (e.g., Chick & Meleis, 1986; Kralik et al., 2006; Meleis et al., 2000; Schumacher & Meleis, 1994), in addition to practical applications of transitions. This makes nursing an excellent fit for studying an educational context like higher education. While other disciplines, such as education, may seem like a more natural fit for research that examines the transition from doctoral education to academia, much of the transitions research in education does not explicitly discuss theories about transitions (e.g., Lovitts, 2005; Perry et al.,

1997) or applies previously developed theories to transitions, rather than developing their own (e.g., Baker & Pifer, 2011; Trowler & Knight, 2000). Other educational research is so focused on specific groups of individuals (e.g., pre-school children or adolescents) as to reduce the transferability and the usefulness of any theories developed (e.g., Isakson & Jarvis, 1999; Rimm-Kaufman & Pianta, 2000). However, research in various fields can contribute to the understanding of transitions, including education (contributing a perspective on higher education), organisational studies (contributing a perspective on workplaces), and psychology (contributing a perspective on coping). Literature from these disciplines was used to define transitions, discuss the characteristics of transitions, and the aspects that mediate transitions. This literature is addressed, in detail, in the sections that follow.

Definition

As with many terms in common usage, the definition of transition is often assumed to be so readily apparent that it is not defined (Cowan, 1991). Upon closer examination, the definition of a transition is less clear. What is a transition and what is a change? What signals that a transition has taken place? Without defining the boundaries of a transition, individuals could be said to be in a constant state of transition, or "transitioning" with every change. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, transition is defined both as a noun and a verb, it is both: "A passing or passage from one condition, action, or (rarely) place, to another; change" and, "To make or undergo a transition (from one state, system, etc. to or into another); to change over or switch." Chick and Meleis (1986) discuss the relation of transitions to change and development, whether initiated or imposed, and define transition, "as passage from one life phase, condition, or status to another" (p. 239). Included in Chick and Meleis' definition are the elements of process, implying sequenced stages; time span, implying an ongoing, bounded phenomena; and perception, implying personal meaning for the individual undergoing the transition. Despite mentioning stages, Chick and Meleis (1986) define transitions as a personal, rather than a

structured phenomenon. The process is not prescriptive beyond transitions having an entry, passage, and exit, as people experience even the same transition in different ways. Not only does this definition include both a process and an outcome but it also includes a positive outcome – greater stability is reached at the end of the transition is a positive – whether or not the transition itself is viewed as good.

While stating that transitions are diverse, Schumacher and Meleis (1994) describe two universal properties of transitions: process (transitions are processes that occur over time) and change (change occurs at the individual, family and organisational level). Without these properties change cannot be said to be transitional. Change is a part of all transitions, but not all change is transitional (Meleis et al., 2000). In reviewing the literature, Kralik and colleagues (2006) define transition as "a process of convoluted passage during which people redefine their sense of self and redevelop self-agency in response to disruptive life events" (p. 321), which connotes adaptation to change (p. 322). This research defines transition as a process of environmental, situational, and/or personal change between periods of relative stability, requiring adaptation and redefinition of oneself and situation.

Characteristics of transitions

Meleis and various colleagues explored the various characteristics of transitions; these characteristics are important to consider when transitions are the focus of study. While there are many ways to categorise transitions, it is useful to highlight that transitions can be personal (changes due to changes in life cycle), situational (changes in circumstances in personal or professional life), or environmental (changes in the organisational environment impacting individuals) (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). Changes may come from inevitable changes in the environment, changes made by others, or changes one makes. These transitions may not be mutually exclusive; multiple transitions may occur simultaneously, be a series of discrete transitions or have ripple effects into other aspects of an individual's life (Schumacher and Meleis, 1994). This is

frequently the case for new academics as they move cities to accept a position at a new university.

Inherent to the definition of transition is the idea of time, or a change and movement that takes place over a period of time. The beginning and the end of the transition occur at different points in time and movement takes place in between (Chick & Meleis, 1986). However, while time is experienced, the boundaries of transitions – when transitions begin and end – can be porous and difficult to determine. Assigning specific time values to the time span of transitions is not useful as individuals experience change differently from one person to another (Meleis et al., 2000). A transition may begin with an event but that event may not trigger change in the individual (Cowan, 1991). Transitions have connotations of time and movement, and can be thought of as associating change with time passage, thus the period of transition "extends from the first anticipation of transition until stability in the new status has been achieved" (Chick & Meleis, 1986, p. 239). Transitions are often not experienced linearly; the experience, particularly of transitions that take place over a long period of time, is ongoing and undulating, with states of instability experienced periodically (Kralik et al., 2006; Meleis et al., 2000). They can be conceptualised in many ways, as linear, uni-directional, cyclical, spiral, or convoluted with backward and forward movements (Kralik et al., 2006).

The connotations of transitions include not only time but also movement (Chick & Meleis, 1986). The beginning, middle and end of transitions are associated with the passage of time but also in the flow and movement of change. Part of this movement is disruption, as transitions disconnect linkages that create an individual's sense of security as familiar points of reference are lost, expectations built on past experiences are no longer met, and previous means of satisfying needs are no longer available (Chick & Meleis, 1986). A point of reference may be physical or a mental representation. Physical location may be an important part of a transition (Meleis et al., 2000), such as making a move to a new home or job or city. Changing physical location disrupts what one knows and is familiar with and starts the process of adjustment and adaptation. Mental representations are how one "situates" oneself within a given setting or circumstance (Meleis et al., 2000). Change from a transition

disrupts how one situates oneself, also requiring adjustment and adaptation until one is once again situated. Comparing the old and the new setting aids being situated in the new setting, creating new meaning, understandings, and perceptions and allowing individuals to situate themselves in space, time, and relationships (Meleis et al., 2000). This allows individuals to navigate the process of transition.

Influencing transitions

There is a range of elements that can impact transitions. These elements are useful in understanding how individuals experience transitions and how they progress. Some of these aspects include awareness, meanings, expectations, preparation and planning, and knowledge and skills (Chick & Meleis, 1986; Meleis et al., 2000; Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). The awareness of a transition is important; if an individual is not aware of the changes taking place or denies those changes or their implications, then the individual is not yet in transition (Chick & Meleis, 1986). By extension, if individuals anticipate a transition, they may enter a transitional period in anticipation of that change. What is more important than the disruptive event is the individual's perception of the resulting change. The meaning, the subjective appraisal, of a change resulting from a transition is important in understanding how a transition, anticipated or experienced, will affect an individual's life (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). This meaning is culturally and historically situated, negotiated through individuals' understanding of its significance. Meanings given to the transition and the precipitating events can enable or constrain transitions (Meleis et al., 2000). It is important to understand the negotiated meaning of the individuals experiencing the transition, as they may assign positive, negative or neutral meaning to their experience (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994).

Another subjective experience that impacts transitions is expectation of a transition. Expectations are influenced by previous experience. Individuals may anticipate what the meaning of a transition will be or how the transition will be experienced. They may also have no idea of what to expect, their

expectations may be unrealistic, or there may be uncertainty around new situations (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). This may be particularly true of complex and multiple transitions, which may, themselves, change over time. Expectations, both social and individual, are important to the transition, including normative (anticipate, typical) and nonnormative (unexpected) transitions (Cowan, 1991). The lines between normative and nonnormative transitions may be blurred by social expectations in subcultures; what is typical in one subculture may not be in another (Cowan, 1991).

If the transition is anticipated and if individuals have expectations about what will be experienced, individuals may engage in preparation and planning for the change. Preparation and planning undertaken before and during a transition can help facilitate the change (Meleis et al., 2000; Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). Preparation and planning are related to knowledge; without knowledge about what to expect, preparation and planning cannot take place. Key issues, problems, needs, and people need to be identified to make effective preparations (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). Not only is knowledge of what to expect important but is also needed to negotiate a new situation (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). New environments and new roles within those environments may require different knowledge or skill sets.

The external environment also influences how individuals experience transitions. Kralik and colleagues (2006) describe transitions as "the process and the outcome of complex person-environment interactions. It may involve more than one person and is embedded in the context and the situation" (p. 232). Despite the acknowledgment of the importance of the environment, it has received considerably less attention than internal aspects within the nursing transitions theory literature. However, the sociocultural environment is recognised as having the potential to impact transitional experiences (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994); societal views of a transitional event and the cultural beliefs associated with that event can also help or hinder a transition (Meleis et al., 2000). If a transition is given stereotyped meanings, or is stigmatised in society's view, this interferes with the transition process. In addition to society's influence, the external environment also has the potential to mediate the transition experience through the provision of resources or the

addition of stressors (Meleis et al., 2000). In this way, the resources available in the environment in which the transition took place, including social support from friends, family, support groups or support professionals, have a key mediational role (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). Familiarity with an environment mediates support, enabling or restricting a transition (Chick & Meleis, 1986). Familiarity is important because a new environment not only requires adjustments to be made to the new context but also typical sources of support found in the previous environment are disrupted. This is particularly important when examining information behaviour.

Liminality

Related to transition, yet separate, is the concept of liminality. Originating from the Latin word 'limen' meaning threshold, liminal is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary as "of or pertaining to the threshold or initial stage of a process." A liminal perspective examines "the in-between space in relationships, social roles, and contexts in times or at places of transition and change" (Davis, 2008). Liminal space is neither here nor there, or in the words of Victor Turner, "betwixt and between." Turner's influential work on liminality (originally published in 1967) is still frequently cited today. Related also to movement, liminality implies being in the process of crossing from one space and moving into another, as the idea of "threshold" implies. Liminal space can be metaphoric (as with states or conditions), physical (as with sacred spaces involved in rites of passage), or virtual. In discussing liminality, Turner (1967/1987) uses Van Gennep's three phases of transition in rites of passage: separation (detachment from a fixed point or state), margin (a state of ambiguity with few, if any, features of the preceding or forthcoming states), and aggregation (the completion of the passage and returning to a state of stability). Van Gennep's phases have been adapted for use in research, such as Baird's (2012) research on refugee women's cultural transition involving separation, liminality, and integration. Because stable states are structured with rights and obligations, Turner defines the liminal state as the passage between stable states

and an interstructural situation. Individuals in a liminal space are in an antistructure state within a society, bonded to those who share the liminal space and marginalised by those in society in a structured state (Davis, 2008). More than just transitional, Turnbull (1990) sees the movement into liminal spaces as transformational. The liminal spaces allow for contemplation and dialogue, in which cultural knowledge is shared "through a conscious as well as subconscious, deliberate as well as undetermined, co-constructing as well as initiating process" (Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 116). Davis (2008) encourages the examination of liminal spaces, stating that it is at "places and moments of change and transformation that one can see most clearly the processes of domination and resistance, of inclusion and exclusion, and of marginalization and socialization" (p. 486). Often transitions are conceptualised as having taken place once an event has occurred, however, the concept of liminality can better explicate the experience. Liminal space, in focusing on the idea of (not) belonging, can be important to understanding transition (Palmer, O'Kane, & Owens, 2009). Baird (2012) describes liminality of refugee women as the time when "the reality of living in a new society becomes manifest as an individual begins to deal with the tedious activities of daily living" (p. 258). The period is one that involves feelings of being vulnerable, overwhelmed, confused, disoriented, detachment, particularly when an individual experiences multiple changes simultaneously (Baird, 2012).

The concept of liminality has been used frequently to discuss changes in academia. Manathunga (2011) discusses doctoral students as being in a liminal space as they undergo a "[re]formation" of their identity as scholars within a discipline, neither a novice nor an independent researcher (pp. 89-90). In examining the reorganisation of an academic department, Bettis and Mills (2006) used liminality as a theoretical framework to explore academics' transitional experience, looking at the micro context of the university to examine what was happening in broader environments, such as social and economic context. The academics in Bettis and Mills' study were in liminal period, having let go of their roles and responsibilities from their previous department but not having yet taken up their new ones, creating anxiety and confusion as they negotiated their place in the new academic unit. Bosetti,

Kawalilak, and Patterson (2008) described their experience of transitioning back into academic positions after being in administrative positions within the university as being “structurally invisible.” They felt isolated within the institution as they often felt they lacked knowledge (or had incomplete knowledge) of how to negotiate the university system. Turner described the idea of structural invisibility. As members of a culture see what they expect to see and what they have been conditioned to see – what has been defined and classified as a culture - individuals in this interstructural, liminal period are “invisible” because they are between those definitions and classifications (1967/1987, p. 6). Both the act of transitioning within academe and feeling isolated in a new environment requires academics to make sense of their new situation. This making sense may involve a process of reliving and integrating the past, present, and future experiences (Palmer et al., 2009). The ideas of making sense of experiences and adjusting to a new culture are important throughout the discussing of liminality. Cook-Sather (2006) highlights the importance of liminality in examining transitions,

> Given Geertz’s (1973) definition of culture as constituted by the webs of significance that people have themselves spun and in which they are suspended, liminality remains a powerful framework for understanding and structuring transitions, which are necessary within and because of the cultures we create. (p. 123)

Negotiating meaning

Within the literature of nursing, higher education, organisational studies, and psychology, the process of making change and incorporating it into one’s life has been conceptualised, and labelled, in many ways. The meanings that individuals ascribe to their transition experience have existential connotations (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). Individuals may search for meaning or create meaning out of their experience. In order to deal with transition, one must confront the differences that exist in the form of diverse or unmet expectations, feelings of being different, perceptions of being different by others, or seeing the world in different ways (Meleis et al., 2000). In looking at patterns of response that indicate movement toward successful transitions, Meleis et al.

(2000) identify four patterns: feeling connected (needing to feel and stay linked with others for support), interacting (in contacting and dealing with others, the meaning of the transition is created and acknowledged), being situated (creating meaning by comparing the old location to the new location after transition), and developing confidence and coping (learning to deal with the new situations created by transitions with security in oneself).

Part of the negotiating and creating of meaning out of a transition involves individuals discovering their new roles or identities and beginning to incorporate those new understandings into their lives. Nursing has examined how nurses create new professional identities as they transition from student to graduate nurse, undergoing a process of transitioning from taking part in actions to being a professional (e.g., Duchscher, 2008). Nursing has also examined populations in transition and their well being, such as women refugees (Baird, 2012) and immigrants (Hilfinger Messias, 2002); these groups must integrate into their adopted country, adapting to a new environment and incorporating beliefs and values into one's identity. Organisational studies have examined the school-to-work transition, highlighting the importance of work role identity in that new position (Ng & Feldman, 2007). Higher education has examined the process of doctoral student professional identity development, discussing the importance of interacting with individuals within the workplace to create a professional identity (Sweitzer, 2008). Higher education is also interested in the process of socialisation of doctoral students to move towards becoming independent researchers (e.g., Gardner, 2008; Mullen & Forbes, 2000), as well as the process of new academics learning academic culture and beginning to internalise it (e.g., Tierney, 1997). The outcome of the process of adaptation or socialisation, when successful, can be a feeling of mastery and a new identity (Meleis et al., 2000). Mastery tends to be developed over time, integrating the old and the new, whether at the organisational or personal level.

Throughout the transition process, information is important to individuals. Information is important as part of expectations and knowledge about how to deal with new situations. Information is part of external and internal contexts, and necessary when constructing or negotiating meaning or identity and beginning the process of socialisation into a new role. Information

is also central to the role of an academic, i.e., gathering information and creating new information that can be turned into knowledge. What is missing from Transitions Theory is an understanding of the role of information in the transition process. What information is needed? How is information sought? How is information used? Information behaviour is a lens through which to view how individuals moving into academia work with, understand and use information. This project addresses this current gap in transitions research.

Information behaviour: Definitions, related topics, and models

While debates about how to define information behaviour go beyond what this review can address, briefly, it is important to discuss the use of the terms “information behaviour” and “information” in this study. In his review of the information behaviour literature, Case (2012) devotes a chapter to discussing the concept of information. While a seemingly straightforward idea, within the information science literature information has been defined in many ways, such as a process, knowledge, thing, commodity, or representation. The debates about what must be included in a definition of information include: Does information have to be useful? Does information have to have a physical form? Does information have to be structured in a particular way, a process of steps? Does information have to have intent? Does information have to be true to be information? This research uses the definition developed by Case, based on Bateson’s work – i.e., that information is “any difference that makes a difference to the conscious, human mind” so that, whether originating internally or externally, information is what is significant to individuals (Case, 2012, p. 46).

Just as information is a complicated term, so too is information behaviour. There has been much debate about how to define information behaviour and disagreements about what the term should include. Wilson (2000) defined information behaviour as “the totality of human behavior in relation to sources and channels of information, including both active and passive information seeking, and information use” (p. 49). Wilson (1999) uses a

nested model to demonstrate that information behaviour is a broad concept that includes information-seeking behaviour (purposive information seeking used to satisfy a goal), so is broader than information searching behaviour (micro-level interactions between a searcher and an information system). Case (2012), in reviewing several published definitions, defines information behaviour as "encompass[ing] information seeking as well as the totality of other *unintentional* or *passive* behaviors (such as glimpsing or encountering information), as well as purposive behaviors that do not involve seeking, such as actively *avoiding* information" (p. 5). Both Case 's (2012) review and Wilson's (2000) article agree on the scope of information seeking, emphasising the ideas of planned action to acquire information for a specific purpose, as well as passive reception of information. Central to the idea of information behaviour is taking a human-centred approach, or looking at what individuals or groups of individuals do with information, rather than focusing on the systems used to find information (Case, 2012). However, the term information behaviour is not uncontested. Other terms have been suggested, such as human information behaviour and information-seeking behaviour. One term that has gained prominence in the field is information practices. While it shares similarities with information behaviour, information practices can be understood as "a set of socially and culturally established ways to identify, seek, use, and share the information available in various sources" (Savolainen, 2008b, p. 2). The term information practices identifies, specifically, with a social constructionist viewpoint, understanding that "the process of information seeking and use are constituted socially and dialogically" focusing on people as "social actors" rather than looking at motivations and mental models (Savolainen, 2008b, p. 4). The suggestion is that while information practices are underpinned with a social constructionist viewpoint, information behaviour is underpinned by a cognitive viewpoint (Savolainen, 2007). While some researchers using the term information behaviour draw on a cognitive epistemological stance, the broad field of information behaviour does not necessarily align with one epistemological viewpoint. So while information practice is a useful term, this research will use it to denote everyday, routinised activities related to information in which individuals engage. Instead, this

research uses the broader term information behaviour, defining it as a human-centred approach to research that examines information needs, as well as information seeking, use, and practices that occur within a particular context and are purposive, unintentional or passive. There are several areas within information behaviour that must be examined in order to get a full picture of an individual's information behaviour. These areas include information needs, information use, internal context and external context.

Information needs

Typically, the term information need is considered to denote a lack of required knowledge. However, information needs have been conceptualised in many ways. Additionally, understanding and examining information needs can be difficult as they are not observable and typically are inferred after some action has occurred (Case, 2012). Conceptualisations of information needs have changed over time. Case's (2012) historical review of scholars' conceptualisations of information needs included: Taylor's view of visceral state of dissatisfaction which may become conscious and articulated, Belkin's anomalous state of knowledge (ASK) in which an individual recognises uncertainty around a topic, Kuhlthau's view of uncertainty during an information search creating anxiety that must be resolved, and Dervin's sensemaking in which a gap in an individual's internal state is recognised which must be filled in order to make sense of the world. In looking beyond individuals, Allen (1997) discusses information needs as individual or group, influenced by individual or situational factors, combining individual and social variables to look at a person in their situation.

Savolainen (2012) examined the contextual features of information needs, conceptualising them differently depending on the context. His review recognised three distinct contexts: in a situation of action, information needs are conceptualised as a "black box" with the situation that creates the need and directs information seeking; in task performance, information needs are conceptualised as a context in which those needs are experienced, particularly a

set of constitutive factors and problem solving activities; in dialogue, information needs are conceptualised as being constructed between individuals about the amount of information necessary (Savolainen, 2012). Savolainen's contextual approach is beneficial in that it takes what is, at times, a nebulous concept and allows it to be approached in a flexible manner that is compatible with aspects of information needs such as uncertainty or gaps in knowledge.

Information use

Having information does not necessarily fulfil an information need. Once information has been found individuals must do something with it, choosing to use it or not. Savolainen (2009) states that information use is a generic concept that few have explicated in the literature, typically tacking it on to information seeking but leaving it largely unresearched. In a commonly used definition, Wilson (2000) has defined "information use behaviour" (p. 50) as physical and mental acts that are necessary to incorporate found information into an individual's knowledge base. In reviewing perspectives of information use, Savolainen (2009) discusses the constructivist approach, the "construction and shaping of cognitive elements, interpretation of information and creation of meaning" (p. 194); and the information processing approach, the "interpretation and judgment cues … in the context of choice making and decision making" (p. 196). A social constructionist would conceptualise information use as constructed versions produced through dialogue (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997). The differences in these conceptualisations demonstrate why information use is so difficult to conceptualise, viewing how information is treated by and between individuals. What these definitions have in common is the process of active work on that information for an instrumental reason. That use is a process over time and that it is done for a purpose, is useful in looking at what individuals do with information.

Internal influences

Whether one views information behaviour as individually driven or socially negotiated, it is the individual who acts in the world and through whom the world is experienced, what Foster (2004) terms, "internal context" (p. 232) and what I am terming internal influences. In Wilson's 1981 model of information behaviour the individual – including their cognitive, affective and physiological states – is part of the context in which the information needs occurs (Wilson, 1999). Later, Wilson's 1996 model lists personal factors, such as psychological and demographic, as intervening variables between the context of the information need and the information-seeking behaviour (Wilson, 2000). What Wilson's models do not adequately address is the influence of other people, or the sociocultural impact. Foster (2004) discusses internal influences that are "primarily the level of experience and prior knowledge held by the information seeker" (p. 233). However, these internal influences are conceptualised in his model of nonlinear information-seeking behaviour as "internal context," depicted in the model as nested within the external context and containing categories of influences, which are thoughts and feelings, coherence and knowledge, and understanding. In Savolainen's (2008b) model of everyday information practices, the practices are impacted by an individual's knowledge and teleoaffective structure (values, goals and interests) all of which take place within the larger "life-world" (p. 65). Although researchers in information behaviour have conceptualised internal influences in various ways, those conceptualisations tend to include cognition, affect, goals and values. It is important to understand that internal influences do not exist in a vacuum but are constructed and reconstructed through direct contact with the larger social world.

External influences

Internal influences do not exist in a vacuum but exist and interact with external influences, which also influence information behaviour. External influences are complex and a full discussion is beyond the scope of this review.

Context is one way in which to view external influences; it is a topic of great debate upon which there is little agreement on how it is established or how it operates (Courtright, 2007). It has been given various definitions, including frame of reference, setting, environment, information world, life-world, and information ground (Courtright, 2007). What is not included in this list is situation, which is more specific and embedded within a context; within one context there may be many situations (Cool, 2001). Cool (2001), quotes Allen and Kim in delineating context versus situation, "We view contexts as the socially defined settings in which information users are found. … Within each of these broad contexts, different situations occur. Or, to put it differently, individuals may be situated in different ways in the context" (p. 8). While situation and context are separate, they are related and Courtright (2007) deals with this difference by stating that contexts influence information behaviour in more lasting and predictable ways than a situation but that situations are a potential part of a context. This research will follow Courtright's treatment of context and situations, viewing contexts as physical and social settings, with individual situations existing within those contexts.

In the literature, external influences are explicated and conceptualised in varied ways. Courtight (2007), in reviewing the literature, provides many contextual factors that influence information, including: rules and resources, culture, social networks, social norms, collaboration, task or problem situation, work role, and human activity. Moving beyond contextual factors, Kuhlthau (1999) previously identified concepts central to creating a theoretical framework of information seeking in context. These concepts include process (information seeking is a process), constructive process (learning that is constructed through information seeking), uncertainty (characteristic of information seeking), complexity (the experience of information seeking), and the concept of enough (required to make sense of information gathered during seeking). Each of the concepts identified by Kuhlthau are dependent on the particular context and necessary to understanding information seeking as it takes place. Foster's (2004) nonlinear model of information-seeking behaviour depicts external context as the largest of a series of concentric circles, with the narrow internal context embedded in the broader external context. Foster's

study, based on a study of academics working within a university, is one of many that looks at context within a bounded organisation, rather than an everyday life context (Courtright, 2007). Foster views the external context as social and organisational, including time, project, navigation issues, and access to sources (2004, p. 232). While Foster's model is useful for understanding an organisational context, Williamson's (1998) ecological model of information behaviour takes a broad perspective and "sets information seeking, acquisition, and use in the context of the variables which may have an influence" (p. 35). Rather than viewing contexts as nested, the model views each context as potentially having a direct impact on the individual, contexts that include: physical environments, lifestyles, social and cultural values, socio-economic circumstances, work situations, personal and biological characteristics, and affective and spiritual influences (Williamson, 2005). In another broad look at external influences, Savolainen (2008b) looks at the "life-world" to describe the environment in which actors reside. The life-world includes the "totality of individual experiences" and the "transindividual (social, sociocultural and economic) factors shaping context for intersubjective action" (p. 65).

Researchers in information behaviour have conceptualised external context in various ways, recognising that context runs from specific situations to the broad social sphere. As with internal context, what is important is to examine the multiple external environments in which individuals exist and that have the potential to impact what an individual experiences and the behaviours they undertake. While information behaviour is one aspect related to information, research in the field tends to be more inclusive, recognising that in order to understand what people do, other aspects such as information need, information use, internal context and external context must be taken into account.

Models of academic information behaviour

Many general models of information behaviour have been developed, representing a diverse range of views about the antecedents of information

behaviour, the main factors involved and the outcomes of the behaviour (Case, 2012). More specific models have also been developed for particular groups of people, including the information behaviour of academics. Ellis' study (1993) is often used as the basis for other research into the information-seeking behaviour of academics, as well as doctoral and masters students (e.g., Bronstein, 2007; Du & Evans, 2011; Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009; Ge, 2010; Meho & Tibbo, 2003; Shen, 2007) and a review of the model on which so much research is based is useful to understanding the literature in the field. Ellis (1993) identified six categories of information-seeking patterns:

> starting – activities characteristic of the initial search for information; chaining – following chains of citations or other forms of referential connection between material; browsing – semi-directed searching in an area of potential interest; differentiating – using differences between sources as a filter on the nature and quality of the material examined; monitoring – maintaining awareness of the developments in a field through the monitoring of particular sources; and extracting – systematically working through a particular source to locate material of interest. (p. 482)

Ellis, Cox and Hall (1993) added the categories of verifying ("activities associated with checking the accuracy of information") and ending ("activities characteristic of information seeking at the end of a topic or project, for example, during the preparation of papers for publication") (p. 359). Using Ellis' model in researching social science academics, Meho and Tibbo (2003) added four more behaviours to this list: accessing – accessing information sources identified; verifying – checking the accuracy of information; networking – communicating and maintaining relationships with others doing work on similar topics; information managing – organising and filing the information gathered. Based on their research, Meho and Tibbo divided scholars' work into four interrelated stages: searching (identifying relevant sources through a variety of information-seeking activities and using a variety of search tools), accessing (using indirect search tools and making decision about which sources to access), processing (synthesising and analysing gathered information and writing up the final product), and ending (completing the research process). In examining academic and doctoral students' use of electronic information, Ge (2010) found that another category, preparation and planning, could be added to

Ellis' model. While Ellis' model and its adaptations are useful in understanding information behaviour during the research process, these models state – or at the very least imply – that research takes place in linear phases. The focus within these models on research and formal information sources limits its usefulness in understanding the information behaviour of academics in their various roles and responsibilities. These models do not explicate how academics find or use information for teaching or service, nor do they look at the everyday information practices of academics as they take on a myriad of activities, such as collaborating, mentoring, or completing administrative tasks. The relegation of colleagues and peers to the "networking" stage also does not take into account the role of social information.

Linear and staged models are prescriptive about the way in which information behaviour takes place, progressing step-by-step through a series of activities. In examining the information-seeking behaviour of interdisciplinary academics, doctoral, and masters students from science, social science and humanities, Foster (2004) did not find evidence of linear, progressive stages in their research. Rather, Foster found evidence of core processes – Opening, Orientation and Consolidation – that contain multiple information behaviours that are related through concurrent, continuous, cumulative and looped cycles. The core processes are embedded within an internal and external context. The internal context includes the experiences and prior knowledge of the information seeker; the external context has several influences including time, organisation, social world, project, navigation issues and access to sources. This model gives a picture of information seeking that is "cumulative, reiterative, holistic and context-bound" (p. 235).

Foster's model is useful in informing this research, recognising the importance of a nonlinear approach and the centrality of context, while acknowledging the contribution of the information patterns identified by Ellis.

Doctoral students' and academics' information behaviours

Although Ellis, Cox and Hall (1993) found that there are more similarities than differences between natural science and social science academics' information behaviour, this review will concentrate on academics in the humanities and social sciences. While dividing disciplines into 'metadisciplines' of science, social science and humanities is not without problems, as disciplines within a metadiscipline may be disparate, this is a common categorisation that appears in research (Case, 2012). Despite this common categorisation, some research focuses on specific disciplines or on all disciplines. While academics have been a group that has long been studied by library and information scholars, this review focuses on literature published in 1997 or later, as the Internet, has greatly impacted academics' information behaviour since this time (e.g., Ellis & Oldman, 2005).

Information behaviours of doctoral students

As with all academics, information work is central to doctoral students' research. Often there are assumptions that doctoral students have adequate skills levels and knowledge about searching for information and disciplinary sources when entering their studies. However, doctoral degrees are distinctly different from other post-graduate degrees. Doctoral studies have traditionally been conceived of as research preparation for a career in academia (e.g., Park, 2007), with one goal of doctoral education is to make an original contribution to the discipline (Chu & Law, 2007b; Green & Macauley, 2007). This can be a steep learning curve for doctoral students. However, the literature on the information behaviour of these students generally concentrates on the use of formal information sources for conducting research, failing to examine the information behaviour of students in the other aspects of their studies. This review first examines the literature on doctoral students' information seeking and source use, followed by a broad review of the role of social information practices.

Information seeking

Many doctoral and masters students' information-seeking skills are rudimentary and their knowledge about sources limited (Catalano, 2013), despite having completed previous degrees. Information skills in undergraduate studies may not adequately prepare students for doctoral work, as these students' information needs are distinctly different from those of undergraduate students (Catalano, 2013), as is their research and the ways in which they work (Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009). Despite the changes in needs, research and work, students often receive little training in information-related aspects of research (Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009; Sadler & Given, 2007). Even without training, students' search skills and ways of searching progress over time, with searches moving from broad topics to specific searching (Rempel, 2010) and doctoral students preferring more advanced search tools (Vezzosi, 2009). Students often explore their research topics using search engines (Du & Evans, 2011); they use simple, open-ended Google searches, to progress in their information seeking by gathering background on a topic, figuring out next steps or developing a search strategy (George et al., 2006). Students recognize their feelings of uncertainty in beginning their research and their progress to a clearer sense of their topic, which leads to more organised ways of working and information seeking (Vezzosi, 2009). Similar patterns occur with reading when preparing the literature review. Research students begin by reading broadly and later reading more narrowly the particular sections of articles to find and compare citations (Rempel, 2010).

The start of doctoral students' research activity is a time of uncertainty when information needs are acute. When starting a new degree, students often know very little about their research project (Barrett, 2005; Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009). In addition, students often lack awareness of information services and resources (Al-Muomen, Morris, & Maynard, 2012; Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009). Completing a dissertation may require more in-depth use of information sources and use of a wider variety of materials, such as interdisciplinary

databases (Catalano, 2013). Thus, a lack of awareness can seriously impede a student's progress. As with search skills, experience also improves students' knowledge of resources. Students earlier in their academic careers have less awareness of information sources than more experienced students (George et al., 2006) and are more likely to use familiar sources (Green & Macauley, 2007). To start their information seeking, doctoral students often turn to a search engine or a supervisor. Some studies report students beginning research on the Internet (Earp, 2008), while others report the Internet is the second place students will go after supervisors (George et al., 2006). As doctoral students' experience increases, they begin using more and a wider variety of databases, primary sources and a broader range of scholarly materials (Green & Macauley, 2007).

Even when not speaking with supervisors or peers, students still value the opinions of other academics within their field, as evidenced by their choice of information-seeking strategies. The most prominent information-seeking strategy reported in the literature is citation chaining, or using the author-generated bibliography at the end of a written work to track down new sources (e.g., Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009; George et al., 2006; Green and Macauley, 2007; Vezzosi, 2009). Students rely heavily on citation chaining from the bibliographies of relevant works (Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009). Citation chaining is an extremely important way of searching, which not only helps to identify sources important within a field of study but also helps reduce information overload (Catalano, 2013).

Doctoral students engage in a number of different information behaviours in addition to citation chaining. Students use browsing, serendipity (Green & Macauley, 2007), multiple keywords and time limiters (Catalano, 2013). They use multiple search systems including search engines, library databases and websites with search functions, constructing and reconstructing search queries to gain required information (Du & Evans, 2011). Despite the variety of search behaviours, students often lack advanced search skills, such as using Boolean operators or truncation (Catalano, 2013), and their information seeking tends not to be methodical, described as digging rather than systematic searching (Barrett, 2005).

Source, access and use preferences

As they become more experienced, doctoral students learn about many different resources and develop preferences about how they want to access and use those resources. In addition to using their own or their supervisors' personal collections and electronic journals (Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009), students frequently use library resources (Catalano, 2013), with the library playing an important role in students' research (George et al., 2006). However, doctoral students also have high expectations of library services, which can cause frustrations with both the library's lack of required resources, as well as the process of using the library (Rempel, 2010). Many students' expectations about resources centre on convenience and speed of access (George et al., 2006), with some students using easy-to-find resources, even if not the best (Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009); however, this may also depend on experience, as doctoral students will search more extensively than undergraduate students rather than settling for information that is "good enough" (Gabridge, Gaskell, & Stout, 2008).

Online sources have advantages such as speed of access, full-text access, currency and convenience. Doctoral students frequently use sources online, whether they are library resources or from other sources (George et al., 2006). Students want electronic access to sources and use electronic sources more now that they are more readily available (Catalano, 2013). While students prefer online resources, many students still use print materials (George et al., 2006; Green & Macauley, 2007). Some students expect all sources to be fully online and are frustrated when sources are only in print or when links to online resources are not provided, such as with the library catalogue (Vezzosi, 2009). Physical use of the library varies. Some students visit the library as a place to study (Vezzosi, 2009), to access print or specialised sources, to get help or for the aesthetics of the building (Catalano, 2013). Many students frequently work off campus and want to be able to do their searching from off-campus locations (Catalano, 2013; Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009; George et al., 2006).

Despite the advantages of online sources, technology has its problems. Accessing more full-text information, more quickly, results in retrieving large amounts of information that must be sorted (Green & Macauley, 2007). Using the Internet means having a wealth of sources available at your fingertips, but those sources may not be as reliable and may contribute to a feeling of information overload (Catalano, 2013). To access online sources requires different types of technology, not all of which will be familiar to doctoral students. Learning new technology may be considered an ineffective use of time, so it is avoided (e.g., Sadler & Given, 2007) and other strategies (such as browsing or asking for help) are also employed to avoid learning new technology (e.g., Catalano, 2013). Technology also changes how doctoral students find information, potentially increasing students' reliance on technology when seeking information and decreasing the serendipitous finding of information through physical browsing (Sadler & Given, 2007).

Social information: Reliance on those in the academy

Doctoral education is often talked about as a process of socialisation into academia (Austin, 2002a). The information behaviours of doctoral students appear to bear this out. Much of students' information seeking involves other people. Supervisors are typically the first source consulted (George et al., 2006) and the preferred source to consult (Catalano, 2013; Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009; Green & Macauley, 2007). Supervisors are sources of information and guide source selection (Catalano, 2013; Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009; Vezzosi, 2009), the research process (Al-Muomen et al., 2012), the ways of searching (George et al., 2006), and the choice of topic (Barrett, 2005). Librarians may be used for specific sources or for advanced help or when students are feeling stuck (George et al., 2006), though some students avoid librarians (Fleming-May & Yuro, 2009; Earp, 2008). This may be due to doctoral and masters students' feelings of anxiety over looking inept, as well as librarians' inapproachability (Sadler & Given, 2007) or the belief that librarians would not understand their field enough to be able to help them (Rempel, 2010). While

students prefer to consult their supervisors, supervisors may not always have the necessary skills to help their students skilfully search for information, perpetuating the lack of skills among the new generation of scholars (Catalano, 2013).

In addition to supervisors, students frequently consult their peers (Catalano, 2013). They will discuss ideas, key authors and resources, and some students may share resources informally or set up resource exchanges (George et al., 2006). They will also ask questions of their peers, which they will not ask their supervisors or librarians, for fear that they will look inept (Sadler & Given, 2007). While many students seek help, Earp (2008) found that doctoral students more frequently seek help from supervisors, while masters students more frequently seek help from peers. People are important to students' searching (George et al., 2006) at every stage throughout the research process (Vezzosi, 2009).

The research literature about students' information behaviour often focuses predominantly on advanced searching using formal information sources. While being able to perform advanced searches is an important skill, doctoral students need information that cannot be found in formal information sources and search for that information in various ways. The role of social information, particularly information shared through supervisors and peers, demonstrates the importance of looking beyond libraries and databases and to look at doctoral students' experiences holistically. Additionally, doctoral students' work needs to be understood more inclusively, looking beyond their doctoral research to new roles and responsibilities, as well as their socialisation into academe.

Information behaviours of academics

Doctoral students increase their information-seeking abilities and knowledge of sources throughout their studies (e.g., Chu & Law, 2007a, 2007b), meaning early career academics' have more skills and knowledge. However, academics' work is complex, dealing with information across a variety of work roles. As with students, the literature on the information behaviour of

academics tends to focus on information seeking and use of formal information sources in the research process. While teaching, service, and administrative work are also part of academics' jobs, these aspects receive less attention in the literature, failing to capture the academics' information behaviour more broadly. This review examines the literature on academics' information seeking and source use, as well as investigating the role of social information.

Information seeking

According to Rupp-Serrano and Robbins (2013) the information seeking typically done by academics is in order to write or conduct research for publication, to maintain currency in their field, and for lecture preparation. It is the information work related to academics' research that has received attention in the research literature. Academics' research processes are complicated and involve many different activities that require information work. Much of the research into academics' information-seeking behaviour uses Ellis' (1993) categorisations of information-seeking patterns to describe academics' information behaviour (e.g., Bronstein, 2007; Ge, 2010; Meho & Tibbo, 2003). Models discussed previously, such as those of Meho and Tibbo (2003) and Foster (2004), examine the information-seeking behaviours of academics more broadly. Scholars' information behaviours are tied to the stage of the research process and the purpose of the search (Bronstein, 2007). Often the research examines the different stages of academics' research, even if those stages are not linear, sequential or clearly demarcated (e.g., Chu, 1999; Foster, 2004). Still, academics' research is a progression of changing activities.

The start of the research process has received a lot of study. The first two stages of Chu's (1999) six-stage research process model are: idea generation (developing ideas) and preparation (using primary and secondary sources to learn more about the text and what has been written about it) (pp. 260-261). When humanities scholars are starting their research, categorised by Bronstein (2007) as the initial stage, scholars engage in browsing and extracting behaviours to find sources of central importance to lead to other information.

To become aware of research published in the past, academics most frequently use citation chaining, searching databases, talking with colleagues and browsing old journal issues (Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013). Sukovic (2008) characterises the start of humanities scholars' research as a time of exploration in which academics look for information on a new research topic on the Internet gather background material, learn about bodies of literature and start building a bibliography. It is during this exploration that ideas begin to converge and new patterns and connections in the information sources become apparent (Sukovic, 2008). Similar to doctoral students, many academics in the humanities may start information seeking on the Internet (Sukovic, 2008).

Once the materials have been collected and the research has been started, the materials are read and analysed, and the research is focused and refined. The third and fourth phases of Chu's (1999) study are elaboration (determining focus of the work) and analysis and writing (rereading materials and searching for more information for clarity) (pp. 260-261). In Bronstein's (2007) model, after the initial phase, academics enter the current awareness phase, in which academics use previously selected materials to promote current awareness of information. Academics engage in a variety of activities such as monitoring print and electronic channels, networking and citation chaining, using previously selected materials to promote current awareness (Bronstein, 2007). Information strategies can change with the purpose of the behaviour. In this way, citation chaining may be used at the beginning stages of research, resulting from a ground-breaking work, or may be part of current awareness activities, the same behaviour used for different purposes (Bronstein, 2007). Browsing at the beginning of research tends to be with a variety of sources for unknown materials, while browsing at the current awareness stage will be with known items looking for specific types of information (Bronstein, 2007). At any point in their research process, academics may engage in verification, differentiating and information management behaviours (Bronstein, 2007).

After the main analysis work has been completed, the research process stages are dissemination (refining the work), and further writing and dissemination (rereading materials and searching for more information to verify or modify the work) (Chu, 1999). Bronstein (2007) calls this last stage (the final

phase in which academics engage), ending, or the information seeking that takes place at the end of a project. Beyond a research project, academics engage in information seeking to keep up-to-date in their field. Academics may engage in scanning newly published journal issues, attending conferences, citation chaining and communicating with colleagues to keep abreast of new developments (Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013).

As with doctoral students, when searching for information, citation chaining is an important and the most common way of tracking down information (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007; Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013). Citation chaining is commonly discussed in the information-seeking behaviour of all academics. Online technology influences this behaviour as sources converge and practices are changed. Sukovic (2008) describes a new search pattern, "netchaining," a combination of chaining, networking, browsing and web surfing (p. 274). Seeking information online allows these activities to be combined and a new practice emerges. Browsing is also a frequent behaviour and preferences for print materials are often due to browsing habits (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007).

The information behaviours in which academic researchers engage can lead to unexpected advances in work. Foster and Ford (2003) found scholars discussed serendipity in their information seeking that impacted the problem or solution by either reinforcing the researcher's conception or taking the researcher in a new direction. In encountering information, the existence or location of the information could be surprising or the value of the information could also be surprising.

Source, access and use preferences

As with doctoral students, the library can be an important resource for academics (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007; Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013). In addition to being a starting place for research and teaching work, the library provides access to published research (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007). Academics use a variety of information channels to find information,

provided by libraries or other sources. While scholars in different disciplines may prefer different conduits to access information, some of the most important information channels are: the Internet, databases, e-journals, online catalogues, e-mail, and collegial recommendations (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007; Ge, 2010). Humanities scholars in Baruchson-Arbib and Bronstein's (2007) study also valued print resources such as the library shelves and print indexes. Academics use a variety of information sources accessed through various information channels. Important information sources include: journals, Internet resources, books and face-to-face discussion with colleagues (Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013).

Books tend to be more important to humanities scholars while journals are more important to social science scholars (Ge, 2010). Books and journals are the most frequently used formally published sources of information (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007). Not only are books and journals primary sources of information but also starting points for citation chaining (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007). While some academics are aware of many of the different electronic sources and resources available to them in their field (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007), others feel that they are not aware of resources beyond what they normally use (Ge, 2010; Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013).

Electronic access to resources differs between scholars, with doctoral students and academics of lower rank using electronic resources more frequently than more senior academics (Ge, 2010). Technology is a key part of all academics' lives. E-mail and word processing are widely adopted and regularly used in their work (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007). While academics continue to use print sources, they use electronic sources as well and have a positive attitude towards electronic sources and new technologies, but they may be sceptical about whether these technologies can meet their research needs (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007). Academics are purposive in their technology adoption; they must see how new technologies are superior to previous ways of working in order to use those technologies (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007; Given & Willson, 2015). Scholars are selective about using technology for their research. Online databases tend not to be used for current

awareness of new information in a field, as result lists do not have the contextual information provided by bibliographies in books or articles (Bronstein, 2007). As with doctoral students, academics also have concerns about how technology impacts information seeking, particularly concerning the difficulties online information seeking creates for browsing and serendipitous information finding (Sukovic, 2008). Other academics, however, find that online environments promote serendipitous discoveries in new ways, such as how information is represented and viewed when multiple windows are open on a web browser (Sukovic, 2008).

In using an information source, academics value authority of the sources most highly, followed by information which is easily accessible, convenient, easy to find, familiar and current (Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013). Academics continue to value print sources, even as use of electronic sources continues to increase (Ge, 2010). There are many factors that impact academics' use of electronic resources, including: availability in electronic format, accessibility, usability, source quality, discipline/research topic specificity, and efficacy beliefs (Ge, 2010). Academics value electronic access as it allows them to work from home, speeds up the research process, allows for full-text access, and aids them in helping students (Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013). Despite the advantages, there are barriers to using electronic sources, which include: lack of availability, lack of accessibility, lack of time to search, usability issues, variable source quality, discipline/research topic constraints, perceived ease of use, lack of awareness, and personal constraints (Ge, 2010; Rupp-Serrano & Robbins, 2013). English scholars viewed electronic materials as beneficial in being able to be accessed from anywhere but also recognised the difficulties for those who are less familiar with computers and felt that access to original documents would still be necessary for study (Ellis & Oldham, 2005).

While the field of information behaviour has learned much about students' and academics' information behaviours – their information needs, seeking and use – what has not been the focus of study is how needs, seeking and use change during transitions. In addition, transitions themselves create new problems to be solved and raise new information needs that must be addressed by individuals in order to successfully make a change, both in

personal and professional lives. Information behaviour researchers know much less about needs, seeking and use of those in the midst of transitions.

Social information: The importance of colleagues

In examining models of academics' information behaviour, earlier discussions tended to centre on the use of documentary research sources in their research work. The role that people – supervisors, colleagues, peers, and friends – play in academics' information behaviour was not always apparent. The focus on documentary sources and the absence of social information in existing models demonstrates the value placed on social sources of information, implying that they are of secondary importance. Models are often transferred, applied to other research, such as Ellis's (1993), which are reproduced and used as a framework frequently in other information behaviour research. When the role of social information is not a part of the models, even though they may be a part of the findings, this perpetuates the privileging of documentary sources over social sources. While it is unclear why this privileging happens, it could be due to the focus on libraries as providers of information, published literature and bibliographic citations, or because of the messy nature of the role of social information.

However, there appears to be a shift in the recognition of the importance of people as information sources and supports. Colleagues, whether within the same institution or within the same field, are important to scholars (Case, 2012). Relationships with other scholars are important to humanities scholars' work, even if works are published by single authors (Bronstein, 2007). Social interactions are often informal and at varying points in a research process. Colleagues are part of both formal and informal information channels (Chu, 1999). Changing communication technologies may have played a role in this shift. The Internet has influenced academics' communication, with scholars phoning colleagues less, e-mailing colleagues more and working more with colleagues who are geographically distant (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007). English scholars use electronic means of quickly exchanging

bibliographic details and/or ideas with colleagues, as well as making informal contacts (Ellis & Oldham, 2005). Drawing on academic networks, scholars at a distance are important information sources and researchers keep in contact with these colleagues through email and contact at conferences (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007). E-mail is a widely adopted technology for academics and its wide use has facilitated the creation of "invisible colleges," research communities of scholars in a field who are distantly located (Baruchson-Arbib & Bronstein, 2007).

More than an information source, colleagues and others are part of a larger social network. Meho and Tibbo (2003) added Networking as a feature to Ellis' model, defining it as,

> characterized by activities associated with communicating, and maintaining a close relationship, with a broad range of people such as friends, colleagues, and intellectuals working on similar topics, members of ethnic organizations, government officials, and booksellers. Many participants create, or participate in, networks not only to build collections or gather information, but also to share information with members of these networks. (p. 582)

Westbrook's (2003) examination of scholars in women's studies found people were one of the important information channels, as was building a personal network. In Foster's (2004) model of nonlinear information-seeking behaviour, "Networking" is a core process within the model. It is a central activity for interdisciplinary scholars, a way to find information, particularly when dealing with "limited knowledge, limited resources such as time and access, and coping with information overload" (p. 233). Rupp-Serrano and Robbins (2013), when surveying academics in education, asked "how important ten resource categories were to helping them with their research" (p. 134). Discussions with colleagues, face-to-face and via email, were on that list. However, this reduces interactions with colleagues to a category of information source. This does not take into account ongoing and social interactions. In her recent study, Miller (2015) examined the networks that early career academics built for their personal and career development. These developmental networks consist of multiple mentors (typically informal and personally selected), which are built through mutually supportive relationships, and involve ongoing, quality

interactions for learning. Miller's study is an example of the current emphasis on shifting from looking at formal information sources and at the job of academics as simply research. Rather, this research looks at the role of social information, taking a broader view of the information that colleagues provide and examining the social interactions taking place.

Information behaviour during transitions

In their formative article on nursing and transitions Chick and Meleis (1986) stated that, "[t]ransitions fall within the domain of nursing when they pertain to health or illness or when responses to the transition are manifested in health-related behaviors" (p. 238). The argument can be made that transitions fall within the domain of information science when they pertain to information or when the responses to transition are manifested in information behaviour, broadly defined. Chick and Meleis (1986) discuss transition as both an independent and dependent variable. Transitions caused by medical issues can impact individuals by changing their health-seeking behaviours, because they no longer know what is appropriate, and changing the way they use health care; individuals' experiences of transition in these times of change can be better understood by exploring the transition itself. In studying information behaviour of those in transition the same potential exists; there is the potential to observe and better understand changes in their information needs, information-seeking behaviours, and information use, as well as to better understand information behaviour in transition.

Transitions are rarely directly addressed in information behaviour literature. However, this does not mean that aspects pertinent to transitions have not been discussed in the research. For example, Dervin's (1983) work on sense-making examines "how people construct sense of their worlds and, in particular, how they construct information needs and uses for information in the process of sense-making" (p. 3). There are connections between this process of sense-making and the process by which individuals "redefine their sense of self" that is central in making a transition (Kralik et al., 2006, p. 321). A fundamental

principle of sense-making is that reality is filled with “discontinuities and gaps” (p. 4). These discontinuities share similarities with periods of instability (Chick & Meleis, 1986) or “disruptive life events” (Kralik et al., 2006, p. 321). Another example of information behaviour research that pertains to transitions is Kuhlthau’s work on the principle of uncertainty (1993), based on her Information Search Process model (1991). Uncertainty is a way to understand how individuals look for information to gain understanding. It is “due to a lack of understanding, a gap in meaning, or a limited construct” (1993, p. 347), also sharing similarities with the previously mentioned periods of instability (Chick & Meleis, 1986) and “disruptive life events” (Kralik et al., 2006, p. 321). The principle of uncertainty deals not only with thoughts, but also with feelings and actions to provide a more holistic picture of information seeking and the changes that take place during this process.

Generally, information behaviour research has focused on description of information needs of and seeking by individuals during transitions but not the change in information behaviours throughout a transition (e.g., Hersberger, Murray, & Sokoloff, 2006; Park & Lee, 2013). Most of the literature in information behaviour research on transitions has to do with the information needs of, and the sources used by, individuals belonging to a specific group. One of the studies that focuses most closely on transitions is the dissertation research by Stutzman (2011) who looked at how incoming college students used social networking sites in informational and socially supportive ways to aid their adaptation to the transition. The research, which examined students’ use of social networking sites over their first semester, found that social networks are used differently over the transitional period. Before the transitional event of moving to college was made, students used the social network for informational needs, asking transition-related questions. After the move to college was made, the social network served as an information ground in which to connect with peers and as a routinised informational source to coordinate academic help.

Another example of transition in the information behaviour field is McKenzie’s dissertation research into women pregnant with twins (2001). The research studied the women’s information behaviours through an initial

interview, check-up phone calls, and a follow-up interview within 1-2 weeks of the initial interview. The study provided detailed description and found many interesting patterns of behaviour, such as using active information seeking as a way of constructing themselves as competent in managing the transition to being a mother of twins or avoiding information seeking as a way to lessen the impact of negative information when faced with questions that were unanswerable because the transition was not complete. From her dissertation research McKenzie published a model of information practices in everyday-life information seeking, which is, perhaps, the best example of transitions in information behaviour that is published. The model includes two phases (making connections and interacting with sources) and four modes of searching (active seeking, active scanning, non-directed monitoring, and by proxy) (McKenzie, 2003). The model does not focus on transitions specifically but was the basis for the model development that focuses on a group, which happens to be in transition. McKenzie's work has been widely cited and her model has been tested with another group of women in transition.

Yeoman (2010) examined women going through menopause to test the transferability of McKenzie's model. Yeoman determined that much of the information seeking of menopausal women could be explained by McKenzie's model but extended it to account for information use, insurmountable barriers, and the women themselves becoming sources of information. In addition to McKenzie's work, other information behaviour researchers have examined specific groups of individuals undergoing transitions including the information needs of survivors of intimate partner violence (Westbrook, 2009), the information practices of new immigrants (Caidi, Allard, & Quirke, 2010; Lloyd et al., 2013), the role of information in social inclusion of immigrants (Caidi & Allard, 2005; Kennan et al., 2011), information use by immigrants accessing the public library (Fisher, Durrance, & Hinton, 2004), the information seeking and use environment of abused and neglected children who were placed into foster care (Hersberger et al., 2006), and the information environment and seeking behaviours of retiring Korean government officials (Park & Lee, 2013). These studies focused on the transition and the information needs that it generates (as with Caidi & Allard, 2005; Hersberger et al., 2006; and

Westbrook, 2009), the environment in which information needs exist and the resulting information seeking (as with Caidi, Allard, & Quirke, 2010; Kennan et al., 2011; Lloyd et al., 2013; and Park & Lee, 2013), or the outcomes of interventions during transitions (as with Fisher, Durrance, & Hinton, 2004).

McCaughan and McKenna (2007) published a study of the information-seeking behaviour of newly diagnosed cancer patients in the field of nursing, which does not refer to the information science literature. Using a grounded theory approach, McCaughan and McKenna found that patients went through stages of response, blocking out the diagnosis and attempts at finding information, opening up to information seeking, and finding strength in adversity by seeking information and creating personal meaning (pp. 2098-2099). Two of the information-seeking patterns of the patients in this study that emerged clearly mirror other information behaviour. Their information seeking, which included formal and informal sources, included deliberate/active information seeking (similar to McKenzie's [2003] active seeking and active scanning, amongst many others) and serendipitous information gaining (similar to Foster and Ford's [2004] serendipity, Erdelez's [1997] information encountering, amongst others). The third information-seeking pattern, comparing their experiences with those of others, is not something encountered in the information behaviour literature, though there are some similarities to Yeoman's (2010) participants, who are an information source for others, or McKenzie's (2003) information seeking by proxy. Comparing experiences helped individuals make sense of their own experience, giving them a frame of reference. McCaughan and McKenna categorised a patient's response to diagnosis through a sequence of three stages with intervening steps: 1) being traumatised (the intervening steps being making sense and opening out), 2) taking it on (the intervening steps being information seeking, making sense, and becoming informed), and 3) taking control (p. 2101). While prescriptive, this model theorises the place of information seeking and sense making during transition.

Stutzman's (2011) work looks at the impact of a transition in most detail, examining how networked information behaviour changes over an extended period of time after a transitional event has occurred. His work focuses on

students' use of social networks to adapt to the transition. In comparison, McKenzie's (2001) work provides an in-depth look at information needs, sources, and behaviours over a shorter period of time after a transition has begun but before a transitional event has occurred. Her work focuses on information behaviour at a specific point in time during a transition. What is missing from the research on information behaviour in transitions is a detailed, holistic examination of how a transition impacts information needs and behaviour over a period of a transition, using the transition as the lens through which to view the information behaviour. This is in addition to an understanding of academics transitioning from doctoral studies to academic positions.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the multiple contexts in which academics, both doctoral students and new academics, reside. It is important to take into account the many situations in which an academic finds her/himself and to recognise that external forces work with internal factors to make up the individual's experience. These contexts, including the information context of academics, were discussed to try to locate academics in their complex environments. After context, Transition Theory was discussed, the characteristics of transitions themselves and the factors that mediate the experience of transitions. Information behaviour and related topics were then discussed, including information need, information seeking, information use, and the internal and external influences related to information. All of this led to the discussion of the scarce literature on information behaviour during transitions, in an attempt to more holistically understand the individuals in their multiple contexts as they work with information during a time of upheaval and change. This review of the literature demonstrates the need for a better understanding of the information behaviours and practices undertaken by academics as they move from being doctoral students to new academics. In the next chapter the epistemological, theoretical and methodological approaches to this research are

explicated, along with details around the methods used to collect and analyse the data.

Chapter 3: Methodology and Methods

Chapter overview

The aim of this research is to construct an understanding of the everyday experiences and information behaviour of individuals as they transition from being doctoral students to university academics. The previous chapter examined the research literature, demonstrating the need to examine information behaviour during transitions. This research has been designed to gain insight into their experiences and learn more about this transition. In this chapter, the epistemological, theoretical, and methodological frameworks are described, followed by a description of the ethical considerations, the participants, the methods undertaken, the data analysis used, and the limitations of the study.

Research questions

As articulated in Chapter 1, the research was designed to address these research questions:

1. What are the academic and everyday information experiences of academics as they transition from doctoral education to their first full-time, lecturer/assistant professor positions in universities?
    a. During transition, what are the information practices in which academics engage?
    b. What are academics' perceptions of the change in their information practices (needs, seeking, use), if any, during transition?
    c. What are academics' perceptions of the change in their information environment?
2. How do participants perceive the impact of their social environment on their information practices?
    a. How does the social environment of academe affect academics' information practices?
    b. What information behaviours do academics engage in during transition to become a part of new social contexts?

c. What environmental factors (physical environment, political environment and social environment) enable or constrain academics' information behaviours?
d. What impact, if any, do academics perceive university and departmental policies and procedures have on their information activities?

Research approach

I constructed the approach to my research project using Crotty's (1998) framework of progressively narrower elements of research: epistemology, theory, methodology, and methods. The broadest element is the epistemological standpoint that informs the theoretical perspective, which in turn underpins the methodology, which in turn helps determine which methods to use to answer the research questions. Crotty differentiates the epistemological stance from the theoretical stance, stating that the epistemological stance is the theory of knowledge that is contained within the theoretical stance. He then differentiates the methodology from the methods, stating that the methodology is the design or plan of action, while the methods are the procedures used to collect data. What follows are the epistemological, theoretical, and methodological perspectives taken by this research, then the specific methods used in the research.

Epistemological framework: Social constructionism

The epistemological framework for this research is social constructionism (or simply, constructionism). This epistemological stance focuses on how individuals "construct understandings, meanings, and identities through dialogue and discourse" (Case, 2012, p. 190). While there are similarities between constructionism and constructivism, Gergen and Gergen (2008) view constructivism as meaning making as taking place within the mind of individuals (a cognitive stance) and constructionism as taking place within social relationship and negotiation (a relational stance). Crotty (1998) views constructionism as forming meaning through human interaction with, and

interpretation of, the world, which is then transmitted through social discourse. In this view, without the social world there is no meaning as we are human beings in relation to one another. Taking this stance, meaning is created rather than discovered, being neither objective (as it is constructed by people interpreting the world with which they are engaging) nor subjective (as it is constructed from what already exists in the world) (Crotty, 1998). There is no split of the objective or the subjective as the subject and object are always connected through interaction (Crotty, 1998). Meaning is not a fixed point but the product of the ongoing process of interpretation; therefore, there is no one true interpretation (Burr, 2003). All voices are important and this research strives to listen to different voices to discover how they are constructing meaning.

From this perspective, knowledge is communal, generated through "historically and socially situated social processes" (Gergen & Gergen, 2008, p. 818). We cannot look at human beings and not acknowledge both the influence of the past and the social world. Central to social constructionism is language, through which social knowledge is created (Gergen & Gergen, 2008). Human thought is social and based on a system of symbols that both exist outside human beings and inherited; symbols are used to make interpretations (Crotty, 1998). Constructionism is part of the "linguistic turn" in research into the humanities and social sciences, recognising language as the foundation for constructing both the self and meaning (Talja, Tuominen & Savolainen, 2005, p. 89). Without language there is no knowing, as thought cannot be separated from that on which it is built. We represent our experiences (thoughts, feelings, behaviour) through language and language is social; therefore people socially construct their identities (Burr, 2003). This research examines language in spoken and written form to determine how individuals use language to construct their understandings of themselves and the world around them.

Language is expressed in discourses, which have been defined in various ways. This research uses Potter and Wetherell's (1987) definition of "all forms of spoken interaction, formal and informal, and written texts of all kinds" (p. 7). Discourses, which are knowledge formations, set the boundaries for social knowledge, creating categories and allowing phenomena within the

world to be viewed (Talja et al., 2005). When discourses are analysed, language in use and human meaning making is the subject of the study (Wetherell, 2001). Because of language's inherently [constructivist] nature, when language is used in talking and writing, social reality is created (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997). Language follows conventions to communicate within certain contexts; knowing conventions within a community is extremely important to sustaining relationships, "affirm[ing] the reality, rationality, and values" of the community, as well as its purpose (Gergen & Gergen, 2008, p. 819). Language also cannot be separated from its historical and social roots, as it does not simply reflect thought but is used to create thought. Language depends on both context and perspective, and by nature is used for argument (Talja et al., 2005). Knowledge is produced through context and dialogue. To transfer knowledge from one context to another requires work to legitimise and contextualise that knowledge by engaging in dialogue what was previously expressed in this new context (Tuominen, Talja & Savolainen, 2002). In exploring the transition from doctoral studies to lecturer/assistant professor positions, this research examines how participants in new contexts and dialogues use information to negotiate the construction of knowledge.

Rather than focusing on the individual as the point of study (monologism), constructionism focuses on the discursive practices in interactions between people (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997). While the individual is an active part of meaning making, the individual cannot be viewed in isolation. Meaning is created through a process of negotiation, and reality is created through discourse (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997). It is through interaction that the world can be known. Within a social constructionist point of view, there is no knowing *about* reality, there is only knowing *in* reality, as knowledge is always positioned (Tuominen et al., 2002). Rather than dealing with absolute truth and objectivity, social constructionism takes a pragmatic approach to knowledge, looking to understand the cultural implications of truth claims made (Gergen & Gergen, 2008). What this means for research is that all claims of truth have, as their foundation, a network of presumptions and nothing else, and that truth claims are not necessarily rendered false or unimportant but that there are possibilities of using new methodologies to

explore meanings (Gergen & Gergen, 2008). Knowledge construction is positioned; multiple positions are used and between those positions there is a constant, dynamic tension (Talja et al., 2005). In this research, individuals are examined within multiple contexts to better understand their constructions of meaning.

If, as in the constructionist view, knowing is constructed through dialogue and negotiation, then information does not mirror reality but it "consists of social arguments that take part in ongoing conversations about the meaning of an issue or a phenomenon" (Tuominen et al., 2002, p. 278). Within the field of information science, a constructionist viewpoint means viewing "information, information systems, and information needs [as] entities that are produced within existing discourses" (Talja et al., 2005, p. 90). It is within the boundaries of discourses that information behaviour takes place. In information science the epistemological stance is often denoted by the term used to describe the subfield. Often, "information behaviour" uses a cognitive stance, while "information practice" uses a social constructionist stance, focusing on discursive constructs (Savolainen, 2007, p. 109). While taking a social constructionist viewpoint, this research uses the term "information behaviour" over "information practices;" this constructionist epistemological stance was chosen, as transitions require individuals to take part in new discourses and negotiate meanings in a changing environment. Transitions provide an opportunity to see active negotiation of discourses and meaning. Constructionism frames an understanding of the changes taking place.

Theoretical frameworks: Transitions Theory and neoliberalism

This research used a constructivist grounded theory methodological approach (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008), which uses inductive techniques to generate theories from the data gathered in a study; a specific theoretical stance is articulated after the data have been analysed. Theory is generated from the data, comparing the theory developed to established theories that help to verify the theory generated (Stern, 2008). Before and during data collection I read

different theories and research, which broadened my thinking and sensitised me to various ways of understanding my research, which I treated as "sensitising concepts" (Morgan, 2008). Originally, the theories examined included interpretivism, social positioning, and Transitions Theory. I continued to use Transitions Theory during analysis of the data, while the other two theories proved to be less useful in explaining the data.

Transitions Theory, as discussed in depth in Chapter 2, focuses on the transition as the topic of study. It frames transitions to be a complex process initiated by a disruption - an unstable period between two more stables points – that leads to redefinition of self and self-agency (Kralik et al., 2006). Aspects of individuals' lives that can change include identities, roles, relationships, abilities, and patterns of behaviour (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). Properties of transitions include awareness, engagement, change, timespan, and critical events (Meleis et al., 2000). Conditions of transitions include meanings, cultural beliefs, preparation and knowledge, and societal conditions (Meleis et al., 2000). Responses to transitions include feeling connected, interacting, being situated, developing confidence and coping, mastery, and an integrated identity (Meleis et al., 2000).

Through reading, data collection, and data analysis a theoretical framework emerged that provided a way to better understand the experiences of the early career academics in the study. The framework is neoliberalism. While Transitions Theory is a framework to study transition specifically, neoliberalism is a broader framework to understand the experience of transition. This research did not set out to use this economic and political view of the world; however, throughout the analysis process, neoliberalism emerged as a major force in the lives of participants. This section will focus on neoliberalism. Neoliberalism is not a cohesive theory, but rather can be viewed more as an ideology or a paradigm. When it is defined, which does not often happen (Boas & Gans-Morse, 2009; Flew, 2014; Thorsen, 2010), the term is defined quite broadly. Unsurprisingly, as with other broad terms, there are debates about its definition (Boas & Gans-Morse, 2009; Flew, 2014; Harman, 2007; Mitrović, 2005; Thorsen, 2010). In examining the various definitions and ways that it has been applied to different types of phenomena, it has been used as a set of

policies for economic reform, a model of development, a normative ideology, an academic paradigm (Boas & Gans-Morse, 2009), a catch-all negative category, an institutional framework, and a form of governmentality and hegemony (Flew, 2014), amongst other things. Several authors, after having examined how neoliberalism has been defined and used, have proposed a set of definitions, including, "series of *ideas* about socio-economic order" (Flew, 2014, p. 64) and a "loose set of ideas of how the relationship between the state and its external environment ought to be organised, and not a complete political philosophy or ideology" (Thorsen, 2010, p. 204). Generally, these definitions have been focused on economic aspects and share a view that the major feature of neoliberalism is a reduction of state intervention in the economy and a return to a "laissez-faire" approach to economics.

However, as it is commonly used, the term has to do with more than economics, including collectivity, freedom, and democracy. Those that take a critical view of neoliberalism define it much more negatively. In his book, *A Brief History of Neoliberalism* (2005), David Harvey describes,

> "Neoliberalism is in the first instance a theory of political economic practices that proposes that human well-being can be best advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade. The role of the state is to create and preserve an institutional framework appropriate to such practices" (Harvey, 2005, p. 2)

Harvey goes on to call neoliberalism a discourse that is hegemonic, as it has become "incorporated into the common-sense way many of us interpret, live in, and understand the world" (p. 3). In the introduction to Noam Chomsky's book, *Profit Over People*, Robert McChesney (1999) articulates,

> Neoliberalism is the defining political economic paradigm of our time – it refers to the policies and processes whereby a relative handful of private interests are permitted to control as much as possible of social life in order to maximize their personal profit. (p. 7)

Anthony Giddens (1998) reviews the policies and processes that make up neoliberalism, including: a hostility to "big government" (p. 11), a desire for little state involvement, a belief that civil is a self-generating mechanism destroyed by the welfare state, and approval for inequality between people, and a contributor to globalisation. Taking a, perhaps, more radical view, Pierre Bourdieu describes it as "a programme for destroying collective structures that impede the pure market logic" (para. 1), evoking a Darwinian view in which "it is the struggle of all against all" (para. 9), which results in instability and a more docile workforce.

It is easy to get bogged down in differences about definition. For the purposes of this study, a critical view of neoliberalism is taken, seeing it as both a political and economic ideology. It is an ideology in the sense that it is a collection of "normative ideas about the proper role of individuals versus collectivities and a particular conception of freedom as an overarching social value" (Boas & Gans-Morse, 2009, p. 144). In looking at the "role of individuals versus collectivities" it can be viewed as political, believing that state intervention should be minimal and privileging the individual over the collective. It can also be viewed as economic, believing in the laissez-faire functioning of free markets, including privatisation and deregulation. In these ways it is both a political and an economic ideology.

Why is this important? Many academics have discussed the crisis in higher education (Chomsky, 2015; Côté & Allahar, 2011; Ginsberg, 2011; Hil, 2012; Reading, 1996), pointing to neoliberalism, or aspects of neoliberalism such as corporatisation, as a major force in this crisis. The university is an important cultural institution and as Derrida (1983) asked, "how can we not speak of the university?" (p. 3). It is through examining the larger context in which universities reside that we can better understand the experience of those who work within it. "[I]t is impossible, now more than ever, to dissociate the work we do, within one discipline or several, from a reflection on the political and institutional conditions of that work" (Derrida, 1983, p. 3). Neoliberalism, as the "defining political economic paradigm of our time" (McChesney, 1999, p. 7), directly influences the political and institutional conditions of academic work. It is also a lens used by academics to better understand the context of

higher education today, often critical of the direction in which many universities are going. “In many ways, the cost accounting principles of efficiency, calculability, predictability, and control of the corporate order have restructured the purpose and meaning of education” (Giroux, 2002, p. 442). Programs must prove that they are economically worthwhile; academics must account for their use of time; universities must demonstrate their contributions to the economy. The university that academics are working in today is moving “towards a corporate business model,” characterised by “precarity” and a focus on the “bottom line” (Chomsky, 2015, para. 1). Of particular interest is Chomsky’s (2015) discussion of the increase in “layers of administration and bureaucracy … useful for control and domination” (para. 7). It is into this context that early career academics transition.

Methodological frameworks

This research employs a qualitative approach, using two methodological frameworks. Research built on a social constructionist epistemological framework lends itself to qualitative methodologies, being concerned with social relationships (Gergen & Gergen, 2008). Qualitative research recognises the importance of and provides space for individual’s voices and perspectives. The major overarching framework for the research is constructivist grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006); the minor methodological framework is discourse analysis (Taylor, 2001; Fairclough, 2001). Constructivist grounded theory is particularly useful for examining phenomena in an explorative manner, lending itself to phenomena that have not be previously studied in depth. Discourse analysis examines how discourses are used in social process, particularly suited for examining issues of power. Specifically, critical discourse analysis was used as a methodology to examine the documents that institutions provide for newly hired academics. While this research uses both a constructivist grounded theory and a critical discourse analytical approach, the overarching methodological framework for this study is grounded theory. Both methodologies focus on the use of language and the importance of social interactions, discourse analysis

fitting in as a part of the flexible framework provided by grounded theory as a way to examine textual data.

Constructivist grounded theory

Grounded theory is both a systematic and flexible set of qualitative data collection procedures, as well as the product – the theory – resulting from those procedures (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). The aim of grounded theory is to collect data to both better understand the phenomena under examination as well as to generate theory inductively. Both the method and the content of grounded theory research emerge as the research progresses, rather than coming from a priori knowledge and assumptions before the research begins (Charmaz, 2008a). Glaser and Strauss first articulated grounded theory as a methodology in 1967 in their book *The Discovery of Grounded Theory* (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Since its inception, the methodology has developed and new branches have emerged. This research uses a constructivist grounded theory approach that Charmaz and Bryant are credited with formulating, based on the assumptions "that both the research process and the studied world are socially constructed through actions, but that historical and social conditions constrain these actions" (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008, p. 378). This relativistic stance highlights: "(a) the social conditions of the research situation; (b) the researcher's perspectives, positions, and practices; (c) the researcher's participation in the construction of data; and (d) the social construction of research acts, as well as participants' worlds" (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008, p. 378). The worlds of the participants are diverse and local, include multiple realities and are complex (Creswell, 2007). Important in grounded theory is an understanding of phenomena that are both abstract and specific to the circumstances in which the research takes places (Charmaz, 2008a).

With this perspective, the role of reflexivity on the part of the researcher, the context in which the research occurs, and the role of prior knowledge are acknowledged (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Particularly, the role of the researcher is highlighted, as meaning is co-created through the interaction between the researcher and the participants (Mills, Bonner, & Francis, 2006).

The co-creation of meaning changes the relationship between the participant and the researcher, shifting the balance of power and the roles of each. Data collection becomes data generation (Mills et al., 2006). The questions asked of participants in grounded theory research focus on experiences of individuals going through a process and the steps involved (Creswell, 2007). Not only does this methodology address questions of experience (the *how* and *what* questions) but also the *why* questions, with the why emerging throughout the research process (Charmaz, 2008a, pp. 397-398).

The methodology guides the researcher to simultaneously collect and analyse data, making systematic comparisons and to work with both the data and theory that emerges throughout the iterative process of the research (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). As collection and analysis are not distinct phases of the research, analysis will be discussed briefly in this section, as well as in the Data Analysis section later this in chapter. According to Charmaz (2008b), grounded theory is distinctive in four ways: its coding practices; the writing of progressively analytic memos to advance theory; theoretical sampling; and, theoretical saturation. The qualitative data that are gathered go through a system of coding. Beginning with initial coding that describes what is taking place and labels the data to distinguish different processes, the codes are then used to compare, sort, and synthesise the data (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Throughout the analysis process, the researcher writes memos to discuss the codes, definitions, properties, and comparisons, so that the researcher can engage with the analysis, identify gaps, and develop ideas throughout the analysis stages (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Theoretical sampling is used after key categories have emerged, in order for researchers to inform the theoretical categories that are developing, i.e., to elaborate or refine the categories (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Tied to theoretical sampling is theoretical saturation. Theoretical saturation is reached and data collection ends when the properties of theoretical categories have been identified and filled by the data (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). It is difficult to determine when saturation has been reached, particularly of categories that are of substance, so evidence of saturation must be provided (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). Once the coding has concluded, theoretical sampling has taken place, and theoretical saturation has been achieved, the

memos written throughout the data collection and analysis process are sorted and arranged according to the theoretical analysis (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008). The sorting becomes the framework for writing up the data (Charmaz & Bryant, 2008).

Grounded theory, with its constant interaction of the researcher with the data and development and checking of categories, is based on emergent design (Charmaz, 2008b). Emergent design is an approach to data collection and analysis that is flexible and allows for changes in the procedures based on what is learned throughout the research (Morgan, 2008). Research goals and questions may change as data are collected and analysed and the research design must change in response (Morgan, 2008). With data collection, changes come in the form of data sources (theoretical sampling) or procedures of data gathering from those sources (Morgan, 2008). In emergent design the research topic shifts to either broaden or narrow the scope of the study (Morgan, 2008). As grounded theory involves the researcher analysing data as they are collected, the research design can shift to accommodate what is learned through analysis and the researcher implements those changes in an iterative process (Morgan, 2008). Although no research is fully emergent, as researchers come with prior knowledge or "sensitising concepts," emergent design is frequently a part of qualitative research (Morgan, 2008). The research process is neither neutral, nor without its own context (Charmaz, 2008a), and the stance of the research and the way in which it takes place should be acknowledged.

The emergent nature of constructivist grounded theory is significant as "*The method does not stand outside the research process; it resides within it*" (Charmaz, 2008b, p. 160, emphasis in the original). As the researcher makes choices about how the research should proceed, its emergent nature is due to the researcher's questions, choices, and methods (Charmaz, 2008b). Charmaz (2008b) goes so far as to say that grounded theory researchers do not come to the research with specific research questions, only areas of research, as research questions will evolve out of the data. Emergent design is linked with inductive research in attempting to generate theory, as emergent themes stem from initial coding and eventually become the basis of theory creation (Morgan, 2008). To

be an emergent, grounded theory study, researchers must remain open to what happens in the research setting (Charmaz, 2008b).

Critical discourse analysis

In addition to grounded theory, this research employed a critical discourse analysis methodology. Discourses themselves can be viewed by different disciplines in various ways. Coming from a social constructionist standpoint, discourse refers to perspectives; individual discourses are different conceptualisations of the same topic (Tuominen et al., 2002). The study of discourse is "the study of language in use" and "the study of human meaning-making" (Wetherell, Taylor, & Yates, 2001, p. 3). Discourse analysis is an approach that examines the use of language and the ways in which it works in the social world (Potter, 2008). When examining discursive action, discourse analysis is an appropriate methodology, as it focuses on what people do with language and the cultural resources used when engaging in discursive practices (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997). Discursive action does not take place within an individual but between speakers in dialogue, and these dialogues are not planned strategically meaning that researchers should not speculate about a person's motivations for discourses (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997).

Discourse analysis is based on Foucault's idea that sets of concepts form ways of thinking about the world, and that there is a connection between document contents, actions and locations of that action (Prior, 2008). How documents work in social action can be analysed in three ways: (1) production (what operations were used to create the document in its current form), (2) consumption (how is the document used and what function does it serve), and (3) circulation (how documents are exchanged and the development of social networks and groupings) (Prior, 2008). When discourses are analysed they are analysed for what they are (language use and construction of meaning in context), not for what they represent beyond the discourse (such as motivation or cognition) (Potter & Wetherell, 1987). Typically, when analysing documents, they are examined for their content (Prior, 2008). Documents are not only content but also are a part of the social realm in a two-way relationship;

documents are receptacles of types of information as well as agents impacting human activity (Prior, 2008).

Many different traditions of discourse analysis have been developed, such as Foucauldian, discursive psychology, psycho-social, and critical discourse analysis. Critical discourse analysis, which is based on Foucault's discourse theory, looks at issues such as the validity of knowledge within a particular context, how knowledge is created and transmitted, the function it has for its "constituting subjects", and its consequences in shaping society (Jäger & Maier, 2009, p. 34). It concerns issues of knowledge and power, recognising that that knowledge is negotiated within a particular historical and cultural context. As Fairclough (2001) states, critical discourse analysis "is critical in the sense that is aims to show non-obvious ways in which language is involved in social relations of power and domination, and in ideology" (p. 229).

Generally, the approach to critical discourse analysis involves both a structure analysis (i.e., an analysis of the content) and a fine analysis (i.e., an analysis of linguistic features) (Fairclough, 2001; Jäger & Maier, 2009; Wodak & Meyer, 2009). However, critical discourse analysis is unique in some ways because of its critical focus. Critical theory, which informs critical discourse analysis, it is interested in identifying injustice and making visible hegemonic thinking, societal contradictions, and sources of power. At its core, critical theory seeks to liberate and transform (Leckie & Buschman, 2010). Critical discourse analysis "reveals the contradictions within and between discourses, the limits of what can be said and done, and the means by which discourse makes particular statements seem rational and beyond all doubt" (Jäger & Maier, 2009, p. 36). In this way, critical discourse analysis looks at issues of hegemony, domination, and exploitation in social life that are maintained culturally and ideologically (Fairclough, 2001).

While there are many ways to operationalise a critical discourse analysis, this research used an analytical framework offered by Fairclough (2001). This framework begins not with texts but with identifying social issues that have a discursive, or semiotic, aspect. It is through identifying the social issues, rather than beginning with a research question, that highlights the critical element of the analysis. The next stage of the framework identifies the obstacles to the

social problem, examining how the problem arises and is situated in the organisation of social life (Fairclough, 2001). This is done through an analysis of the network of practices and the discourse, including structural (the order of discourse), interactional (how semiotic properties of the text interact with socially), interdiscursive (identifying genres and discourses, as well as how they work together in a text), and linguistic (whole-text organisation, clause combination, clauses, and words) analyses. This is similar to Jäger and Maier's (2009) detailed analysis, which includes looking at the context, surface of the text (layout and structure), rhetorical means, content and ideological statements, and the overall discourse position (p. 55). Once the analyses are completed, the last three stages of the framework look at the larger picture. The question of who benefits from the way social life is organised (i.e., who would benefit from there being no change) is asked. Possible ways to overcome the obstacles are identified. The last stage is a reflection about the analysis, including the researcher's own point of view and social positioning (Fairclough, 2001).

As methodologies, both constructivist grounded theory and critical discourse analysis are in line with the social constructionist epistemological stance of this research, both focusing on the role of the social in understanding the world. These methodologies, critical discourse analysis working within the framework of grounded theory, work together to aid the understanding of academics in transition. For example, academics simultaneously exist in multiple social contexts – university, department, discipline – all of which will have an impact on how individuals understand their world and locate themselves within it. The next section discusses the specific procedures that stem from the methodological framework taken, used to gather individuals' experiences and better understand their contexts.

Methods

In keeping with the research frameworks used for this study, this study employed qualitative research methods. Qualitative research methods are frequently used in the field of information science. Ellis (1993) presents the

reasons information science researchers would want to use qualitative research: to uncover the facts of people's everyday lives, to understand the needs that exist and motivate information-seeking behaviour, and, by better understanding needs, understand the meaning that information has in the every life of people. This section will begin by addressing the methods used in the study, including: interviews, check-ins, and documents.

Interviews

Initial and follow-up interviews were used to gather data on the experiences of new faculty members as they transition into their new jobs. The interviews were in-depth and semi-structured. In-depth interviews were used in which participants were asked open-ended questions and encouraged to speak at length about the research topic (Cook, 2008). One advantage of the in-depth interview is that they allow the research to create a sense of intimacy with the interviewee to increase self-disclosure (Johnson, 2001), a technique employed to probe deeper into participants' experiences. Doing multiple interviews with each participant meant that I could follow up on responses and ask new questions that arose from analysis, looking at differences in participants' responses over time, and responding to the emergent design of the study (Charmaz, 2001). The depth that an interviewer strives for includes gaining the same level of understanding as the participants who are members living out the experience being studied, going beyond common sense to get cultural understanding, revealing the researcher's own ways of thinking and assumptions, and gaining multiple meanings and perspectives on a phenomenon (Johnson, 2001). In-depth, qualitative interviews are a good fit for grounded theory research, being a flexible technique that fits emergent design (Charmaz, 2001). Interviews allow researchers an in-depth and open-ended way to explore participants' perspective on a phenomenon about which they are intimately knowledgeable (Charmaz, 2001).

Both the initial and follow-up interviews were semi-structured, guiding the interview but allowing participants to take the interview in new directions or elaborate as they see fit. Semi-structured interviews are an appropriate choice

of interview type for many studies, including studies in which there is a desire to gather information about a topic about which knowledge is taken for granted and not usually articulated by members and where members have multiple and complicated perspectives on the same phenomenon (Johnson, 2001). In constructivist grounded theory, researchers begin with a problem and then the interviewer and interviewee co-construct the interview; this provides the data for the study but the data are constructions that are situated within a particular context (Charmaz, 2001). Bryant and Charmaz (2007) state that unstructured interviews are most commonly used in grounded theory research, and commence with a brief introduction to the phenomenon being explored and then introduce questions which elicit a description of the participants' experiences. While unstructured interviews may be common, this research used semi-structured interviews, allowing for a slightly more ordered approach to covering relevant content. Follow-up interviews were somewhat more structured, as specific aspects of participants' initial interviews were picked out for follow up.

In all but one case, initial interviews were undertaken in person. One participant had to change the time of his initial interviews and we used Skype (without video) at his request. All interviews were audio recorded. (For the interview guide for the initial interview, please see Appendix B. For an example of a guide for the follow-up interview, please see Appendix C.) For most participants the initial interviews took place in participants' offices. I proposed meeting in participants' offices for both convenience but also in order to allow them to refer to specific materials in their workspaces (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and to "enhance contextual richness and minimize fragmentation" (Foster, 2004, p. 230). One participant preferred to do their initial interview over the telephone, three preferred to meet at coffee shops either on or off campus, and one at a pub. In one case we met at an off-campus coffee shop as the faculty members of this participant's university were on strike the day we met. I deferred to participants' preferences as I felt this gave them a sense that their wishes were being taken into consideration and, hopefully, that it would increase participants' comfort in the interview.

Five to seven months later, the follow-up interviews were completed using Skype, either with or without video feed. There was one exception to this as one participant was located geographically near me at the time of the follow-up interview and we met in person. For some interviews, using Skype added complexity as at points there were delays in the feed. At times the Skype interviews took place without video through participant preference or because the video was turned off to limit delays. Having delays made conversations more difficult and stilted. Not having video meant body language could not be used as part of the conversation. At the follow-up interview participants were given a summary of the major points from the transcript of their first interview, providing an opportunity for participants to add or clarify what they had previously discussed, as well as a starting point to discuss any changes in participants' experiences, as well as continuing issues and topics.

Check-ins

Participants were followed for between 5 and 7 months, covering at least the time of one full academic semester. Check-ins was a method used to briefly touch base with participants between interviews. Check-ins were originally developed by McKenzie (2001) as a "method of systematic and regular data reporting over a short period of time to structure the follow-up interview and prompt memory of incidental events" (p. 35). Check-ins used in this research were modified both in that they were less structured (they were not systematic in terms of the questions asked or the timing of the contact), were used over a longer period of time, and were provided in multiple formats. For this research check-ins were used as a method of regular contact, consisting of a brief interaction for the purpose of collecting salient, current experiences. They can be thought of as a modified journal or modified interview. Pre-set questions were used; however, participants were given the option of answering other questions or discussing what was salient at the point of contact. Because this research was interested in transitions and change over time, check-ins were used to get a snapshot of participants at different points in the semester, between the interviews. The components of academic jobs vary greatly

depending on the point in the academic semester (e.g., marking first assignments, prepping teaching materials for first classes, submitting grades, writing grant applications), so check-ins were used to not only capture participants' transition experiences, but also their transition experiences in relation to different aspects of their jobs.

The original plan was for check-ins to be done through journaling in private blogs, as a way to allow participants to talk about their current experiences and as a convenient medium for participants who were geographically dispersed. However, some participants expressed concern during recruitment or after the first interview that writing a blog would take more time than they could commit. As the purpose of the blog was to check-in with participants, and in keeping with the emergent design of the study, participants were offered different check-in formats. Technological choice was given to participants in order to better fit with their busy lives. Written asynchronous or verbal synchronous options were offered to participants in the form of blogs, email, Skype, and telephone. Originally blogs, Skype, and telephone were offered. However, the tenth participant asked to do check-ins via email and this option was offered to the last 10 participants. Offering participants choice in research, such as the interaction medium, can give participants a feeling of control in the process (Hanna, 2012).

For Skype and telephone check-ins, an appointment was set and one e-mail reminder was sent. Conversations were recorded. For the blog check-ins, a private blog (requiring a username and password) was set up for each participant who decided to blog with an introductory post providing details. For each check-in, the pre-set questions were written in a post. One reminder email was sent if there was no post. For the email check-ins, an email was sent with the same text as in the blogs. One reminder email was sent if no response was received. Similar questions were used for each check-in format (questions used as prompts in the blogs and sent in the emails, used as questions to begin discussion over Skype or on the telephone); however in the written formats participants were reminded that the questions were a guide or starting point and that they could take the check-in in a different direction. In the verbal formats, the questions were used as a starting point and participants could direct the

conversation, as in the initial interviews. At times specific follow-up questions were asked or questions about the time in the academic year. Some participants were very chatty and conversations were lengthy rather than brief, even when given the opportunity to end the exchange due to the time. Telephone and Skype check-ins lasted between 12-52 minutes, most averaging around 24 minutes. Blog and email exchanges also varied in length from 109-1684 words, most averaging from 500-600 words. Blog posts tended to be longer than emails.

Participants were asked to check-in a minimum of once a month. Originally, four check-ins were planned with each participant; however, after three check-ins I determined that there was little new information being obtained and that participants were getting fatigued. In total, nine participants chose to do check-ins via Skype, seven of whom completed three check-ins, two of whom completed two. Seven participants chose to do check-ins via blog, three of whom completed three check-ins, four of whom completed one. Three participants chose to do check-ins via email, all of whom completed all three check-ins. Two participants chose to do check-ins via telephone, one of whom completed three check-ins, one of whom completed one. However, two participants originally indicated they intended to blog, later choosing Skype and telephone instead.

Asynchronous check-ins: Blogs and email

Participants who chose blogs received blog instructions at the time of the interview. (For the blogging guidelines, please see Appendix D.) Using WordPress software, blogs were set up before the initial interview took place. The blogs were set up as private, meaning only the participant and myself had access to the content (Koufogiannakis, 2012). I accessed the blog to add prompts and check for posts. (For an example blog post, please see Appendix E.) If participants had not written a blog post near the end of the month, they were sent one reminder email. For participants who chose email, an email was sent each month that included the question prompts. Participants replied with their responses.

Blogs allowed participants to write about their experiences. Rather than diaries used to track daily activities, blogs were used as journals to allow participants to record their "emotion, introspection, and self-reflection" (Smith-Sullivan, 2008, p. 214) about the transition to the faculty member role. Not only are journals valuable in obtaining data from participants on little-studied topics but they can also help participants feel more comfortable with self-disclosure (Smith-Sullivan, 2008). Using online methods to collect data increases the ability to reach participants (Saumure & Given, 2008b). Blogs are not restricted in the same way by time or space as physical journals (Smith-Sullivan, 2008), allowing participants to access their blogs from anywhere there is an Internet connection. Participants can choose to blog whenever they wish and, with more time for reflection, asynchronous data collection methods may lead to richer data (Egan, 2008). While many of these characteristics are beneficial, with asychronicity there is a reduction in nonverbal cues from participants that are a part of face-to-face interactions, the responses are less spontaneous, and the number and timing of responses are unpredictable. Email and blogs share many of the characteristics. Egan (2008) particularly mentions the impact of communication style - "lengthy prose vs. question-and-answer form" (p. 245) – on the richness of data. While this is can also be the case with blogs, it was particularly noticeable in the email responses. One advantage email has in the present study is that it is a regular part of academics' everyday life, while blogs may not. In using email, participants have no new technology to master or accounts to use. While lack of rapport is a disadvantage of textual, asynchronous methods, the present study used this in combination with face-to-face, synchronous methods.

Synchronous check-ins: Skype and telephone

Verbal synchronous check-ins were in the form of Skype and telephone conversations. For participants who chose either Skype or phone, appointment times were set up either over email or at the end of the previous check-in. Typically, email reminders were sent the day before the check-in was set to take place.

Face-to-face interviews share similarities with virtual (e.g., Turney, 2008) and telephone interviews (e.g., Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). Interviews using Skype and other voice over Internet protocols not only provide synchronous interactions, but also retain visual cues (Hanna, 2012). Without video, care must be taken with paying attention to auditory cues and the ways questions are asked, as no nonverbal cues are available (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004; Turney, 2008). In addition, while rich data can be obtained by telephone, participants may answer more succinctly and therefore require probes (Hughes, 2008). With the check-ins via telephone and Skype without video, the challenge of no visual cues and the need for more probes were found. At times these conversations were more stilted. As with email, Skype and telephones have the advantage of being a regular part of academics' everyday life. Skype and telephone check-ins tended to be very conversational and at times were a recounting of different events that had taken place since the last conversation. Often these conversations started with the simple question, "How are you?" At times these conversations, which were intended to range between five and 10 minutes, went over time as participants wanted to talk about their experiences.

Documents

It was originally intended that documents and other textual materials that participants found to be helpful in their transition would be provided for analysis. These types of materials have the potential to be important in describing participants' historical and current situation (Schensul, 2008). This research was looking for documents in any format generated by the participants' institutions and aimed at newly hired academics (e.g., induction guides, faculty development centre websites) that participants deemed useful. The plan was also to examine publicly available documents from institutions not mentioned by participants but generated for their use to supplement the participant-provided documents with other publicly available university documents. At the end of the initial interview participants were asked to identify documents,

websites, or other materials that they found or were given that was helpful in their transition.

It was anticipated that participants would be able to provide several documents. However, more than half listed no important documents, websites, or other materials as useful in their transition. Several participants mentioned the helpfulness of HR forms they filled out but nothing that was useful beyond the one-time taking care of setting up pay or benefits. A few other participants mentioned books or other published sources that they found useful, particularly related to understanding academic work or keeping up-to-date with aspects of the job. When asked for documents, several participants pointed to binders given to them when starting that were under piles of paper or on the bottom shelves of bookshelves and had not been used. Despite asking the question "Are there any documents or websites that you found useful in making the transition?" at times participants were not sure what I was asking. There were several discussions around my desire to see the types of documents that they had found useful and may have looked at more than once. This indicated that some participants were not oriented to documents in the way that I had anticipated. Some participants seemed to feel that they had to list something; however they stated that the documents they listed were used infrequently or were not very helpful. In total, one participant mentioned several information sources generated by his school, two participants listed a university website set up for new faculty members, and five participants mentioned a published source (one online magazine, one web comic, one book, one article, one website). I had to acknowledge my own bias as an information science scholar and a former academic librarian towards documents. I think about information codified in textual formats and place value on those documents. For this reason assumed that others would also have a similar "document orientation." I had anticipated that participants would use university-generated documents for information such as roles, expectations, policies, and procedures. As I used an emergent design perspective for this research, I decided to shift how I collected documents to account for participants' actual use (or lack of use) of these materials.

The participants' university websites, 10 universities in total, were scoured for publicly available documents aimed at newly hired academics, particularly induction documents, which frequently included links to other documentary sources. Documentary sources included blurbs about induction programs, information about academic development programs, checklists for induction activities, handbooks for new academics, programs offered for new academics, welcome documents, information about universities, and human resource documents. It was difficult to determine the exact number of documents, as some documents were website landing pages, with lists of links to other documents or had multiple drop-down sections. Some of the documents were extremely short (i.e., a list of links). To simplify things, documents with separate URLs were counted. In total 49 documents were used in the discourse analysis from nine universities, as one university had no publicly available documents specifically for newly hired academics. All the documents were gathered in a 24-hour period and saved electronically. (For a full list of documents collected, please see Appendix F.) The next section discusses the participants who took part in the study.

Participants

Participants were recruited from universities in New South Wales, Australia and Alberta, Canada. These locations were chosen to provide an international perspective, as well as for practical reasons. I was familiar with tertiary education institutions in both New South Wales and Alberta, having attended and/or worked at several universities in both locations. During the study I was living in New South Wales, having moved from Alberta where I had family and friends with whom I could stay on research trips. While there are many similarities between the universities, there are differences in the system for job permanency. In Australia, the system is called confirmation and typically involves a three-year probationary period. The system also includes yearly progress reports to ensure academics are meeting the institution-specific requirements for their job; a dossier to showcase their achievements in the area

of research, teaching, and governance (also called administration or service); and an interview with a panel of senior colleagues to review their dossier, before they are confirmed. In Canada, the system is called tenure and involves a six-year pre-tenure period, with academics being able to go up for early tenure, after four or five years, if they feel their application is strong enough. The system, generally, is similar to the confirmation system, including annual reviews to ensure academics are meeting the institution-specific requirements for their job, a dossier to showcase their achievements in the area of research, teaching, and service, and an interview with a panel of senior colleagues to review their dossier, before they receive tenure. However, generally there tends to be higher requirements for the achieving tenure and, culturally, there is more pressure put on Canadian academics in the tenure process. This tenure system has an impact on academics' work in several ways. In addition, within many tenure systems, there is also a merit review process that examines research output and, if deemed sufficient, provides an increase in pay (a merit increment).

Sampling

The participants for this research were early career academics. A combination of maximum variation purposive sampling and convenience sampling was used for selecting participants. In keeping with the sampling methods of qualitative research, this research focused on obtaining a sample of participants with the characteristics that would help to inform the study (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). This research used sampling in a deliberate manner, looking for the best examples of those under study, in which the characteristics of the phenomenon are most obvious (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). This type of purposive sampling was used to recruit participants with a variety of demographic backgrounds, disciplines, and experiences, to ensure that individuals included in the study "cover[ed] the spectrum of positions and perspectives" (Palys, 2008, p. 699) of what is being studied. The maximum variation purposive sampling employed was also used to ensure there was variation amongst the participants – different genders, disciplines, ages,

backgrounds – that could impact experiences of transition. However, convenience sampling was also employed as much of the sample depended on participant response. The screening criteria were set to obtain a sample of those in this transition.

Inclusion criteria

In this case, the best example of the phenomenon under study (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007) – the transition from doctoral student to academic – was individuals who had recently gone from being full-time student to full-time academics. The participants sought for this study were lecturers/assistant professors who recently graduated from doctoral programs, who had moved from full-time doctoral studies to full-time continuing academic positions, and who were still in the probationary period of their appointment. Academics may be hired into full-time positions when they are nearing completion of their dissertations, after completing a postdoctoral position, or after periods of contract or part-time work. While academics may have held part-time academic positions before the completion of their doctoral studies, this research was interested in those who began their first full-time, continuing position. Those who held teaching-only or research–only academic positions (i.e., those for whom either research or teaching is not a part of their contracted work) were not included in the study, nor were part-time doctoral students or part-time faculty members, as the type of academic appointment has an impact on experience. In addition, only participants from the humanities and social sciences were included in the research. This research addressed early career academics only in these metadisciplines, as currently there is a lot of attention given to science, technology, engineering and medicine (STEM) disciplines. There are differences in opinion as to which disciplines are included in the metadisciplines of the natural sciences, the social sciences, and the humanities. Because there are differences in opinion, this research included faculty from disciplines *other* than STEM disciplines. Many of the disciplines in the natural sciences and health fields use different research models, such as the laboratory

model, which has the potential to increase the variation of experience of the participants to such an extent as to increase the difficulty in understanding the similarities in their experiences. Differences in types of positions and discipline are particularly related to issues of socialisation and enculturation, which can affect information behaviour.

The criteria was set to provide a purposive sample of best examples, however the criteria had to be somewhat flexible. It had been intended that participants would be in their first year of their new position, however, the literature and circumstances led to an inclusion of participants in their first and second year. The literature, rather than discussing early career academics as those in their first year, defines it variously but more broadly as a period of 3 (e.g., Murray, 2008) to 5 years (e.g., Hemmings, 2012; Hopwood & Sutherland, 2009; Laudel & Glaser, 2008), indicating that the period of transition takes place over a longer time period. Findings from the literature also indicated that taking a broader perspective and including the second year would be beneficial to better understanding experiences in early years, as the workloads of some academics in their second year increases (Mullen & Forbes, 2000). Several participants discussed the first two years as being the hardest, this statement typically resulting from what others had told them but also aligning with their own experience. As there had been cutbacks to higher education funding both in Alberta and New South Wales just before recruitment took place, fewer faculty members had been hired, meaning the pool of potential participants was smaller. The inclusion criteria were modified from first year to first two years. In addition, and unbeknownst to me during recruitment, two participants were beginning their second position. Several participants had worked as casual/contract/sessional lecturers, however one participant had held a tenure-track position and another had held a long-term contract position. Both held the positions for one year before giving them up to take a different position. While it was expected that some participants might not be finished their dissertation, this was the case only with one participant who submitted during her time in the study.

Recruitment

Participants were recruited at different points during the academic year, providing for a mix of participant experiences. Most participants were recruited directly through email found on the academic's university web page. (See Appendix G for the Recruitment Email.) University websites were scoured and potential participants were identified and contacted. In some cases where websites didn't provide enough information to identify potential participants, emails were sent to department chairs, faculty development offices, the coordinator of a teaching program for new academics, or departmental/institutional research officers with the request to distribute emails to faculty members who met the criteria. All participants were recruited through email contact.

Participants were recruited in two phases. With one exception, Canadian participants were recruited first as I flew to Canada to do the data collection. I had hoped for participants in the early phase of their transition, having just started their positions. It appeared that I had four Canadian participants in their first year, however, two of the participants were in their second position (as previously mentioned). There appeared to be a somewhat different quality to the stress of these two participants, which deserved further exploration. Using theoretical sampling, special effort was made with the Australian recruitment to find participants in their first year. Theoretical sampling is another type of purposive sampling that looks for particular participants who are undergoing a particular aspect of the phenomenon and who can provide specific data (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). Used at later stages of the research, theoretical sampling aids in the development of theory through comparing data (van den Hoonaard, 2008).

In Alberta, it was simpler to determine participants who met the requirements. The information letter stated that I was looking for tenure-track academics with the title of assistant professor (See Appendix H for the Information Letter and Appendix I for the Consent Form). Even so, one participant was on a long-term contract, with the assistant professor title. In

New South Wales, it was more difficult to determine whether or not participants met the requirements. Tenure-track is not a common way to describe the type of position and most academics enter with the title of lecturer, whether they are on long-term, continuing contracts or on short-term contracts. As a result, several participants were on two- or three-year contracts. One participant was on a term-to-term contract, though at the time we spoke he was hired on for a yearlong contract.

Demographics

In total, 20 participants were recruited, 10 from New South Wales, Australia and 10 from Alberta, Canada. Twelve participants were male (six from Australia, six from Canada), and eight were female (four from Australia, four from Canada). Participants ranged in age from 29 to early fifties. English was not the first language for seven participants; however, all participants worked at universities where the language of instruction is English. Eight of the participants were in their first year of their current position (six from Australia, two from Canada), two were in their first year of their second position (two from Canada), and 10 were in their second year of their first position (four from Australia, six from Canada). Participants had positions in a range of disciplines including: business (six participants), humanities (three participants), education (three participants), philosophy (two participants), social sciences (two participants), political science (one participant), law (one participant), psychology (one participant), and sociology (one participant). Three participants trained in one field took a position in another field, moving from psychology to education, communication to education, and information science to business. Some participants will not be linked to their specific discipline, as some disciplines are small and between state/province and discipline, there is the potential that people with particular knowledge of academic universities in these regions could identify participants. Participants came from a variety of institutions, including urban and rural, small, mid-sized, and large. In all 10 different universities were represented, five in New South Wales and five in

Alberta. Only one institution was private (a private, religious university), while the other nine were public. (Please see Table 3.1 for a summary of the data collected. Please see Appendix J for biographical information on each participant.)

Table 3.1

Summary of Data Collected From Participants

Participant	**Discipline**[4]	**Country**	**Interviews** in Minutes	**Check-In Method** (# completed)	**Check-Ins** in Minutes or Words
Adam	Philosophy	Australia	125 min.	Blog (3)	829 words
Ben	Faculty of Education	Canada	128 min.	Skype (3)	45.25 min.
Casey	Business	Australia	113.5 min.	Blog (1)	531 words
Claire	Business	Australia	132.25 min.	Email (3)	1684 words
David	Social Sciences	Canada	198.5 min.	Blog (3)	2774 words
Evelyn	Education	Canada	120.5 min.	Skype (3)	72.5 min.
Fredric	Business	Canada	137 min.	Skype (3)	66.75 min.
Jason	Sociology	Australia	119.75 min.	Skype (3)	81.75 min.
Jesse	Psychology	Canada	126.5 min.	Skype (3)	42.5 min.
Laura	Law	Australia	85.25 min.	Blog (1) Telephone (1)	357 words 24 min.
Leanne	Business	Canada	135.5 min.	Email (3)	1869 words
Madeline	Political science	Canada	165 min.	Skype (3)	124.5 min.
Marie	Social sciences	Australia	111.25 min.	Telephone	74.5 min.
Mark	Business	Canada	114 min.	Blog (1)	571 words
Nathaniel	Business	Canada	97.5 min.	Skype (3)	85.5 min.
Nicole	Humanities	Canada	140.25 min.	Skype (2)	51.75 min.
Niels	Philosophy	Australia	116 min.	Email (3)	965 words
Seth	Education	Australia	106 min.	Skype (2)	32.5 min.
Tim	Humanities	Australia	117 min.	Blog (3)	1682 words
Tom	Humanities	Canada	166.25 min.	Blog (1)	1684 words

[4] Metadisciplines, rather than disciplines, are used for some participants as the small size of the discipline could interfere with the anonymity of the participants.

Data analysis

Data analysis occurred throughout the data collection process and beyond. Two methods of data analysis were employed, grounded theory analysis and discourse analysis.

Constructivist grounded theory

The interviews and blogs were analysed using grounded theory approaches. Charmaz (2003) describes the process of grounded theory as,

> (a) simultaneous collection and analysis of data, (b) a two-step data coding process, (c) comparative methods, (d) memo writing aimed at the construction of conceptual analyses, (e) sampling to refine the researcher's emerging theoretical ideas, and (f) integration of the theoretical framework. (p. 251)

Of course, processes never work out neatly in practice. However, this process was generally followed.

Data were collected over a period of a year, October 2013 to September 2014. Canadian participants were interviewed first, followed by Australian participants. As data were collected, transcription began to take place. As the volume of data was overwhelming at times, collection and analysis did not take place entirely simultaneously. Transcription and analysis continued after data collection. However, with all interviews a form of analysis took place in the form of writing about the interviews in the research journal and writing memos during the transcription and analysis processes. In initial stages of analysing the interviews from the Canadian participants it was determined that there was a difference between participants in their first and second year of their positions. Participants in their first year seemed substantially more stressed and overwhelmed, concentrating more on surviving day to day. These noted differences became sub-themes of the major theme that focused on affect. However, the majority of Canadian participants were in their second year. Because of this, during the recruiting for Australian academics, an effort was made to recruit participants in their first year. The majority of Australian

participants were in their first year. In this way, theoretical sampling was employed; new data were gathered to develop the subtheme by filling out the properties of a category (Charmaz, 2008b). Nearing the end of the check-ins it was determined that participants were beginning to be fatigued and that no new salient information was being collected. As a result, the number of check-ins was cut from four to three. During final interviews it was clear that there were well-defined patterns emerging in the data, in addition to many shared experienced between participants. At that point, it was decided that data collection saturation had been met. While this was not the theoretical saturation point described by Bryant and Charmaz (2007) in which finding similar characteristics in occurrences that contribute to a theoretical category determines saturation, it was a logical point at which to stop data collection.

Once the initial interviews were transcribed, initial coding – coding that focuses on small amounts of data and uses gerunds to describe what is happening (Charmaz, 2008b) – took place. This coding was done in print in the form of line-by-line coding. In using gerunds the data were coded for action, focusing more on explication rather than simple description. In conjunction with this coding, memos were written and theoretical codes began to be developed. An important way that these theoretical codes were developed was by identifying possible codes during memoing and keeping an ongoing list of these codes. The list was reviewed again and again, iteratively comparing and contrasting the codes for their ability to explain the data and their uniqueness. This constant comparison led to the emergence of major themes, though in nascent forms. In reviewing the themes beginning to take place, they were compared to the data and to determine whether they could begin to explain the data and to determine if important aspects were missing.

Next, focused coding – coding that tries to use codes to explain large amount of data (Charmaz, 2008b) – was undertaken. These codes were developed from the data analysis, ensuring that the codes fit the data and the codes must be able to explain the data (Charmaz, 2003). This coding was undertaken using NVivo 10. More concrete themes and sub-themes began to emerge. These themes were constantly compared to one another, again, to determine their explanatory power and their uniqueness. The codes were tested

against the data to determine fit (Charmaz, 2008b), ensuring that the codes were grounded in the data. This reliance on fitness of data and explanatory power of categories means that disciplinary theories cannot simply be used to explain the data (Charmaz, 2003). Major themes were revised again and again in order to better fit the data; this was done as a way to guard against trying to force the data into pre-existing categories (Charmaz, 2001). As the focused coding progressed, memo writing effectively stopped and writing about the major themes began.

However, analysis and (when necessary) focused coding continued during writing. Coding, analysis, and writing were often done iteratively and in quick succession. This helped to integrate the major themes into a more coherent theoretical framework and the overarching theme emerged. It was only at this point that the theoretical framework, neoliberalism, was determined, which fit with the overarching theme.

Transcription

Another issue concerned with interviews is the transcription itself and the creation of the interview transcripts. Transcription is the process of turning the recordings of rich conversational experiences into textual materials to be used for later analysis. As such, even accurate transcripts cannot capture the entirety of the interview conversation as elements such as interactions, nonverbal communication, and context are lost in the creation of a text (Poland, 2008). The act of transcribing then becomes an act of interpretation that cannot fully represent the experience. In reviewing the transcription literature, Davidson (2009) posits that there are shared views that transcription is “a process that is theoretical, selective, interpretive, and representational” (p. 37); however, because transcription has become ubiquitous in the research process, it is often ignored as also being a part of the interpretive process (Poland, 2008). Decisions must be made about how to carry out transcription, particularly around how transcripts are conceptualised and how closely they represent feature of speech. Davidson (2009) discusses several researchers’ work on

continua of transcribing practices from great detail and trying to closely represent speech to recording of words and more closely representing the written word. The interview is a co-creation of knowledge between the interviewer and the interviewee; the transcription is an interpretation of that experience made by the researcher. As such, the transcript should be viewed reflexively as a document that is both created and interpreted by the researcher. The idea that transcripts are co-created informed the use of transcripts in this study.

All first interviews were transcribed in full. Verbal check-ins, over Skype of telephone, were selectively transcribed. Selective transcription was chosen for the purposes of time, as well as because check-ins were often quite conversational and topics not pertaining to the research were discussed. These interviews and check-ins were the main sources of data. Follow-up interviews, especially for those in their second year of a position, tended not to be as informative. Therefore, only follow-up interviews for participants in their first year were transcribed in full. While an argument has been made to preserve oral language features (e.g., "ums" and "ahs") in research using grounded theory and discourse analysis (reported in Davidson, 2009), this research did not look at linguistic interactions at that fine grain a level. In this case transcribing "in full" refers to transcribing all words uttered. As I examined linguistic interaction at a content level I indicated long pauses and laughing, however I did not include pauses, repetitions of words, intonation or other features of oral language within the interview. For the purposes of clarity, I removed pauses, laughs, and filler words such as "like" and "you know" from the quotations used in this document.

Critical discourse analysis

The original intent was to examine the discourses in university documents used by early career researchers, using the discourse analysis developed by Potter and Wetherell, psycho-social discourse analysis. However, while used periodically, documents were used much less frequently than

anticipated, with many participants not being able to list any documents they used in their work. Because of this, and in line with the principles of emergent design, a shift from discourse analysis to critical discourse analysis was made in order to examine the emerging issues of power and ideology. Critical discourse analysis provides a means for exploring the disconnect between the textual documents universities intended newly hired academics to receive and use, and the information that early career academics wanted. The documents gathered for this critical discourse analysis were the online documents created and publicly distributed by participants' universities, pertaining to newly hired academics.

As constructivist grounded theory was the main methodological approach to the research, the discourse analysis was intended to offer another form of data to better understand participants' context. The discourse analysis took place during the analysis and writing of the major theme entitled, *University as monolith: Dictating what academics should do and how*, which looked at the university context. The purpose was to examine the discourses presented to newly hired academics in documents created by universities. During the analysis and writing of this theme, the theoretical framework of neoliberalism began to emerge.

In Fairclough's (2001) framework for critical discourse analysis, analysis begins by identifying a social problem and then using it as the focus of the analysis. The social problem addressed in this research is the corporatisation of higher education, as a consequence of increasing neoliberalism, and the resulting changes to the way universities operate, their core values, and their role in society, which has an impact on many groups in society, including academics. In particular, the focus is on how this neoliberal context has an impact on the information behaviour of early career academics. The semiotic aspect of that social problem, the problem as it relates to discourse, is one of representation, the representation of academic work. How is the corporatisation of higher education, along with the shift to managerialism and an audit culture, expressed in the representation of academics' work in university documents for new hires? What do these texts say about the work of academics and their role in the university? What do these texts say about what information is important

and how information should be sought? This representation may be at odds with the work that is rewarded within universities' structures, the work that is valued by research academics, and the information practices of academics.

Once the problem was identified the documents that were gathered were analysed, using print copies of the online documents. The analysis began with a linguistic analysis of the texts, which consisted of a whole-language analysis looking at the narrative or argument structured in the texts, as well as an examination of words, the choice of vocabulary and the semantic relations between the words (Fairclough, 2001). Once the linguistic analysis was completed, how the text was textured was evaluated. This included looking at aspects of valuing (what is deemed important), representing (how ideas are characterised), relating (social and knowledge relations), and identifying (how actors construct themselves and others). After looking at the texturing of the text, the paradigms represented in the documents, the genres and discourses within the texts were identified. The genres of documents for information for new academic hires tended to be lists, checklists, handbooks, promotional materials, and landing pages (web pages consisting of lists of links to other pages). The main discourses identified, which are discussed more in Chapter 4, included self-help, accountability, and compliance. As discussed in the overarching theme entitled, *Systemic Managerial Constraints*, the question of who benefits from this social order, the problem of corporatisation of the university and the resulting change to the representation of academics' work, was considered. Chapter 5 discusses possible ways past this problem.

The study is conceived of as a grounded theory study. The analysis from both grounded theory and discourse analysis using the three data sources work together to inform one another in the grounded theory framework. The critical discourse analysis of the documents provided information about some of the dominant discourses that exist within participants' environments. The grounded theory analysis of the interviews and check-ins provided information about emerging topics of importance in the participants' experience. The resulting themes from the critical discourse analysis were used along with the resulting themes from the grounded theory analysis to compare to the other data sources, as well as in the creation of the major themes. These different analyses

informed one another and aided in the creation of a grounded theory of the transition of new faculty members.

Data quality and rigour

Data quality is important in grounded theory research as the data are tied to the theories generated, providing a foundation for theoretical activity (Charmaz, 2001). In order for the findings of a study to be trustworthy, the research process must be rigorous, meaning there must be transparency, credibility, dependability, comparability and reflexivity in the research process (Saumure & Given, 2008a).

Transparency refers to the clarity with which the researcher describes how the research was conducted, allowing for replication and providing data on which others can judge the appropriateness of the research procedures (Saumure & Given, 2008a). The research process was documented throughout the research, including the use of a research journal, participant tracking sheets, memos, codes, and multiple drafts. While the journal and tracking sheets are not a part of the data set, they helped to record and keep track of the progression of the research process. The memos, codes, and drafts show a progression of work and the development of the thinking that took place.

Credibility refers to "the methodological procedures and sources used to establish a high level of harmony between the participants' expressions and the researcher's interpretations of them" (Jensen, 2008a, p. 139). Part of credibility is presenting the theoretical and methodological positions of the research, including why those positions were chosen and how the methods used are in line with those perspectives. Earlier in this chapter I documented my theoretical and methodological positions in the research and how these positions were enacted through the methods used. Another part of credibility is presenting the data in a fair and accurate way, including citing negative cases and member checks (Saumure & Given, 2008a). In the next chapter I present the data. I made the decision to include more substantial quotes with contextual information in an attempt to best present the voices, viewpoints, and

experiences of the participants. Part of this was including negative cases where possible. While member checks were not a part of the study, participants were contacted at multiple points. The check-ins and follow-up interviews included further exploration and probing of previous conversations and the follow-up interviews included me providing a summary of my thoughts on the first interview and asking for more detail, clarification, and new experiences to add. This practice increased the descriptive and interpretive validity. Added to these is triangulation. The methods used include interviews and check-ins. The use of data gathered using different methods, as well as gathered at multiple points over time, provides triangulation, allowing data to be checked against other data from the same participant.

Dependability refers to whether similar results could be obtained by other researchers, either by asking similar questions with similar participants or with coming to similar conclusions with the data collected (Saumure & Given, 2008a). Recognising that the research context is ever evolving and cannot be fully understood before the research has taken place (if at all), research methodologies help to increase the dependability of research findings (Jensen, 2008b). While a social constructionist viewpoint sees data as a co-creation between participants and the researcher and the researcher as an integral part of the research process, that others could come to similar conclusions is important to account for the theoretical conclusions. The dependability of the study was increased through discussion of the data with supervisors and peers, as well as through reading of research literature to better understand the type of evidence necessary to support conclusions, as well as to understand how to draw theoretical conclusions.

Comparability refers to the comparison of different pieces within the data set to one another in order to build theory that is inclusive of different voices represented in the research (Saumure & Given, 2008a). Part of grounded theory involves the constant comparison of data, codes, and categories, which I have termed themes. Through the coding process and in the development of the major themes, data were continuously compared to determine codes, codes were compared to other codes to determine their composition and their uniqueness, and codes were compared to themes to generate theory. The memo

writing, in addition to the writing of themes, used comparison to sort the data into themes and subthemes. Through the process the overarching theme emerged as a theoretical category with some of the other themes becoming its properties (Stern, 2008). Another aspect of comparison is between the emerging theory and existing literature (Stern, 2008). Throughout the analysis and writing processes, research literature was explored and read to better understand how the data and emerging theory fit with existing theoretical frameworks and empirical research.

Reflexivity refers to the researcher reflecting on their role within the research process and being able to account for how their presence impacted the research (Saumure & Given, 2008a). Using a social constructionist viewpoint, researchers are seen as an integral part of the research, as they are the instruments through which the research takes places. The research journal, memos, and discussions with peers and supervisors provided outlets for reflexivity. The next section discusses the ethical considerations for the project.

Research ethics

For this research, ethics approval was obtained from the research ethics committee in the School of Information Studies at Charles Sturt University. This research falls into the category of minimal risk as it involved asking new academics about their information needs, seeking, and use as they transition into their professional roles. However, as participants were undergoing a transition, it was important to remember that some of them might have feelings of vulnerability or stress (Chick & Meleis, 1986), and that in talking and writing about their information behaviour, their new roles, or changing professional identity, they may have feelings of anxiety. New faculty members are also in more tenuous positions within their institutions, as they are still on probation and have not yet achieved continuing status.

For these reasons and because the use of probing questions has the potential to bring out participants' vulnerabilities or fears, sensitivity was practised in the interviews. Participants' comfort was set as a priority over gathering data (Charmaz, 2001). As the interviewer has more control over the

direction of the interview conversation than the participant (Johnson, 2001), there was the potential for issues of power in which the participant felt less in control of the situation.

Ensuring confidentiality of the data was important, along with anonymising participants' identities. Some of the fields within which the participants work are so small that identifying the state or province of their institution and the specific discipline in which they worked meant they could be identified. In addition, faculty members discussed some sensitive issues around topics such as complications in the workplace, politics within the faculty or institution, and personal difficulties.

Some of the check-ins were in the interview style, whether they were through Skype or over the telephone, and required the same ethical considerations as the interviews. Written check-ins, whether blogs or emails, also had some of the same potential as interviews to bring up sensitive issues, however, they were more under the control of participants. Even when prompts were included in the blog or emails, the writing was self-generated and participants chose the aspects on which to focus. With the blogs and emails, participants might have had more concerns about issues such as access, privacy, and confidentiality. Participants who used the blogs asked questions about access and privacy, but no direct concerns were expressed. Participants were informed that the blogs were password protected and only they and the researcher have access to the blog content.

Participants were informed about how their interview and check-in data would be used. They were informed that non-identifiable quotes from interviews and check-ins would be used in dissertation writing, publications, and presentations. Participants were also informed, through the information letter, that they were able to have their data, either all or in part, removed from the research up to two weeks after the final interview. Many of the participants were very well versed in their understanding of their rights, being active researchers and members of the academy. Some asked very specific questions about how I was going to use the data, which often were methodological questions. I attempted to answer all participant questions so they were

comfortable with the process. Participants were not offered incentives to take part in the research.

It was important to reflect on the ethical implications of this research and to take these considerations into account before conducting the research. The sense of intimacy and friendship created by in-depth interviewing , which leads to an increase in mutual self-disclosure (Johnson, 2001), meant that I had to remember my role in the interview and the responsibility I had for ensuring the protection of the participant. At times, these disclosures brought up emotions of stress or frustrations. Because of this, I attempted to end each conversation with the participant on a positive note, leaving participants feeling more positive, despite having potentially discussed some unpleasant topics. Additionally, some of the disclosures made were private in nature. Some participants got up to shut the door as we were having conversations or, in one case, a participant used the SMS feature in Skype to discuss an issue she was having with some colleagues, as she was concerned that some of them might be in the hallways outside her office and could overhear our conversation. These possibilities were taken into consideration and I was sensitive to potentially delicate discussions and assured participants of their confidentiality. While, at times, participants may have felt vulnerable or stressed, there was little more risk involved in taking part in the interviews and check-ins than could be expected in regular conversation. In addition, as the interviews were recorded, I assured participants about confidentiality and the security of their data.

Limitations

As with any approach to research, this research has limitations. The sample also had limitations. Participants were those who chose to pursue careers in academia. Therefore, this research has limited transferability to doctoral students who pursue careers outside academe. Additionally, participants were in disciplines in the humanities and social sciences. Again, this limits the transferability of the research to disciplines in STEM or clinical

health fields. While this research followed participants over a period of between five and seven months, this research does not capture the full transitional period experienced by participants. Transitional periods have boundaries but they are not pre-determined and depend on the participant. For many early career academics, the transitional period begins in the final stages of the dissertation, when the job search starts and lasts for the first few years. Therefore, this research did not examine the entire transitional period experienced by participants, meaning aspects of the transition that occur before the event of starting their academic job can only discussed in retrospect and aspects occurring after the research ended cannot be included.

The contexts in which participants exist, both professionally and personally, can have great impact on participants' experiences of transition. While this research gathered participants' perspectives of their context and documents that exist as part of their contextual discourse, this research did not focus on collecting contextual data. This research also focused on the professional context (as the in-person interviews, for the most part, took place at their place of work), though it is not limited to only one context. Because it was not logistically possible to gather extensive contextual data, there are influences and discourses that could have an impact on participants' transition experience but were not addressed by the data collected.

Each of the methods used have their limitations. Interviews deal with data that occur after the fact. While participants were undergoing the process of transition, the details they related were of events in the past, which can be forgotten or change over time. Interview data rely almost entirely on the questions the researcher asks. Questions must balance listening to the participants' experience and probing for further information (Charmaz, 2001). This balance was challenging during lengthy interviews. However, speaking to participants multiple times gave opportunities for both listening and further probing. While social constructivism acknowledges the place of the researcher within the research, in interviewing the researcher must be careful not to force responses (Charmaz, 2001). Asking questions about information and documents was, at times, challenging as it is something that the majority of participants didn't think about in their day-to-day lives. The question about which

documents they used during their transition was one that many participants found confusing. This meant having to ask the question in more than one way and asking during the follow-up interviews as well. As the data are co-creations between researcher and participant, participants must also be comfortable in the interview. While generally good rapport was developed with participants, there may have been some participants who were not comfortable discussing certain aspects of their jobs or lives for various reasons. One participant, while she shared a great deal, was concerned during our follow-up interview over Skype that colleagues in the hall could hear our discussion and so she chose to use the SMS feature within Skype for a small portion of the interview.

The discourse analysis relied on publicly available documents. At several universities documents intended for newly hired academics were password protected. Documents that were not online could not be included. It is impossible to know the range of documents that are given to newly hired academics. Additionally, all data – interviews, check-ins, and document analysis – depend on the researcher's interpretation. Johnson (2001) discusses cases of researchers misinterpreting, misrepresenting or disagreeing with other researchers' interpretations of interview data. Interviewers also need to be aware of their own biases and assumptions that they bring to the interviews (Charmaz, 2001). That being said, using a social constructionist point of view, the researcher and participants together negotiated and created meaning during interviews and check-ins. Talking to participants multiple times, as well as using the first interview as a starting point for the second interview, helped to ensure that participants' voices were represented in this negotiation and meaning-making process.

Conclusion

This research uses a social constructionist framework and the methodologies of grounded theory and discourse analysis. These methodologies allowed the co-creation of meaning between participants and the researcher. The methods used to gather data included interviews, check-ins, and documents. The multiple data collection methods provided triangulation to give insight to

participants' understanding and experience of transitioning from doctoral students to faculty members.

Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion

This chapter explores how interview participants described their experiences of transition, particularly the informational aspects of learning about and figuring out new roles and new jobs, within a new environment. The experiences of early career academics, with their complex and interesting lives, are diverse. In analysing their descriptions of these experiences, four main themes emerged. These themes relate to: contextual structures dictating academics' work; mediating between what academics' know and do not know in their new environments; the role colleagues play in workplace transition; and, affective experiences of transition. In addition to these four major themes, a unifying theme emerged from the data, entitled *Systemic Managerial Constraints* (SMC): the view that the managerialism resulting from neoliberalism within universities is pervasive and constrains both what work early career academics do and how they do it. SMC underpins the university's structures, systems, processes, and procedures, resulting in a level of control of academics' work, whether by design or as a consequence. These themes are explored in detail in the sections that follow. The first theme, *Monolithic institutions: Dictating what academics should do and how*, focuses on the informational contexts into which early career academics transition, how academics make sense of these contexts, as well as how the informational context influences their work.

University as monolith: Dictating what academics should do and how

Context played a large role in the early career academics' experience of their transition to their job, including the departmental or school environment, the university's institutional environment, and the governmental context. Not

all participants attended to the policy and budget decisions being made at broader contextual levels. This is an example of Savolainen's (2008) "life world" in which "transindividual (social, sociocultural and economic) factors" influence the context in which individuals act (p. 65). The departmental or school context – early career academics' immediate context – featured frequently in participants' discussions, as this was the location in which they accomplished the majority of their work, interacted with others at the university, and where university and governmental decisions were enacted in practice. However, whether or not the decisions made at higher levels were recognised, their impact tended to be experienced at the local level. It can be, therefore, difficult to differentiate between the broader university and the local academic unit. This research uses the term 'university' to discuss early career academics' context, using it is as an all-encompassing term that can include aspects of both the broader university as well as the more specific academic unit. Participants described aspects of their work on which the government and institution had an impact, including research practices, teaching, service work, informational activities, day-to-day working practices, as well as career trajectories. Several of these discussions centred on the administrative procedures and policy decisions of universities. The view that emerged was of the broader university as monolith, "a large and impersonal political, corporate, or social structure regarded as intractably indivisible and uniform" (Dictionary, 2015). Universities were often viewed as institutions imposing decisions on academics from on high, being large and complex systems beyond their control. The research questions that this theme addresses are: 2b) What environmental factors (physical environment, political environment and social environment) enable or constrain academics' information behaviours? and 2c) And What impact, if any, do academics perceive university and departmental policies and procedures have on their information activities?

In the following sections, I will discuss early career academics' experiences with university policies, university bureaucracy in the form of an "administrative layer," and university communication. Along with academics' experiences explored using constructivist grounded theory, codified information that universities provide to early career academics in the form of

university induction (as it is called in Australia) or orientation (as it is called in Canada) and documents intended for (or aimed at) early career academics were examined through a critical discourse analytic lens. The discourse analysis was used to better understand the types of information universities provide to new academics, including the type of information they deem valuable to codify in documents and how those documents represent academics' work. University policies will be examined first.

University policies: Defining how to be an academic

The impact of university policies about promotion and job continuation were evident in early career academics' approaches to their work. These policies demonstrate how universities conceive of academics' work and determine what counts, what is important and what deserves attention and effort. Being specifically directed at early career academics, these policies influence how early career academics think about and carry out their work. When examining the impact of policies in more than one country, it becomes complicated, as public universities are regulated in different ways, and universities have different policies and systems for how they manage academics work, including policies about jobs permanency (confirmation in Australia and tenure in Canada) and judging research output. Because of the differences in the systems, Australia and Canada will be discussed separately.

In Australia, the government's system of evaluating the research output of academic units, is Excellence for Research in Australia (ERA). ERA evaluates and ranks academic fields within universities, examining research outputs such as publications and grant income. In previous ERA iterations, publication venues for fields were ranked. While this is no longer the case for ERA, some Australian universities and academic units continue to use journal rankings to determine whether academics are meeting their research requirements for confirmation (and, later, for promotion). Journals are ranked and academics are expected to publish in high-ranking journals. This was the

case for Fredric, a 36 year-old academic in an Australian business faculty[5], whose school uses the Australian Business Deans Council journal-ranking list (for details, see http://www.abdc.edu.au/pages/abdc-journal-quality-list-2013.html). He notes:

> What I did is, we have business school journal lists and we have level A, level B, level C, and level D journals and … I went through that list to identify potential journal that we want to aim for our publication. … So in this sense, I'm thinking strategically, rather than what will be the next best journal, … where are these journals in this list? What therefore would make a good journal for us to try to publish in? So that it will be well recognised within the business school where I'm working.

While the activity of publishing research is not changed, the way in which that activity is performed is changed in identifying and weighing journals against the faculty requirements. These faculty requirements are built on the framework from the disciplinary body, another layer of superstructure, which the faculties and schools enact. The counting and ranking of research output has an impact on where Fredric plans to disseminate, as he seeks to work within the multiple disciplinary, university, and faculty policy frameworks and get institutional recognition for his work. Fredric's experience is an example of a process that Kimber and Ehrich (2015) identify as contributing to a democratic deficit of Australian universities, the "[i]ncreasing control through 'accountability' devices such as quality audits that contribute to an audit culture" (p. 85). Rather than accountability demonstrating responsibility, it demonstrates responsiveness to markets. Kimber and Ehrich identify quality audits as "market-based control mechanisms" (p. 84). The result, an example of Systemic Managerial Control, is a restriction of academic work and an increase in required activities to demonstrate that the research produced at public universities is of a high quality. These accountability measures (e.g., publications in top-rated journals) are proxies for quality, but they are easy to quantify and highly visible (i.e., counts of publications in top-ranked journals can be listed on university websites). So early career academics are aware that university and external policies can have an impact on their work; however they

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[5] For more biographical details, please see Appendix J.

seek to limit that impact to what lines up with their own workplace requirements, their research, and their information practices.

In some Canadian universities, there is also a merit review process, in addition to the tenure process, that examines research output and, if deemed sufficient, provides an increase in pay (a merit increment). Madeline talked about her upcoming merit review, which takes place every 2 years. For Madeline, a 32 year-old Canadian academic in political science, the tenure and merit systems dictated publishing timelines:

> Now, I've had 2 years, and it's not like I've not been doing stuff, but… like actually nothing that actually counts as meritable at the merit evaluation that's closest to my tenure decision. And so I'm sitting there just like, "Fuck." Pardon my language, but like that. So more senior people, friends of mine have been like, "It's totally possible to do a bunch of stuff to be very active and productive for 2 years and have nothing to show for it in terms of articles in hand."

So while Madeline has done a lot of work and is in the process of publishing research in venues that will count towards her tenure, because her publications will not be published at the right time, she may not get her merit increase. Aspects of publishing are outside academics' control, including journals taking significant periods of time to publish work, which can average between nine and 18 months from submission to publication depending on the discipline (Björk & Solomon, 2013).

Throughout the tenure process, the university articulates what counts towards tenure, or what is valued. This can be a source of contention. Evelyn discussed her frustration with the university's priorities, which she encountered during the annual performance review system. These priorities were expressed through the tenure requirements and focused on outcome of research activities, which is at odds with her own academic priorities. Evelyn, a indigenous Canadian academic in her early 50s working in an education faculty, was very conscious of her position as an Indigenous scholar and her priority of making a contribution to her community. She described her experience of having different priorities than her annual performance review in this way:

> [T]hey held a meeting on annual performance review, and they outlined all the bureaucracy that surrounds what is recognised, what isn't recognised, placement in this category, that category. And so I guess for

> myself because I'm so deeply connected to community work … but then I'm thinking in the back of my head does this qualify, under what category? You know, just trying to sort of fit myself into their structure, … And just thinking to myself, "I know how important it is within our community. What box do I check off or how do I have to [word] this so it carries the import that it should, right?"

While Evelyn has not changed her priorities and discusses the work she does with her community, the university system in which she is working has influenced how she thinks about her work in relation to her job. She has taken the information from the system and internalised it, wrestling with how to satisfy two sets of priorities, her own professional values and the values of university system. However, the idea of what "counts," or what is valued, drives the tension between the priorities. She is learning to position her work within the university tenure system and carefully using language to convey why her community work is important within the system the university has created. In thinking about how to position her work and judiciously choosing the language to describe what she does, she is trying to work within the system, but operate in such a way as not to compromise her own work. This is an example of how SMC shapes how academics think about their work in relation to the systems the university creates. Within the literature, other researchers have found academics dealing with similar constraints. Archer (2008) terms this "safety/protection through 'playing the game'" (p. 276). Teelken (2012) terms this symbolic compliance, or the "pretension of enthusiasm, while remaining vague creates scope for autonomy or performing in your own way" (p. 278). Evelyn is working within the system of what "counts" to ensure she is fulfilling the required duties, while at the same time doing the work she deems important as a scholar.

While universities govern confirmation and tenure policies and systems, they are a part of the larger higher education sector, which is affected by government budgetary and regulatory policies. That being said, universities often have some say over how policies are enacted within the institution. This is evident in budgetary policies and decisions made by governments, which were frequently mentioned by participants as having an impact on their work. Following neoliberal values, one of the guiding principles of budgetary policies

is austerity (Giroux, 2014). Following and drawing on neoliberal discourses, governments regularly state there is not enough money for higher education and are continually cutting funding, while calling for universities to generate their own revenue. The federal government of Australia (where higher education is a federal matter) and the provincial government of Alberta, Canada (where higher education is a provincial matter) both made cuts to higher education around the time of data collection, starting before data collection in 2012 and continuing through 2014. While universities in both countries experienced cutbacks to government funding, the individual institutions made decisions about what kinds of cutbacks would take place. Rather than feeling a direct effect of government cutbacks, academics felt the effects of how universities determined those cutbacks would be implemented.

Due to governmental budget cuts, participants mentioned budgets with relative frequency. The policies and decisions universities and academic units made in relation to budgets had real impacts on early career academics' work, including the resources and support they have to do their work and how they carry out their work (i.e., their research, teaching and service practices). Nicole, a Canadian academic in her late 30s to early 40s in the humanities who arrived after cuts were made, felt the impact of decreased administrative support:

> And I also was told that there'd just been budget cuts and half the admin staff had been cut across the university. So everybody was in new jobs. I didn't know how to get anything. Nobody told me how to get anything. I didn't know that I had to pay for all my own office supplies. … I didn't know where to photocopy something. … [T]hough in my PhD experience we were left on our own in a lot of ways, organisationally, administratively we were totally taken care of. We never had to worry about that. And so here, I was very lost at first.

The lack of institutional support, resulting from cutbacks to professional staff positions, made Nicole's transition more difficult in having to figure out day-to-day workings of her job on her own. She compares her experience as a doctoral student in which her academic work included less administrative work. The way in which her current institution chose to enact budgetary cuts demonstrates that the university sees administrative work as part of academics' workload, in addition to the buying of office supplies.

For Nathaniel, a 29 year-old academic in a Canadian business faculty, the decision of the university to enact its cutbacks through changes to how it runs its facilities had an outcome of changing his work practices. He described the impact of cutbacks:

> The biggest way that I was affected by the budget cut was in the summer, in August, til the students came, I could not work here in the evening, because I work in the evening, my research gets done in the evening, I write in the evening, the ventilation system was turned off. I cannot be in my office. So it's just like, okay, can't work from home, I'm so used to my office, everything is here and so on. So my productivity is down, so stuff like this is like wow.

While the university's decision seems only to impact facility upkeep, the implication for Nathaniel is a forced change in how he carries out his work, particularly his research. So what appears to be a minor change by the university is not minor to Nathaniel's research. It also demonstrates that the university has a lack of understanding about how academics work. Academics do not work nine to five in their offices; their work happens in the evenings and on weekends, cutting across the regular business hours of the university and extending beyond 35-hour workweeks. While workweeks vary between countries and between teaching and non-teaching semesters, one study found that on average, Canadian academics work 50 hours per week and their Australian counterparts work 48.5 (Bentley & Kyvik, 2012). This is significantly higher than a typical 35-hour workweek, meaning that work extends beyond typical office hours. Nathaniel's research, which he undertakes in the evenings, is disrupted when his workspace is not accessible. He has to shift his work practices because of the university's budgetary decisions, or risk a drop in his productivity levels.

University administrative layer: Prescribing how academics accomplish work

A "big, terrible, bureaucratic machine" was the way Leanne, a 41 year-old Canadian academic in business, described her university. With many

participants, there was a feeling that the university – its policies, procedures, and systems – was difficult to deal with on a day-to-day basis. On top of other roles, early career academics described an administrative layer of work that existed, across all areas of their jobs. At times participants framed this administrative layer as part of service work – particularly if the third category of work, besides research and teaching, was called governance or administration. However, this administrative layer differed significantly from the work typically classified as service work. Rather than a part of service work, this work was the addition of required administrative tasks to teaching, research, and/or service (e.g., filling out forms to request research grants, requesting classroom bookings); procedures for how to perform tasks (e.g., how to submit expressions of interest in preparation for submitting grant applications, how to submit grades in the learning management system); and the addition of new tasks that had to be accomplished (e.g., completing annual reviews, requesting reimbursement for moving costs). Rather than the higher-level administrative work that is often discussed in the literature, such as taking on an administrative role as a chair of a department, this work is more clerical in nature. In this way, early career academics have information needs at various levels, requiring information about research, teaching, and service roles, as well as the administrative tasks that accompany those roles. With the rise of the audit culture within universities (e.g., Kimber & Ehrich, 2015; Sidhu, 2008), clerical work gets overlaid onto many, if not all, aspects of academics' work. Leanne described the administration that went along with her teaching:

> But there is a fairly heavy administrative burden that comes with it because there are documents that you have to read. … We're going to have less support with teaching now. And I think that since I'm teaching more so that administrative part of teaching increases. And there is, you know, the posting and the posting of the grades and ordering books and posting course outlines. … You know, this whole, the expense reports and all of that stuff. I'm terrible at it.

Satisfying the requirements of the administrative layer takes a great deal of academics' time and energy. Madeline described an instance when she first arrived at her new institution with a computer that needed to be replaced. She states,

> I had $15,000 worth of research money that was contractually obligated and [the university] wouldn't release any of it until I had gone through an ethics procedure. They're like, "So what's the $15,000 for?" And I was like, "A computer." … So I had to fight to access, so what that meant was that the department manager, because she's such a sweetheart, let me order my computer and the hardware stuff that I needed like right now, she let me use that on department funds and then they got reimbursed as soon as they released all the money. But if it hadn't been for that, I would have been stalled.

In this case, the administrative layer put up a barrier to using research start-up funds to buy necessary equipment. Often, this administrative work falls outside of the research, teaching, and service aspects of academic jobs, but remains a part of both starting a new position as well as continuing in the job. While Madeline had help from a professional staff member to work around the administrative layer, many participants framed this additional work as a lack of support from professional staff. Leanne, who frequently mentioned relying on staff to help her with her administrative tasks, discussed difficulties with the task of electronically filing expense reports:

> I have typically struggled with it, especially with expense reports. … And I submit things and then I get an email, you know, "Can you submit a proof of payment?" "Well, I showed you the invoice." "Well, no. Can you give me credit card statement, you know, in case we get audited. And by the way, you know, can you send me a link to the … conference." And I said, "You have to be kidding me. I was asked to print out all the pages in two copies. And give it to two different people. And you're asking me again?"

In addition to the task itself, which Leanne has difficulty doing, she was asked for additional paperwork as a precaution, in the event of being audited. This case is an example of the type of work that is required to satisfy administrative processes and procedures, actually going beyond satisfying and safeguarding against a rare, worst-case scenario. This administrative task not only requires work of the early career academic, but the additional safeguarding also adds work for both the academic and professional staff. Filing expense reports is a task that in the past was typically handled by professional staff; however more of these administrative tasks are being done by academics. SMC within universities means that more administrative tasks become a regular part of academics' work. The additional work and the time that it takes are noticed by

academics. When asked how things were going, Madeline described her work this way: "I remember expressing frustration that I wasn't getting anything done, because January was the month [that] like piddly administrative crap sucked up all my time."

While many acknowledged that administration is a part of every job, early career academics often found little or no value in the administrative policies and procedures. Adam, a 33 year-old Australian academic in philosophy, discussed the online occupational health and wellness training required when he started his contract. He talked about the task as problematic in terms of time taken, content provided, and preventing other work from being accomplished:

> There was a central HR online program, which was a real drag. … [I]t was actually really annoying because it was time consuming and it was stuff that I knew. … And so in that respect, that probably contributed to the HR stuff feeling like a waste of time because I was already doing other things and getting stuck into it, and so it just felt like, "I've got limited time here. I've got things I want to do. Why do I have to do this?"

The information contained within the online program (e.g., how to set up your desk or lift boxes properly) was not of use to Adam in his job because it offered no new information. Online training of this variety provides basic, generic information and does not provide an opportunity to ask questions. Additionally, Adam is required to spend his time to satisfy the university's procedural requirements, leaving him less time for the work upon which his own performance is judged. Similar to Leanne's experience with expense reports, this administrative task is more about satisfying administrative procedures than ensuring that Adam is safe at work. While administrative tasks might be imposed upon them, both Leanne and Adam deal with these administrative tasks with what Teelken (2012) terms "professional pragmatism," in which managerial tasks are taken for granted, treated in a serious and critical manner (p. 278). They view themselves as professionals and while they may disagree with the managerial task, they complete it for practical reasons. That administrative tasks are of little use to academic work demonstrates the disparate aims of academic and managerial practices.

There was a disconnect between the documents universities prepared for newly hired academics and early career academics' use of university documents. Generally, documents were not viewed as a valuable information source, often not including required information. In order to examine this disconnect, university documents were analysed using a critical discourse lens. In particular, attention was paid to how academics' work is represented in university documents for newly hired academics and what these texts say about the work of academics and their role in the university.

The university documents that are aimed at newly hired academics and intended to inform academics taking up new positions about their roles, responsibilities, and how the university works, demonstrate this addition of an administrative layer. These documents represent academics' work as being accountability to and in compliance with the university. Academics are expected to demonstrate their accountability to the university and universities – being public institutions – are in turn expected to demonstrate their accountability to governments. How academics demonstrate their accountability is through compliance with university processes and procedures. Academics are required to regularly and continually account for the work they do and how they use the resources with which they are provided through complying with auditing processes and procedures imposed on them.

A common genre of document used with newly hired academics, which is demonstrative of this drive for accountability and compliance, is the checklist. Checklists tend to be in linear form with short, simple sentences, as well as being directive in that each item on the list must be completed. Often a box is included so that a physical indicator of completion (i.e., a checkmark) can be included and indicate proper process and procedure has been followed. University documents aimed at newly hired academics represent academic work as requiring managerial processes to accomplish. The University of New England's (2014) "New Staff Member Checklist" (reproduced in Table 4.1 below, without pictures or details of meetings), is part of a larger "Staff Induction Kit" and demonstrates the prominence of accountability and compliance discourses in university documents. In this case, the checklist consists of the names of in-person sessions and online modules that must be

completed as part of induction. The sessions relate to a variety of topics including performance management, workplace health and safety, setting up information systems accounts, and institutional codes of conduct and policies. In this case, the university represents itself as an organisation with a responsibility to uphold, a responsibility that requires compliance with its policies and codes of conduct. That documents such as University of New England's induction kit have specific checklists for in-person sessions and online modules demonstrates the prioritising of correct procedure and adherence to formal, codified information. Additionally, these documents are often not about research, teaching, or service. Rather they are about the procedures, processes, and information systems – the administrative layer – that surround this work. In examining the six face-to-face induction sessions at the University of New England, only one session focuses on a traditional arena of academic work, and it focuses primarily on the information systems that support research activities rather than the activities themselves. In this way, the documents aimed at newly hired academics represent academics' work as demonstrating accountability, which is accomplished through compliance. This representation does not include the work of research, teaching, and service, which is the work upon which academics are judged. Of course, departments such as human resources may be writing documents for newly hired academics, leading to the representation of academics' work as being focused on processes, procedures, and administrative tasks. Whatever the reason for this representation, the message is still conveyed to newly hired academics and leads to disconnections between the documents prepared for early career academics and the documents that early career academics use.

Table 4.1

Adaptation of University of New England's New Staff Member Checklist from the Staff Induction Kit
([https://www.une.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0013/5620/New-Staff-Kit-2014-Ver- 2.pdf)](https://www.une.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0013/5620/New-Staff-Kit-2014-Ver-2.pdf)

<table>
<tr><td colspan="4">Starting @ UNE web resource</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Go to http://www.une.edu.au/staff/new-staff to find all the information you need as a new staff member</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Staff Induction sessions</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>Session I</td><td colspan="2">Informal meet and greet session at Booloominbah Café
Getting started with IT</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>Session II</td><td colspan="2">Staff Responsibilities: Performance Management, Work Health and Safety</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>Session III</td><td colspan="2">Staff services: Organisational Development, Library, International, Marketing and Public Affairs</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>Session IV</td><td colspan="2">Systems & support: Webkiosk, Finance, Student Services, ATSI</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>Session V</td><td colspan="2">Code of Conduct and related policies</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>Session VI</td><td colspan="2">For academic and academic support staff: Academic Board, Learning Innovation Hub, Research Grants, e-research</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Online induction course (in Moodle)
http://moodle.une.edu.au/course/view.php?id=336</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>1. Code of Conduct</td><td>☐</td><td>6. Privacy Policy</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>2. Conflict of Interests</td><td>☐</td><td>7. Work Health and Safety</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>3. Employment of Close Relatives/Associates</td><td>☐</td><td>8. ESOS National Code</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>4. Gifts and Benefits</td><td>☐</td><td>9. EO online fair play</td></tr>
<tr><td>☐</td><td>5. Fraud and Corruption/PID</td><td>☐</td><td>Complete</td></tr>
</table>

Another part of the administrative layer is the requirement to work with university information systems that manage a myriad of administrative processes and procedures. Information systems within the university context would include learning management systems, travel management systems, expense report systems, IT help systems, among many others. Issues that participants reported included gaining access to information systems, being able to use the systems effectively, and the information systems themselves changing how academics accomplish their work.

Information systems have become a part of academics' jobs in all areas of their work: research, teaching, service, and administrative tasks. As

information systems are required for academics to do the majority of their work, not being able to access or use these systems becomes a critical issue. Learning and incorporating those systems into everyday work can be challenging. Fredric described the issues he had with the common, yet important, function of submitting grades:

> And someone told me, "Oh, you can go fill in the grade, so distinction, credit, pass, and so on, automatically when you submit the marks." And I couldn't find the functionality … So I tried to figure it out myself in Blackboard and created a marking scheme where you automatically assign a label to marks … So just clicked submit and then epic failure. … It took more than a week to resolve the issue and I couldn't submit my mark.

Because he is required to submit his marks through the university's system and he could not get the system to work, he was unable to submit his grades. Without being able to successfully use the university's system, he was unable to complete his teaching work. Part of Fredric's issue was a lack of information about how to use the system. His assigned mentor had left the university and colleagues were busy, so he tried to solve the problem himself, which led to "epic failure." As almost all of the work done within universities is mediated by technology, being able to use the technology becomes fundamental to success. Universities can view their job as setting up systems, which then allow academics to engage in self-help activities to solve problems on their own. Even temporary access issues become an impasse (Selwyn, 2014). This demonstrates that in a digitised university, digital technologies "organize, rationalize and ultimately control the work of academics" (Selwyn, 2014, p. 65). If information systems control the work of the university and an academic does not have access to those systems, the work of the academic is stopped.

Jesse, a 29 year-old Canadian academic in psychology who started at the same institution as Madeline after the new onboarding program had been implemented, recounted the difficulties he had with submitting his expenses in the university's online finance system:

> Well I guess it's kind of silly thing, but I've been trying to file my expenses for my moving and the system here is just horrendous and so I probably have tried four times. I finally got them in and they kept deleting my expense report and giving an error at the end. So, it's a little bit frustrating. I had to set aside almost an entire day just to try and get

> money back for things that I paid for. So that was a little bit frustrating but, particularly because there isn't really any instructions on how to do it and our support staff is not particularly helpful.

So without information or help and with an information system that is difficult to use, what was a relatively minor – or "silly" – issue becomes a major issue, taking an entire day of his time. His frustration with the system highlights many of the issues early career academics face with unfamiliar (and sometimes challenging) systems. Universities have been digitised and while information systems are often framed as being there to support academics, they are first and foremost institutional systems that serve institutional ends (Selwyn, 2014). The issue is not about needing more training or about a new and better information system; rather, the issue is whether academics should be taking on these administrative tasks. Technology enables those not in clerical positions to do clerical work, allowing for a "digital displacement" of clerical work from professional staff to academics (Selwyn, 2014, p. 61). As each academic has a computer and access to the Internet, the creation of information systems and online forms for the purposes of clerical work means that academics possess the tools to do the work. This demonstrates the belief that clerical work does not require special skills or knowledge to accomplish. This is often at odds with the experience of academics who do not know the processes, procedures, or how information systems work. However, because the tools are available, administrative duties are taken away from professional staff (displaced) and transferred to academics. Again, this is an example of SMC influencing the type of work that becomes a regular part of an academic's job. This means the number of professional staff can be decreased, as more responsibilities are added to academics' workload.

When university information systems, designed to meet institutional ends, are used in accomplishing academic work, they (like all technology) can influence that work in unexpected ways. Evelyn discussed the information system the university uses to schedule classes, which gave her 50-minute class timeslots:

> [S]omewhere I heard that the PeopleSoft system, the financial management system that [the University] uses has now taken on the classroom management so that they optimise space and so forth. …

> Fifty minutes, that's ridiculous. That's just like starting all the time. I know the students aren't very happy with it either because, by default, you have to go back to these … lecture type of material, because really, getting them into groups and organising and getting them to delve into active learning is, you don't have the time to do that.

The time assigned for her classes interferes with her pedagogical style and does not allow her to use active learning in her teaching and changes her engagement with her students. She must actively change her work practices as a result. For Evelyn, the information system is tasked with organising classroom schedules, which means it dictates her schedule and, in turn, influences how she carries out her academic work on a day-to-day basis. This exemplifies how information systems, when working to serve institutional ends and not taking into account they ways in which academics work, can have unintended consequences that have a real bearing on how academics work.

However, some information systems are implemented with the express purpose of changing work practices. This can most easily be seen in teaching and in universities' learning management systems. Casey, a 30 year-old academic in an Australian business faculty, described the various meetings she attended to be introduced to different information systems when she started at the university, including iLearn, the university's learning management system:

> Also they booked me with the IT people to get the computer and they show me how to use the Wi-Fi here, how to use the teaching systems. I learn all these things. And also they booked me with the … teaching assistant who look after iLearn … and she showed me how to create unit guide, how to edit, how to revise.

Casey must be taught how to do the work of teaching (creating a unit guide, editing, revising) within the system. This adds another layer to her job, requiring new information and training, in addition to adjusting to how the system structures the content and manages the workings of the course (from how students access the course information to how academics submit marks). In essence, the system dictates the ways in which she carries out her work. The use of this information system is mandatory. Her teaching work cannot be accomplished unless it is carried out within the framework of the university's learning management system. In this case SMC influences how academic work is accomplished. Information systems are linked with issues of "power, control,

regulation and organization" (Selwyn, 2014, p. 38). The requirement that Casey use the learning management system and the change to Evelyn's classroom pedagogy is a consequence of the technology being used, highlighting the importance of recognising issues of control within technology and asking questions about the consequences of using that technology (Nardi & O'Day, 1999).

It is common for academics to find administrative processes cumbersome (Weinrib et al., 2012) and this is especially true when beginning a new position. The addition of a bureaucratic layer, which is required for early career academics to do their jobs within a new organisational context, increases those information needs. Participants frequently framed the addition of this administrative layer across work as reflected in a lack of support from professional staff. This lack of support is often due to university cutbacks to professional staff positions and a shifting of workload from professional staff to academics.

University support: Providing help (or not)

In discussing their institutional context, many participants discussed how their university, at the institutional or departmental level, supported or hindered their work. Universities were not typically either wholly supportive or wholly unsupportive. Rather, early career academics experienced support from their universities in some areas of their work but not in others. The initial period of starting a new job was a time when support, or lack of support, was keenly felt. David, a 37 year-old Canadian academic in the social sciences, been hired on a long-term contract at another institution that had not been prepared for his arrival. He compared that experience to the experience of starting at his current university:

> So when I came here they actually were waiting for me. They had sent me my employment package so the experience was a little bit different. So I was expecting to have a hard time getting information but they were waiting for me. So that was fine. That was great. So I came here and everything was ready and I could start working right away.

David's previous experience had left him with a negative first impression of the university. It also delayed his being able to begin his work. For many academics, they simply want to have the necessary aspects of their work environment (e.g., computer, IT access, office space, access to operating funds) in place in order to be able to work. In David's current institution, however, he was given the infrastructure support that he needed to do his work. This is consistent with research from Weinrib and colleagues (2012) who found that between 51-71% of academics in surveyed Canada were happy with the infrastructure at their university. However, David's negative experience of his first work environment was certainly not unique.

Madeline had a particularly difficult time when she arrived, and was not the only one in her cohort to do so. She related a story of being at an induction session for new faculty members and asking a question of senior administration:

> I stop and I put up my hand and was like, "You know, how do you expect me to research when I need to set up contacts and I don't have an email? And I'm being constantly being interrupted by phone calls for somebody else, because you couldn't get me a phone number. … I've lost of month of potential research production, so you tell me how I'm not pulling my weight in this particular context and what you're going to do about it so that I can. Because this isn't about me not wanting to help everybody become a research rock star, this is about you guys deliberately throwing barriers in my way."

Academic jobs are complex and involve a wide range of tasks in multiple areas. So much support is needed when starting a new position to address these multiple areas as well as to put into place basic office infrastructure. Without basic infrastructural support, even rudimentary work like sending emails becomes substantially more difficult or impossible to accomplish. Boice (1992) notes that with newly hired academics, first impressions are important to the forming of their opinion about their university. However, senior colleagues may dismiss the experiences of newly hired academics, including institutional reneging of promises made during recruitment. Many in Madeline's cohort, as well as colleagues who had started in the two years before her arrival, experienced significant challenges with office infrastructure. To the university's

credit, Madeline's comments during the induction session were heard by senior administrators who set up a system for early career academics at her institution. Jesse and Evelyn also took this induction (or onboarding,) program, as they worked at the same university.

One area mentioned frequently by participants as an area of strength, from various universities in Australia and Canada, was support for grant applications. Many mentioned formalised programs or units on campus specifically designed to aid in applying for grants. This was the case for Nicole, who got involved in a grants program that ran over many weeks and provided support in many different ways:

> The one thing the university is doing really well, and it's new, is they've got a grant assists program. And this woman … has been hired to run it, right? And she, and it's really great, like she'll do little groups workshops over the course of the semester … from across the university colleagues got together and we met every few weeks and she paired us up in buddies and we exchanged materials. … I think that having those infrastructural kind of support systems in really important at different areas.

Grant writing is a source of institutional support that is recognised and appreciated by early career academics who often feel the pressure to get grants, yet have little grant-writing experience. It is not surprising that many universities provide support for grants, as grants are an important source of university revenue and are a traditional part of academic work that fit neatly into the area of research. Hemmings and colleagues (2013) noted the important contribution of the institutional environment, particularly institutional support, to new academics' development as researchers in Australia and the UK.

Where participants frequently experienced a lack of support was for administrative work that co-occurs with, or stems from, teaching, research, and service responsibilities. While newly hired academics may receive workshops on administrative policies and procedures during induction, the number, variety, and complexity of administrative tasks makes it an area that many early career academics identify as one with which they require assistance. An example of this was David writing about his desire for more help with administrative work:

> Have a couple of admin stuff to do this next December. … I was asked to set my vacations, will have to ask colleagues how to do this because the system seems a bit different (I didn't know profs had vacations… anyway). Sent an expense report for books… took way longer than I wish it did and, of course, I got it wrong again. I wish admin support would actually do this admin stuff.

In this excerpt, David discusses his lack of sufficient information about how to correctly perform these tasks, both in that David has to ask colleagues about how to set his vacation in the system, as well as his getting his expense report "wrong again." This indicates that he has had difficulty performing administrative tasks in the past, which have taken up time and energy. But this issue is not simply one of needing more information or training about how to submit expense reports. His statement about wanting "admin support" to do "admin stuff" demonstrates that he sees expense reports as being administrative work and that this administrative work should not be a part of his responsibility. This was also the case for Nicole who discussed bringing researchers together for a think tank she was arranging. She noted,

> [T]here's also a lot of paperwork that admin people are not doing any more because of all the cuts. So, you know, every time I'm bringing in 11 people next semester, right? Every piece of paper has to be done and handled, I've got to make sure that people are signing it. There's no [administrative assistant] that's taking care of it all. … So it doesn't look like I'm doing that much more but I've got a lot less support. I don't have a lot of support at that level. I'm asked, we're all being asked to do a lot of this work ourselves.

What Nicole identifies as being difficult is taking care of the administrative side of this research work alone. This has an impact on her workload capacity. Her increased workload does not have increased outputs, as her time is spent on administrative tasks. She attributes the increased paperwork to the university budgets cuts, which saw a decrease in the number of administrative staff members. Nicole sees the administrative and logistical work that comes from arranging a research meeting as being work that could be done professional staff members. However, this brings up the issue of whose responsibility are the resulting administrative duties from research (or service or teaching) work? What administrative tasks do professional staff members see as part of their workload? What level of support is available to academics? Part of the issue

may have to do with expectations Nicole has about what is included in her workload. For some academics, there is a disconnect between what tasks they believe should be a part of their workload and the tasks that currently are a part.

Eschewing the "self-help" trend (and to navigate cumbersome university processes in a short amount of time), some early career academics turned to professional staff and colleagues seeking information from people and using them as information sources. Tim, a 31 year-old Australian academic in the humanities, discussed two of his colleagues as being helpful in matters of university administration:

> Between [Colleague A] over here who is also the head of the local branch of the [Union], very useful person for administrative paperwork things, especially in my contracts to work. There were a couple of points where we were unsure if the contract had gone through, or been renewed more recently, and she was the person who mastered all that and made sure it all happened for us, for me and for the faculty. Upstairs [Colleague B] is my other colleague, … He's also the course post-graduate coordinator, so versed with those questions of how students are administered, what forms to fill in, what procedures you in fact with tricky students situations and so on.

Of course, Tim had colleagues who were willing to help him with administration of contracts and students. While some of the help his colleagues provided may have been part of their workload, Tim describes their efforts as diligent, ensuring that they had sorted complex situations for their new colleague.

What is and what is not part of academics' workloads is up for debate. There appears to be little in the literature directly addressing the amount of work academics do in the "administrative layer," outside of formal administrative positions. The survey conducted by Weinrib et al. (2012) found only one-third of respondents positively rating support staff in both research and teaching. This may indicate overall dissatisfaction with support from support staff. Added to this, Bentley et al. (2012) found positive relationships between Australian academics' job satisfaction and "supportive administrative process" and "satisfactory institutional resources" (p. 39). University support for academics' work – whether to do with information, infrastructure,

resources, or administrative help – has a real impact early career academics' job satisfaction and workload capacity.

University communication: Impeding academics' work

Universities provide employees with information of all kinds, relating to policies and procedures of the university, as well as specifics regarding employee roles. They provide this information in many different forms, including, but not limited to induction programs, training sessions, information systems, and a wide variety of written documents (including mission and vision statements, strategic plans, policies, handbooks, promotional material). The audience for this information varies widely, from government funders to industry to prospective students to external researchers to prospective employers to professional staff members, as well as early career academics themselves. Despite the role of the university as an information provider, early career academics ran into issues with university induction programs and university documents not useful in providing necessary information, not having enough information, and having too much information. When starting at a new institution, early career academics had large numbers of questions they needed to have answered. Seth, a 32 year-old academic in an Australian education faculty, described the many things he had to figure out when starting his new position:

> There have been a lot of places to do a lot of different things. When do I fill out a contract? Which one do I fill out? Who do I submit it to? And then, need to change a title. Who do I talk to? I need to enrol on this website, how do I?

One way that universities provide newly hired academics with necessary information is by offering induction. Induction (as I will refer to it) is a typical vehicle for universities to communicate with newly hired academics. Induction is "commonly used to introduce new faculty to institutional expectations, establish relationships, and integrate new hires into institutional culture" (McCord & Franetovic, 2014, p. 7). It varies between institutions and can take

place at the institutional or departmental/school levels. It is intended that induction provide information that allows newly hired academics to become familiar with expectations and resources (Thomas & Goswami, 2013), giving them an advantage and allowing them to focus on their work. Often induction sessions or programs will provide introductions to general and specific university policies and procedures; divisions, departments, and services within the university; organisational structures; job expectations; fellow colleagues; and a range of practical information such as IT logins, ID cards, keys, and HR information.

Lack of Information

Although almost all of the participants' universities (with the exception of Tom's) offered induction, not all participants received induction when they started their jobs. Some participants did not receive induction because it was assumed they were already familiar with the university, having been a doctoral student or a casual academic at the university. This was the case for Claire, a 40 year-old Australian academic in a business faculty, who had been an actively engaged student and familiar to the staff; it was assumed that she did not require an induction or new information when she began her role as a lecturer:

> The biggest transition was being a full-time member of staff, because all the admin staff knew me well. It was assumed that I knew a lot of things and I had to often go up to the office manager and say, "Well, if I was a new employee, what would you be telling me?" Because even orientating myself around the intranet or finding that there was an induction course for new staff, like I opted to go in these things. I haven't had a load of people say, "Oh, [Claire], you should do this." They seem to assume I know it all.

Despite being familiar with the institution in her capacity as a student, Claire's new role came with new information needs. She had to seek out information on her own by asking staff or trying to find information online through the university's intranet. Claire's colleagues assuming she already had the information she required brings up an interesting point of what information universities assume is already known, what information and training is provided

to newly hired academics, and where new academics are expected to find that information. Much of the literature on mentoring or induction programs for early career academics offers suggestions of what information should be provided (e.g., Gravett & Petersen, 2007; Greene et al., 2008). However, the variation between institutions and those responsible for implementing programs means there is little that can be said about the information provided to newly hired academics, other than it varies greatly, as did the programs experienced by the participants in this study.

For some participants who did not receive induction as a casual staff member, that same university required them to attend induction when they started full time. This was frustrating for some academics, as they did not receive the information intended for new staff members when they started, but only when their contract required induction attendance. This meant casual staff members had to figure out the majority of information on their own, rather than receiving it from induction, and then sit through induction after having already acquired the information necessary to do their jobs. Casual academics can be seen as being in a liminal space, no fixed position within academia; in that liminal space they are "outsiders" to everyone but those in that liminal space with them. As outsiders, they are not privy to the same information as insiders. This was the case for Jason, a 29 year-old Australian academic in sociology, who started casually teaching online from a distance before taking up a full-time, on-campus position:

> Still going through the orientation. It was a bit strange though because I was already familiar with everything online because I'd been doing it for months already … And so I was pretty familiar and I kind of had all those teething issues already, trying to figure how things worked … I didn't really have any formal orientation stuff because I wasn't here. I started all of that once I moved here and I kind of already knew it all, so I'm still going through some of those sessions but I have to admit there's not a lot of information I haven't, that if I've needed it, I've probably already found it.

The lack of formal induction for Jason meant that he had to be more proactive in seeking out what information he needed, whether from colleagues or from online sources. Viewed through the lens of SMC, the university is more concerned about "ticking the box" that Jason has fulfilled his induction

requirement, rather than providing information at the point at which he required it.

Of course, induction and training are only one part of how universities provide information. A major source of information that new employees need for professional practice and development, one of three identified by Lloyd and Sommerville (2006), is textual information. Textual information manifests conceptual knowledge and provides "a connection with institutional understandings of practice, procedure and profession" (p. 189). Universities provide documentation, often posting it on the university's website or making a centralised site to access documents. Laura, a 32 year-old Australian academic in law, found university documents using Google, in addition to going to the university's central location for policies.

> No, I mean I guess I've just Googled stuff online. I try and pick up the policies and, because there's a policy database. … There's a policy library, or I don't know exactly what it's called, where you can search for different policies, and actually found that helpful. Well, I actually didn't really know a lot of those policies when I did teaching but now I discovered them.

While Laura did not express having difficulties finding information online, simply by Googling and looking at the policy "library," she did not knowing these policies when she was teaching. So while the information was there and not difficult to find, Laura did not have policy documents when she first started. Many early career academics, when they start a new position, do not have a complete picture of the university or their roles within the university; rather they have small bits of information that they then have to use to create a more complete picture of their environment (Bosetti, Kawalilak, & Patterson, 2008). Additionally, Laura did not have documents about day-to-day workings of her job. These documents, according to Laura, do not exist within her school:

> I also found that there wasn't really any formal documentation in the [school] to help with, just basic stuff like how to get on to the student system to enter marks or print off class photos or just the mechanics of what I was supposed to be doing. Or even like a checklist of all the different things you should do, like who you should contact about doing your research profile online, all that kind of stuff.

In this instance, Laura could not find the documentation because it did not exist. This is an example of universities (or schools or departments) making assumptions about the type of information that early career academics need. Laura went on to state that what she wanted were "structures to familiarise [herself] with the mechanics of what [she] was supposed to be doing." In this way, Laura was trying to create a more complete understanding of her environment and her roles within the environment. One use of information is to make sense of a situation (Yeoman, 2010); not having adequate access to that information made this much more difficult. While these structures were not put in place for Laura by the university, she went on to say that when another newly hired academic started in her school six months after she did she "did make an effort to tell them all the things that [she] hadn't been told" in order to help this person out and make sure s/he knew about things. She became a provider of information, providing what her university did not. This is an example of an individual becoming a source of information for others in similar transitions, with whom they are interacting (Yeoman, 2010).

Lacking information about how to do one's job was common. Fredric referred to this lack of information about the myriad systems and processes as the "Darwinian model" – i.e., when you arrive you have to learn how to "survive." Fredric discussed the many information systems in use at his university, demonstrating the complicated space in which academics work:

> I was talking to colleagues, it was like, "What it's like, it's crazy. It's too many." There's teaching and learning, there's Blackboard, there is HR, there is Intranet, there's email, there's email for the faculty, there's email for the university. … And there's tons of other systems that I'm sure I'm not even aware of that I haven't looked into. There's digital measures for your publication stuff, yes, there's a lot of things. I'm not sure that I'm aware of all of those.

In discussing the information systems that are a part of his work activities, Fredric mentions never receiving any information or training on the university systems; rather he received a list of the existing systems during induction. Despite the use of these information systems being required, there may not be training provided. Several of the information systems Fredric lists are for managerial purposes, not systems that will help him in accomplishing his

research, teaching, or service work, but rather help the university to regulate and account for his activities. This is an example of how SMC has a pervasive affect on academics' information environment.

When asked what she did when she did not know what to do, Claire expressed not necessarily wanting to speak to colleagues. "When I feel strongly enough, I'll ask for help. I don't always do so and I waste some time doing the intranet searches or just ignoring it." So when she does not have a strong need for information, she will search the university's intranet. However, she indicates that this is not an effective way of doing things. She went on to say that she had been ignoring her annual performance review, which was supposed to have been started the previous year, but no one directed her to do it. So rather than finding out whether it needed to be done, she ignored it, acknowledging that it might come back to "bite" her. For Claire, finding and accessing information is not clear-cut but involves searching independently, asking others, and ignoring. However, she does not depict any of the ways she seeks (or does not seek) information as being comfortable.

"Wrong" information

Issues with information provision were not simply about whether or not one received induction or training; they also involved whether the information universities provided was the information early career academics needed and desired. Information may not be straightforward and can, at times, be confusing. Fredric attempted to follow administrative procedures and received conflicting information about how to accomplish a task:

> And then my colleague … said like, "Oh, when you have to hand in the handbook entry for next year, you only have to hand in a description now. The assignments and the weighting of the assignments you have to hand in later." And then I went to the admin staff and they told me, "No, actually you have to hand in everything now." … I got conflicting information.

For Fredric's colleague, the process was obviously not clear and so he had to go to multiple sources before he got the correct information and could satisfy the requirement of providing all of his course information for the handbook.

Wrong information sometimes meant that information was at the wrong level. Several early career academics found that the focus of the induction was at the wrong level, desiring a higher-level view of the organisation. This was the case for David:

> So [the faculty development office, they] do a one-day workshop. … I would have preferred one where they talk about the institution, like this is us, this is how many students we have, this is how we're organised, so to get a sense of, you know, our place in the broader city and everything, which didn't happen. So they focused a lot on policies and stuff, which I thought was less informative than other stuff.

Another and fairly frequent complaint about induction was its general, or surface, nature. This was particularly true of induction that included both academic and professional staff. Fredric found that the induction very general, and lacking in attendance by academics:

> I have to say this induction was, I thought, not as exciting as I initially thought it would be. It was a general staff induction and it seemed that at least 80% of the people there were service or from the administrative side and there seemed a lot of the starting academics maybe feel they don't have time for this? I don't know. There were only a few other research academics that were in there. I'm not sure if I thought it was the best thing to do.

For many early career academics, the focus and the general nature of the induction sessions did not provide them with the information they wanted and had anticipated receiving. This is consistent with Garrison's (2009) study on newly hired academics' perspectives of induction, in which the second most frequent complaint about induction was that it was "too shallow" (e.g., dealing only with policies or payroll or how the university worked). Providing one induction for both academic and professional staff may indicate that universities do not see the information needs of these two groups of employees as being substantially different. This brings into question whether universities understand the information that newly hired academics need in order to successfully make the transition into full-time continuing academic positions. Interestingly, while Fredric did not find his induction session particularly useful nor meet many other academics, what he did find useful was the opportunity to talk to different service providers during the induction's lunch period. He valued being able to talk to people and gather information. This opportunity

allowed him to get very specific information about such topics as superannuation and library services. This gave him the control to decide to whom he spoke, what information he sought, as well as how much information he sought.

Having too much information was also problematic for newly hired academics. Nathaniel received a very detailed induction, which he discussed in a generally positive light; however, he experienced "information overload":

> I did the general one, the four day one. That was nice. It was exciting, helpful. But at the same time it was information overload. If I would do it again I would want it to be done over a month. Like few hours every once in a while and then that works.

Evelyn was the beneficiary of the redesigned induction program that began with Madeline pointing out to senior administrators the problem with the current system. The induction program included in-person meetings, an "onboarding coordinator" (a professional staff member tasked with helping newly hired academics in the faculty), and an "onboarding checklist" (a detailed website). Similar to Nathaniel, Evelyn found the parts of induction overwhelming:

> No, mostly, I mean everything is available online but I prefer a face-to-face encounter because our positioning is unique and mainstream web-based resources aren't always applicable within our world. So you can receive a glut of information that you can waste your time reading 2 hours through and it will have very little relevance to what you're actually doing. So at least if you're in one of, the faculty is amazing at providing workshops and noon hour sessions and sort of places for you to ask those pertinent and relevant questions, so I find those are much more, if you can carve out the time, they are much more empowering to me.

The induction program, while meant to be thorough, was a series of hoops to jump through to Evelyn. She discussed it as a way to induct newly hired academics into the organisation and something that has to be done, rather than an informative process. To Evelyn, the university created this induction process and newly hired academics must jump hoops and get through it. Using SMC as a lens to understand this, managerial information is privileged over information that is more relevant to academics. In contrast, the workshops provide a venue for asking questions that will provide meaningful answers about "what you're

actually doing," rather than working through a checklist and, what Evelyn termed, a "landslide of forms."

Part of the issue with providing information at the correct level or in the right amount is a trend within universities towards "self-help" approaches to information provision. More and more, academics are expected to find the information and forms about aspects of their job available on websites and perform those tasks with the help of information systems. Evelyn's experience with the "landslide of forms" on the university's onboarding checklist is an example of this. Similar to grocery store checkouts, academics must learn how to do on their own much of the work that was previously done by professional staff. As information about the task and how to use the "self-help" information systems is typically provided generically online, the amount of information provided about this work is generic and not tailored to what academics need to know, specifically.

In examining university documents intended for newly hired academics, the discourse of self-help can be seen. Documents written for newly hired academics portray academics as needing to fit into the university system, portray the universities providing what the academics need, and making clear that the academics are responsible for making themselves fit within the system. A very common word used by university texts is "opportunity;" universities provide opportunities for newly hired academics in the form of different types of information programs and services, which may or may not be a required part of the job. It is then up to the newly hired academics to take advantage of these opportunities to meet their needs. The excerpt below is an example from a website from the Centre for the Advancement of Faculty Excellence at MacEwan University in Canada that discusses their induction program.

> The program is designed to provide opportunities for new faculty to:
>
> - Meet experienced faculty, academic administrators, and support staff
> - Learn about and interact with MacEwan students
> - Discuss teaching issues and challenges with peers, and identify strategies for success
> - Learn about resources in support of teaching and research
> - Become familiar with policies and procedures promoting mutual respect and understanding in our diverse community

- Be introduced to university policies guiding teaching and research
- Participate in sessions/workshops on a variety of topics related to teaching, scholarly activity and service at MacEwan (MacEwan University, 2014)

The bulleted list describes the opportunities that this required program provides to new academics. The responsibility for the outcomes of the program does not lie with those who put on the induction program; rather, by using the word "opportunities," the responsibility has been transferred to the newly hired academics who must choose to pursue those opportunities. Some of the opportunities provided may be straightforward, such as meeting other staff members. However, "discuss[ing] teaching issues and challenges with peers, and identify[ing] strategies for success" is a complex process, requiring much more than plain opportunity in order to take place.

While the previous example listed opportunities for outcomes, many of the documents outlined how the work is to be done. Processes and procedures are set out by the university; information is provided so that the academic knows these processes and procedures that relate to their roles and expectations; information systems are set up as a way to enact those processes and procedures, using the information provided. Universities provide the component parts that allow academics to help themselves. The excerpt below is from the section entitled "Before You Start" on the University of Alberta's Faculty and Staff Orientation webpage.

> **Before you start,** invest some time in the following. It will help you gain a great start in your new position.
>
> - **Complete pre-arrival documentation.** Sign your letter of offer, confidentiality agreement and statement of ethic conduct etc.
> - **Explore this U of A Employee Portal.** See where your position belongs. Explore your Benefits. Write down any questions you may have. This website will serve as your resource throughout your career at our exciting institution.
> - **Think about what information will be beneficial.** Prepare a list of questions to ask your supervisor in a telephone conversation prior to arrival or on your first day. This will give you a better sense of what to expect. Here are some questions to consider asking:
>   - Will I have a schedule for my first days, such as for meetings or required training?

    - Should I bring a lunch my first day?
    - If commuting by car: where do I part my first day/how do I get a parking permit prior to my first day?
    - If commuting by bicycle: where is the bicycle rack closest to the building? What time should I be at work my first day?
    - What is the preferred attire in the group/department?
    - What is the accepted practice for decorating my work space; e.g., can I bring photos from home or other personal items?
- **Ensure you have your required documentation** (such as your Social Insurance Number)
- **Review the benefits plans** for your position so you are prepared to ask clarifying questions (University of Alberta, 2014)

This excerpt, while more detailed than some, is an example the content appearing on university academic orientation websites. It asks newly hired academics to do work before they start, portraying this work as an investment. Using the language of business, it directs newly hired academics to invest time now to reap the benefit of a better start to the job. The implication is that not investing the time will lead to a worse start. The onus is on the new academic to complete the work laid out for them, which is delivered in such a way that they can do it on their own without help. This work is represented as being for the betterment of the academic; however, the required tasks are for the benefit of the running of the institution. Doing paperwork before starting a job does not help the academic in accomplishing research, teaching, or service work; rather, it makes it easier for human resource divisions to process the necessary paperwork.

As is common with information provided to new academics (especially via webpages), it is in the form of a bulleted list, which implies that it should be worked through in a linear way. Main bulleted points have headings, the sentences are short and simple (i.e., with few clauses), and the examples provided indicate that the tasks are relatively simple. However, when examining the tasks, it becomes clear that not all the necessary information is provided here (e.g., what is the full list of "pre-arrival documentation"?) and that some of the tasks are not easy to accomplish (e.g., before starting, how do you know what "information will be beneficial"?). As with the link included in

the excerpt above, it is very common for documents to refer to other documents, websites, policies, or other information. This passive presentation of information (i.e., providing a link and expecting that those documents will be read and understood) once again demonstrates that the new academics must help themselves to the required information.

This idea of self-help has been explored by others examining trends in higher education. Speaking about professional development, Foote (2010) categorises the self-help approach as problematic for graduate students and early career academics, placing the burden of the work on the individual academic. While Foote discusses professional development rather than the work that academics are required to do upon taking up a new position, there are similarities between the two. Making individuals solely responsible for their own success not only does not take into account the individuals' contexts that can have a great impact on their career trajectories, but also does not take into account the "mismatch between the implicit knowledge and skills needed to succeed in an academic career and the topics covered explicitly in graduate curricula, advising and mentoring" (Foote, 2010, p. 11). However, SMC uses self-help as a practice that pressures academics to align their work with university systems, structures, and processes.

Positive Experiences with University Information

Several early career academics had positive experiences with information provision. This tended to happen when the information provided was both comprehensive and practical. Nathaniel, who found the university-wide induction was "information overload," had a positive experience with the induction within his department, which was very focused on practical aspects of the job, as well as personalised:

> But one thing that helped was, let's say, there was lots of documents that helped on how to go get your keys and how to do this. They have organised a checklist with where you go and so on, so it was very helpful. I don't know, it's not available at other departments. … I got more personalised orientation, as in I was, they were open, everybody was open to just chatting with them and sit down and ask about things. So I had an amazing department head who is now associate dean and I

> have amazing colleagues who were willing to help. So this is how I figured it out.

Nathaniel's personalised induction and help from colleagues gave him the information he needed, allowing him to figure out his job. This is reminiscent of getting hands-on information, mentioned by Stanley and Watson (2007), information that was tailored to Nathaniel and about which he could ask questions of his colleagues.

Jesse, who also did the same induction program as Evelyn, had a different experience. However, rather focusing on the documents, Jesse focused on the "onboarding coordinator":

> They actually did, I think, a fairly nice job. The first thing they [do], it's a new initiative they have here, where they actually have an onboarding coordinator. So about six weeks or eight weeks before I started I had my onboarding coordinator … [s]he emailed me and said, "Here's all the stuff you need to know. We've created this brand new website that tells you what do I need to do the month before I come. The first few days, you know, the next month." All those sorts of things, with links to everything you could possibly need to know. … But that was really good because it helped me know, even before I got here, who I needed to be contacting, and she would put me in touch with people. And I'm still in touch with her regularly about issues that I have.

So rather than viewing the onboarding checklist as a hoop to jump through, Jesse viewed it as a set of resources to "everything you could possibly need to know." He makes regular and continuing contact with his coordinator, using her as both a source of information and a reference to other information. Having a person whose job it is to provide information was extremely beneficial, as the information Jesse received was tailored to his information needs. If not providing personalised information, the information universities provide is often lacking, at the wrong level, and/or too much.

Information needs are high at the start of any new job; there are new roles, tasks, and responsibilities that must also be learned, in addition to understanding how work is performed within the new organisational context. In situations such as these, categorised by Savolainen (2012) as task performance, information needs can be understood as a context in which there are factors that make up the task and problem solving related to the activity. Information needs are not constant and are influenced by different contextual factors, understood

as a category in the context of the task that must be performed (Savolainen, 2012). An example of this is Casey, whom I first interviewed when she had been on the job for six weeks. She was very intentional about seeking information in her current position, an approach she took in her doctoral studies:

> Yes, so after I came here, just like when I came across some problems, my goal is to solve these problems. I don't, sometimes I feel that, okay, this person may [have] thought, "Oh, [Casey] is so annoying. Everyday she asks me questions, different questions." But to me, I feel that, okay, I must solve that problem. I have to ask. So I must achieve my goal. Yeah, that's what I have learned from the previous experience.

Casey is very focused on her goal, which cannot be fulfilled without specific information to meet her need. After early career academics have been in their positions for a period of time, information needs shifted from immediate needs to longer-term and sometimes more complex needs. The information needs are less acute and are often about seeking to better understand situations or aspects of the job. Rather than simply articulating needed information, participants sought to make sense of their situation. Making sense understands that there is a situation in which an individual experiences a gap in her/his knowledge and information is used to fill that gap (Savolainen, 1993). However, this is not a simple or straightforward process of asking a question and getting an answer. An example of this was with Mark, a 34 year-old Canadian academic in business. Whether he talked to his colleagues about his research and teaching, he noted that for his teaching,

> I haven't had any major issues so it's more like if there might just be something weird going on, but that's more like a conversation over a beer, it's not something that I would, you know, run to my neighbour's office and say like, "Hey. What do I do in this situation?"

Information needs are not necessarily expressed through purposeful questioning, as with Casey. Rather, for many participants, they came up as part of broader interactions with colleagues.

The information needs of early career academics shift over time. As they transition, their situation is an evolving one, as people move from student to full-time academics, often working as a casual academic in between. Transitional changes can include changes in roles, relationships, identities,

abilities, and behaviour (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). The new and changing situation means that there is an inherent gap between the information required to understand and perform in a new position and the information that an early career academic will have. Information needs change in concert with changing situations. This is similar to the findings of Westbrook (2009) who found that women experiencing intimate partner violence denote the shifting information needs of people in situations of transition. Dunne (2002) developed a "person-in-progressive-situations" model, subsequently used by Westbrook, to examine the information women need as they leave their homes and deal with numerous government agencies. Westbrook delineates the numerous information needs of women in these situations, noting that their needs are precarious as they "navigate between what is and what might be" (p. 109). For academics transitioning into full-time, continuing roles, their situation is also progressively changing. Transitional periods are not static; rather, there are continual changes to the situation, which have an impact on what information is needed and how individuals look to meet those information needs. And while early career academics' states, in moving to full-time continuing positions, become more stable, there remain elements of precariousness. They begin their positions with a host of urgent information needs; however, in an unfamiliar situation it can be difficult to know what information needs will arise beyond those initial needs. (More will be said about the precariousness of early career academics' situations in the subtheme, *In/Stability: Simultaneous and oppositional feelings of security*.)

Information is required to perform the wide range of duties that make up an academic position within a particular university context. Despite previous experience in other roles in academia, without information about the specific institutional context and the new responsibilities of a faculty member, early career academics are immobilised. Fredric's experience of not being able to submit his grades is an example of this. In this way, information is a form of power. Those already within the university have this power, or some of it. David described interacting with his colleagues while discussing how he negotiated his first long-term contract:

> I mean inside every department there are power brokers. So there are people that have a lot of institutional knowledge, a lot of experience. And so I've just targeted these guys. And they were in my field of study anyway, … so the fit was easy. And of course I was listening to them bitch about the institution, so it was more in terms of a junior scholar talking to senior scholars. That's how I felt for me, anyway, maybe not for them. But for me it felt as if, just a junior scholar handling things that they've seen before.

The experience that senior colleagues have, and the information that accompanies that experience, is part of what gives them power to act within the institution. They are also connected to others who also have information. Another major source of information that new employees need for professional practice and development is social information (Lloyd & Sommerville, 2006). Social information facilitates insight into the culture and values of the profession. "Accessing information from sites of social knowledge over time renders the individual as intersubjectively embodied as a member of the community" (p. 191). By specifically interacting with those who have power within an institution and within a discipline, David is able to access social information that helps him to learn what it is to be a member of the discipline and the department.

What many participants experienced were institutional assumptions about their information needs. At times information was lacking about processes, procedures, and information systems. At other times information was too general, too detailed, or not intended for academics. As early career academics' information needs are complex and changing – i.e., changing as they become more familiar with the current position, as well as changing throughout the ebb and flow of the academic year – information that is provided to early career academics should be plentiful (without being overwhelming), covering the numerous aspects of academic jobs, aimed at the appropriate level, and personalised. Providing this type of information in documentary form is an impossible task, highlighting the importance of people as sources of help and information for early career academics.

Information exchange as social enterprise

During liminal periods, it becomes evident that colleagues and the relationships developed with them had become important resources in the transitions. In moving from the known, in which they were practiced (doctoral studies), to the unknown, in which they had only limited experience (academic positions), early career academics relied on others who are in their new environment for the information they needed to acclimatise to their new positions. While much of the information that is exchanged between colleagues is not social in nature – that is, it is related to professional work taking place in universities – it is exchanged socially. However, social information is also important in coming to know how information practices are enacted within a new environment. Colleagues share what they know; they answer questions early career academics have about how to do their job in a new environment. Early career academics see their colleagues as a source for information but more than that, as a source of support and help (Murray, 2008). For early career academics, this makes finding information and learning the nuances of their new environment a social enterprise. It is through social interactions in their day-to-day working life that they become socialised into life as a full-time continuing academic and able to put their disciplinary knowledge and previous experience into use.

The research questions that this theme addresses are: 1a) During transition, what are the information practices in which academics engage?; and, 2a) What information behaviours do academics engage in during transition to become a part of new social contexts? This section examines collegial engagement as the major way early career academics exchange information, including seeking, sharing, and using information. In particular, I will focus on interactions with colleagues – including mentorship, collegial support, and practical support – as well as two factors that facilitate the creation and maintenance of relationships, level of formality and physical proximity. This section focuses on information exchanges in making the transition from doctoral studies (e.g., looking for a job) and in starting their current position.

Source preference: People over documents

Interested in what information universities provide to newly hired early career academics, participants were asked about documents (i.e., codified texts in any format) that they found useful or had been given to them. A few participants mentioned use of documents, which were typically related to HR or university policies. Document use tended to be infrequent and centred on induction activities when participants first took up their position. One participant, Adam, tended to use documents more frequently than others. He discussed his practice of going to policy documents,

> So I guess in-grained habit of wanting to get something from the source, in the sense of if you ask somebody how to do something, they might give you a kind of an effective response, but it might have lost something along the way or it might not actually be the policy. The university is kind of, as you'd know, they're constantly moving entities and things like various kinds of knowledge get updated, policies get updated, technology changes and I guess I don't really see colleagues as necessarily [being] in the know [more] than I am going to be. So even if they've worked here for years. So, I guess that has its downsides, because I tend to reinvent the wheel.

For Adam, he relied on his own reading of documents, provided through the university's centralised online policy repository. This practice has its downsides of not learning from colleagues' experience. However, Adam still used people as information sources, as he stated, "If you can't solve things that way [using documents in the repository], we have a departmental administrator who's very experienced or you ask one of the staff members…"

Adam was somewhat unique in his more extensive use of documents. While touching on university documents, many participants discussed receiving information from people rather than documentary sources. Typically, participants went to professional staff and colleagues for information: professional staff members with specific and practical questions or to ask for advice about whom to talk to for questions beyond the staff members' areas of expertise; and to colleagues for questions ranging from day-to-day workings of

the job to career advice. Several participants contrasted getting information from colleagues to getting information from documents, preferring to find information from colleagues. The reasons participants gave for relying on colleagues for information included timeliness in getting required information, completeness of answers from colleagues, and ease and convenience of access. David discussed rarely getting administrative information from documents, rather relying on a professional staff member in his department:

> I did go once or twice to the bargaining agreement. So let's say, all right so how much should I make? But apart from that, I'm way too busy to actually, it's really I use what I have when I need it and honestly I don't need a lot. I rely heavily on my admin assistant.

David points to not needing documents frequently and being too busy as reasons he relies less on documents. Time is a significant constraint. So while David knows about and has used at least some of the documents available, he rarely uses documents, rather relying on a professional staff member. Evelyn discussed the large number of documents and the difficulty getting through them, leading her, instead, to seek out colleagues to ask:

> Having an ear to bend. Yeah, I absolutely, information from people not so much the websites or the zillion pieces of paper you get. Much more effective to deal with experts and people who've gotten through it, right? That to me only makes sense.

Evelyn makes the point that the people she talks to, in this case colleagues, have experiential knowledge – having been through the process themselves – making them experts. Here she values how "effective" it is, talking with her knowledgeable colleagues. She constructs documentary sources as difficult to deal with. Evelyn goes on to discuss not having time to deal with documents, similar David's experience:

> I often find them very cumbersome and not user friendly, and they actually end up eating a lot of your time. And because time is so critical, right? It's the commodity we're all seeking. We don't have enough time. And so yeah, the faculty, they could tell me in 5 minutes, what would take me at least an hour and a half to delve through the website to try to find. And they can give me, "Oh don't bother with that, just do this." They sort of get to the meat of it.

So while neither David nor Evelyn had difficulty finding documents, accessing the information contained in documents is more challenging. Contrasting the

sources, Evelyn expresses how simple it is to ask questions of her fellow faculty members, getting an answer more quickly, while also being supplied with information and opinions not contained in the documents. SMC privileges managerial information over practical information. Sidestepping the formal textual information provided and going to colleagues is a way of for early career academics to find the information they require.

Many participants mentioned that in speaking with colleagues they could get a more complete answer than from documents. This, in addition to quick access, was an important reason for relying on collegial information. Seth described his preference for going to people directly, rather than documentary sources, or even emailing:

> If I have a question, I'll go to people or if it's something more generic about career planning, I'll look something up online, but there's been no specific document that, "Oh, this was invaluable for." For me, the real benefit of people is not only do you get that more comprehensive answer, but you get it quickly. … [S]o you send off an email and you typically don't get exactly the response that you wanted in terms of what you were asking or the depth you were hoping for and you have to wait a while for it. And it's the same sort of, finding the time to read that book cover to cover. I could ask someone what they suggest for this and although it wouldn't be as comprehensive as that, it would be far less time consuming.

Interestingly, Seth describes information from people as both more and less comprehensive. Speaking to people provides a more comprehensive answer than email, though speaking to people would be less comprehensive than reading a book in its entirety. There are levels of comprehensiveness. But for Seth, online documents are useful for generic questions, whereas with people you can obtain better, more tailored, information and more quickly.

Early career academics appreciated the getting "the full story" from people that documents cannot provide. This was the case for David, as he stated,

> And documents never tell you the full story, right? I'm much more interested in the backchannels, right? How can I do this way more efficiently, right? Do I really need to write a report for this or a paragraph will do. You know, [is] this form really a form, or so it's sort of a suggestion. So in policies you never know. But when you talk to your admin assistant, they make your life way easier. And that's what I find every time.

For David, part of what the full story means for him is being able to work more efficiently, saving him time. It's the insider knowledge, the backchannels, that the professional staff member in his department knows that will benefit him.

Generally, individuals use documents and people as their main, frequent sources of expertise, indicating that they are complementary and interdependent (Hertzum, 2014). Information seekers choose people as information sources over documents when situations become more complex, non-routine, and short-term (Hertzum, 2014). Within organisational research there has been recognition that colleagues are often a main source of information (Cross & Sproull, 2004; Miller, 2015). That documents developed for employees, including those produced specifically for early career academics, tend to be used infrequently is an interesting finding, in its own right. What was surprising was the extent to which early career academics relied on their colleagues for information, to the exclusion of university policy and procedural documents. This may be due to the fact that tasks that early career academics undertake are short-term (e.g., filling out a form), leading individuals to prefer people as information sources (Julien & Michels, 2004). Short-term information needs can often be solved with a simple question to an officemate. But more than this, tasks may be uncertain (e.g., what is the process of submitting an expression of interest for a grant?), so academics seek out the expertise of other people, as colleagues can make inferences from multiple information sources, filtering the raw information provided by documentary sources (Hertzum, 2014).

However, in talking to participants, it became clear why colleagues were often the preferred source of information. Colleagues are a convenient source of information and going to colleagues took less time and effort than reading and synthesising documents. Convenience is an important factor in individual's determination of source use (e.g., Connaway et al., 2011; Krikelas, 1983). This finding aligns with Foster's (2004) finding that networking is a core process in information-seeking behaviour when dealing with "limited knowledge, limited resources such as time and access, and coping with information overload" (p. 233). Using colleagues as information sources is valuable, as the information

they provide gives a more complete picture, and takes less time to access than documents.

The social flow of information: Colleagues shouldering the informational burden

In new positions as early career academics (and often as the most junior person in the department), participants frequently relied on others for help, information, and/or support. Colleagues can be the most important form of support for a new academic (Greene et al., 2008). In analysing the participant interviews and check-ins, the importance of colleagues to early career academics' ability to find information and fit into their new environments came through clearly. As Casey stated, "I think the major source of information is from my colleague[s]." More than just information sources, the interactions that took place were an information exchange, often resulting in early career academics receiving some form of help or support. This support was a way of more senior colleagues including newly hired academics in the academic unit, socialising them to the ways in which things were done.

Collegial support

Senior colleagues often gave time, help, opportunities, and information to early career academics. In examining early career academics' interactions with their colleagues, information practices in McKenzie's (2003) model can be seen. McKenzie's model can be used to help identify the information practices in which early career academics engage. This was the basis on which many relationships were started and maintained. Mark discussed his supportive colleagues:

> I mean I would say that I've got a couple of go-to senior faculty that are both renowned but also have made it clear that they're sort of in my camp and cheering for me and so I, whenever I have any kind of larger more strategic questions around research they would be my go tos.

Mark, in seeking out colleagues and asking them the strategic questions he has identified, engages in active seeking (McKenzie, 2003). It is an active search that is pre-planned and with a known source. Mark described these colleagues who are sources of information also as sources of support. Information is one form of support. And this informational role comes out of the relationships created. Mark does not just seek information from anyone, but he seeks it from those who support him. For Ben, a 32 year-old Canadian academic in a faculty of education, his colleagues were a source of information about grants:

> I get all kinds of emails about, you know, come to this or do that and in many ways I haven't gone to anything because, you know, [Colleague A] said, "You want a real expert to read over your grant and tell you if it's sound or not? Look down the hallway at, I'd say [Colleague B], [Colleague C] in particular, rather than being one of an anonymous mass, so." Using a little bit more of the [department] in-house expertise than the institutional support.

While the university does offer support for grants in the form of workshops and peer review (a support appreciated and frequently mentioned by many participants), the university-wide program was passed over for more informal, department-level specific help from learned colleagues. Ben, in being told information about where he should obtain information about grants, received information by proxy (McKenzie, 2003). Rather than an active search, an intermediary provided information, which was, to a certain extent, unsolicited. Ben decided to make use of the advice he was given. However, being told what to do in this case is viewed as helpful because of the source of the information, his colleague, who supports Ben through providing information. The importance of colleagues and the reliance on their good will is in line with previous research that colleagues help to ease the transition into academic positions (Murray, 2008).

Evelyn also described receiving help and information from her colleagues. Not only did they provide help on practical aspects of doing the job, but they also accepted her as a colleague:

> And they can give me, you know, "Oh don't bother with that, just do this," they sort of get to the meat of it. And I would say that my colleagues actually went beyond just informational, they actually made space, and I think that was probably the best the way to sort of visualise,

> they made space for me in their classrooms and I think that's something that you can't get from a website or from theory or literature.

Having talked about different ways she gets information, Evelyn specifically mentions not only receiving information but also the pertinent information. As previously mentioned, the information universities provide are often at the wrong level or amount of information. Beyond this information, her colleagues provide her what documents cannot, "space." This "space" colleagues gave was time in the their classrooms, but represented inclusion or acceptance of her and her research in the department. This acceptance is important for Evelyn, having previously described difficulties in finding a place for the type of research she wanted to do in her postgraduate studies. However, in her department colleagues provided Evelyn with support and they demonstrated how they valued her as a colleague through social acceptance. (More will be said about belonging in the subtheme entitled, *Using comparison to negotiate transition: Weighing experiences.*)

As evidenced by Evelyn's quotation, early career academics were acutely aware of the help they were receiving and frequently mentioned feeling supported. Jason mentions that his area of specialisation, an area of theory, has been under fire:

> [I]n a lot of universities it's really being sort of cracked down on at the moment, and you know, my enrolments are lower than I'd like them to be and the conversation hasn't so much been about, "Oh, well we're going to can your topic." It's going to be, "Well, how can we help?" You know, "What can we do?" That's been quite nice.

Jason, understanding the larger picture of academia and that the precarious nature of his study is not vocational in nature, appreciates the offers of help from his colleagues. Nicole specifically mentions friendship from her colleagues, but describes its academic nature:

> I felt individual friendship and definitely people going out of their way. A few people in my department, "Let's meet, let's have coffee. What can I tell you? How can I help you? Let me read your SSHRC." So definitely at the individual level, but not at the systemic level.

The coffee meetings she describes include offering her information and support. Supportive interactions in regards to early career academics' research are key

for their development (Hemmings, Hill, & Sharp, 2013). Nicole, in developing friendships with colleagues and going out for coffee, puts herself in a position to be able to ask questions of supportive colleagues who actively ask what help she requires. This is reminiscent of active scanning (McKenzie, 2003), in which individuals identify opportunities to ask question or are actively observing the world around them in order to find information. It is an active search that is pre-planned and with a known source. Interestingly, she specifically mentions that the support she feels is at an individual, not a systemic, level. This lack of support at an institutional level has been borne out in other research, as has the spontaneous assistance from colleagues in providing information and advice (Murray, 2008). While the university tends to want to dictate and control for their own managerial purposes, colleagues provide direct support based on the early career academic's needs.

As is seen through these participant conversations, support is not just personal support but extends to providing advice, helping with new tasks (e.g., grant help was mentioned frequently), and advising on day-to-day tasks. Casey related a story about her confusion during a meeting about the practice of how her department assigned final grades:

> But I was told that I should revise, I should amend the marks I give to student[s]. I couldn't figure out why. Then after meeting I went to one of my colleagues, another colleague's office and I asked her, "Why can't I have so many 74s [marks of 74%], 64s [marks of 64%]?" She explained that because from 75 students can get a Distinction, 74 is still Credit. So then students may have a lot of complaints and they may apply for review their exam papers or they apply for grad appeal, so just try to, in order to avoid this kind of issue, you should amend marks.

In the Australian system, 65% is the mark needed for a grade of Credit and 75% is needed for a grade of Distinction. Casey relied on her colleague to explain how, practically, the department works in order to reduce the number of student complaints and requests for grade appeals. This is the type of information that is not codified in university documents; rather, it is understood and practiced by those who work within the unit.

Madeline related having conversations with more senior colleagues about aspects of the job that she found surprising, by checking her experience against theirs. "One of the things that I've, it just happened to organically be a

good strategy for me is to go to other colleagues and say, 'This just happened. How normal is that for here?'" Checking with trusted colleagues is a way to check her own appraisal of the situation, as well as to understand the context of her new university. She uses these mentors as a source of information to help regulate her own understanding of the situation and her reactions in that situation. She is learning what it is to be an academic in the context of her new environment, with the help of her mentors.

While institutions vary, sufficient support for early career academics is rarely offered at the institutional level. This was particularly evident for practical, day-to-day workings of the university. In this area colleagues picked up the slack.

Collegial relationships

In looking at the collegial relationships of early career academics, we see that many continue to value the relationships they have developed in their doctoral studies with supervisors, more senior colleagues, and peers. These networks of relationships were valuable throughout their transition from PhD student, through looking for a job, as well as remaining important in their new positions. The relationships established in collegial networks and the benefits they provide – including the advice, insider information, and work opportunities – are important and remain important throughout transition (Baker & Pifer, 2011). David, who had several networks of senior colleagues and peers outside of his current university, described where he made some of these collegial connections:

> So going to these conferences, you know, you make connections all the time. And I, through those years I've made several friends that teach across Canada. And they have provided me with opportunities, you know, for publication where they were editing a book so they added me to the mix.

These collegial relationships cross the lines between work relationships and friendship, being supportive relationships that also lead to collaboration. David described these friends as mentoring him. This situation is reminiscent of active

scanning (McKenzie, 2003); through interaction an opportunity to ask a question is identified. However, while McKenzie's model examines information practices over a relatively short period of time, David describes a relationship created over years. Through the relationship that he develops, he is in a position to take part in opportunities offered by more senior colleagues.

Jesse asked for advice from students who were more senior during his doctoral studies during his job search, "So actually what I did first was I emailed past students and asked them kind of where they had gone to find out about jobs. And I got some really good tips." He did a similar thing when he got his first position, as he described,

> Like I said, I was very lucky in so far as I had a really good cohort of senior students that I had good relationships with and so was able to get job application material, teaching material and ask them, you know, "How the heck did you manage your first few months?" and things like that. And call them and I did that regularly. I'd email somebody and say, "Could you set up a Skype with me for later this week just to talk about some stuff?"

Jesse, in setting up Skype calls and asking advice from more senior peers and asking them specific and pre-planned questions, engaged in active seeking (McKenzie, 2003). In this way he is "activating an ongoing informal consulting relationship for a specific need" (McKenzie, 2003, p. 28). However, Jesse's relationships with his peers go beyond "consulting," crossing barriers between work and friendship. More senior peers in doctoral programs have been identified as important sources of support (Baker & Pifer, 2011). In this case, these senior peers provide an important, previously established collegial network, particularly before new collegial relationships are established in a new working environment.

Early career academics developed relationships with colleagues, which ranged along a spectrum from work-focused to personal. Participants described aspects of creating and maintaining those relationships, including seeking advice, socialising, and receiving help and support from colleagues. As a result, relationships, collaborations, mentorships, and networks were formed, all of which contributed to information exchange and the early career academic

finding support and a place for themselves in the new unit, thereby helping them to make a successful transition.

One of the important elements of creating relationships at work was mentorship. Mentorship has been an area of increasing study; however, as with many terms in common usage, there have been disputes over its definition (Dawson, 2014). While there are many dimensions to it, mentorship can be viewed as centring on career or psychosocial elements (Thomas, Lunsford, & Rodrigues, 2015). Mentorship is an important part of starting an academic position for many early career academics, which socialises them into academia and shapes academic communities (Mullen & Forbes, 2000). While psychosocial mentorship can provide benefits such as increased support and confidence, much of the benefits for career mentorship centres around increased information exchange. Thomas et al. (2015) list the benefits as including: informal communication with mentors, increased knowledge about the tenure process, feedback about research, and increased understanding about shared issues. Mentorship, particularly the creation of positive mentor relationships is important as satisfaction with mentorship has a positive impact on job satisfaction and turnover intentions for faculty members (Xu & Payne, 2014). Early career academics build networks for their personal and career development, typically consisting of multiple mentors who are informal and personally selected and who provide help in multiple areas related academic positions are careers (Miller, 2015). The networks built are developed through the creation of mutually supportive relations and involve quality interactions for learning.

In this study, early career academics used the term ‘mentorship’ colloquially, tending to use it to denote ongoing advice and help from someone more senior. In their descriptions, mentorship could be either about careers or psychosocial elements of the job, or both. While frequently using the term, participants differentiated it from friendships or, simply, “help.”

Some participants specifically mentioned mentorship as part of their transition. For David, he created a strong network of colleagues, friends and mentors, across Canada, whom he drew on when he was looking for a position:

> So I'm, so I haven't done this alone. And really, really early in my career did I gain those friends that sort of mentored me through that system and that transition. And they made it possible at least to have a job.

Mentorship through the process of finding a job – a challenging process – was critical for David. For Claire, her mentor helped her in the transition to an academic:

> I did happen to come across information about a mentoring program for early career researchers, and so I opted into that … We met up probably once a month, sometimes a bit less frequently, but she pointed me to things. … She also showed me some other bits and pieces and helped me strategise about how to remarket myself from a PhD student to an academic, … So the mentoring was probably the most critical thing last year.

As Claire remained at the same institution where she completed her PhD, differentiating herself from a student was important. So not only did her mentor provide her with university-specific resources, but she also helped Claire to situate herself as an academic.

Evelyn mentioned two groups of people who have been key supports for her in starting her new job:

> Yeah, I think the collaboration amongst the new colleagues and I is going to be really key to survival. That's how I'm feeling. It's really beautiful to have the mentoring of senior people in my department … and that's been critical. But it's also that close collaboration with the new hires that are going through a similar experience in terms of being overwhelmed.

She differentiates between her newly hired colleagues and her mentors (senior colleagues). While both are important relationships, they serve different functions. At times, mentors served specific roles or helped with satisfying particular information needs. Madeline sought out specific advice from mentors around how to handle difficult students:

> So I've had conversations with mentors about the, I can see problems coming and it's like, "What do I do to help the students navigate this? … what do I need to do to make sure that this process is as fair as it possibly can be and then if the student still falls down, it's their responsibility?" Yeah, it's been good to have people to speak to in the department about this.

Each university has its own rules, processes, and expectations. Going to more senior colleagues for help in how to either prevent problems, or to deal with them once they've arisen, was quite common for early career academics. David speaks about using mentorship in teaching in a very similar way:

> So you learn, but these are the people that actually told me how to handle those situation. And I find myself lucky because I do have a sort of cohort of senior mentors that are there and sort of tell me, "Okay, you should do this, you should do that." And I feel totally comfortable to go see them and say like, "I have that problem. What do you think?"

It is key that David feels comfortable going to them to ask them for advice. It is important that a relationship is developed and that, particularly, the mentee feels that they can go to a more senior colleague and ask for help or advice.

Not having mentorship was, for some, a problem and something that they found lacking. For some, assigning a mentor was unsuccessful. A relationship didn't develop and mentorship did not take place. This was the case for Nicole, as she described,

> There's supposed to be a cross-university mentorship program. I've seen it online. Maybe some departments do it. But I've read the documents that are online on this. No one told me about it. I asked someone to be my mentor inside of this but he doesn't really do anything or contact me and check in on me or anything. So it's not really any different than any of the other relationships that I'm creating where I go and I ask for what I need.

Nicole was looking for a more active mentor but found that the onus was on her in their interactions. This was also the case for Tom, a 38 year-old Canadian academic in the humanities. He described,

> I think at one point I was assigned a mentor but nothing ever came of the mentoring. But I don't have a problem going and asking a senior colleague about, "What do you think about this, this, and this?" I don't really mind doing that. So that's what I would end up doing most of the time.

For both Tom and Nicole, they can ask for what they need. However, this is not mentorship. A successful mentorship requires mutual responsibility for the relationship; it is not up to one person to either engage or ask for what they need. But with unsuccessful mentorship programs, the "mentor" simply becomes another person who may be contacted. The literature supports the idea

that formal mentorship may be unsuccessful (Green et al., 2008; Mullen & Forbes, 2000). Positive outcomes of mentorship depend on the quality of the mentoring relationship, rather than the presence of a mentor or the type of relationship (formal or informal) (Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000).

When relationships were not developed with colleagues or were strained, this also demonstrated the importance of these collegial relationships for early career academics. Jesse is an excellent example of this. Right out of his PhD, Jesse got a tenure-track job and moved across the country. His department was filled with colleagues who, while impressive scholars and "nice people," they were,

> in a different place where they're not super interested in mentorship, they're interested in their families and going home at the end of the day and working with the people they've worked with for the last 30 years and so it was very different. So they're not interested in having department meetings or going for beers on Friday just for the informal socialisation stuff.

Having colleagues at a similar point in careers, the ability to share research or career development, is an asset for early career academics; not having colleagues at a similar stage can be a source of dissatisfaction (Murray, 2008). Jesse went on to discuss how this new department did not have the social events he was used to having, the "informal social stuff that really gets you in and feeling supported." This was a major issue for him:

> But it was very jarring because you're in a new city, and I did all my degrees here, so everything was here for me. And my girlfriend was back here and so I was out there with no support, trying to figure it out, just very burned out from, I think I defended my dissertation on June 24th and left for Ontario on June 26th and started on July 1st, or July 2nd for my job. So it was all very overwhelming and there was not a lot of support or anything like that.

Jesse left that institution after a year for another tenure-track position.

For David, not having colleagues to engage with around research was a source of dissatisfaction. David's position was in an undergraduate institution with a higher teaching load. This context was a significant shift, as his doctoral studies took place at a much larger institution. Unlike the network of colleagues he developed during his doctoral studies – centred on research, mentorship, and

friendship – David did not find similar connections with his colleagues in his current position:

> And of course most of them have younger kids, which creates a weird situation, right? Most of the institutions I've been before, there's a stratification of profs, right? So there's the senior prof where their kids are 20, so they're available for a beer. And they're available to discuss and, you know. Whereas here, most of my colleagues are my age, right? So they all have, like, young kids. So they don't have time for either research or to spend time.

David, with colleagues who did not have time to socialise and without sharing a research connection, did not develop collegial relationships. For him, this led to a certain amount of work dissatisfaction and looking outside of his current context to his previously established network of colleagues, who were both research colleagues and friends. Relying on previously established networks of colleagues and mentors at a distance is common for early career academics (Mullen & Forbes, 2000). The most valuable "information relationships" tend to develop when bonding occurs over commonalities outside work (Cross & Sproull, 2004). When the deepening of relationships takes place over shared interests, more productive information relationships develop.

Marie, a 30 year-old Australian academic in the social sciences, also had a position at a university that had a very different culture than where she did her doctorate, being primarily an undergraduate and distance institution. Because it was distance, Marie wanted to go back to her home city more frequently. Marie perceived that this was not well received by her colleagues and interpreted by them as "not wanting to be here and looking for work elsewhere." She went on to describe,

> And that can create tension and it's really quite suffocating because you're here to work and then people sometimes interfere with your personal decisions, what you do on weekends, where you go, and this fear that you're going to quit. And that changes a little bit of the relationship in terms of going to ask this kind of person anything, … at times I've felt like I can't ask it … It can be interpreted as me not knowing because I'm not interested. So the relationships have changed in a span of months.

This appeared to be the culmination of a decline of collegial relations. From an information behaviour point of view, what is most concerning is that Marie no

longer felt able to ask questions of her colleagues. Her colleagues were no longer a source of information in her information seeking. Rather she is “not seeking for information or asking questions as much.”

The importance of creating relationships with senior colleagues and receiving mentorship is great for early career academics. Informal mentorship of early career academics happens with great frequency, requiring a lot of time and effort on the part of senior colleagues. Unless mentorship takes place in a formal, university-created program, it goes unrecognised on annual reports and CVs. It is something the audit-culture focused university does not monitor. Senior colleagues, therefore, mentor because they choose to do but get no formal recognition or workload allocation. These collegial relationships facilitate the flow of information to early career academics and are the basis for receiving support from colleagues.

Collegial relationships, and the resulting support from colleagues, are important to early career academics who recognise and appreciate the time, effort, and information that colleagues provide. Relationships (including friendship) have a large influence on source selection, increasing information exchange where positive relationships exist (Hertzum, 2014; MacKenzie, 2005) and causing avoidance when colleagues are found to be unpleasant (Hertzum, 2014). In fact, without pre-existing relationships, obtaining useful information from authoritative sources (e.g., senior colleagues, chairs/heads of department, university administrators) can be difficult (Cross & Sproull, 2004). In some studies of early career academics’ experience, lack of support from senior colleagues has been a major issue (e.g., Boice, 1992), while good collegial relationships can be a predictor of success (Murray, 2008). Working together through formal collaborations or informal discussions is one of the benefits of established relationships.

“Bouncing Ideas”

In addition to collegial relationships and support, participants described specific ways of working with their colleagues. One of the ways of working

they described involved the phrase "bouncing ideas off" of other people. This particular wording came up repeatedly in the interviews and was used to describe interacting with colleagues about an issue or idea. However, descriptions of the process and the terms "ping ponging" and "hash out" were also used. The phrase "bouncing ideas" evokes the image of someone taking a ball, throwing it, and catching the ball on its return. In thinking about its use by participants, it describes an idea being presented to a colleague; the idea is discussed and actively worked on or with (which can include testing out, adding to, and/or modifying); the process of active engagement about the idea is repeated; and then the early career academic takes the idea away for further work or implementation. It describes a way of socially and actively working out ideas or issues. What is important is that the idea is not presented in a unidirectional way, but it is worked on in the space between colleagues, with both contributing expertise and ideas, despite one colleague initiating the discussion. It is not simply information seeking; there is active give and take, an active contribution, an addition or modification. This idea has similarities to brainstorming. Brainstorming is "[a] means of generating ideas, often by a group of people, whereby immediate responses are written down and collected uncritically and without editing so as not to impede the creative process" (Wallace, 2015). It consists of uninhibited discussion, which may or may not take place in a group and which may or may not be spontaneous. The purpose is to produce as many ideas as possible, which are interrogated in more depth at a later time. In contrast, "bouncing ideas" is not simply to generate ideas, though this can be a part of the process, but to collaboratively and in a more focused, in-depth way concentrate on an idea or on viable solutions. An idea is worked on, modified, and passed back and forth between individuals. "Bouncing ideas" is inherently social, though it may not be a partnership where both have equal stake in the work nor a shared project. The "partner" receiving the "bounced idea" ranged from peers, to senior scholars, to supervisors. In this way, "bouncing ideas" is a social constructionist form of information use, as ideas are constructed versions produced through dialogue between people (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997).

Early career academics described this type of engagement with relative frequency, indicating that, for some, it is an important way of working. Leanne, in linking this way of working to collaboration, recognised the difference between a formal collaboration and "bouncing ideas" off of colleagues as a way of working together:

> But I think I'll be happy to work collaboratively for the rest of my life, really. It's not just doing something completely on my own. It's not something that I really aspire. Even if you do something on your own you can bounce things off your colleagues and it just how the most successful ideas are born.

Leanne views this collegial way of working as having significant benefit. But with that benefit, "bouncing ideas" also comes with a toll. This way of working takes time, ideas and energy. Some participants specifically made mention of the feeling of indebtedness that came from "bouncing ideas". Madeline discussed the benefit of working collaboratively, as well as the need to feel comfortable with colleagues in order for this exchange to take place:

> What it is, is that you actually spend more time bouncing ideas off of and I usually think that it makes the final product better. But this also means that I have to feel comfortable soliciting feedback from other people. But the nice thing about being in a collegial department is that you build up good will and … just by not being a jerk people are prepared to do you favours, right? And so if I read something for somebody, then they might read one of my things.

Madeline discusses information exchanges that take place in collaborations and between colleagues, both requiring a level of comfort and collegiality. Reciprocity is a part of what makes Madeline comfortable with the requests for feedback or to "bounce ideas." Leanne also discussed the need for reciprocity when "bouncing ideas." She used the term to describe information exchanges in her current position, as well as during her doctoral studies. She discussed recognising contributions of other doctoral students, particularly as they were not formal collaborators, and made efforts to ensure there was reciprocity:

> And when I was teaching, and last year when I was teaching for first time, I was constantly bouncing ideas off others. You know, how to grade this paper. But I offer, I tried to offer something in exchange too.

Leanne went on to talk about how the doctoral students would exchange ideas about teaching and offer to guest lecture in one another's classes. In order to maintain "information relationships, " proactive sharing of information or opportunities must take place, which relies, to a certain extent, on reciprocity (Cross & Sproull, 2004).

Leanne was not the only person to describe "bouncing ideas" during their doctoral studies. Niels, a 32 year-old academic in an Australian philosophy department, also went to his colleagues when he first started teaching:

> And you guess you can just ask your peers, right? ... I just ask people from philosophy. So what should I do now? Or after this situation, how do I deal with it? Right? I've got this issue with a student, how would you handle it? And then I guess you can bounce off the replies you would get. You can follow them or you can modify them, you can choose to ignore them, right?

Asking for help, for materials, and to work out ideas was common in regards to teaching. Niels described the array of outcomes that can come from "bouncing ideas," giving more choice in how to respond to the issue. Ben used this type of collegial engagement to address "questions or issues," specifically mentioning a colleague who had started just prior to his arrival and a senior colleague in the department:

> And then other kinds of questions or issues, I'd usually bounce things off [Colleague A] or [Colleague B], often. So sometimes I'd say, you know, "I've got a question about this. Do you think this will work as an assignment?" And, "Oh, why don't you tinker with that a little bit," or something.

Rather than an instance of information seeking, Claire's mention of "bouncing ideas" came from a discussion with a colleague from industry. While Claire viewed him as the expert, their exchange was one in which her view of herself changed. Several times Claire talked about having confidence in her work and positioning herself as novice. The collegial exchange about the project led to a change in how she viewed herself in relation to her colleague:

> And I worked out halfway through the meeting that he wasn't expecting

> that of me but it was that space of being able to just talk openly and then bouncing ideas and then I tried to bring it back to, well how can this project help this. So within that, I suppose my sense of who I was, it was changing as I, because I sort of see him as the expert.

The "space" that was created between Claire and her colleague allowed them to talk openly and share ideas. It is almost as if coming together for conversation about a shared topic creates a temporary space, I think of a squash court, in which to exchange ideas. This is not a formal collaboration that extends over time, but rather something akin to Fisher's information grounds (Pettigrew, 1999; Fisher & Naumer, 2006).

Seth also found "bouncing ideas" a valuable way to exchange information in his doctoral studies. He began by describing the social interactions in his research lab and then talked about getting to know students from other labs,

> So you had some interaction there and some sort of support there, but also in the coursework those that are sort of moving through with you tend to do the same subjects around the same time, so you get to know those in other labs as well, even though it's still a bit siloed when you get to your research, there's still a little bit of collaboration there in that you can bounce ideas off each other.

Later, Seth again described going for coffee with two good friends and "bouncing ideas off each other for research." The ability to share research ideas with friends was a way to break out of the research silos and interact with peers. That this interaction took place with friends was something also something mentioned by Niels, who used the term "ping ponging":

> So it tends to be, with for instance [Colleague A], I mean we were on a pint, we were just ping ponging. We did most of this stuff in a café. So we would meet, we both live, I lived up in [Neighbourhood] for a while and we'd both hang out, we'd just sort of jump from one café to the next and we'd be writing. And we finished half of the paper actually in Amsterdam over beers. So in that sense it was awesome.

In Niels' discussion, the mix of the social and the academic was very prominent. The meeting in social, non-academic spaces and the sharing of food (or beers) seemed to facilitate this easy exchange of ideas. This social facilitation (and sharing of food) was also part of Madeline's experience. She described, during her PhD, a move to a building where the colleagues from the same discipline

were close together, including a senior academic for whom she worked as a teaching assistant:

> So I, once we all got into the centre, I was also his TA, once we were in there, so I felt comfortable going to him … and say, "I'm trying to do this. This is the roadblock I've hit. What would you do?" … The engineers would sell cheap ice cream and in the summer he would come to our office and be like, "Who needs ice cream?" You could just totally tell that like, in the afternoons we would sometimes have these days and on the walk you'd bounce ideas off of each other and that was fine.

Madeline describes how "bouncing ideas" came about, through interactions aided by the relationship she cultivated with the senior academic, facilitated through proximity, working together, and aspects of social engagement (i.e., food, spending time together, discussion). Her description also demonstrates how her comfort level with this senior academic led her to seek information and advice from him, as well as informal sense making.

Interestingly, when doing a literature search to determine if this term "bouncing ideas" had been used in the information science literature, I discovered the term was not used by the researchers but by their participants. Searching the information science literature for the term returned many articles in which participants were quoted, "bouncing ideas" (e.g., Baxter, Marcella, & Illingworth, 2010; Foster & Urquhart, 2012; Haider, 2011; Howard, 2011; Jasimuddin, Connell, & Klein, 2006; JISC & British Library, 2012; Koh, 2013; Lloyd, 2009; Sugimoto, 2012; Tsai, 2012). The participants in these information science studies range from the general public to cottage owners to teens to businesspeople to ambulance officers to undergraduate students to academics.

It can be challenging to understand the meaning and significance of a term like "bouncing ideas," which is used in everyday conversations. Within this term there are aspects of interaction, social exchange, information sharing, collaboration, and co-creation of knowledge. "Bouncing ideas" shares some aspects of what Koh refers to as remixing, "building on and making a creative change to the original information or projects," (p. 1832) which is form of "collaborative creation" in which people "build upon, alter, and transform others' ideas" (p. 1834). While Koh was looking at digital remixing, the principles can be applied to the analogue world. The main difference is in the

altering of ideas, rather than digital projects. In examining the literature on "knowledge creation," Suorsa and Huotari (2014) state that it is "focused on human relationships and actions" (p. 1046). Knowledge creation shares aspects of communication. It is an interaction that can be viewed as movement, a basis for communities, and dialogue between people (p. 1047). In extending McKenzie's model of information practices, Yeoman (2010) adds the dimension of "interaction," stating that "interaction permits the discussion to move beyond information seeking and finding into what happens once interaction with a source of information has been initiated" (para. 28). By including interaction, this helps to account for information exchange. The argument can be made that "bouncing ideas" is a form of information use accomplished through interaction, more specifically of co-creation of knowledge. "Bouncing ideas" can be viewed as a form of knowledge creation, which builds upon what has come before it through collaborative interaction with others.

Propinquity: Physical proximity facilitating information flow

As early career academics highlighted the role their colleagues played during transition, they also discussed factors that facilitated or hindered exchanging information. Often, when talking about how they found information, participants not only discussed their colleagues, they also discussed their physical location. At points in the interviews, when describing how they figured something out, participants would point to the location of their colleagues' offices or where the professional staff was located, indicating the importance of physical location. For example, Leanne, in talking about mentor, explained to me, "I'm pointing here because this is his office." This happened quite frequently. I was reminded of the propinquity effect, a concept found in various disciplines including social psychology and human geography. Propinquity has to do with nearness, typically physical proximity. The propinquity effect is the "tendency of individuals to form close relationships with people they repeatedly encounter" (APA, 2015, p. 846). Physical proximity facilitates repeated

encounters and the building of collegial relationships, which is tied up with information exchange. This is an example of an information practice in McKenzie's (2003) model, active scanning. In this practice individuals "found or deliberately placed themselves in resource-rich environments, or information grounds" (McKenzie, 2003, p. 29). Being in an office located near to colleagues puts individuals in a location that resource-rich, providing opportunities to ask spontaneous questions.

Early career academics discussed the information exchanges that took place with their colleagues, often mentioning hallways and open office doors in their descriptions. Being located near to colleagues allowed early career academics to quickly and easily go to their colleagues for help. Jason describes this ease of finding information, which was a change for him. Before he was hired to his current long-term contract and living in another city, Jason was hired as an adjunct to teach a couple of online classes from a distance. He contrasted his experience:

> But I notice, one of the really nice things about actually being here rather than when I was online before is that if I had a minor question before I would have to send a formal email about it. And that was really frustrating and often really time consuming. I felt like I was just always emailing people. Whereas here it's, now, it's no bother to just put your head in someone's door and say, "Oh, could you help me with this for a second?" And yeah, people have been very good with that.

Questions, often of a very practical nature, can be easily answered by going to colleagues down the hall. Not only did Jason appreciate not having to send a formal email, but he also discussed the importance of picking up things from colleagues who were close by:

> So there's that kind of just informal stuff that you pick up. And now I know what to do if it happens again but I was never going to find that explanation on the website. Yeah, having that person down the hallway is really helpful.

For Jason, colleagues could help him solve his information needs in a way that a website could not. Rather than intentionally seeking information, being located near to colleagues means that he bumps into useful information. In a new work environment, it is not possible to know everything that one needs to

know; therefore active information seeking may not solve all of one's information needs.

When Ben discussed what he found useful when he first arrived he said, "tacit knowledge, my co-workers up and down the hall." He mentioned his colleagues at several points in the first interview, including a colleague he knew from his doctoral studies, saying they "knew each other quite well and have no problem working together or chit chatting and she's right next door too, so it's very convenient." He appreciated the convenience of having colleagues close by as he could talk to them and ask questions. Ease of access to colleagues and the convenience physical proximity provides is a factor in facilitating information exchanges.

While Jason and Ben described seeking out colleagues close by, Evelyn talked about her colleagues dropping by her office:

> [Colleague A will] just pop by, come sit down and say, "How are you doing? Are you okay?" So that has been amazing. Two doors down has been another amazing mentor, [Colleague B], she's, I think I was 2 days on the job and she popped in, she said, "Don't want to overwhelm you, but would you consider coming to my graduate class today?"

The physical proximity of her colleagues allows them to drop into her office. She felt welcomed and embraced by her colleagues, who demonstrated their support partially through visiting her office, as well as through inviting her into their classrooms to share her research. These drop-ins allow her to build on relationships, as well as to exchange information.

Depictions of colleagues popping into offices, sticking their heads in the doors, and meting in hallways are reminiscent of Fisher's (Pettigrew, 1999; Fisher, Landry, & Naumer, 2007) information grounds. The primary purpose of being at work is not information sharing. However, being at work creates a social atmosphere "that fosters the spontaneous and serendipitous sharing of information" (Pettigrew, 1999, p. 811). Information sharing is the by-product of social interaction (Fisher, 2005). While information exchange can be expected at a workplace, being located physically near one another creates opportunities for social interaction, which result in information exchange. Often there are elements of unexpected information finding, suggestive of Erdelez's (1997; 2005) information encountering. While sometimes a colleague will pop into an

office to ask a question, often the meeting is by chance or for some other purpose, and information exchange happens opportunistically. The physical space, the nearness of colleagues, facilitates the flow of information.

Tim, when asked about how he interacts with his colleagues, responded by describing informal interactions facilitated by the layout of the building:

> Yeah, pops in my office all the time. See [Colleague A is] around there, so it's straightforward. Geography of this building is laid out very well for popping in and out and we only have formal meetings once every, oh, four weeks roughly, and it's informal at that.

Tim's colleague had an office just across the hall and he was very aware that the physical layout of the building facilitates interactions between himself and his colleagues. More than that, the physical layout facilitates information exchange. He described this as,

> They're doing a pretty clever thing, especially [Colleague B], in that he pops down just to chat about something which is on his mind which may or may not be directly affecting my work or his, just an issue or whatever it is at the time. And then it becomes an opportunity for me to ask him a question.

Engagement with colleagues at the office is, for many, an important part of the job. It becomes a part of the culture. Seth discussed his department culture through describing the physical set up. "It's very open door here, which is fantastic. Everyone typically sits with their door open and it's not uncommon for people just poke their heads in either to ask a question or just to say hi."

Participants also indicated when lack of physical proximity or physical space hindered collegial interactions. Claire discussed the feeling of lack of connectedness to colleagues who chose not to come into the university:

> [W]e've had a few new starters here, who for whatever reason don't like their office and hardly ever come in. And even though they've been here now for 8 months, actually more than that, they started last year, it's really quite noticeable how they're not connected to our group and like even just sitting and having a coffee, … but you have these conversations and they're not partaking in any of that.

Not being physically located close means that the incidental conversations and socialising over coffee do not happen. Collegial relationships are stunted. While this was an issue for Claire because her colleagues chose not to be physically

present at the office, for Fredric, having colleagues in different parts of the building made socialising more difficult:

> I think it could be closer than what it is. I think it would be nice if we had more, I don't know, more often lunches together or tea breaks or so on. But that's, I think, also to do that we are [in] different sections of the building, not everybody [in] the office is close to each other. So, that's not so easy and then when you meet colleagues, I don't want to always ask questions because it's just a nuisance, I know that. Yeah, so there's some interact.

Fredric makes the observation that he's reluctant to be always asking colleagues when they meet and that this is an issue when you have colleagues you don't see frequently. Just as Fredric was physically distant from some of his colleagues, Casey was physically separated from all of her colleagues who were located on different floors:

> I'm the only one who located on this level. Most of them are on level 6. Some of them are level 4, 5. I'm the only one here. So it's both good and not good. [laughs] It's far from the department and but I try my best to go upstairs quite often to meet and chat with people. And yeah, I think I actively do so because if you don't, they won't come downstairs and especially during this time, everyone is so busy.

Casey felt removed from colleagues, having to make a special trip to go to another floor in order to interact with them. At the time of our first interview, she had been in the job approximately eight weeks, a time when information needs are high and it is important to be able to ask questions of one's colleagues.

For Nicole, rather than being located away from colleagues, her issues stemmed from the lack of communal space in her building:

> And there are not a lot of places to hang out in my building, so there isn't a lot of feeling of everyday collaboration that people kind of hang out and have time. There's no like faculty lounge where you bump into people and say hey and that kind of thing. So both feels alone and yet not isolated.

Nicole recognises that communal spaces facilitate collaboration and socialisation. So while Nicole has office space, she does not have collegial space. The collegial space that Nicole desires is reminiscent of a "third space," there solely for the purpose of sociability (Oldenburg & Brissett, 1982). Taking this interaction outside the workspace to one that is neither work or home, a "third space" (Oldenburg & Brissett, 1982) is one that has been recognised as

having beneficial effects on hierarchical relationships (Hemer, 2012). Third spaces are characterised by being neutral and informal; taking interactions into these spaces, as in the case of doctoral supervision, can be "humanising" (Hemer, 2012, p. 834). Informality and social actions, such as drinking coffee with others, can help develop academic relationships (Hemer, 2012).

As noted by Fayard and Weeks (2007), propinquity affords informal interactions, which, they note in their review of the literature, promote cooperation and social networks within organisations. Specifically, Fayard and Weeks look at photocopiers and their social affordances as gathering spots, which support important informal interactions. This has implications for all academics. Academics engaging in tele-work – also called telecommuting, remote work, or e-academics – are increasing in number, particularly in institutions that provide online distance education (Kanuka, Jugdev, Heller, & West, 2008). While working from a distance has obvious implications for the academic at a distance, there are implications for those who remain in the traditional office. The traditional office environment and collegial interactions within that environment are impacted, including a decrease in satisfaction with co-workers the more co-workers are working remotely (Golden, 2007). Schulte (2015) describes her experience as an academic working remotely that include several of the challenges expressed by participants, such as difficulty in communicating, lack of physical/psychological contact, and missing social activities. The literature points to the challenges in being located physically distant from colleagues, challenges that particularly affect social interaction and cohesion with colleagues.

The ways participants described receiving information and help from their colleagues – i.e., through social networks, collegial support, and mentorship – are more difficult at a distance. In failing to provide communal space and allowing academics to work flexibly and from different locations, universities do not always take into account the impact this has on collegial relationships, collaborations, and information exchange, particularly for early career academics. However, many academics use the advantages of the physical space they have to promote collegial engagement. This is particularly true of

more senior academics who often "drop in" or "pop by" to check on early career academics.

Informality: Everyday interactions facilitating information flow

The degree of formality in exchanging information was another factor influencing the flow of information. In discussing how they found information, early career academics frequently used the terms "formal" and "informal." Literature on organisational learning has contrasted "formal" and "informal" learning, with informal learning often being unplanned (Berg & Chyung, 2008). However, there are elements of formal learning in informal learning and vice versa; formal and informal learning are inter-related (Malcolm, Hodkinson, & Colley, 2003). Often learning that takes place about everyday activities and without set locations, times, and curricula are considered "informal" (Malcolm et al., 2003). As mentioned, the majority of participants preferred gathering information from colleagues to reading documents; part of this preference was for informal exchanges of information. Often, when describing receiving information from their colleagues, they talked about the exchanges being informal, that discussions tended to be quick, unplanned, and/or resulting from someone dropping by their office. This aspect of informality was demonstrated in the previous section, as participants described the "popping in" and "poking your head in the door" that happens when colleagues are located physically close. These descriptions are descriptions of informal interactions. Informal learning is important to organisations as more new knowledge is gained from informal learning than formal training (Berg & Chyung, 2008). This is important in academia as collegial assistance is described as "informal" (Murray, 2008). Finding information informally is related of McKenzie's (2003) information practices model, specifically non-directed monitoring. This practice includes serendipitous encounters of all kinds, chatting with acquaintances and picking up information. Everyday, informal interactions with colleagues allows for early career academics to monitor what is happening in

the department by chatting with colleagues regularly and without even asking questions.

Tim, in the previous section, described the geography of his building facilitating interactions with his colleagues, saying the "… geography of this building is laid out very well for popping in and out and we only have formal meetings once every, oh, four weeks roughly, and it's informal at that." He described these interactions as informal, when colleagues are "popping in and out" of each other's offices, as opposed to the set staff meetings. The "geography" of the building not only facilitates interaction, but informal contact. Ben also contrasted formal and informal meetings. He discussed an issue that came up for which he had to call a formal meeting of the department. He compared this with how he typically gathered information to make decisions,

> … often jump into an office and if you can catch two people, particularly [Colleague A, Colleague B, or Colleague C], because they're the most senior faculty, "Oh, there's two of you here. I can ask two of you at once and then that settles it." But this decision was kind of much more formal, I guess, and certainly is precedent setting, to use the term, so we did want to call the whole faculty meeting rather than just have me go around and go to the door.

Not having the opportunities to have these informal conversations with colleagues was a problem. Jesse had spent a year in a tenure-track job previous to his current employment. He mentioned that his colleagues were very senior and, while excellent scholars and friendly, they were not interested in mentoring. Jesse contrasted speaking to the department manager and to his colleagues:

> [S]o basically I'd just email the department manager and say, "Who do I talk to about this?" And then she'd tell me and then I'd call that person. So that was fine but some of them were informal stuff, was actually difficult because everyone was so busy being there, doing their own thing, sometimes you knock on people's door and they're like, "Oh, I don't have time," or whatever, which was tough. … [I]t takes a couple of months to identify the people that you can go to ask where to go for things.

Jesse describes the difficulty in finding informal information in that situation. Not even knowing where to go to for information is common when people first arrive. Often, people turn to their colleagues. When they cannot do this, the

small, informal questions that people have about the day-to-day working of their jobs are not answered easily. Jesse went on to discuss how he spent a lot of time trying to do things for himself, including getting an ID card, ordering textbooks, and setting up his computer. He mentioned having tried to search online but "there wasn't really a lot of online resources that I could find there, actually the website was pretty out of date and not good." Rather than describing how he eventually figured things out, he was specific about what did not work. Claire, who was given little by way of induction, described how she finds everyday information. "When I feel strongly enough, I'll ask for help. I don't always do so and I waste some time doing the intranet searches or just ignoring it." Participants, when they really need information, will find it in other ways; when they don't feel they really need it or it is not urgent, may ignore it.

While Jesse had difficulties finding day-to-day information from his colleagues, David, in describing his first position in which he had a three-year contract, discussed how he obtained information from his colleagues:

> But for me it felt as if, just a junior scholar handling things that they've seen before. And then like, "What would you do in that situation?" But it wasn't like formal and directed and, you know, I have five questions and these are it. And you're going to answer three and two. It wasn't like that. It was really me going into an office talk, talk, talk. Then say, like, "What do you think about that?"

In the process of having a conversation, David was able to ask questions of his colleagues. Those conversations facilitated the answering of specific questions.

Some participants contrasted the informal nature of the exchange to that of formal meetings and official policy documentation. When asked about where the conversations about his work were taking place, Jason replied,

> Staff meetings. Just in the hallway, you know. Generally informal, quite informal situations. Our staff meetings are fairly informal, actually. There's only a small group of us. I haven't had, it's not like I've had a formal conversation with the head of school about things like enrolment issues.

Jason attributes some of the informality to being in a small department but they are also located along one hallway, meaning that this collocation with his peers allows them to run into one another and have hallway conversations. Jason

appreciated the easy and accessible way of conversing with their colleagues, without the need for making appointments, having a written record of exchanges, or reading through policy documents to determine applicability. Jason not only contrasted the formal and informal meetings, but he also contrasted what it was like to work his university online versus working in person (mentioned previously). He describes the difference in gathering information:

> Because I think often having to write the formal email, kind of putting it in writing, is often just a bit unnecessary with these more informal questions, especially if you don't necessarily want there to be a record of you inquiring about some particular thing. It might be embarrassing that you don't know the answer to this question or … it just needs a kind of a yes or no answer or, "What do you think I should do in this situation?" Because there is … always like the official answer and then there's the, "Well here's how it actually works" situation.

Not only are many kinds of information sought informal, which is mismatched with the formal style of email, but formal, written communication leaves a record that Jason didn't want. There is an aspect of "safety" that comes from not having to put potentially embarrassing questions into print. Miller (2015) found that early career academics discussed formal, informal, and non-formal interactions with colleagues, but that informal interactions were clearly the most important for learning.

The best "information relationships" (Cross & Sproull, 2004) have a personal aspect, which creates the feeling of safety. This feeling of safety within the relationship allows individuals to "ask dumb questions" and learn more about areas with which they are unfamiliar (Cross & Sproull, 2004, p. 449). Jason also points to a benefit of informal, in-person communication – the "how it actually works" information versus the "official answer." Jason seems to value getting what could be considered 'insider' knowledge, rather than relying on official policies. Some of the information needed to determine how things "actually work" may be non-routine, in which circumstance individuals prefer people as expert information sources (Hertzum, 2014).

The benefit of informal information interactions contrasts with problems of university communication, providing no information, information at the wrong level, or too much information. It also shares commonalities with the

positive experiences early career academics had with university information, it being personalised for the individual and involving an interaction with colleagues. So while universities may attempt to formalise mentor relationships and produce induction programs that provide comprehensive documents and checklists, the ability to engage informally aids information exchange. In their drive for Systematic Managerial Constraints, universities can try to legislate what information people receive and when. This changes information exchanges into "tick box" exercises, rather than natural conversations and questions between colleagues. While formal programs are often good, particularly for newly hired academics who may not yet know what questions to ask, informal information exchanges are an important part of the ongoing process of fitting into a new environment.

Early career academics have high information needs, particularly when they first start in a new position. They also recognise their colleagues as a major source of that information. Colleagues featured heavily in participants' descriptions of where they went for information. Similar to the managers studied by Mackenzie (2004), early career academics must gain entry into the information network within the university, especially the network within their school or department. Early career academics recognise that they need information in order to accomplish their work, asking for help, clarification, advice, templates, and specific questions of their colleagues. This finding confirms Hopwood and Sutherland's (2009) finding that the skill to build and effectively make use of a social network, as well as "knowing how to know whom to ask for help" (p. 217) so that information needs are met, is key for doctoral students and early career academics.

The interactions between early career academics and their colleagues were not just discrete informational exchanges, but part of broader social interactions. These actions, as part of fitting or socialising into their new information environment, help academics gain entry to information networks. In Mackenzie's (2004) study, managers who gained access to the information network found that "others in the organization would customarily share unsolicited information" (p. 187). This is similar to McKenzie's (2003) information practice of receiving information by proxy. In the current study,

senior colleagues tended to use the sharing of unsolicited information as a way to help early career academics enter the information network. Bound up with this sharing of information, more senior academics offer early career academics acceptance into the academic unit and some of the power that comes with that information. However, early career academics are not simply the recipients of information and help. Information sharing was often bidirectional. Early career acaddmics are actively engaged in the creation and maintenance of relationships, as well as behaving in collegial ways, providing information, advice, and help to their colleagues and peers in turn.

Information sharing and information exchanges also aided in the establishment of collegial relationships, which in turn aided further information sharing. Colleagues pop in and out of each other's offices; they go for beers; they bounce ideas off of one another; they work actively with colleagues in formal or informal collaborations; they provide support. Working together and interacting day-to-day lead to the formation of workplace relationships (Mackenzie, 2004). Academics were frequently involved in the work and social lives of the colleagues in their department and more sporadically involved in the work and social lives of colleagues located at a distance. The part that colleagues play in the professional (and sometimes the personal) lives of early career academics can be difficult to pinpoint as the impact of ongoing, social interactions can be difficult to gauge. However, through the information sharing, collaboration, social inclusion, and socialising that they provide for early career academics, colleagues are an integral part to the shaping of academics' information behaviour.

Beyond this, collegial interactions continue to reinforce how academia is performed and to demonstrate how academia is performed within the culture of a specific academic unit. Early career academics come into their positions with a disciplinary and contextual understanding of "how to be an academic" that is fostered during their doctoral studies. However, in a new context and in a new role, how academia is performed must be renegotiated. Do colleagues drop into one another's office? Is unsolicited information shared? Do colleagues socialise? Collegial interactions contribute to early career academics' understanding of their jobs in this way. This is in stark contrast to the way in

which Systemic Managerial Constraints frame academic work. Colleagues may discuss how to accomplish administrative work, such as the advice given to Evelyn by her colleagues, "'Oh don't bother with that, just do this,' they sort of get to the meat of it." However, their discussions centre on how to get through the administrative work, work despite SMC or around it. They discuss and demonstrate what it is to be an academic.

Settling in: Mediating between the known and the unknown

Early career academics come to academic positions with a wealth of knowledge, training, and, often, a significant amount of experience in research and/or teaching. Much of the activity in making the transition from doctoral studies to a permanent job (or long-term contract) is about settling in, taking what they have learned and what they have done, and putting that into practice in their new environment. However, the roles they undertake and the types of activities that they are required to do may be appreciably different from work they have previously undertaken. This often includes activities such as writing grants, coordinating courses, service work, and, as was often highlighted, administrative work. As doctoral students, early career academics are not exposed to the same managerial controls, with the accompanying tasks required by these managerial controls that are imposed upon full-time academics. Early career academics must mediate between what they know – and that which they have experienced – and that which they do not know. It is at this point that early career academics are in a liminal space. Liminality comes at the time when "the reality of living in a new society becomes manifest as an individual begins to deal with the tedious activities of daily living" (Baird, 2012, p. 258). This requires recognition of what they have previously done, what their current situation requires, and putting information they have (either newly acquired or from previous experience) into use. Issues arise about the expectations they

have of the job, based on their training and experience, as well as their beliefs about how their doctoral studies prepared them for that job.

The research questions that this theme addresses are: 1a) During transition, what are the information practices in which academics engage?; 1b) What are academics' perceptions of the change in their information practices (needs, seeking, use), if any, during transition?; and 1c) What are academics' perceptions of the change in their information environment? This theme will begin by exploring early career academics' expectations of the job, along with their perceptions of their preparedness for the job, based on their doctoral studies and casual academic experiences. Next, the differences between the previous experience and the current situation that early career academics identify will be discussed, including differences in belonging, responsibility, and ways of working. Lastly, the specific strategies early career academics employ to negotiate between what is known and unknown will be explored, including comparing, learning by doing, and using models.

Un/Ready: Expectations of and preparedness for academic work

Expectations of a transition influence the experience of that transition. Individuals may have knowledge about what to expect from a transition, whether from previous experience or learning from the experience of others. However, they may also have no idea of what to expect, their expectations may be unrealistic, or there may be uncertainty around new situations (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). This may be particularly true of complex and multiple transitions, transitions that may themselves transform over time. However, expectations may not be realistic, partly because expectations are typically built on prior experience, which may not be applicable to the new transition (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). In addition to expectations, "[a]nticipatory preparation facilitates the transition experience"; preparation is related to an individual's "knowledge about what to expect during a transition and what strategies may be helpful in managing it" (Meleis et al., 2000, p. 22). In the

case of transition from doctoral student to academic, preparation and expectations go hand in hand. Doctoral curricula and students' experience with academic work prepares them for the role they are stepping into and ideas of what to expect.

Expectation

Some participants had expectations that lined up relatively well with the actual job. This tended to happen for early career academics who had a lot of experience in both research and teaching during the doctoral studies. This was the case for Jason, who tutored and taught frequently:

> I feel like my expectations were pretty realistic, so did 5 years of casual work while I was doing my PhD. So I was always studying and working in the university at the same time. I spent a lot of time around people who would, you know, kind of show me what was going on, and so on.

He expressed a lot of positivity in his current role. When asked about this positivity, he attributed it this way,

> I've been trying to think of why I'm sounding so positive. I think part of it is that I have really realistic expectations of that university. Disciplines are about where the university sector as a whole is at, at the moment. I think a lot of people come into this job with a kind of fairly unrealistic view of what the work-life balance is going to be like, what their academic freedom is going to be like, what the pressure and the expectations and all the kind of stuff is going to be like. … I think sometimes their expectations get a little unrealistic about what they should be able to do and what they get to do.

However, Jason's experience was not universal. Despite their experience, some participants expressed having certain unrealistic expectations and/or did not know what to expect in a full-time continuing academic job. For many interviewees, what was unexpected was the extent to which they were busy. While all participants were busy doctoral students, the degree of the busyness and the lack of time they experienced were new. Leanne mentioned an "urban legend when you're a PhD student, you write your dissertation and you're so over-worked and then you become faculty and it's just kind of all relaxed." Nicole talked about her previous experience in being busy and multitasking, but

found that even with her experience, she was still not prepared for the difference she found when she started the job:

> So yeah, so I've found it really, really exhausting. And no one really warned me, I don't think. Or they did and I didn't hear it. That it is, there's something about being an assistant professor that somehow is like a qualitative shift. There's just something about labour that seems like it's on steroids. And maybe it's, I don't know what it is. I've never worked this hard in my life.

Nicole notes that even if she was told about the difference, she didn't hear it. Even when told about what to expect, several participants mentioned not really being able to understand the job until they experienced it for themselves.

Contributing to being busy is the additional and disparate tasks that are a part of academics' roles. Niels described this as,

> There's all of these disparate things you have to attend to, which makes it quite, which makes it more difficult to do these projects because there so many more things you have to do during the day than there was during the PhD.

Many participants talked about the unstructured nature of the PhD and having more roles and types of tasks that had to be completed. This change from long periods of unstructured time in which to focus on one major project to multiple tasks and projects was a large shift in day-to-day work that many participants experienced.

Frequently mentioned as part of these new and disparate tasks was the amount of work outside of research, teaching, and service – the administrative work required for managerial purposes. What the majority of doctoral students do not see is the administrative work created as part of managing academic work. This is a direct and pervasive consequence of SMC on the working lives of academics. Despite studying within academia, doctoral students are "outsiders" in departments and schools and do not get to see or participate in those tasks meant for "insiders." Some doctoral students were not even aware of this work. Even casual academics may never fully glimpse this work, as they remain "outsiders" from departments and schools. This aspect of the job was new even for participants who a fair amount of experience in academic roles. For Adam, who had a long-term contract at the university where he did his PhD

and worked casually, it was the amount of administrative work that was unexpected:

> I think just how much administrative stuff goes on in the department surprised me quite a lot. I thought I had a reasonably good handle on what was involved, but there is just a lot, there is a lot of administration. And I think that really surprised me.

Despite all his experience at one institution, this new role came with unexpected work. Because administrative work was not expected, early career academics did not prepare to take on those tasks. And this work can take up a significant amount of time, as Jason described:

> I guess as a casual academic staff I remember for such a long time I didn't really ever deal with that aspect of the work. So that is probably the most time consuming aspect. I mean it's supposed to be about 20% of my total but it will take up as much time as you let it take up.

Because of these added duties, Jesse was surprised at how difficult it was to find time to do "real" work:

> I wouldn't say there's a lot of surprises other than that it's very difficult to find time, like I said, just to do real work. It seems like there's, you spend a lot of time doing things that in theory you know are going to lead to success, like all the meetings and managing people and whatever and being a good citizen of the department. But in that short term I just wish I had a day to sit down and write and think about this problem that I've been having.

Academics' jobs are complex and require years of education and training. The transition from doctoral to student is challenging, with a vast number of changes and new roles and responsibilities. It is interesting, and somewhat disturbing, that administrative work should be one of the most unexpected and challenging aspects of the job. However, with decreasing amounts of support from cutbacks to professional staff and an increasing audit culture, it may not be surprising.

Preparation

The curriculum for doctoral curricula is often a contested space (e.g., Green, 2012; Tamburri, 2013). What is the purpose of doctoral studies? What should be taught? Overall, the participants in this study reported their doctoral

studies focused on research. A few participants had teaching built into their programs, but most participants had opportunities to gain teaching experience, either by teaching a class or by being a tutor/teaching assistant, if they choose to take them up. However, the majority of participants reported receiving no training for teaching. Service received less attention in doctoral programs, with no participants discussing service as part of their doctoral studies training. However, a small number of participants chose to participate in service work. This means that while doctoral students typically receive instruction and preparation in one or two of the three traditional areas of academic work – research and teaching – they are not prepared for service work, unless they choose to take it on as an extra part of their doctoral studies. Jason, who talked about "learning to be an academic," explained what he meant by saying,

> I mean time management is a big part of it. But I think it's definitely more than just the administrative stuff. … There is that stuff that doesn't really come into it as a PhD student, or at least it's optional. You don't really have to do it as PhD student. You do it for brownie points, I guess. But you know obviously now this is an expectation, you're expected to report on things, not just to attend meetings but to prepare for meetings and have things you can contribute.

The service components that were optional during the PhD are no longer an optional part of full-time continuing academic positions.

Of course participants discussed the training they received in their doctoral studies, including research training, help and support from supervisors and peers, learning from conferences. What was interesting was participants' response to the question of whether the PhD prepared them for their current job. Some definitely felt that their experience prepared them for their current role. Mark expressed feeling having a good sense of the job he was beginning as an academic:

> I think fairly well. I mean, I don't know. As a junior faculty I see my job pretty simply. I mean, it's like, I got to get pubs into A journals and teaching is something that you want to do well but you don't want to spend a lot of time on and that's base – and then you want to avoid as much kind of extra curricular stuff as you possibly can. … I mean you have these conversations with PhD students when you're in doctoral consortiums at conferences and you start to figure out that this is, you know, if you want to pursue a research career, this is what your life as a junior faculty will look like.

For Mark, his experience led him to know the types of roles and activities that would be a part of his job as an academic. For Jason, he also felt prepared, but in a very different way from Mark. He described how well he was prepared as,

> Very well, I think. I mean it's really the apprenticeship for what I'm doing. I mean, and I think this would really vary from discipline to discipline, but because sociology is a very academic area, I guess, doing the PhD, it prepares you for a lot of things. In terms of learning to take criticism, learning to write effectively, learning to be able to identify your good habits from your bad habits. You know, I learned a lot about myself trying to get through the PhD.

Interestingly, Jason's description of the ways in which the PhD prepares students for jobs in academia were not for specific roles, but what could be considered more general skills or knowledge.

While some participants felt very prepared for academic positions, others did not. Some participants started a job almost immediately after finishing their PhDs. This quick change in status was not easy for everyone and brought up questions of preparedness, as Jesse detailed,

> Well I felt, I was terrified to go to [University]. Just terrified. … Total impostor syndrome. I think everyone feels that at some point, I hope. But I definitely felt that way. … I think one month into starting at [University] I was on somebody's PhD defence committee. So I had literally defended six weeks before and now I'm evaluating someone at their defence for their PhD. And that was, I'm thinking, "Am I equipped for this? Am I going to ask a stupid question in front of these people?" … So there's a lot of anxiety around that.

Despite Jesse having successfully navigated his transition, the quick change and the types of roles he was thrust into made his first job challenging. While Jesse went straight from PhD to full-time job, this was not the case for several participants. Adam went from doctoral studies to casual academic work before getting a long-term contract. He estimated that his doctoral studies prepared him for 50% of his current position. When asked what that 50% consisted of, he responded, "Okay 50% is being able to master a body of research and then communicate that. I reckon that's less important than people realise." He went on, discussing his own questioning of what the PhD prepares graduates for:

> I might say I'm really opinionated at the moment, but I've been thinking about it a lot and in general, I think quite a lot about, reflect quite a lot

> about the systematic situation of what does a PhD train you for? What do you do as part of that training? And then there's a big gap and then you're supposed to be a lecturer. And at the moment in that gap is kind of casual tutoring. And there's a lot of things missing in that kind of progression.

Interestingly, Adam identified casual work as part of the preparation for a full-time academic job, a preparation that is not part of the PhD itself. However, in the current higher education climate that has fewer permanent academic positions, it is becoming increasingly common.

As Adam and several other participants identified, doctoral studies prepared students in their content area and to do research, but not to teach or do service work. Often the teaching and service work that students undertook was extra work that they could opt into (though for some doctoral students engaging in teaching was necessary as a way of funding their studies). An area that several participants mentioned as not being a part of their PhD preparation was teaching. Tim discussed teaching during his PhD, which for him meant "the transition from PhD to a teaching academic, an associate academic, wasn't a huge jump for me, because I'd already done both of them simultaneously as a PhD candidate." However, despite teaching while doing his PhD, his experience did not come from the doctoral program per se:

> The PhD preparation for it, the PhD itself doesn't prepare you to be a lecturer at all; it prepares you to be a researcher and it prepares you to be a marker of other people's work, which is great. It prepares you to be a planner of larger-scale projects, a supervisor. It doesn't help you be an effective teacher at all.

Some participants discussed the preparation they received in their PhD as having to do with research, but they were only prepared for teaching and service if they elected to do those activities. Even with their research training, doctoral students were not prepared for all tasks that fell in the area of research. For some participants, particularly those in Australia, publication was an optional part of their doctoral experience. While Niels had experience publishing during his PhD, he mentioned this an area potentially lacking from some students' PhD experience. He stated,

> The PhD in and of itself I think, I mean of course prepared, I guess, a required knowledge base. Of course it doesn't prepare you for, I mean if

> you don't do any teaching, it's just not really part of your PhD. It doesn't prepare you for teaching, right? And if you don't do any article publications, which I guess these days is part of doing your PhD but it doesn't need to be, right? It's not strictly speaking part of the PhD, it's only if you want a job. Well then in sense I mean it doesn't prepare you for what you're supposed to do.

Grant writing was another research task with which almost no participants had experience. Jesse discussed his experience with his first grant:

> No, all I can think, if you're studying the transition between PhD it's that kind of impostor syndrome really kind of pops up at you. I really don't think universities do a very good job of preparing you for – graduate education does not prepare you for many, like writing a grant. I had no idea how to write a grant. It was a nightmare. And it was three times the amount of work I thought it was going to be and it was insane. But we didn't learn that sort of stuff. We didn't learn how to apply for jobs.

The lack of preparation in specific areas contributed to Jesse's feelings of being an impostor. Another contributing factor may have been the quick succession of moving from student to full-time academic, with the expectation to perform in the job right away. Jesse relates defending his dissertation, moving two days later to his new university (across the country) and less than a week later,

> I had students coming to my office to ask me for advice and be on their committees. And well I was driving for five days across Canada to Ontario, I don't think I changed as a person, that I'm all of a sudden more competent or qualified or anything like that. Do you know what I mean? It's just all of a sudden it's like, "Oh now you have this piece of paper, so now we're going to ask you to do all these things." And it's like, almost like, there's not a transition. Or it doesn't feel like there's a transition.

Jesse was not the only one to feel like there was no real transition. This was also the case for Laura, who started her academic job while finishing her PhD:

> I think when I first came I felt a bit immobilised by, I felt that there was certainly more expectation on me to do, I guess, kind of finish the PhD, simply because now I suddenly have this different label, I had to suddenly be able to, just everything should be really easy because suddenly I'm an academic. And so I did find that hard.

The "different label" changed the job and the expectations. While there was no change to education or training or preparedness, the label that came with the new job added pressure.

Expectation and preparation are interrelated. Not everything that one expects one can prepare for (e.g., doctoral students may expect to write a grant proposal in the future but, as a student, not have the opportunity to write one). However, expecting that grants will be a part of one's future experience, individuals may seek out information or look for opportunities to learn more. Expectations provide a frame of reference for an experience, which may or may not be accurate. Not knowing what to expect means that not only is preparation not possible (except by coincidence) but there is also an emotional component to encountering the unexpected, which can be good or bad. For early career academics, encountering the unexpected is frequently negative, an additional task being added to the job. So not only is there a lack of preparation, but there is also surprise, frustration, and resentment, amongst other emotions, at the appearance of a new and unanticipated task. While there were unforeseen aspects to full-time continuing academic roles, this was particularly the case with administrative duties. The amount of administration was unexpected, as well as some of the specific administrative tasks.

When aspects of the job are both unexpected and unprepared for, this means that in addition to having a new task thrust upon them, early career academics then have to readjust their plans, seek information concerning how to accomplish the unwanted task, and learn to do that task. This brings up issues of doctoral preparation and whether doctoral programs adequately prepare students for the various roles, tasks, and responsibilities they will take on in academic roles. Preparation does not equate to being prepared. To a certain extent, there are certain aspects of new events that cannot be fully realised until they are experienced. However, participants who had more experience teaching, particularly teaching while studying, had fewer surprises and adjustments to make in the job.

Using comparison to negotiate transition: Weighing experiences

To respond to the changes that come with transitioning from being a doctoral student to a full-time continuing academic, early career academics

have to actively negotiate between their previous experience and what they know about their current environment. Participants discussed the ways in which they mediated between what they knew and what was new to them, figuring out their place within their university, as well as how to enact their information activities in a new environment. Comparison was an important strategy related in conversation about how they actively figured out, or were continuing to figure out, their jobs. Comparison is way for people in transition to make sense of their experience. Messias (2002) in discussing women's immigration experiences describes the constant comparison between the "before" and "after," the comparisons denoting connection between two worlds and moving back and forth between those worlds (p. 190). Through reliving the past, present, and future, individuals can make sense of their experiences (Palmer, O'Kane, & Owens, 2009). In this way, the women used "comparisons was a way of situating themselves and making sense" (p. 197). McCaughan and McKenna (2007) in examining the experiences of newly diagnosed cancer patients found that a common strategy for patients to gain knowledge and understand their disease was to learn from others' experience and compare it to their own. This made others' experiences a frame of reference and a way to determine their own interpretations of their experience. Comparing old and the new contexts contributes to the process of becoming situated in the new setting, creating new meaning, understandings, and perceptions (Meleis et al., 2000).

There are, of course, differences between an immigration transition experience, an illness transition experience, and a "school to work" transition. However, comparison was frequently how participants framed their experience. Being in transition from doctoral studies to a full-time academic appointment, participants discussed comparing the ways in which they worked as doctoral students (and casual academics) to the ways in which they work in their new positions. From these comparisons, participants developed their sense of belonging and made changes to their ways of working.

Belonging

Feeling that they belonged in their positions as academics was also part of what changed for the early career academics interviewed in this study. Part of going through a transition involves separation from the previous context, liminality, and integration into the new context (Baird, 2012). Participants described their sense of belonging within their universities, comparing their current feelings to those of being a doctoral student and/or casual academic. When asked if he felt he was treated differently, having moved from a doctoral student to an academic in an academic job, Niels responded,

> Yeah, I'm not sure. I mean, obviously you become part of things if you're not just a casual employee because you're not invited to all these meetings. So I guess if you're stronger sense of belonging, if you're not just there on a casual basis. I don't think my students treat me differently.

Several participants mentioned the difference between working in continuing positions versus working as a casual academic. In the case of Adam, being treated as if he belonged in the job changed how he felt about doing his job:

> I think I was surprised by the confidence I felt in response to people's, the other staff, my colleague's greater openness and recognition of, you know, getting the position and joining the staff. So that took me by surprise. In hindsight, it made a lot of sense but, and in hindsight actually it makes me feel like the position of the casual academic is actually even harder than they realise. Yeah, so actually, so that's another thing that's changed is my perspective on casual academia, has become more complex, I guess, of richer understanding.

Not being included to take part in departmental or school meetings is typical for casual staff, as well as doctoral students who teach. By definition of their position, they are not included in the decision-making activities of the academic unit. With the new position, this changes. Marie described her experience in being treated differently:

> I think there's this trap because you're so used to being a student, there is this, "I'm a student so I'm not as responsible" type of feeling. So when you're a lecturer, people are treating you as one of their own. And you just instantly, I guess, accept that. It just comes and you accept it. So, I go to this committee meetings and they ask for your opinion and you're like, "Okay then." And you assume that role, you know, because of the way people are kind of seeing you. So it's not difficult, it's just, I mean, especially when I first started, I still kind of related more to the

> PhD student that had just submitted, even though I was a lecturer and they didn't know how to treat me because I'm now faculty. But I related more to them than these experienced, senior lecturers who are here. But it took a couple of months and I'm now one of those people and they ask for my advice.

So while Marie felt more like a student when she started, her experience of being treated like a staff member helped her transition into feeling like an academic. So in addition to be treated differently, how academics viewed themselves began to shift throughout the transition.

For Nicole, who worked for two years as an adjunct academic, it was the position that changed her sense of belonging, and being legitimate. She described the difference between being a doctoral student and an academic as:

> Because I had that gap between becoming doctor and becoming professor, I could definitely feel the difference and it has to do, not with getting the PhD, but with having the job. I think my contribution to an area and a field and a location has been authorised. I've got a place to start doing that. And that's definitely, it's a shift. There's definitely kind of an authority, an authorisation that's come with being able to teach the courses where I get to tell everybody what is important in a field, according to me.

For Nicole, the job gave her authority to do her work. For Jason, he spoke at several points about the change in responsibility, particularly from being a casual academic to his current position as a lecturer on a long-term contract:

> I would say that the biggest one is that I have to be careful about what I say now. Not that I feel like I'm under surveillance or that this is a particularly like strict department or anything like that. It's just that I feel like, I feel like people treat what I say with more authority now than they used to and as, I think there's a certain responsibility that comes with that. I kind of have a habit for mouthing off about things and got to try to rein that in because, well it's just not professional I think. I need to, there are things you can say as a postgraduate, I think, you don't have much to lose. I think I have to be a little bit more subdued here. But I, to me that's not about censoring what I think, I think that's just about finding more mature ways to get my point across and picking my battles and stuff like that.

Not only did starting his current position change increase his sense of accountability and responsibility, it also changed how he expresses his opinions.

Belonging not only had to do with how others' viewed or treated early career academics, but also with one's own sense of being a part of things.

Madeline described her feeling of being settled, a feeling that changed over her time in her current position:

> But it feels very different. Like I said, the first semester I was unsettled, I didn't really know what to expect of the students, the student body is very different than the other universities I've been at, either as a grad student or a post-doc. … Last fall, as in just a couple of months ago, was a lot better – or a lot different, I should say. I was much more relaxed. I know the room, I knew the drill, I had an existing rapport with the TA that I had, as in I had taught her in the winter term before that. I was reusing material that I had revised again, so it was the third time I'd taught that class within 3 years. Yeah, so in that sense it was, it makes a difference.

Nicole described aspects of her fitting in her new context, part of which was meeting resistance to her proposed changes:

> I think I'm having a better sense. I mean it goes hand and glove, this kind of getting better sense of, as I become more familiar and more comfortable and I'm here longer, I am also stating my kind of wishes and desires more actively. And then also meeting more resistances wherever they are and learning more about the kind of, the way things are done. And, you know, you need to learn those things in order if you want to effect any change and you only learn them through coming up against them in practice, right? So what people say about how things are done isn't always how things are done. So I'm definitely learning more. I mean still, there's still a lot more to go. I'm still, but I definitely have much more sense than I did a year ago or 6 months ago.

Both Madeline and Nicole compare their experiences when they first arrived to their current experience, noting the differences in their sense of belonging and comfort within their departments. Temporality is an important aspect of transition; for many changes time is an essential element.

Ways of working

Participants discussed many differences in their experience as they transitioned from doctoral student to casual academic, from casual academic to newly hired academic, and from newly hired academic to somewhat more seasoned academic. Early career academics have new roles, tasks, and responsibilities, an increase in workload, resulting in less time to complete work activities. These require changes to the ways in which they work, not

simply working more. For Madeline, her view of her research work changed. She described her change as,

> I'm learning to see things in terms of more long-game project management. I just remember last fall [her first semester in her job] being like, "I have to do, I have to get this stuff done. I have to get this stuff done." And that pressure is still there, but the way that I cope with it is different. So I've put the big grant application in and that basically sucked up all of my creative energy from like August to October, so I understand that there's a natural kind of rebound process that has to come out of that. So one of the things I didn't do was I didn't force myself to start cranking other stuff out at that time. It's like, you're tired and you can just kind of teach your classes and mail it in a bit now and wait for things to come back.

Madeline compared her current semester to her first semester, realising that with a permanent job she had to plan research from a long-term perspective. A long-term perspective also means changing how she copes with her work, recognising how much creative energy submitting grants takes and delaying starting on other research projects until she recovered.

Due to the lack of time and their additional responsibilities, participants also made changes to their work practices. For many early career academics the change came in how they carried out their research activities. Jesse also had to deal with how to deal with new demands of the job. For Jesse, the new job meant an increase in the number of responsibilities and a resulting change in the nature of his work, becoming more managerial:

> I find the biggest problem is I feel like a manager now. I've got people running studies and doing things and I just have meetings all the time. Meetings with people all the time and I feel like I have no time to write. I'll have two hours this afternoon to write … when you're a PhD student it's like, "I've got the next five days to think about this problem," and there's no time to do those sorts of things. I've two hours to try and hammer out a good chunk of this manuscript that I need to get out, but I'm constantly I'm coordinating people. Coordinating people and projects and money and budgeting and all these things I didn't have to do before. I just had to come up with ideas and then do them at a reasonable rate and that was fine.

In order to deal with this, Jesse discussed how he went to a mentor for suggestions of how to change his working style:

> So I was finding that I was having no time to write because of service tasks and meetings with students and teaching and all that sort of stuff,

> I'd asked one of my faculty mentors about how to handle that. And they said you should always schedule days for writing. And so … I scheduled all of my meetings for right after the, for one day of the week. And it was a really busy, hellish day, but it really freed up some time for me to actually get some real work done.

Jesse's mentor provides a solution for how to manage his time, which allows him to get writing done, what Jesse terms "real" work, work that will count towards tenure. Interestingly, this idea of what is real work came up in many interviews with research and teaching being considered fundamental to their work, service work (particularly service work within the university) less central, and several participants questioning whether academics should have responsibilities for administrative and managerial work.

While Jesse felt that being a manager was a problem, Mark embraced this change in research practice, hiring and delegating aspects of his research work to research assistants. This way of working he learned from a colleague for whom this was part of his PhD experience. He described his change in research practice:

> I think probably the biggest learning experience for me was realising that as a junior faculty, I could still start basically beginning to outsource more and more of my work and delegate and find ways to free up my time to pursue higher value-added activities. So, basically what I've learned and what has been surprising to me is how much time I now spend seeking out grant dollars and finding research assistants and kind of building out almost like an organisation around my research. … So for me, that's been eye-opening and a lot of that was learned by way of my interactions with my colleague who I think came from an environment where that was more common place.

Mark built up an organisational system around his research, to support his work and allow him to take on more projects. Rather than viewing his work as management, Mark framed his work as "outsourcing," which would allow him to take on "higher value-added activities." While Jesse has framed this higher-level work as managerial, Mark has framed it as value-added.

Seth, like Jesse and Mark, added collaborators onto his research projects and joined their projects in return. Seth described the change to his way of working as,

> I'd rather work independently so I can trust my own work and, but you just, you can't survive that way here. You need to collaborate, you need

> those synergies, if you're just focusing on one project and you're doing it yourself, that's all that you're doing and it takes a year to get the funding and do that project and then another year before it gets in print if you're lucky. And it's just too much time … having these collaborations means that you don't have to do everything for a single study and you can have multiple studies going at the same time.

Seth recognised that working on solo research projects means that you can only work on one project at a time. Without a steady research pipeline, an academic cannot produce publications and grant applications in sufficient numbers. Seth changed his research practices, developing an extremely robust research program.

One of the major ways that early career academics who are transitioning to continuing academic positions came to understand themselves within their new circumstances, as well as how they need to work in their new circumstances, was to use comparison. They compared their previous sense of belonging within the university to how they felt during the doctoral studies and as casual academics. They compared their previous ways of working to how they needed to work within their current environment. A transition means that what was stable and familiar has now been disrupted and become unfamiliar. Transitions are convoluted processes experienced over time (Kralik, Visentin, & van Loon, 2006), a period of instability between points of general stability (Chick & Meleis, 1986). In attempting to take what is unfamiliar and unstable and make it familiar and stable, comparison is used to weigh the differences and similarities, comparing and contrasting.

Participants compared their current experiences with their previous experiences. They used what they knew through previous work and in their previous environment and contrasted that with their current environment. So when ways that they worked during their PhD stopped working well, they compared their current situation to their previous situation, enabling them to identify what was different and how that impacted their current situation. And from there they had to figure out new ways of working. There is an aspect of going back and forth between previous experience and current experience, previous environment and current environment, previous ways of working and current ways of working. It is through this weighing of what is familiar and

what is not unfamiliar that individuals can make sense of what is new. It is by identifying the different, putting a label on what is new, that an individual can come to better understand both their previous experience and their current experience better. This is a form of using information. And it is a constant negotiation.

Through comparing experience new perceptions and meanings are created and individuals can "situate" themselves (Meleis et al., 2000, p. 25). Individuals in transition sit somewhat outside of their environments, in a liminal space between contexts. They were once insiders, as doctoral students. They are no longer. They are becoming insiders in their new context, as academics. How they fit in, how they situate themselves in relation to other people and contextual factors within this new environment must be negotiated. There is an aspect of spatiality, in this case metaphorical space. Early career academics may be transitioning between doctoral studies and full-time continuing positions, but they are locating themselves within their new context, determining where they belong.

Comparison requires active engagement and negotiation with one's experience. Comparing helps to isolate aspects of experience. What exactly is different? Why are things uncomfortable? It is through comparing, for example, what it was like to be busy as a doctoral student and what it is like to be busy as an early career academic that aspects of experience are discovered and named. When this takes place, these experiences can be understood and addressed. Comparison is a form of knowledge creation. Comparison is an active form of creating understanding and a precursor to intentional change. Comparing is a way to take what is known or has been learned about one situation and to apply it to another. Additionally, this activity requires reflexivity. One must be reflective about what has been learned and be intentional in applying it to another situation.

Comparison was used in negotiating a new sense of belonging. It is taking the uncertainty of being in that liminal space, no longer belonging in one's previous environment and not yet knowing where one belongs in one's current environment, and testing out where one is currently. One way early career academics understand their current situation by comparing it to their

understanding of their previous situation. Additionally, as Adam relates, understanding the current situation can aid in more fully understanding the previous situation. By feeling that sense of belonging and recognition in his current position, he now understands his experience as a casual academic in that same department in a new way. He did not realise how excluded he was until he was included. Transition is the point at which these differences are often distinguished.

Sturm Und Drang: The affective experiences of transition

The last major theme is about the affective experiences of those making the transition from doctoral student to early career academic. While affective experience was viewed as a potentially important aspect of the study and addressed by Research Question 1d, "During transition, what are the affective experiences associated with new information environments, needs and practices?" When talking to early career academics about their experiences in transitioning into academic positions, particularly in settling into a new job, emotion came clearly through in their descriptions of their experiences. Because of this salient emotional component, affect was examined as a major theme in the analysis.

The title of this theme, "Sturm Und Drang," is a phrase that has its roots in an 18th century German literary movement (Baldick, 2008), translating as "storm and stress." It refers to a period of turmoil. A phrase used in a variety of disciplines, it is used in developmental psychology to describe the tumultuous period of adolescence. For many participants the experience of transition was a tumultuous time. This is not to say that the affective experience of the participants was entirely negative; transitions are often accompanied by feelings of highs and lows. Whether "positive" or "negative" affect was expressed; for many, this change is a time of high emotion and accompanied by a feeling of being unsettled. In talking with new academics, many of their narratives and descriptions about their job were permeated with their accompanying affective

experience. I would leave interviews or sign off after check-ins feeling drained or excited after listening to the experiences of my participants.

Before describing the types of affective experiences and their implications for information behaviour, the terms "affect" and "emotion" should be discussed, as there are differences in opinion over how to define them. Emotion can be described in very somatic and behavioural ways: an episode between the brain, body, and behaviour that facilitates a response to external stimuli (Davidson, Scherer, Goldsmith, & Hill, 2003). However, those within the field of the affective sciences state that there is no commonly agreed upon definition of emotions (Mulligan & Scherer, 2012). This is true also of information science. Dervin and Reinhard (2007), who extensively examine the conceptualisations of emotions within information science, state that researchers agree upon very little when defining emotion. Albright (2010) uses affect to denote a conscious experience of emotion, while stating that emotion is the unconscious experience. Julien, McKechnie, and Hart (2005) define affect as "emotion, mood, preference, and evaluation (from a non-cognitive perspective)" (p. 457). Using these two views of the terms, I have chosen to use the word affect, as when I talked to participants and they expressed emotion, this expression was conscious. However, I also use the word emotion to describe feelings experienced by participants.

Within the field of information behaviour, there has been an increasing recognition of the importance of affect. Early models such as Wilson's General Model (1981), Dervin's sense-making research (1983), and Kuhlthau's Information Search Processing model (1991) demonstrate that affect has been taken into consideration. As Fisher and Landry (2007) point out, while much of the earlier research into information behaviour was on cognition, these early models laid the groundwork for future exploration into affect. In their 1994 book, *Barriers to information*, Harris and Dewdney list emotional support from information systems as one of the six principles of information seeking. While for many years affect was marginalised in favour of cognition, Nahl and Bilal's (2007) book demonstrates the recent shift to more a more primary focus of research within the field. However, in reading more recent studies within the area, it becomes apparent that the role of emotion is often explored in the area

of information seeking, typically looking at the emotions that accompany discrete episodes – often in a laboratory environment – in which seeking is the main task (e.g., Arapakis et al., 2014; Lopatovska, 2014). This brings up questions about the applicability of this prior research to studies that cover a period of time or a transition. An instance of information seeking is bound up with emotion, but emotional states exist before information seeking (or another aspect of information behaviour) is undertaken. Research that takes a more holistic approach to the investigation of affect, such as Given (2007) and Fisher and Landry (2007), demonstrates that information behaviour is accompanied by a wide range of emotions. Additionally, affect is an integral part of everyday information behaviour, serving to drive information processes, as well as being a product of these processes (Fisher & Landry, 2007). Emotions are intertwined with that experience and can be conceptualised as being more than a state of being that has impact on situation, individual, task, or goal, but to actually be a source of information (Dervin & Reinhard, 2007; Godbold, 2013).

As my research looked holistically at a transitional period with an information behaviour lens, I address the role of affect more broadly in transitional experiences. The sections that follow explore some of the different aspects of the affective experience of participants. While participants had rich and varied affective experiences, these sections are based on subthemes relating to their most prominent experiences. These experiences include stability, frustration, stress, feeling overwhelmed, and enjoyment.

In/Stability: Simultaneous and oppositional feelings of security

Transitions, in their nature, concern stability. Transitions can be defined as a period of change between points of stability (Chick & Meleis, 1986). Being in a liminal space can involve feelings of being vulnerable, overwhelmed, confused, disoriented, and detached, particularly when an individual experiences multiple changes simultaneously (Baird, 2012). As participants discussed many facets about what it was like to move from a doctoral student to an early career academic, to be in a liminal space, feelings around the topic of

stability and security were raised. Interestingly, often feelings in opposition were held at the same time. Early career academics were more secure in having permanent (or long-term) employment, yet being new in a job meant they were often without the security that comes with being confirmed or tenured. Despite increased job stability, the position was still tenuous. They discussed these feelings of in/stability throughout their transitional process from getting a job, to having a job, to performing well in the job.

Getting a job

In their own words, participants described their transitions, highlighting the affective aspects of their experiences. The transitional period between the doctorate and finding a job was identified by some participants as a period filled with a range of affect and described, at times, in highly emotional terms. David, for example, described the time in between submission of job applications and receiving work as being extremely stressful:

> And of course, support in that moment where you're finishing your PhD – that you'll know one day – where you finish your PhD and you're having a glimpse of the abyss on the other side and for that moment is especially rough and … we have a sense that we just made it through, right? It's basically like people who went out of the Normandy debarkment and just made it on beaches and so like, I don't know how that happened but I'm still there and I'm still dazed by that experience.

The description of glimpsing "the abyss," the comparison to the World War II, and the fact that almost two years later he is still "dazed" by the experience demonstrates the emotional charge that this particular transition has for this participant. It is unclear whether the "abyss" is on the side of the PhD or after the PhD. Either way, the period of finishing is not a time simply of joy at being done. Jesse highlights the uncertainty he experienced in seeking work as being particularly difficult:

> And even though I was being really successful and those sorts of things, I think there was just a lot of uncertainty and the notion of where am I going to get a job? Am I going to get a job? Should I go academic or take an applied job? Those were all really difficult things. And it's only after a year and a half of being done that I'm kind of, you realise slowly, at least for me, I mean, coming out of that fog, … And I still have friends who are finishing their grad degrees and I see them still in that

> sad haze in some ways, and uncertainty. So it's kind of, yeah I guess that's kind of my experience retrospectively looking back it's realising there are definitely some dark places during graduate school.

Interestingly, David and Jesse use similar terms – dazed, fog, and haze – to describe these highly emotional times. From their descriptions, the affective experience of doctoral education isn't fully understood or experienced at the time but processed over time. It is also a time of not belonging. By focusing on the idea of belonging and not belonging, liminal space can aid in understanding transition (Palmer, O'Kane, & Owens, 2009). Individuals in a liminal space have been described as being in an antistructure state within a society, connected to those sharing the liminal space and marginalised by those in society in a structured state (Davis, 2008). This "abyss," this "sad haze" is a period without structure, in between doctoral studies and an academic position. As membership in academia is based on position, simply no longer being a student and not yet being an academic means being an outsider, "structurally invisible" (Turner, 1967/1987, p. 6). Being in neither category leaves those in transition betwixt and between.

Many participants expressed emotions such as uncertainty, fear, and panic about finding work. Jason, seeing others in his field not successful in finding a job, felt the job search itself was a time of uncertainty. He described his experience as,

> And I'd seen people who were very capable and very intelligent, and who didn't make it, basically. It was a real fear for me. There was a lot of sleepless nights. And just because I kind of, I'd also realised how much I liked it and I didn't really want to do anything else, you know. And so it was a pretty scary sort of 18 months or so between submitting my PhD and getting the job here.

Fredric also highlights the insecurity of not having work:

> That's the approach I took and it paid off in the end, but it didn't look like that. Some time last year I was, as I said, I went with my partner to Switzerland and I didn't know what will happen. Will I get a position where? Yeah. And I guess it can be very draining, exhausting, and depressing if you don't get a position.

Gill (2014) discusses the precariousness of academics working on short-term contracts, their lives being "marked by stress, anxiety and the inability to make

plans – either personal or occupational – for the future" (p. 19). Early career academics' descriptions of their experience – along with many participants that will be explored below – demonstrate that the transition from doctoral studies to full-time employment has a strong emotional component and is a time of instability.

Interestingly, the literature from information behaviour and higher education deals relatively little with finding employment. When examining people in new jobs, most research focuses on those already in the position. Even the studies on school-to-work transitions focused either on the time in school or in the new workplace (e.g., Saarnivaara & Sarja, 2007) or on the literature (e.g., Ng & Feldman, 2007; Fenwick, 2013), rather than the search for employment. Savolainen (2008) examined information seeking amongst people who were categorised as long-term unemployed. He found negative emotions associated with information seeking, as individuals are trying to meet demands to find work. Savolainen describes the experience of information seeking in this situation as stressful. In the current study, none of my participants were unemployed before starting their current jobs; rather they were either studying or employed with casual work (or both) before finding a full-time, continuing position.

Having a job

Thinking of transitions as a time of instability between two points of greater stability, it is natural that participants discussed feeling stable/unstable, secure/insecure during discussions of the job and the workplace. Academics in a liminal period may let go of previous roles and responsibilities from their previous department without yet having taken up their new ones, creating anxiety and confusion as they negotiate their place in a new academic unit (Bettis & Mills, 2006). Feelings of security discussed were on both sides of the spectrum – i.e., feeling stable in their new continuing position, as well as feeling that they were in a precarious position. Participants often simultaneously held these contrary feelings. The majority of the Canadian early

career academics participating in this study (all but Tom) held permanent tenure-track positions; whereas, a minority of Australian early career academics (Casey, Fredric, Laura, and Niels – Niels started on a long-term contract and moved to a permanent position during my study) were on long-term contracts, ranging between one and three years. Although not everyone was in a permanent position, their current positions were the most stable jobs they had held after obtaining their PhD. Interestingly, even for many of those who had permanent positions, the job was not perceived to be entirely permanent. Canadian academics still needed to achieve tenure, a form of probation that could last for up to six years; academics in Australia still needed to achieve confirmation, which typically happens after three years of probation. So when describing obtaining a job, the feeling of being in a job that was more secure and long lasting was accompanied by a sense of relief. Having a permanent position removed many negative emotions such as fear and uncertainty. Leanne talked about the removal of uncertainty and the pressure that came with that, describing the change:

> But what's changed since the PhD program is that uncertainty has been removed. And of course there is some uncertainty with tenure still, but I guess I'm not even focusing on it too much yet. I'm just taking it a day at a time. And I have a pretty good start. I have a pretty good portfolio already, so it takes some of the pressure off.

Having a more permanent position meant not only a positive change in security, but also a positive change in salary. Adam discussed living on a casual salary with the uncertainty of having work, describing his experience as,

> I mean I made it work for me and my family for 3 semesters, 18 months. And I'm not sorry to let it go, you know, so it's better to earn 80 grand as a lecturer with, you know, security for the next 2 years than 50 grand as a casual lecturer and, as a casual academic, and not knowing if next semester you've got any work. So I mean, it's vastly superior.

For those on long-term contracts, despite being in a relatively more stable position, uncertainty remained an issue, albeit a lessened one. Jason, on a three-year contract, felt he was not at a particularly high risk for losing his job because of the context of his department. He stated,

> But look, I think the thing is here that we, well look, I'm in a small discipline with a handful of people who are probably going to retire in

> the next few years, which means that if downsizing occurs I don't feel, even though I'm a newer staff member and often that would be the person who's at risk, I kind of feel like I'm relatively well insulated here. So I'm not, this is why I'm not drinking a whiskey right now and, you know, sweating and panicking. But yeah, hopefully things aren't as bad as they could be.

Niels highlighted the instability in his job, particularly around who he could talk to within the department. When I first talked to Niels, he was on a one-year contract. While his position was more stable than it had been previously teaching casually at the institution during his PhD, he felt that he could not safely talk to his colleagues about his situation:

> It puts you in a sort of an interesting position. Because on the one hand you accept this job because you need it, on the other hand maybe you also accept it because you'd like to be here. … Then you also have to think about what sort of jobs you're going to apply for, right? And obviously you're going to try to be a little bit loyal decision your funding application and so on for your current department. But of course you have to start looking elsewhere. … So that's sort of an interesting situation that worries me a little bit. But that's no different from any other job, right? That's just part of these short-term contracts and trying to survive I guess. But that can create a bit of who do you talk to?

Tim, concerned about government funding in tertiary education, was pleased that his position was becoming more stable with a longer-term contract (he moved from term contracts to two one-year contracts), but there still remained instability in his position. He described his experience as,

> With the broader government decisions, you really can't do much about them, you have to learn to live with them. But the part that gives me the most anxiety about those are the durations of contracts for early career academics. And this is always the issue, no matter where you are, is the seeking of tenure. … But with the change in government and so on, the issue really is what will I be doing next year. Very, very luckily I've been given assurances of two continuous one-year contracts, as opposed to what I was getting before, which is one-semester contracts. So it's getting better, … But even if I get something a bit more secure, that's always a good thing.

Obtaining permanent and longer-term work meant a decrease in instability, and a shift of focus from getting the job to doing the job. To quote Menges (1996), "[t]here is no longer anxiety about finding a job; it has now become anxiety about surviving in the job" (p. 170).

Performing well in the job

Being new, and being on probation or pre-tenure, meant that early career academics were highly aware of aspects of instability and insecurity in their jobs, which coloured their views and had an impact on their actions. As early career academics, their thoughts ran to what needed to be done to fulfill tenure/probation requirements or to add lines to their CVs to ensure they were competitive for positions. Sometimes the instability and insecurity had to do with not having clear expectations about performance. Speaking about the merit review process, for example, Madeline was concerned that a pending faculty-level restructuring meant that the rules and expectations would be changing, but were not yet clear:

> What concerns me about merit, the old rules were clear … were made clear to me, I knew exactly how much of a point an article would get me, how much point a book would get me. I only had a year so it was just kind of like, "Well, you know, whatever happens to come out will be fine." I can't plan for it at this particular point. I'm concerned about how well they're going to make that, what the comparability's going to be like.

Jesse, in not feeling secure about what he had to do to achieve tenure, looked to his colleagues. He found comparing himself to his more senior colleagues problematic, adding to his stress, never knowing what would be enough. He described his feelings as,

> I think almost the ambiguity, you feel the sense of, I feel it's just if I could actually tell myself or someone told me, … I'd feel a lot more comfortable. Oh look, I'd know, "Okay, I do these things, so in order to get that, here's what I need to do." Whereas because my only real referent is these other people who are running a ridiculous amount of studies and doing a ridiculous amount of stuff. … And so I need to do at least as much as this person. And that's not great because that's a moving target.

Feeling insecure about tenure requirements is common for early career academics. Early career academics are often left unsure about specific requirements of their job (Murray, 2008; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1993), including their ability to meet these requirements (Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1993). This means that tenure can be an "ambiguous, uncertain, and stressful" process (Mullen &

Forbes, 2000). Even when tenure and confirmation requirements are known, there is the pressure to perform well in research, teaching, and service.

Some participants described being aware that they were in somewhat precarious positions as new employees, that they had to be careful in what they said or did, that there would be serious consequences for their actions. Fredric described a situation in which he had technical problems with one of the university systems and, therefore, missed a deadline to submit grades. He described his worry:

> And I was really worried that it could have even personal repercussions for me. I'm in probation and technically I have to submit these marks within a week and then I made sure that people are aware of this situation, not that somebody says like, "Okay, we've you have this new staff member and he took 3 weeks where everyone else takes one. Are you sure it's a good hire?"

David, who talked about being quite outspoken in meetings, was very aware that he was still pre-tenure and considered more carefully what he should say:

> But so we're still playing that old game but what we're getting is that there may be – and I should be careful because I'm still on probation, right? So but I honestly think that if I do my job well, I teach well, I do a lot of research, I service maybe not the institution but my community, then there is no reason why I shouldn't get my tenure. So there is sometimes a little person in the back of my head saying like, "You know, you still don't have your tenure."

Madeline, in a similar situation to David, considered whether she should attend a meeting about a controversial topic. She was concerned about expressing her opinion, stating,

> And so this is one of those ones that I have a strong opinion about it because I'm pre-tenure I have a strong opinion that I express in the department because it's safe and I don't go to the town hall meetings because that's less so. It was even indicated to me that if, because I couldn't actually attend one of the consultation meetings that was scheduled with the faculty, and when I mentioned that I felt badly about this, one of the friendly colleagues says, "But depending on how that goes, if it goes sideways, subtext, and your name's on the quorum list, it might just even be better not to have your name on the quorum list."

Madeline expressed feeling safe to express her opinion in her department but not within a more public space at the university. Other early career academics discussed "safety" in their jobs. Niels, as discussed in the previous section, felt

unsafe in talking to his colleagues about his search for work. His contract position was for one year; however, he felt unsure with whom he could discuss his work situation. Nicole, in a tenure-track position, talked about feeling safe to talk with some of her colleagues:

> And there are few senior faculty who've, who I definitely felt from the very beginning, there are 7 of us, right? And there are the 3 senior women that are on my side, that they are for me. And so I ask all 3 of them regularly, anything. And I feel very safe to do that.

Safety in this situation may have to do with power and politics. The power structure that exists within academia and/or specific departments is often revealed to early career academics through interpersonal interactions and through structures (Mullen & Forbes, 2000). The political and power structures may remain ambiguous to those in new positions and early career academics are not in positions of power.

University systems, including the tenure system or the system of confirmation, are at a macro-level, and remain an external structure over which early career academics have no influence or control. Macro-level structures have impact on the experiences of those in the situation, including affective experiences (Given, 2007). Within the macro-level structure and the micro-level (the specifics of an individual's situation), emotions and daily activities combine to shape information behaviour (Given, 2007).

With feelings of security and the accompanying removal of negative feelings such as uncertainty and fear, early career academics can focus their time and energies on other things. When they are not seeking for information about jobs, their attention can be focused on seeking information to further themselves in their current job, on using information in ways that better suits their needs. However, feelings of career security and safety are ongoing and changing. Having a permanent job does not mean that there are not challenges to that feeling of security in other ways. Instability is a central part of transition, being in a liminal space betwixt and between.

Academics must deal with the university audit culture, as this culture expands and intensifies, creating widespread precariousness (Gill, 2014). Because the Systemic Managerial Constraints in the environments early career

academics work in, there is constantly a need to demonstrate achievements. SMC also requires the performance of more work in the form of administrative duties to fulfill the requirements of an audit culture. This takes away time and energy from those academic activities that are required as part of confirmation and tenure systems, contributing to the uncertainty early career academics experience. Spending time on research, teaching, and service work is of central importance to academics' careers; this is also work that provides academics with enjoyment in their work.

"This is my job. It's amazing" (Jason): Finding satisfaction and enjoyment in work

Within information science, there has been a focus on negative emotions and their motivational aspects, relegating positive emotions to a secondary role (Savolainen, 2014). Often in the interviews and check-ins with participants, the stories they related were charged with negative emotions. While participants frequently talked about the challenges they were facing, they followed that with talking about the good things they found in their job. This idea that, despite challenges, this is the only job they would want was commonly expressed. They enjoy their work; they feel lucky to be doing what they were doing; they have passion for their vocation.

Research and teaching were the areas of their jobs about which early career academics expressed enjoyment. Often, the aspects of research they discussed enjoying were the outcomes of the research – successful publications or grants. Madeline discussed how much she enjoyed her chosen profession, contrasting some of the good and the bad aspects of her job:

> The nice thing is when I do work, it's so much fun and it's just like, yes, this is the right profession and it's fantastic and I think about it constantly and so a lot of the work is being done, I just need to put it on paper. And it's good. It's really good. Yeah. The other stuff, less so, but the bulk of the work and the teaching when it's not dealing with snarky students, it's fantastic.

Madeline frames her positive experience with work as confirming that she is in the right profession. In deciding that she is in the right profession, Madeline confirms that she will continue to work; enjoyment provides a reason to continue her work. Madeline uses the feeling of enjoyment as a way to understand her experience and confirm her choices and actions. David wrote about several things that make him happy, including, “Some really interesting research projects on the run and I am happy to see them come to fruition.” Casey applied for an internal staff grant, and wrote of her success, “Today I was informed that my new staff application was successful! – good news! I am happy about the outcome.” For these early career academics, positive affect becomes a feedback mechanism for their actions. Enjoyment is not only about the feeling coming from doing the work but also in having success in the work. Casey had grant success; David saw his projects come to fruition; Madeline categorised her work as being “good.” However, in the same sentence, Madeline discussed what else she needs to do (i.e., put it on paper). The framing and categorisation of her work as enjoyable provides her information about her information practices in regards to that work.

Part of the positive affect some early career academics expressed was also in regards to information sharing and doing research with other scholars. Nicole talked about the funding a research cluster received, creating a space for interdisciplinary scholarship:

> They’re funding a research cluster that I’m running right now. And so there’s a sense in which, “Oh my god, there’s a great interdisciplinary space that’s funded and being built there.” And there are lots of those kinds of things around the university where people are coming together and doing really interesting things and I’m very happy with that part.

Seth talked about enjoying doing collaborative research. He stated,

> It’s been fantastic. There are studies where others lead and you provide feedback and I think that’s fantastic to be able to read through an article and say, “I suggest this,” or “I think this would work better. How about we do this?” And then others that I lead and I’ll send for the exact same process and it just, it sort of streamlines everything that you can have multiple things going at once.

Affect can be an important source of information. Affect can provide feedback on choices that have been made or ways of working. The positive affect felt by Nicole in using funding to create an interdisciplinary space and Seth in working in valuable collaborations indicates that these are beneficial ways of working and something to be continued. Particularly for Seth, who previously worked independently, the information from his affective experience may change his working practices.

Frequently, participants talked about enjoying their teaching, seeing successes with their students. The frequency that participants discussed their teaching joys may have to do with the time of year I spoke to participants. I timed my first interview with all participants (with one exception) during the first teaching semester and their follow-up interview in the next teaching semester. Like frustrations, teaching joys were salient experiences. Ben talked about enjoying being in the classroom:

> In terms of what keeps you going, you know, the classroom. Being in the classroom is always, you know, some of the best 3 hours you get. And that makes preparing for the lectures worthwhile. The marking can be quite enjoyable if the students do a really good job and, you know, don't just do the assignment for the sake of doing the assignment, but really show that they've taken the assignment and learned something.

Claire wrote about being excited by students' engagement in her classes. She described the feeling as,

> I find that I feel like a proud parent when I am in contact with my students.... I am sure I am not meant to do that. I am supposed to be aloof. But it excites me when they engage in the materials early, ask questions even if they are to clarify the task.

David wrote about feeling good when seeing students learn:

> I really see my students growing into the material I am teaching. This really makes me feel good as I can see how much that [they] have grown in just one semester/year. I also have a good relations with several of my students who seems to come to me often to talk about the job market, career choices, graduate programs, etc. I do my best to help them out as I wish somebody would have done for me.

Evelyn talked frequently about her teaching. As with Claire and David, she also valued moments of student learning – what she calls transformation. Evelyn stated,

> I absolutely love the teaching, as difficult as it is, I love it, because I've seen those moments of transformation with my students. Our very last class together, they have their assignments handed in a week prior, in my one class in particular, all 36 either were in the classroom in person and … we did a sharing circle with the, I brought my eagle feather in and my male students were crying. So just an incredible, incredible experience.

To experience such enjoyment and satisfaction in teaching has been found in other research into the experiences of early career academics. Stupinsky and colleagues (2014) found emotions associated with teaching to be generally more positive. These positive feelings are a respite to some of the more negative feelings about certain aspects of work and a reinforcement that that their work is important and valuable.

The enjoyment early career academics have in their research and teaching is important. Participants spent years in school, laboured long hours, and worked for little pay. Often this was due to loving their work, caring about their field, feeling that their job was a vocation. Caring kept them working through their doctoral studies and into academia. Jason, whose quotation was used to title this section, mentioned several times his view that academia was a lifestyle:

> And this is something I really believe is important, you know, and it's not just a job for me; it's a, this is a life for me. This is something that I would do if I wasn't getting paid. I just wouldn't have a new computer. … I definitely felt kind of legitimate once I won the job here, like, "Oh, I must be, so I am good enough. Okay, like I'm a real academic now. Like I can, so I can actually have a career in this. It's a real thing." Which is great. I still kind of, I mean I know I've only been here a few months but I still kind of forget that. Wake up in the morning and like, "Ah. That's right. This is my job. It's amazing."

Leanne talked about the job being exactly suited to her and finding enjoyment in the different aspects of her job. She described how she felt,

> I'm very happy. Even when things don't go as I thought, you know, and that I work more than I'd like to or if I, you know, do less research than I'd like to. For a mom, the flexibility of this job is just difficult to compare to anything. And the intellectual challenge and the opportunity to think. And kind of the information that you get to deal with and just super interesting colleagues, the environment with students, with young people around. I really like it all. So really my perception has not changed that I'm super lucky. I am really quite happy.

It is refreshing to hear that despite being in a "period of turmoil," early career academics experience aspects of enjoyment and satisfaction in their work. Academics are unique in that intrinsic rewards of their work are so strong, despite job satisfaction declining (Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). Early career academics appreciate autonomy, intellectual growth, and the sense of accomplishment that comes along with a job in academe (Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992, p. 21). In examining the emotions experienced by early career academics Stupinsky and colleagues (2014) found a range of emotions, including many positive emotions that lead to action such as enjoyment, hope, and excitement.

Early career academics experience a wide range of emotions during the tumultuous transition into their first jobs. What is clear after looking at the affective experiences of early career academics is that more work needs to be done on the role of affect, particularly into positive affect. Much of the research into affect and information behaviour has to do with information seeking, how emotions affect information-seeking behaviour. This, while important, is limited in understanding the role of affect. Affect is a source of information that can provide feedback to individuals about their ways of working and information practices. More research in information behaviour needs to take place, such as Given's (2007) study with mature undergraduate students and Fisher and Landry's (2007) study with stay at home moms. These studies examine individuals more holistically, taking affect into account as one aspect that has an impact on information behaviour.

"I feel out of breath" (David): Struggling with feelings of being stressed and overwhelmed

While participants enjoyed their work, there was another side of the coin. Unsurprisingly, the feelings most prominently discussed were those of being stressed and overwhelmed. Discussion of being busy, and the related feelings of being stressed and overwhelmed, pervaded many of the

conversations during interviews and check-ins. Feelings of being stressed were palpable as early career academics talked about their work. In talking about all that they had to do, it was evident that early career academics felt the weight of the amount of work they had to do and the stress of that work. Being busy and feeling stressed as a result was not an unfamiliar experience for early career academics. Most participants talked about being busy during their PhDs. However, for most people there was a shift in the busyness – the amount of work, the number of tasks, the type of tasks, and the time allotted – when they started an academic position. This shift often caused people to experience increased feelings of busyness and stress. Ben described his experience as not being fully prepared for just how busy his first years would be in the job:

> That is one thing they do not, I actually had one professor tell me that but, when I was doing my PhD, but it's just like, you think you're busy doing a PhD and then you get a tenure-track faculty job and it's a whole new busy. So yeah, like, I made the joke that I don't do much between work and children, that's just the nature of it. And living in a city where I don't really know anyone socially outside of the school.

Interestingly, these participants (amongst others) described being warned about this shift in busyness, but it was something that could not be described, but rather had to be lived. Expectations, while important in understanding perceptions of a transition and helpful in alleviating stress related to a transition (Chick & Meleis, 1986; Schumacher & Meleis, 1994), may not fully prepare people for the change in situation or in understanding what has to be done to cope with a situation. However, the literature in higher education often highlights how early career academics' expectations of academe do not meet reality (e.g., Murray, 2008) and how ill prepared doctoral students are for the roles they will take on in the job market (e.g., Austin, 2002b; 2011; Schwartz & Walden, 2012; Walker et al., 2008).

Feelings of being stressed and overwhelmed were often described in relation to time, how much work had to be done in how little time. Discussions about time – not having enough time, needing to manage time – came up repeatedly in discussions with participants. Jason summarised its centrality to early career academics' work quite well. "What I mainly need is time and it seems like in academia time is maybe one of the more precious resources."

When asked what changes he experienced since starting his position, Tom talked about the big difference being time:

> Oh, the time. It's the lack of time to do anything. I mean in terms of family time and life outside work time. Like basically any time that our son is napping or sleeping, I'm more or less working. More or less. More or less. … I knew the first 5 years of being an assistant professor is insane. I think it's common, relatively common knowledge amongst people in grad school, at least it was amongst people that I was with at grad school.

Tom's experience of the job being "insane" has a great deal to do with how little time is available to fit in all the required work. The decreased time, increased work, and increased feelings of busyness and stress often result in needing to find new ways to cope. The response Tom has to this situation is to spend all of his time on his work and his family. This was the same way Ben responded to feeling that he was "a whole new busy;" he did little outside of his work and spending time with his family. Laura was in the unique situation of both finishing off her PhD and going on maternity leave to have her second child. She was finishing up the final edits to her thesis as her leave was starting. She wrote this about finishing up the PhD:

> As this coincides with a period of maternity leave I feel stressed to produce something tangible, and quickly! I am unsure how much of this stress is related to the shift in identity and roles/responsibilities/expectations post-PhD and the pending maternity leave. For some reason I thought I would have less stress post-PhD, but now it is dispersed amongst a number of different incomplete projects!!

Not having enough time is a common experience for early career academics, that there is simply not enough time in the day (Murray, 2008). This is a source of work stress, which has an impact on job satisfaction (Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). Giroux (2007) discusses "corporate time," which is accelerated and becomes a "deprivation rather than a resource, a temporality designed to excise any notion of self-development, an expansive sense of agency, and critical thought itself" (pp. 121-122). Corporate time is about extracting more work from academic labourers at the lowest possible cost and "transforming educators into dispensable labor with little or no power over the basic decisions that structure academic work" (p. 122).

For some participants, they talked about just getting by, doing what they needed to do day by day. They talked about being overwhelmed. This discussion of survival went beyond the busyness and stress (though it was related to both), to being overwhelmed and simply trying to get through the day, the semester. While participants certainly had experiences of feeling overwhelmed during their PhD, this section will focus on the transition to their job. Early career academics talked about having so much to do, a mountain of work and deadlines and time pressures, that they could not slow down but just continued to work at a frenetic pace to manage in their job. Evelyn graphically discusses the pace at which she is currently working:

> So in these stages I feel like it's just like putting out fire after fire after fire. It's mere survival mode I'm in. I don't feel like I'm operating at the realm of capacity. I feel like I'm in sheer survival mode.

She goes on to talk about how many tasks she is juggling and that she does not feel like she is successfully keeping all the balls in the air. She described it as,

> So, you do the best you can and quite frankly, the balls I'm juggling, some of them are falling and, you know, I feel bad about that but at the same time it's reality. It's just the sheer amount of stuff that's being thrown at you and, particularly, again because we are a minority group that's largely not had a voice within academy and there's such a need that I am getting requests from all over the place, from students to faculty to community to the broader municipal community to province-wide to national, it just feels like you're being pulled in 18 different directions.

David used several metaphors to describe his experience. He talked about juggling teaching, research, and service, which left him feeling "out of breath." Interestingly, he also used the metaphor of war:

> And I'm trying to survive little moments. Like at war, right? That's my impression. I haven't been to war. I've been to Afghanistan but I haven't been in a real like Second World War. So I think that what you're trying to do is survive everyday. And in the end you're surviving the war but there were no expectations that you would actually succeed in it. So that's what I'm trying to do. I'm trying to survive everyday.

At times is was the combination of how much work had to be done, often with aspects of not knowing how to manage. Casey described her current situation, living away from her husband and trying to manage the numerous tasks that she has to do. She described her current experience,

> Also, because I'm a new staff, I need to apply for the new staff grant, so I need to spend some time on that. And also I was, I'm expected to, you know, to publish some papers and attract some external funding, so I just feel very stressful at the moment. Yeah, but I think everything is, so far so good, but too busy. Just feel too busy and sometimes, you know, because my husband came to visit me, you know, he arrived last Saturday and he will go back to the US Sunday which means 3 days later. So when he stays here, I feel okay, I feel good, but before he came here, I just felt sometimes I felt very depressed, in fact, and I thought oh, maybe I couldn't manage all these, all the teaching and research commitment and also need to take some admin role because as a unit convener there a lot of admin things you need to deal with.

In Casey's visceral example, this being overwhelmed was paired with other negative emotions. These are not insignificant feelings. They are intense and colour her entire experience.

As Casey demonstrated, often feeling overwhelmed was about dealing with the job in addition to the rest of what was going on for participants. Again, this is where the job met everyday life. Surviving was about trying to fit all the different pieces of a complex life together with pressures from work and home. Evelyn used the term survival to discuss the various pressures she felt, the pull from different arenas of her life. Evelyn is an indigenous woman who frequently expressed her commitment to her community and her feeling that she needed to give back to her community. Hired as an indigenous scholar, she felt pressure from her university – both in her role as an early career academic and an indigenous scholar – as well as from her community to contribute:

> I can survive but I think it is, it's a lot to sort of go through. I hope that you will interview more than just one indigenous educator because we talk a lot about this. We talk a lot about if we didn't have each other I don't know that we would've stayed, even to this four and a half months. It might be too much. It might be too much. And we're still, we actually met, 3 of us women went out for dinner last, and we talked about is it worth it? Because it is, you know that you're not just facing normal academic burdens that any new tenure-track is going to have to face. You're also facing community expectations, faculty expectations, spotlights. It's a different positioning that is awkward. And maybe unachievable.

Nicole discussed her situation around the idea of sustainability, that her current lifestyle was not sustainable. Her salary, the main source of income for her family, was not enough to support them. Additionally, the amount of work

that she was undertaking could not be kept up over the long term. She described the viability of her situation as,

> I guess the question of sustainability just comes down to you've arrived somewhere, you want to stay, you want to do what you were trained to do in a profession that has an incredibly long incubation period, right? … And so because it's vocational, because it's a passion, you really want to be in some place where you can sustain that. And I don't feel sustained, … that's part of why this has been such a hard year is because it's been financially very, very stressful. And to work so hard and feel like you're not making it, that, I just want to work as hard as I can and I just don't want to worry about paying bills.

For both Nicole and Evelyn, they started thinking about whether or not they were going to continue in academia. Nicole talked about how much she's worked and how difficult the year has been:

> So main difference, here's something that I'm getting used to now but that really was hard for me when I arrived. I had no idea what it meant to be an assistant professor. I had no idea. … And I've worked hard and I've never worked, in my whole life, I've never worked as hard as I have this year. I've never cried as much as I have this. I've never had as hard a year. This has been, like I understand why people leave the academy. I understand why people are leaving the academy right, left and centre, right now.

Evelyn, while finding people who support and collaborate with her, still questioned staying in her job. She described her experience as,

> I think the collaboration amongst the new colleagues and I is going to be really key to survival. That's how I'm feeling. It's really beautiful to have the mentoring of senior people in my department … and that's been critical. But it's also that close collaboration with the new hires that are going through a similar experience in terms of being overwhelmed. Yeah, and still weighing out is this really worth it? Because it is, it truly is just, it's overwhelming.

And in a different interview, she stated, "In truth, I don't know if I'm going to continue."

As participants talked about their considerable levels of busyness and stress, I often had visceral reactions to their descriptions. In thinking about what lay ahead for me as an academic, I told Nicole that her description of the job was giving me heart palpitations. She responded,

> I know, it gives me heart palpitations for the present, but at the same time, but I can already feel a shift from when we talked in terms of, like

> I'm seeing the light at the end of the tunnel, I think, you know, another year or so and, I feel like it's not all going to be crazy forever.

Nicole's "light at the end of the tunnel" was true for many participants, who experienced the level of busyness and the accompanying stress decrease after the first year. Tom talked about a decrease in busyness, no longer having to start all of his lectures from scratch. He described the change in his situation as,

> It's easier. Less stressful for sure. Last year was extremely stressful because I was writing everything. I was writing every single lecture, everything was new. New content every single day. So that was very tiring. … So this year I'm a bit more, I'm rewriting all my courses, so, which is a problem in a different way. It's less stressful but it's still a lot of work.

With familiarity and experience in the job, many participants talked about decreasing stress from their first year. Interestingly, this finding is in conflict with some of the findings from two longitudinal studies in higher education that found that stress increased between the first and third years in the job (Menges, 1996; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). However, these studies focused on pre-tenure experiences and increases in stress were associated with approaching tenure applications. This finding is consistent with the role transition of graduate nurses, with stress decreasing and changing in form as comfort with new roles increases (Duchscher, 2008).

Participants varied in their experience of feeling busy and feeling stressed due to busyness. Participants also varied in their reaction to or strategies in dealing with busyness and stress. Some participants, feeling busy, simply stopped paying attention to information that was directly related to their situation. Nathaniel used the strategy of ignoring anything that will not directly impact him:

> No, it's not seamless. Some of the stuff are, you know, complicated that I just ignore it. I'll tell you. In orientation there was information overload. But in the whole first semester there was overload that I wasn't really caring about lots of stuff. I figured out what I needed. It was that bad. Still I haven't figured out how to send my printing in by using the system instead of walking down there. … I really don't need to worry about this now. So stuff like this that were not easy to do, I'll just ignore them as long as they're not detrimental to my performance.

Niels also used this strategy with emails. He stated,

> Of course I get all these emails that are distributed, new laws and new implementations of these policies, but I just delete them. I don't read them. … I can't be bothered to spend time reading, right? So they weren't directed to me, I'm just on a huge mailing list. So if they're not directed to me, I don't read them. That's my policy because otherwise, actually you can spend a lot of time reading your emails. There's always this stuff and they're always quite long and they always have attachments. No, I never read that stuff. I just delete it.

It is possible that busyness, stress, and time constraints influence how early career academics seek their information. Many participants discussed the advantage of speaking to colleagues over reading official documentation, citing the saving of time. For example, Seth frequently asked colleagues for their opinions. "For me it's been, the real benefit of people is not only do you get that more comprehensive answer, but you get it quickly."

The informal, and often brief, interactions that participants have with colleagues to answer immediate questions serve the purposes of individuals who are busy and pressed for time. Negative emotions, such as anxiety, lead to what Heinström (2005) calls "fast information surfing," which consists of quickly skimming documents and not engaging with texts.

Despite the variation in experiences, the feeling of being stressed is an important emotion during a transition. The research on transition repeatedly mentions stress as a common part of a transition experience (Chick & Meleis, 1986; Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). It is also a typical emotion experienced by those making the school-to-work transition. Research in higher education also highlights the stress experienced by early career academics as a typical emotion experienced upon taking up a position in academia (e.g., Murray, 2008; Olsen, 1993; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). Interestingly, one of the standard works about emotion and information behaviour, Nahl and Bilal's (2007) *Information and emotion: The emergent affective paradigm in information behaviour research and theory*, does not address stress specifically. While stress is of obvious interest to information behaviour researchers, it is often examined in relation to the use of library sources and services. That stress is an important emotion that impacts information behaviour, beyond traditional "seeking" exercises, is important to note and requires further study.

When starting a new job, feelings of being overwhelmed are not uncommon in the school-to-work transition. Duchscher (2009), examining the transition of newly graduated nurses, coined the term “transition shock” to describe the first few months in settling in. In Duchscher’s study, new nurses displayed “overwhelming, and at times physically and psychologically debilitating, levels of stress” and used a metaphor of “drowning” to describe the initial experience (p. 1106). The early career academics often express being overwhelmed (Murray, 2008; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992), particularly in teaching consuming most of their time and having no time in which to do research (Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). In Murray’s (2008) study, the huge demands placed on these academics led them to be reactive to the demands of their jobs, unable to even attempt to manage what was required. He comments that he found “an almost hopeless sense of despair coming from many participants” (p. 119). That highly trained, capable people are overwhelmed and, in some cases, just surviving should be a concern to all academics. When thinking about information behaviour, being overwhelmed means that all aspects of information behaviour are in service of meeting immediate needs. All but the most pressing information needs are ignored. Information seeking has to be engaged in in a way that minimises effort and time. Information is used in familiar ways, based on previous experience, as there are not opportunities or cognitive space to learn and trial new ways of working. The question is how much adjustment to a transition can take place when individuals are completely overwhelmed and trying to survive.

Frustrated incorporated:[6] Administrative work as a drain and a barrier

Adding to feelings of being stressed and overwhelmed were the added administrative tasks and the feelings of frustration that came with them. Frustration was a prominent affective experience that came through as participants described starting and settling into their new jobs. As I talked with participants and asked them about their transition, I realised that frustrations –

[6] With apologies to the band Soul Asylum

being thwarted in what they were trying to accomplish, in effect not having power over their own situation – was an extremely salient part of their experience. Because I was interested in the progress of their transition and what was happening as they progressed from being new to being settled, I asked them about both their frustrations/failures and joys/successes during one of their check-ins. Frustration was frequently expressed during discussions of bureaucratic and administrative matters, particularly what was taking place on a day-to-day basis. This is not to say that feelings of frustration were not present in other tasks; however, these feelings were overwhelmingly represented during administrative tasks. The sources of the frustration were the lack of autonomy and the expectations early career academics held about their jobs, which are interrelated topics. Academia is an interesting profession in which there is a great deal of autonomy in one's day-to-day work around research and, often, teaching. Many participants discussed being very independent in their PhD studies, being expected to work with a large amount of independence and often preferring to work that way. However, working within a university requires adhering to the constraints of university processes and systems. Expectations of autonomy or how bureaucratic university systems should work, which may or may not be accurate or realistic, can be the source of or contribute to that feeling of being frustrated. At times, frustration came from having to work within the parameters set by the larger system, the effect of SMC. As discussed in the theme *University as monolith*, university bureaucracy and systems can be barrier to getting work done or achieving a goal. That early career academics are trying to accomplish work within these, often unfamiliar, systems can cause feelings of frustration. This is another example of a macro-level sphere influencing affective experiences (Given, 2007). Evelyn was frustrated with her university's annual review process. She stated,

> Yeah, frustrations would mostly be the bureaucracy, the structure around what the university deems important versus what I deem important. And it almost feels like a bit of watchdog type effort, making sure that we're doing what we should be doing. I guess in some cases that's important. For myself I don't really care for the monitoring. I know I work hard with or without somebody watching over me.

For Evelyn, the university system was at odds with her own priorities. The university annual review system, which is designed with the tenure system in mind, focuses on outcomes of research activities. For Evelyn, who prioritises the contribution she makes to her community, this system is in direct opposition. She also expressed frustration with the monitoring, or lack of autonomy, that was embedded within the system. David found his lack of control over when he taught, something that he had not found to be a problem at other universities, to be a source of frustration:

> Still aggravated by the lack of institutional support for giving us control over our schedule. Basically, I tell them what I teach and they decide when I teach it. Which doesn't really work that well if you want to maintain a proper research program.

Much of the frustration expressed by participants was to do with the work around the edges, or administrative work that extended beyond expected teaching, research, and service tasks. For participants starting a new job, frustration often had to do with the setting up of offices and their university accounts, particularly to do with resources and IT. As was the case for many participants when they first arrived, Niels was without an office when he started. This increased the difficult in getting work done and was a source of frustration. He described his experience as,

> I think actually the first sort of month was challenging because … I was actually lacking a workspace for the first month. Then again, I just worked from home. Wasn't a big problem because I used to work a lot from home during my PhD. But having an office makes life a little bit easier because you can sort of organise yourself. That was, like, that was annoying I thought …

Casey had a lot of difficulty when she first arrived, not being able to access her email. Staff within her department used her email address to book several orientation sessions, which she never received, creating problems. She described the problem:

> And it took me four days to fix the email, the problem. Yeah, fours days later I can access the current email account. So I just felt very, at that time I felt so, [laughs], so hopeless sometimes. Because to me, if I couldn't attend a meeting, I normally let the person know … I felt much better but at the time I felt very frustrated because I blame myself because I think that's not my mistake but I felt, okay maybe people they may think that's my mistake because I didn't look at the emails or

> whatever or I forgot to attend the meeting. But yeah, anyway when you start a new job you can, you normally experience, you know, encounter lot of problems.

Casey went on to relate that as a result of not getting the email invitations for induction sessions, she not only missed the sessions but that a staff member running the session emailed her head of discipline to complain about her lack of attendance. Casey's frustration is apparent in her description of her experience, in addition to her feelings of despondence and concern. That what is beyond Casey's control can have so much impact on her life and how others in her department perceive her, is, indeed, a frustration.

That these tasks took time and energy to complete – tasks that they often did not see as part of the important work they had to do – added to the frustration and stress of new academics. Additionally, this work to set up the basics of an office necessitated finding information about how to solve their problems, which often was complicated or challenging to undertake, particularly for a new employee unfamiliar with the university systems.

Frustration was also expressed over having to engage with administrative work that was part of bureaucracy. However, for many participants, performing administrative tasks was a source of frustration, exacerbated by a lack of help and systems that work in perplexing ways. Seemingly trivial tasks became onerous and took significant time to complete. Several participants had difficulties in dealing with submitting expenses for reimbursement from the university. In one of the most frustrating experiences, Madeline describes the inadequate help she received from a professional staff member in the finance office to put in an expense claim, after having her own claims rejected three times:

> So she comes down to my office, … builds the expense form on my computer. I watch her do it. It looks exactly like what I was doing, and then, so this was on a Friday, and on a Monday it bounced back to me, rejected by her, even though she had just built it on the Friday. And I responded to her being like, "Can you explain to me why you rejected your own claims form?" And she forwarded it to someone else saying, "Can you answer [Madeline's] question?" I was like, aaahhhh! *Oh my god*.

For an early career academic to have to work so hard to figure out a system, in addition to spending a large amount of time attempting to submit multiple times, is not only frustrating but also exasperating. Madeline was not the only one to have to deal with the same administrative task over and over. While Madeline persevered and sought out help from a trained staff member, others having issues with information systems began to ignore the problem. Whereas Madeline persevered to get reimbursed, Leanne, after several unsuccessful attempts to fix her problem, began ignoring the frequent phone messages she received for someone in IT who previously had her office phone number. Often these messages were time sensitive and involved issues such as software licenses expiring. She described trying to deal with the issue:

> So since July, this has not been done. I don't know, I kept contacting people. I don't know who I have to contact. Like the president of the university? I don't know. I know for sure somebody's licenses have expired by now, like a lot of them, but they just, I've stopped caring now. I feel that I've paid my dues. I've flagged it a million times so I'm done now.

While the examples provided by participants may seem mundane, they illustrate the frustrations that early career academics feel about their work. The time academics spend on non-academic work, combined with the perception of not having sufficient time to spend on research, contributes to low levels of job satisfaction (Bentley et al., 2012, p. 48). Research is generally viewed to be the core of academics' work. Several participants discussed the need to limit service work and the need to ensure teaching did not take up all of their time. Research is central not only because it is the focus of doctoral education, what academics have spent many years in preparation for, but it is also on what academics are primarily judged. While teaching must be proficient, academics are judged on their research output. To have an activity outside research, teaching, or service – namely administrative work – take away time from that which is most import is a constant source of frustration. This is exacerbated by the lack of institution support – social, intellectual, physical resources – that is necessary for early career academics, especially to their professional satisfaction (Olsen, 1993). These stories also demonstrate the amount of time spent on tasks other than research, teaching, and service.

The frustrations faced by early career academics not only required time to solve the issues, but it also depleted the energy of early career academics. Madeline talked openly about her frustrations with administrative tasks:

> This is the thing, if I had to identify stuff that was the most frustrating, that took up mental energy, that took up time from work that I ought to be doing instead, it's this administrative bullshit. It's just, and nobody really prepares you to do that, right? But I shouldn't say that. My advisor at one point says, "Spend a chunk of time at a major American research university so you can see how, what it's like to do research with support." I'm thinking, "Well, that's a really odd statement." And now the more I know, the more she's right …

The idea that these tasks and their accompanying frustration take up "mental energy" is an important one. This is reminiscent of Duchscher's (2008) research on the transitions of newly graduated nurses, during frustration and the "subsequent energy consumption" (p. 446) is experienced in learning to do the job, as well as through their continued development on the job.

Often participants' frustration levels were palpable as they described types of jobs that added to their workload and that prevented them from accomplishing what they considered to be more important work. From discussion with participants, it appeared that early career academics categorised the tasks that make up their jobs by level of importance. Administrative jobs did not fall into the category of important. Madeline was not the only one to use the term "bullshit" to describe administrative work. In describing how he spends his time, David stated, "I do all the other, I call it bullshit time, where answering emails and I do all this." Jesse used the term "real work" to describe the types of work that are counted towards tenure. Administrative work was not "real work." That administrative tasks should not be part of their jobs, was an opinion held by some participants. Their expectations of their jobs did not include the large number of administrative tasks or processes that were involved in day-to-day activities. Other participants, particularly those with a lot of experience teaching, felt that administrative tasks come with the job. These participants had very realistic expectations of the types of bureaucratic difficulties that would be a part of their job, which seemed to lessen frustrations. Expectations, being prepared for this aspect of academic work, seemed to influence levels of frustration. The administrative frustrations early

career academics experience become a drain on their time, energy, and resources, becoming a barrier to accomplishing research, teaching, and service work.

Part of the frustration is experienced as an increased need for information – having to find information about things such as how to troubleshoot IT and who to talk to about getting office space to work. This adds an information need to a time of already increased information needs. The information seeking that has to be done to satisfy those needs is typically taking place in an unfamiliar environment, increasing the difficulty in tracking down people and sources. Chick and Meleis (1986) talk about one of the challenges of transitions being that resources no longer exist in the new environment, which can cause uncertainty and anxiety. This may also extend to ways of working that are no longer effective in a new role or environment. Add to this that information seeking becomes more difficult when people experience negative emotions (Heinström, 2005) or, as Nahl (2005) terms it, "affective load" is high. Mentis (2007) found that users remembered frustrating experiences with information systems more when they were related to the outcome of using the system, when a goal was thwarted. Additionally, Mentis found users were frustrated by things that interrupt a task, taking away their control. This finding fits with the experiences of early career academics in this study who were frustrated when work was interrupted (often by bureaucracy), and when outcomes of work could not be achieved.

Overarching theme: "Systemic Managerial Constraints"

In thinking about these major themes from the interview and check-in data, it became clear that there are larger forces at work in shaping academics' information practices in transition. While some of the experiences participants related had to do with normal transitions from one point of life to another, from "school" to work, the larger social order was having a marked impact. So much of the work early career academics do is shaped and limited by universities' managerial practices. The administrative layer put onto the already heavy

workload of early career academics – taking time and energy away from their research, teaching, and service – increases their information needs, changes how they gather information, increases the burden on colleagues to help, and contributes to feelings of instability, being overwhelmed, and frustrated. In looking at neoliberalism as a theoretical framework, the overarching theme, which I have termed Systemic Managerial Constraints (SMC), emerged.

SMC is the view that the managerialism that results from neoliberalism within universities is pervasive and constrains both what work early career academics do and how they do it. "Managerial" refers to the managerialism rampant in universities. Managerialism is the implementation of systems and ways of working that are common within the private sector, with an increased role for managers. "Prominent features of a managerialist approach in higher education include a focus on efficiency and effectiveness (including the efficient and effective use of time and space), on quality assurance, accountability, and cost-savings" (Anderson, 2006, p. 579). Fenwick (2013) describes a consequence of managerialism as the "control of work has shifted from the internal professional community as a collective, self-regulating body towards external performance measures and managerial planning" (p. 354). "Systemic" refers to the pervasiveness of a managerial approach. It is not isolated; rather it is endemic to the university and found in the many and various roles held by academics in research, teaching, and service. It harkens back to the "administrative layer" that is added to all areas of academics' work. "Constraints" refers to limitations and restrictions. While the influence of managerialism is pervasive, it does not control what academics do, rather it influences, shapes, and constrains both the work they do and how they do that work. SMC is not unique to early career academics' experiences, or only affecting their experiences within the university. However, these academics' "precarity" makes them more vulnerable to its effects and has distinct influence that established researchers, who have achieved confirmation or tenure, may experience in different ways. This is not to say that senior academics do not experience precarity in their own situations. Gill (2009) notes, "Precariousness is one of the defining experiences of contemporary academic life -- particularly, but not exclusively, for younger or 'career early' staff" (p. 234). Giroux (2007)

and Ginsberg (2011) have both noted that in the neoliberal university there has been decrease in the protection of tenured faculty members, with academics being disciplined or fired for expressing opinions inside or outside the classroom. SMC has far reaching effects, beyond early career academics. SMC is not a phrase that has been used in research literature. However, other researchers have looked managerialism at a systemic level. "Systemic managerialism" is a phrase that most frequently appears in the criminal justice literature, having been coined by Bottoms in 1995 to identify one form of managerialism within the criminal justice system.[7] SMC extends beyond this to also explore the ways in which increasing administrative controls shape and direct the work of academics.

The university currently exists in a time when, "Increasingly, the public is calling for 'relevance' and 'accountability,' and the modernist scholar is being asked to provide compelling material justifications for his or her scholarship" (Côté & Allahar, 2011, p.17). SMC is the result of a modern university system that privileges managerialism over the purported mission of higher education, with "administration in all its manifestations [having] now become an end in itself" (Hil, 2012, p. 125). In trying to demonstrate quality and accountability to funders, the university attempts to control academics' work – both what work is accomplished and the ways in which it is accomplished. This theme contributes to the academic literature about the influence of neoliberalism on higher education, particularly around topics such as commodification of education, corporatisation of universities, accountability, and managerialism (e.g., Archer, 2008; Côté & Allahar, 2011; Fredman & Doughney, 2012; Hil, 2012; Kimber & Ehrich, 2015; Lorenz, 2012; Readings, 1996). The structures, systems, processes, and procedures intended to help regulate academic work become an end in and of themselves, rather than a means to promote and support the work that is central to academics'

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[7] This form of managerialism emphasises cooperation between agency to fulfil goals, seeks to create strategic plans and key performance indicators relating to agency mission statements, and actively monitors information about the system (Bottoms, 1995, p. 25).

disciplinary efforts and career goals (i.e., disciplinary research, teaching, and service).

The resulting audit culture, having to account for all time and money, is more than simply demonstrating financial responsibility to the public. In the first instance, it does not recognise the professionalism or autonomy of academics in their roles. Rather it shifts responsibilities to managers and administrators tasked with keeping account. This has added to the rise in the number of university administrators, who, rather than academics doing administrative rotation, are more frequently working solely in administration (Ginsberg, 2011). This increase in an administrative class means that power shifts from academics to managers (Giroux, 2002). Not only do administrators add to the administrative workload of academics, but there is frequently a disconnect between how academics and administrators view the university's mission, with administration viewing research and teaching as a means, rather than an end (Ginsberg, 2011). Rather than the focus being on research and teaching, it is on what research and teaching can do for the university. And what is done for the university must be counted, making it demonstrable to the public. "The social responsibility of the University, its accountability to society, is solely a matter of services rendered for a fee. Accountability is a synonym for accounting in 'the academic lexicon'" (Reading, 1996, p. 32). The rendering of services for a fee changes the role of higher education from one of education to one of commerce. The changes in higher education have led theorists such as Derrida (1983) and Giroux (2010a) to question the purpose of higher education. While higher education can be considered a matter of public good, "In many ways, the cost accounting principles of efficiency, calculability, predictability, and control of the corporate order have restructured the meaning and purpose of education" (Giroux, 2002, p. 442). Giroux goes on to say that, "The new corporate university values profit, control, and efficiency, all hallmark values of the neoliberal corporate ethic. These far outweigh considerations about pedagogy or the role of the faculty maintaining some control over what they teach" (Giroux, 2002, p. 434).

While the impact of neoliberalism has been discussed in the academic literature, what is less often discussed is what this shift toward neoliberalism,

managerialism, and an audit culture means for academics on a day-to-day basis – i.e., beyond those larger trends, such as a decrease in full-time positions, an erosion of tenure, an increase in funding to administrators, and a reduction in funding to programs that are less vocationally focused. The early career academics in this study faced many of these issues. However, daily, this played out in a shift in academics' workload. Rather than focusing on research, teaching, and service, there was a shift toward more administrative tasks – both doing their own administrative work and an increase in the variety and frequency of those tasks. Additionally, there was a decrease in autonomy over some of their tasks, being required to work with the established practices and information systems. So while much of the literature focuses on a decrease in democracy and the shift to corporate culture, on the ground, this neoliberalism is played out in more subtle ways that frustrate and wear down academics, particularly new academics who are already tasked with getting to know a new role in a new environment.

The next section will discuss the nature of academic work and the increasing managerial constraints within it. The second section will discuss the precarity of early career academics' situations, the result of which decreases their power and increases the power of university managers and administrators. The third section will include a discussion about how colleagues help to ameliorate this precarity. The last section discusses how early career academics use their agency to deal with SMC. Throughout each section the affect of SMC on the information behaviour of early career academics is also addressed.

The nature of academic work

Throughout Chapter 4 there has been a thread in the discussion about how the neoliberal point of view has touched many academics' day-to-day research, teaching, service – and the informational practices that support those roles. This neoliberal influence frequently is seen in the imposition of administrative tasks, audit practices, restrictive policies, and prescriptive procedures – i.e., many of those things discussed in the theme *University as*

Monolith. The university is one in which, “attending to administrative affairs – form filling, preparing reports, completing review documents, applications and so on – largely [becomes] the order of the day” (Hil, 2012, p. 32). As a result, university structures, systems, processes, and procedures – and the information required to do these additional tasks, as well as lack of information about these processes, procedures, policies, and systems – serve as barriers to getting work done or as systems that create more obstacles to be overcome. This was the case for Leanne, who discussed the administrative load associated with her teaching:

> But there is a fairly heavy administrative burden that comes with it because there are documents that you have to read. … We’re going to have less support with teaching now. And I think that since I’m teaching more so that administrative part of teaching increases. And there is, you know, the posting and the posting of the grades and ordering books and posting course outlines. … You know, this whole, the expense reports and all of that stuff. I’m terrible at it. I’m terrible at it. But I guess you just, every job has this component, this administrative component. So, but just the university being a large bureaucratic organisation, it’s obviously going to be more so than in a private company. And there are much more inefficiencies in this system.

From this quote, which was partially quoted previously, there are three aspects of Leanne’s discussion that should be further explored. The first is about information needs. This change in academic work, this “administrative burden” is not simply more work; it is a different kind of work, for which early career academics typically have not been prepared. Added to the information needs they have about doing work, for which they have been prepared, in a new environment – they need to learn who their colleagues are, how to find their way around new buildings, start developing new research plans – they also have to learn the policies and procedures for how to account for their work, how to fill out forms and reports, and how to fit their research, teaching, and service into the university structures such as the institutional learning management system and online ethics application forms. The “posting of the grades and ordering books and posting course outlines” are all activities that have to be learned and take time and energy to figure out and then accomplish. Early career academics have high information needs when they start. The changes to academic work, including increasing managerialism, increases those information needs and places an additional burden on academics’ shoulders.

The second point is one of language. As Leanne works in the discipline of business, with a private sector background, her use of vocabulary such as "inefficiencies" may be influenced by this background. It is reminiscent of Mark's use of terms, discussed in sub-theme *Ways of Working*, such as "outsourcing" when discussing using research assistants to do many of his research tasks and "value-added" to describe his own work. This demonstrates how the public sector is now beginning to adopt the language of the private sector. As Giroux (2002) states,

> Market forces have radically altered the language we use in both representing and evaluating human behavior and action. One consequence is that civic discourse has given way to the language of commercialism, privatization, and deregulation. In addition, individual and social agency are defined largely through market-driven notions of individualism, competition, and consumption (p. 426).

In taking the constructionist view that meaning and knowledge are created through language, changing the language means a shift in understanding of the world. Beginning to speak of "efficiencies," "outsourcing," and "new hires" (as newly hired faculty were called in several of the university documents) means that there is a shift in thinking of universities from places of higher education to corporations, and seeing early career academics not as educators, but as content experts and employees. The use of the language of business and of business principles can begin to shift how academics' work is viewed. Jesse and Mark both discussed changes in how they worked, shifting more to being a manager, spending more time in meetings, writing grants, and managing people. While Jesse discussed this in a negative light, Mark discussed it as a positive. Niels described being an academic as,

> I guess it doesn't feel like you're so much of an employee as you're running your own sort of independent business, if you will. I guess if you have your own book project or your own research project over a couple of years it's like being like, I guess, having your own sort of shop or business that you're full invested in, versus here you sort of have to be just sort of, you're just part of a larger machine, right? I do think that's a huge difference.

This can be a very successful way of working within academia, a way to increase grants and publications. And this makes sense, when a neoliberal view is taken. As Bourdieu (1998) states,

> For they sanctify the power of markets in the name of economic efficiency, which requires the elimination of administrative or political barriers capable of inconveniencing the owners of capital in their individual quest for the maximisation of individual profit, which has been turned into a model of rationality" (para. 11).

The last aspect that Leanne's quote demonstrates is hegemony of neoliberalism. For most, if not all, early career researchers, this administrative work is an expected part of the job, with "university being a large bureaucratic organisation." Madeline also felt this about universities, saying, "Universities are especially bureaucratic and…there are boxes that must be checked for everything. Which it's just kind of like, 'Oh my god, you guys, just check the box. Just check the box.'" Rather than being an important aspect of the job, Madeline describes these administrative activities, the "administrative crap" as she calls it, as tick box exercises. David wrote about wishing for a change in bureaucratic processes,

> I had to apply to internal funds for conferences this year, and I received money from two separate funds, which means I will have to do two reports. Kind of sucks and I wish there was a better, less bureaucratic, way to fill those forms. I must say I have little interests in admin work as I am not really the best person to do those sorts of things.

While David talked at different points about trying to push boundaries around bureaucratic processes and expressed a desire for professional staff to do administrative work, there is still the basic assumption that bureaucratic processes are a part of universities. Rather than asking questions about whether universities should be run like corporations with corporate bureaucracies, the desire is for a tweaking of the current system, or "a better, less bureaucratic, way." This is because, despite problems, this is the nature of universities. As Harvey (2005) states,

> Neoliberalism has, in short, become hegemonic as a mode of discourse. It has pervasive effects on ways of thought to the point where it has become incorporated into the common-sense way many of us interpret, live in, and understand the world (p. 3).

These views of academic work have become hegemonic because they are part of a powerful discourse about the way the world works. Universities are like corporations and corporations must be managed, accountable to stakeholders.

Managerialism and accounting necessitate bureaucratic work, with the accompanying information needs and required learning of skills and processes. The change in the nature of academic work has a lot to do with power.

Precarity

Who gets to decide what the mission of higher education is? How should universities be run? These questions are about who has the power to decide the future of higher education. Writing almost three decades apart, Derrida (1983) pointed to a "major debate is underway today on the subject of the politics of research and teaching, and on the role that the university may play in this arena" (p. 11) and Giroux (2010a) discussed pedagogy as "a political issue that is about power, the meaning of education, and what role faculty, students, and administrators are going to play in shaping a future much different from the present" (p. 194). Several theorists, including Giroux, Chomsky, and Bourdieu, rail against the neoliberalism and the effect it has on higher education. Bourdieu (1998) calls neoliberalism a "strong discourse;" it is not simply one discourse amongst an array but it has "the means of *making itself true* and empirically verifiable" (para. 4). Those who use the neoliberal discourse find it effective in enacting their will. Those who implement neoliberalist policies and techniques are able to take and retain power, power that is concentrated with administrators, rather than academics. It is through administration and management that power is exerted. As Chomsky (2015) states, "there's layer after layer of management — a kind of economic waste, but useful for control and domination" (para. 7). For early career academics in this study, Systemic Managerial Constraints and the accompanying lack of power was experienced as precarity and required them to decide how to enact their agency within their context.

"As universities move towards a corporate business model, precarity is being imposed by force" (Chomsky, 2015, para. 1). The term precarity is a useful one, describing the instability that exists for many academics. While some of the literature on the precarity in higher education focuses on casual or

adjunct academics as those who experience instability most directly (e.g., Chomsky, 2015; Giroux, 2010a, 2014), there is an acknowledgement that in general higher education is not a stable environment for many who work within it. And while there is little doubt that casual and adjunct academics are most influenced by the precarity in higher education, the academic workforce becomes more precarious in a system with fewer jobs and that has created an underclass of workers. As discussed in the subtheme, *In/Stability: Simultaneous and oppositional feelings of security*, early career academics, many of whom have been adjunct or casual academics, are in the precarious situation of not yet having been confirmed or achieved tenure.

Adam, who is in the discipline of philosophy and had a two-year contract with his university, discussed his concerns about government funding to his discipline:

> I'm mindful of the general direction of politics in higher education. I am watching [then prime minister of Australia] Tony Abbott's government with a fair amount of disbelief about just how surreal some of the decisions he's making is. … So right before the election, right? Philosophy was in the news because there are a couple of [Australian Research Council] grants which were philosophy ARC grants which were singled out by one of the coalition members of parliament as being ridiculous and a waste of taxpayers' money. And they talked about redistributing ARC funds, which kind of just signalled alarm bells for anybody in philosophy. And there was, a lot of people leapt to the defence of philosophy, actually, in particular. … So it's that mindset which makes you very nervous about what could be done, with respect to funding.

There has been a push in Australia for universities to provide more job-related degrees, as well as in Canada. This is a concern particularly for those in the arts and humanities. Tom, when asked if the governmental budgets had an impact on him, replied,

> I think anyone who says otherwise is lying. Or they're living in some sort of parallel universe. I mean, you know it's an anxious, somewhat anxious times, I think to live in Alberta right now and to teach in the humanities. I haven't quite gotten to the point where I'm able to articulate exactly how to make a defence of the humanities in Alberta, but there's definitely a need for that. … So in given that context, like I'm thinking about developing courses in more applied kind of fields … But at the same time I feel somewhat like, no. In a way it's also clarified, I think, our goal, my goal, of like we have to create people

> who can think and write and deal with information. … So in a sense I think, you know, a province that's growing needs that more than any other province, so, you know, it helps me clarify in that sense.

There is a legitimate fear of universities following governments' lead and de-valuing education without a strong vocational component. As Giroux (2002) states,

> The message is clear: Knowledge with a high exchange value in the market is what counts, while those fields, such as the liberal arts and humanities that cannot be quantified in such terms will either be underfunded or allowed to become largely irrelevant in the hierarchy of academic knowledge (p. 442).

The precarity surrounding disciplines that are not seen as being of value to free markets extends to academics in those fields. Despite being on a long-term contract, Adam's position is not permanent and, as his quote demonstrates, there funding of his discipline, and by extension his job, remains uncertain. Jason also felt this precarity, which he related in an anecdote,

> I was [at a conference] a couple of years ago and there was a presentation for all senior staff members and it was basically about someone presenting on what had happened in their department where they'd basically gotten rid of all the theorists and saying it was the best thing they ever did and that it was, since then productivity went up, that their grant funding, they basically found out if they replaced all the theorists with, you know, qual and quant researchers, everything on paper got better. And a group of us were kind of horrified, hearing this, just, especially a group of our senior theorists. But especially me knowing that I have to find a job in this area.

As Jason's story demonstrates, the instability that Adam and Jason describe is warranted. So while they are gathering more information about their situation and learning about the current trends in higher education, there is little that more information can provide. However, they must keep up-to-date as situations change. In unstable situations, the information environment needs to be scanned frequently in order to determine if there are changes and then to determine if those changes will have an influence. Adam and Jason do not describe being in a situation in which they feel the need for more information, but they keep abreast of what is happening. But even knowing what is going on, they describe being in a situation in which they are with little power. The precarity they describe is something that they live with and try to manage.

Of course, not having a position is a precarious situation. However, precarity follows early career academics into the workforce. In an attempt to manage the uncertainty of fewer permanent academic jobs and having multiple year-long contracts, Tim looked to manage that uncertainty through his choice in research topic. He described the impact of budgets this way,

> I find it doesn't interact with my day-to-day; it interacts with my annuals. Once a year or so I get very, very concerned – and during elections also very concerned. … With the broader government decisions, you really can't do much about them, you have to learn to live with them. But the part that gives me the most anxiety about those are the durations of contracts for early career academics. … So that's why I'm publishing in an area which I know I can publish a lot of things quite soon in quite new areas for that. But with the change in government and so on, the issue really is what will I be doing next year.

Tim chose to publish in an area that is relatively new specifically to make sure he can publish quickly, hoping that this will help his search for a permanent position. This strategic choice of topic can be viewed as a way of reacting to working in the unstable higher education. Because budgets are tight and publications are valued, Tim chose a relatively unstudied topic that he can publish more rapidly, thus engaging in practices to potentially make his insecure position in higher education more secure. Precarity requires early career academics to be aware of changes in their information environment. The changes in the information environment mean that information needs also shift.

Collegial amelioration

As discussed in the subtheme, *University communication: Impeding academics' work*, early career academics are often left without information or information that they need in order to make decisions and do their job. To not have information – or accurate information – about a situation, is a significant disadvantage. Information, a type of capital, has power and to be without necessary information is to be almost powerless. Where early career academics receive a significant amount of information, as discussed in the section*, The*

social flow of information: Colleagues shouldering the informational burden, is from their colleagues. Colleagues provide significant help to early career academics in various ways, but particularly in providing needed information. This is an example of those with relatively more power helping those with relatively less. More senior colleagues, those with more authority in and knowledge of their institutions, can help ameliorate the disparity in power through help and information they give to early career academics.

Being in a new position comes with increased information needs, from trying to figure out everything from where the supply closet is located, to knowing research output requirements. Some of the topics that early career academics need information about can be sensitive. Being new and in a situation with relatively little power means that early career academics may not always feel safe in asking for the information they need. As quoted earlier, Nicole described going to three of her colleagues, “And there are the 3 senior women that are on my side, that they are for me. And so I ask all 3 of them regularly, anything. And I feel very safe to do that.” The creation of relationships can provide opportunities for early career academics to seek information from colleagues.

Many of the processes and procedures within universities can be opaque. It is difficult to get information about how they actually work. Those academics with experience and have been through the processes have gained important knowledge. The process of confirmation or tenure is one that is difficult for many early career academics, requirements often being uncertain and the concern over whether one’s work is up to standard. Sharing private documents like a tenure dossier can help early career academics understand requirements and provide a practical look at what is required. Evelyn related a colleague sharing with her,

> And I think, you know, [Colleague A] is our senior here, she’s got 10 years working within the faculty of education, and she certainly has also been another touchstone. She’s absolutely extended a hand to help us through and I think, you know, she brought out her binder that you have to produce in order to gain tenure and it struck the fear of god into me.

While striking “the fear of god” into her, the information that Evelyn’s colleague provided helped to reduce some of the uncertainty around the process.

In sharing knowledge, Evelyn gained some power over her situation. This happened for Evelyn on other occasions, in which her colleagues gave her practical information about what to do, translating university documents into useful ways of working. As quoted earlier, “And they can give me, you know, ‘Oh don’t bother with that, just do this,’ they sort of get to the meat of it.” The practical information that Evelyn’s colleagues gave her gave her insider insight into how things work at the university. There is often a divide between what is said and what is done in practice. This is the difference between the insider and the outsider’s view. In sharing information, Evelyn’s colleagues provided her with that insider’s viewpoint.

While these are small examples, throughout this chapter early career academics’ discussions of colleagues has demonstrated the help they provide to newly hired academics. This help includes providing opportunities, giving time, and sharing information. In sharing information they share practical information, knowledge, and insights about their context. The practical information helps early career academics in accomplishing their day-to-day work, but, as information is a form of power, it signals an acceptance and a sharing of that power. This information is critical in early career academics being able become a part of their new environment, thus reducing the precarity of being new. As the junior academic in the relationship and the one who often sought information or advice or help, many were acutely aware of an imbalance in their relationship; they were receiving help that they could not necessarily reciprocate. However, this tends to be how collegial relationships in academia work, with most of the giving done by senior colleagues. And in the case with helping out junior colleagues, it is truly giving. Unless a part of a formal program, the help senior colleagues provide to early career academics is not recognised or counted by universities. Early career academics recognised the time and energy colleagues spent helping, much of which is crucial to the success of newly hired academic. However, the help senior colleagues provide remains unpaid and unrecognised labour, labour that is in addition to their own often heavier teaching, research, service, and administrative loads. Senior academics, some of whom are in positions with more administrative

responsibility, carry workloads that limit or prevent them from donating their time to help early career academics.

Agency and SMC

Despite working with a constrained, managerialist structure, early career academics do have agency and power to act in the world. Early career academics exercise their agency in order to accomplish their goals, taking the information they have and putting it to use in their new environment. However, the context in which academics work can constrain their power to act. Bourdieu (1998) discussed neoliberalism and its effects, presenting a picture of unstable employment in which responsibilities have been delegated to employees, who then take part in "self-exploitation" and participate in their own management (para. 8). This precarious world in which all is against all, each person clinging to their own job, is sustained by the "existence of a *reserve army of employees rendered docile by these social processes that make their situations precarious,* as well as by the permanent threat of unemployment (para. 9). While Bourdieu may accurately depict some working conditions, academics often have more autonomy and power than many other types of employees. Additionally, there are different ways to react to a "Darwinian world" (Bourdieu, 1998, para.9). Early career academics must choose how they will react in this world in order to accomplish their academic work while maintaining their personal values and goals.

In Australia, the government's system of evaluating the research output of academic units, ERA, is based on research output within a particular field of research (FoR). As the ERA document states, "The Unit of Evaluation for ERA is the research discipline for each institution as defined by FoR codes. … UoEs do not correspond to named disciplines, departments or research groups within an institution" (Commonwealth of Australia, 2015, p.5). Academic units include academics who conduct research and publish within one ore more (typically related) FoR codes. Research outputs (e.g., publications) and inputs (e.g., grants) are also coded with at least one FoR code, which form the basis

for the ERA assessment process. Therefore, academic units need to have their researchers publishing in the discipline(s) that most closely align with the areas of expertise of their academic units. Additionally, Claire's university has developed a policy to determine if academics are "research active," which requires academics to publish a certain number of publications and/or receive grants within a specified period of time. Research active status applies beyond the probationary period and is often required for academics to be permitted to supervise research students, to receive promotion and, in some cases, to maintain employment. The ERA assessment process increases the pressure to produce research and has implications for the venues in which researchers publish, as Claire described,

> And about 3 or 2 years ago we had a directive that when the FoRs were first being used, the university sector didn't really know how the government was going to use it and how other universities were going to use it and one of the issues that came up was that the publications that you code by FoR reflect on the ranking of your institute, so within our institute we've got quite an interdisciplinary team, so people are ranking under different codes, then we don't necessarily rank well … so now we've got a directive to rank using that code to ensure that our ranking reflects the amount of research we're doing. … I'm much more focused on the journals, like when I do a piece of research trying to think what journal will it go into, and if it's a journal that isn't going to have any bearing on my ranking as research active, my categorisation as research active, then that's not good. I'm conscious of it. And because I've seen people lose their jobs because of the retrospective use of this policy, so I'm conscious that I need to do it, otherwise I don't have a job in 2 year's time.

For Claire, who saw this system retroactively applied at her university, this meant the loss of jobs for colleagues who were not producing at the desired level. So despite having a two-year contact, Claire still feels the instability of her position. She pays attention to the changes in her information environment, trying to figure out what she can do to reduce the precarity of her situation. So while Claire specifically mentioned not changing her research to suit FoR codes, she is still thinking strategically about where to publish and how that affects her status within the university. Claire uses the information she has about her own research, publication venues, and university policies, trying to tailor her research activities in a way that will contribute to her status as an active

researcher by publishing research and actively seeking out peer-reviewed venues that count within the university's policy framework. Claire deals with this accountability measure in what Teelken (2012) terms formal instrumentality, involving a "reliance on formal arrangements and instruments (such as the accreditation scheme or the quality care instruments) without a critical perspective" (p. 278). She is aware, or "conscious," of the situation and uses her agency within the system to both fulfil institutional requirements and forward her own research agenda. However, she does not critique the system. This was the case with many participants who worked within the system as much as they could, adapting where needed for their work to fit within university structures. This was an effective way of making progress within the job.

Other early career academics also worked within the system, but were more actively critical of it. Nicole discussed the adjudication of research,

> The adjudication structures for the grants, the tenure and the raises is not about that. It's about speaking to people who have no idea bout your field and where everything, all the boxes are ticked and it all looks polished and pretty and good. … [I]n some ways it's always been the case that, but I remain convinced that the bureaucratic kind of business model for the university … it's like there's a whole new level to which it's saturated everything and turned everything into a little kind of an outcomes, productivity markers that can all be assessed immediately and clearly. Things that take time or where the value will only emerge overtime, aren't rewarded. And so figuring out how to just manage that part of the game and spend as little time on it as possible. That's my overall aim. And that if I've learned anything over the last 2 years it's that that's what it means to be here.

So while Nicole does not try to actively fight the system – rather she seeks to "manage" it and sees it as a "game" to be played – her goal is to not allow the managerial activities to take up her time. She uses information about her situation and university policies in order to reduce the impact of managerial activities. Nicole is an example of what Archer (2008) calls "safety/protection through 'playing the game'" (p. 276) and Teelken (2012) terms symbolic compliance, in which there is the "pretension of enthusiasm, while remaining vague creates scope for autonomy" and an adaptation to "changes at a superficial or cosmetic level" (p. 278). This way of working with

managerialism is common when academics have deeply held traditional values about their jobs, as does Nicole who expressed her value for critical pedagogy several times. This is not to imply that someone who was not critical of the system does not have traditional academic values. However, this is a way to work within the system and yet retain as much personal agency. While not being a part of the system means preserving autonomy, it also means having to use information about the situation in a way that demonstrates compliance but does not influence the academic working being undertaken. This can be a difficult way to work.

Other participants, while fewer in number, did challenge or work to change the system, often in small but important ways. This was the case for David who described himself as not being "somebody that works well in bureaucracies. And that's why I'm an academic, right? So I love to do my own thing and if I can avoid to ask for permission, I will." David discussed a situation at his university in which administrators were pushing to have a common and binding syllabus for courses, a "master syllabus." His university was one that had recently undergone the transition from a college (in Canada these are institutions of vocational training) to a university (a degree-granting institution). The change within the institution meant there were opportunities for change in practice. As David related,

> So senior admin are telling us, they're sending us signals, "We don't care." And although we still play the game of the master syllabus, I actually don't care. And I think it's normal. And so right now we're still building master syllabus courses and my chair is still sort of overly paranoid about how term things, so to give as much freedom as we can, but I think a master syllabus is just an indication of what this should be. But it will change, you know, as the course goes because it evolves, I get better, I find new research, I will throw out that section and add another one. That's it. But so we're still playing that old game but what we're getting is that there may be – and I should be careful because I'm still on probation, right?

David is an example of what Archer (2008) calls "challenging/speaking out" (p. 277). However, Archer notes that while challenging managerialism can be an act of enacting agency, there has to be broader support for these actions if early career academics are to make changes. In David's situation, because the university was going through change, there was more opportunity to push

boundaries, which were not rigidly set. The situation still required David to use the information he knew about the context – about what was changes were happening and what amendments were possible – to begin to use his agency to push for change.

In a precarious environment, the transition of academics from doctoral studies to full-time academic positions becomes more than the professional and personal changes that individuals make in taking on a new job. The transition also becomes about how to work within or against SMC to accomplish work that is of value to the academics themselves. Some early career academics took the "professional pragmatism" route (Teelken, 2012, p. 278), fulfilling the managerial requirements of the university, and going along with the entrenched system despite being critical of it. Other early career academics took the "symbolic compliance" route (Teelken, 2012, p. 278), resisting the constraints of managerialism by acting autonomously while seemingly "playing the game" (Archer, 2008, p. 276). Working with or working against SMC is partially about identifying personal values and goals and determining whether those goals and values can be accomplished within the university systems or, if not, what has to be done to perform personally meaningful work. Both ways of enacting personal agency require compromise. Working with SMC means academics compromise on aspects of what work they undertake and how they perform that work. Working against SMC means academics must give up time and effort in determining ways to play the game.

So while early career academics are in precarious situations and managerialism has influenced the nature of academics' work, early career academics retain agency that they can use to forward the work that they value. Managerialism constrains, rather than controls, their work. This section provided evidence for the Systemic Managerial Constraints that exist for early career academics. SMC, the theoretical contribution of this research study, was developed from the examination of the interview, check-in, and documentary data that resulted in the themes *University as monolith: Dictating what academics should do and how; Information exchange as social enterprise*; *Settling in: Mediating between the known and the unknown*; and *Sturm Und Drang: The affective experience of transition*. SMC offers a way to understand

the influence of context on early career academics' work and information behaviour. The next chapter will conclude the research, discussing the contributions this research makes to the field information behaviour, to Transitions Theory, and to practice, as well as a discussion of future research.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

This research, by concentrating on early career academics as they transition from doctoral students to academics, not only elucidates the informational experiences of academics but also contributes to the better understanding of information behaviour during transitions. Taking neoliberalism as a primary theoretical framework for analysis, this research posits Systemic Managerial Constraints as a lens through which to understand early career academics' work contexts, as well as their information behaviour in those contexts. In addition to using neoliberalism, this research also used Transitions Theory as an analytic lens. While this framework helped to focus the research on the process of transition, the data also contribute a new, information behaviour perspective to Transitions Theory. After reviewing the contributions of this study to research on information behaviour and Transitions Theory, this chapter discusses practical implications from this research and proposes areas for future research.

Contribution to information behaviour research

This research demonstrates the importance of examining information behaviour during a transitional period and in making the transition a point of focus. Too often researchers in information science view individuals as stable, acting at a point in time; this does not provide a full picture of what it is like to go through a transition. Those undergoing a transition – such as the "school to work" transition involved in going from doctoral studies to an academic position explored in this study – change roles, responsibilities, contexts, identities, ways of working, and ways of finding and using information. These changes do not take place overnight. In following participants through a transition, and discussing their experiences at multiple points in time, a more complete picture of their experience is gained. Multiple points of contact are

needed as instability and precarity characterise many aspects of the transitional experience, with uncertainty receding and advancing at different points.

Not only does the changeable nature of transitions make them important to study, but liminal spaces – or the thresholds between points of structure and stability – have the ability to shine a light on what is taken for granted. It is at "places and moments of change and transformation that one can see most clearly the processes of domination and resistance, of inclusion and exclusion, and of marginalization and socialization" (Davis, 2008, p. 486). Speaking to participants undergoing transition was a valuable way to better understand academia and their roles within it, particularly related to the power held by universities to restrict academic work and academics' resistance to that restriction. Examining early career researchers during this transition led to the proposed theory of Systemic Managerial Constraints. An example of this was early career academics' strong feelings about the administrative layer added their work and their frustrations about being limited in how they do their job by managerial tasks. Additionally, their discussions of their experiences in finishing off doctoral studies and finding a job highlighted that period as a liminal space, in which they became "structurally invisible" (Turner, 1967/1987, p. 6). Being a casual within academia, with no continuing, named position meant being excluded from aspects of academia including being given information. Many times casual academics were not given the same information or induction sessions as those more firmly within the university's structure. The focus on transitions, particularly on liminal spaces, provided this understanding of early career academics' information experiences.

Individuals undergoing a transition are in process, moving from what they have known, through a period relative turmoil, to what they do not yet know. The movement of their situation means that their information needs change as they come to better know their new environment, as well as the resources and roles within that environment. The most tumultuous time during transition, when attempting to get a job, is characterised by great uncertainty. At this point information needs are uncertain, as there is not enough certainty within the situation to determine what information could be of use. Once a job is obtained, the need for information is greatly increased. While early career

academics are content experts, often coming in with a great deal of experience within academe, a new position and a new institution mean they require information about how to do the job they know in an unknown environment. Participants, particularly those who were relatively new to the job, talked frequently about information needed for the day-to-day activities that take place. These day-to-day information needs changed with the academic calendar, new needs coming to the fore. Once immediate and more urgent needs were taken care of, participants also talked about broader topics such as research plans and career goals. Information needs shifted throughout their transition, making talking to early career academics at different points important to understand these changing needs.

What information needs were considered urgent were partially based on early career academics' previous experiences. Knowing what to expect from a transition can make the transition easier by understanding what will be coming next and being able to prepare for it. A number of participants had experience during their doctoral or postdoctoral studies teaching at the same time as doing research. While for some participants the amount of teaching increased, knowing how to teach was not something new. Knowing how to balance teaching and research was a valuable skill. For those who had little experience teaching, or teaching multiple classes, this was challenging. However, not knowing what is coming next, or having unrealistic expectations, can impede settling in to a new environment. Two things many participants did not expect were how busy they would be or how much time and energy would be taken up by administrative tasks. While all participants were used to being busy and working hard, many were unprepared for just how much busier they were once they accepted the job. Some participants felt that even when warned, there was no way to truly know this until having experienced it for themselves. This was particularly difficult for those participants who thought that they might have more time once their PhDs were completed. What became clear was that, generally, the early career academics in this study were not prepared for administrative work that was a part of the job. The amount of work and how it dictated the ways in which they worked was a source of frustration frequently discussed. This work was categorised by some participants in opposition to

"real work" – teaching and research – or viewed as "not part of my job." These views contributed to an ongoing sense of frustration and resentment about how much time and effort administrative work took. Not being prepared for administrative work, as well as this work being very much tied to the environment in which it took place, meant that it was a frequent area in which early career academics required help.

In asking participants how they "figured out" their new job and what they needed to do, the role of social information, particularly colleagues, became clear. Colleagues and, to a lesser extent, professional staff were often contrasted with university-provided information. This information, frequently in induction programs or on university websites, was often discussed as being lacking or not of the type of at the level needed. The general information university departments provided, which was often in textual form, was often viewed as not being of great value, not being specific enough or practical enough. University information was valued when it came in a personalised form, such as an induction in the department or a professional staff member assigned to help. Colleagues regularly provided this personalised information and speaking to people was vastly preferred over reading documentary informational sources. Colleagues not only provide information, they frequently develop collegial relationships with early career academics and become sources of support. These ongoing interactions with colleagues help early career academics to become socialised within the department, learning from colleagues about how things are done within their particular environment.

The use of McKenzie's (2003) model was useful in understanding the information practices early career academics in this study regularly employ to find the information that they need. Participants, particularly those new to the job, frequently employed active seeking, often with predetermined questions, as a way of finding the information they needed. They frequently sought colleagues and professional staff members out with questions relating to a specific task. Participants also frequently used active scanning putting themselves in situations in which they are able to identify appropriate times to ask questions. One of the important ways this took place was propinquity. Being located physically near colleagues gave early career academics a chance

to frequently interact with them, recognising those opportunities to ask questions. However, collegial relationships extend beyond brief exchanges. Frequently connections are made with more senior colleagues for both professional and personal reasons. Keeping in contact provides opportunities not only to ask questions but to also be involved in activities such as research projects or publishing, opportunities to learn. Ongoing interactions blur the lines between active scanning and a less purposeful practice such as non-directed monitoring. Non-directed monitoring also took place relatively frequently in the form of chatting with colleagues. Through discussions of unrelated matters, useful information was exchanged. Informality was an important aspect of collegial interactions that facilitated information exchange. Informal interactions created opportunities for non-directed monitoring. Propinquity and informality are important aspects for information exchange, particularly for serendipitous information exchange. While participants engaged in a lot of active seeking, knowing what information they needed and asking, active scanning (aided by propinquity) and non-directed monitoring (aided by informal interactions) provided the opportunities for participants to find information they didn't know they needed. What this research has contributed to McKenzie's model is the focus on propinquity and informality as important aspects related to information practices, as well as focusing on ongoing interactions between individuals in collegial relationships. In building collegial relationships, particularly with senior academics, early career academics put themselves in relationships and positions that will provide them with information.

Coming to know in a new environment is challenging. Early career academics bring a lot of experience and expertise to their positions but the role and the environment in which the role takes place are both new. Comparison was an important way for early career academics in transition to use information to help figure out their new situation. Frequently, participants framed their experiences in terms of what was the same and what was different between their experiences as a student and their experience as an academic. In having previous experience that served as a comparison, the points of difference became clearer. Making comparisons also allowed participants to

situate themselves in their current environment, making sense of where they came from and where they currently reside.

The information behaviour of early career academics who are undergoing a transition plays out within the context of Systemic Managerial Constraints, a proposed theoretical contribution of this research. In order to better understand the influence that SMC has on new academics' information behaviour, it has been depicted in a figure providing examples of the managerial constraints and resulting information behaviour. (Please see Figure 5.1.) Early career academics come to their academic positions with knowledge, training, and experience from their doctoral studies. Their previous experiences create expectations of what working in an academic position will be like. Often the Systemic Managerial Constraints are not visible to those that are not "inside" academe in full-time continuing positions. The context which early career academics enter is complex and multilayered. Each layer has systems, processes, and procedures that constrain the work that early career academics do and how they perform that work. The examples provided in Figure 5.1 demonstrate the variety of constraints that academics can experience. For instance, the budget priorities of governments may mean that certain disciplines are funded at higher levels than others, meaning that those disciplines must constantly prove their worth to society. Universities use of annual reporting systems means that academics must demonstrate that their work fits within the categories of the annual report. Universities often prioritise the provision of managerial information in induction sessions, workshops, and within university-created documentary sources, leaving early career academics without the information they require. Academic units may prioritise the administrative help that academics receive from professional staff differently, leaving academics to perform a myriad of administrative tasks that take time and energy away from other research, teaching, and service work.

Figure 5.1. The Influence of Systemic Managerial Constraints on New Academics' Information Behaviour During Transition

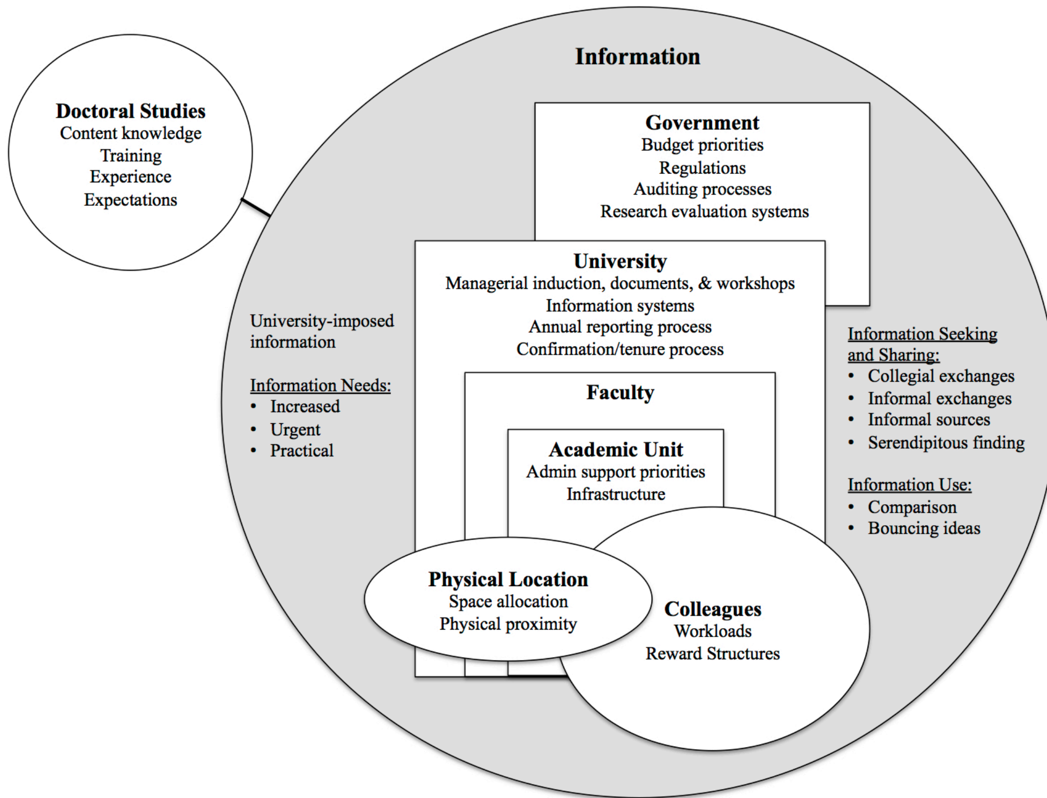

Figure 5.1. An examination of the influence of Systemic Managerial Constraints on the information behaviour of early career academics. Descriptions are examples, rather than exhaustive lists.

These Systemic Managerial Constraints take place within the context of early career academics' information environment and influence their information behaviour. Information needs are frequently increased, having new and multiple administrative duties to perform. These information needs are often both urgent and practical in nature, with the information being necessary to perform simple tasks, such as being able to log into the university's mandated learning management system in order to teach a class. Information seeking and sharing practices are affected in multiple ways. Because academic positions have complex information environments and because universities often do not provide the information that early career academics need – universities imposing the information they value and making assumptions about what information is needed – many academics turn to their colleagues for information. Colleagues become valuable sources of information, providing

more comprehensive information both quickly and conveniently. Colleagues also provide “insider” information that formal and documentary sources are unable to provide. But colleagues are more than a source of information; there is a social flow of information between early career academics and their more senior colleagues that stem from relationships created. Often these relationships are initiated and fostered by more senior colleagues who provide practical information and support to early career academics. Information frequently comes from informal interactions with colleagues, allowing information to be freely exchanged and unanticipated information encountered (i.e., serendipitously found). Colleagues also become an integral part of using information, once it is found, working on ideas cooperatively or “bouncing ideas.” Comparison is another important aspect of information use during the transition to academic, comparing previous knowledge and experience to the current situation in order to situate oneself within the current environment. When taking into account SMC, comparison is often used to contrast personal values and goals to the values and goals of the university. This can help early career academics in deciding how to use their personal agency to act within their current circumstances.

Contribution to Transitions Theory

Transitions Theory, first developed in nursing, is very focused on concerns within that discipline. However, transitions are an area of interest to many researchers and practitioners in a variety of fields. By approaching Transitions Theory using an information behaviour lens, there are several contributions that this research makes to the broader theory of how individuals transition in a work context. In order to make this clearer, the contributions have been mapped onto Meleis and colleagues’ (2000) model, “Transitions: a middle-range theory” (p. 17). The current depiction is an emergent model that both adds to and changes the previous model, based on the current research. (Please see Figure 5.2.)

Figure 5.2. Model of Transitions Theory Including Information Behaviour

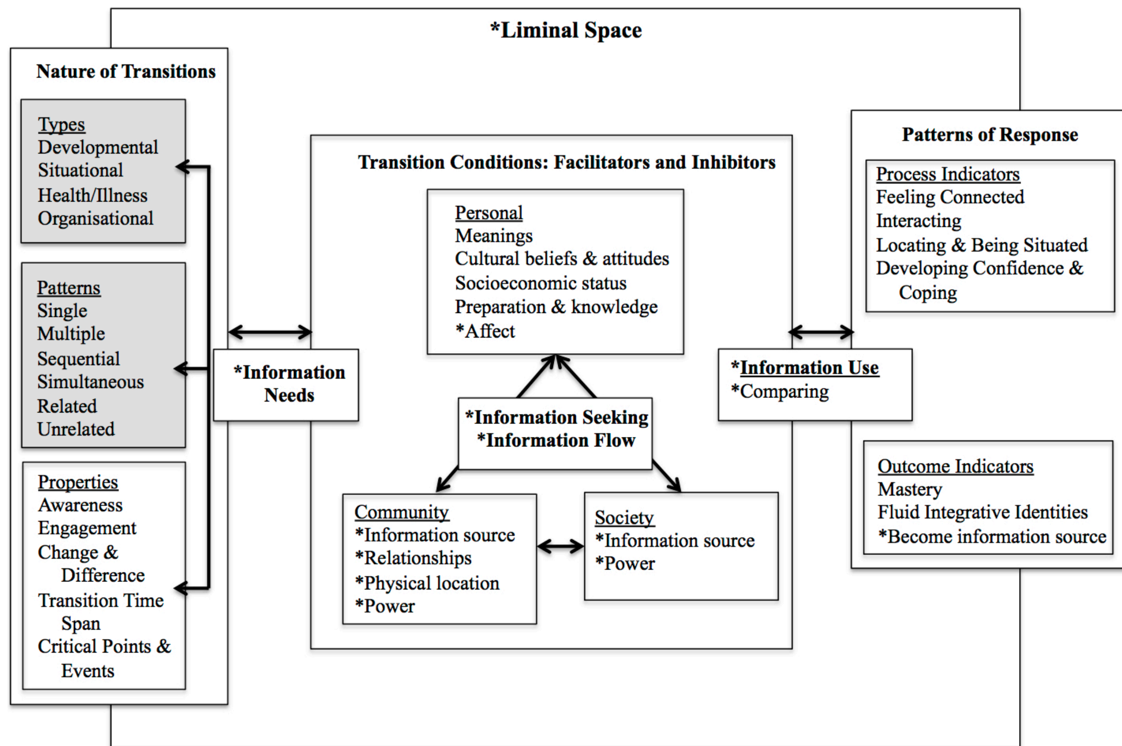

Figure 5.2. Addition of information behaviour to a model of Transitions Theory. Aspects of the figure that are not supported by this research are greyed out, while new aspects that have been added are marked with an asterisk. Adapted from "Experiencing transitions: An emerging middle-range theory," by A. I. Meleis, L. M. Sawyer, E.O. Im, D. K. Hilfinger Messias, and K. Schumacher, 2000, *Advances in Nursing Science, 23*, p. 17. Copyright 2000 by Wolters Kluwer.

This research focused on specifically on a "school to work" transition, rather than looking at a broad range of transitions. Because of this, Types and Patterns of transitions that were important in Meleis and colleagues' original model were found. What was a focus of the current research was on the concept of Liminal Space, which has been added as an overarching aspect to the model. The addition of liminal space (discussed in the previous section) places the transition within the space that is "betwixt and between;" it is inherently unstable and this characteristic has potential implications for every aspect of a transition. Information Needs have also been added, connecting the Nature of Transitions and the Transition Conditions. While there is discussion in the existing literature about the need for new knowledge and skills when undergoing a transition (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994), there is little focus on

what information is needed. Information needs are difficult to conceptualise at any point, but in transition they are particularly difficult in situations where individuals may not know what information they need or what information would be of use. Added to this is the potential in uncertain circumstances for information needs to change frequently. However, the nature of the transition determines, in part, what information is needed, as does the personal, community, and social situations in which the transition takes place. It is important to determine what information is required during times of change, by looking explicitly at information needs as part of the transition.

Important also is the role of affect in transitions, added to the "Personal" facet of Transition Conditions. Emotions experienced during transition become another source of information. Affect provides information about comfort levels, areas that need attention, and can confirm or disconfirm choices. While information behaviour research does not focus enough on stress as an affect, Transitions Theory mainly focuses on stress and distress. Much of this focus comes from being in the field of nursing and dealing with diagnoses of illnesses. However, in thinking about transitions beyond nursing and health, there is an important role for affect beyond stress and distress. Frustration, having personal agency thwarted, is an important aspect in being in a new situation, particularly a situation that is not yet understood or mastered. Instability or precarity is another important feeling during transition, it being possible to feel both stable and unstable at the same time, which can indicate progression through a transition. However, transitions are not typified by negative emotions. Many transitions are characterised by ups and downs, feelings of adventure, enjoyment, or achievement. Positive emotions also play a role in transitions, such as confirming choices or progress being made. This is particularly evident when looking beyond the field of nursing.

Information sources – and tied to that information seeking and information flow – are other aspects that this research adds to Transitions Theory. There is an acknowledged role of resources in Transitions Theory, with resources available in the environment noted as important to access during a transition (Schumacher & Meleis, 1994). This research extends current Transitions Theory by bringing a focus to aspects of information that are

important to transitions, including the “lack of familiar resources” (Chick & Meleis, 1986, p. 252). Focusing on resources that are in the new environment and how those resources are found is, essentially, an examination of sources and information seeking. This is currently missing from Transitions Theory. Interestingly, McCaughan and McKenna’s (2007) nursing study about newly diagnosed cancer patients focused on information seeking of the patients undergoing the transition, rather than on the transition itself. With a focus on information seeking and meaning making, they were able to explore how cancer patients found and used information. This provides valuable insight into how newly diagnosed cancer patients deal with information. However, this research does little to address the role of social information in the transition, this perhaps stemming from the focus on a medical transition and medical information provided. The current research study, in focusing not only on the process of transitioning, but also on how participants discussed figuring out their new situation, determined that early career academics typically do not find documentary sources of information useful, rather colleagues are the most important resource. Colleagues not only provide specific information about how to accomplish necessary tasks but they help early career academics socialise into the new environment. There is a social flow of information between early career academics and their more senior colleagues as they create relationships, bounce ideas between one another, collaborate, and as senior colleagues provide mentorship. Simply being in close proximity facilitates information exchange, where academics interact regularly and informally, and information is discovered serendipitously. Social information flow enables the sharing of information, often the information that is useful for day-to-day activities. Power also plays a role in information flow. What information is available to whom and what can be done with information is partially determined by who has power and how that power is enacted.

Information Use is other contribution this research makes to Transitions Theory; Information Use connects Transition Conditions with Patterns of Response. It is not enough to find information. Once information is found, something has to be done with it, though this might include a decision to ignore the information or save it for a later date. One of the ways that individuals

undergoing a transition use information is to compare to their own previous experience, expectations, or the experience of others. Through comparison, individuals can identify familiar or surprising aspects of their experience. This then allows them to better able to determine what actions, if any, to take. This is a key aspect of locating and being situated within a new setting. One Outcome Indicator of transitions added by this research is to become a source of information. Once an individual has progressed through a transition, they often provide information to others in a similar situation. This was something McCaughan and McKenna (2007) also found in their study, that cancer patients often became sources of information for other cancer patients, just as early career academics became sources of information for doctoral students and others academics hired after them.

The change and addition of Meleis and colleagues' (2000) model of Transitions Theory demonstrates the contribution that information behaviour can make to the study and theorising of transitions. A shift in focus to the informational aspects of transitions provides better understanding about the types of information useful to individuals, how they find them, and how they use them.

Practical implications

This research not only contributes to research but also has practical applications for higher education, including: doctoral education, collegial engagement, mentorship, teaching and learning centres, research offices, libraries, human resource departments, and university programs for newly hired academics.

In order to prepare doctoral students who wish to pursue careers within academe, there must be opportunities for doctoral students to experience and receive training for all aspects of academic work – research, teaching, and service. While all doctoral students are prepared in depth for research, not all students are provided with teaching experience or pedagogical training as part of their programs. Similarly, service on committees or opportunities to develop

other service-related skills, may be non-existent. What many participants found beneficial in preparing them for work as an academic was the experience of doing research and teaching at the same time. For those who took on teaching during their doctoral studies, they got this experience. While the majority of participants took on some form of teaching during their PhD, not all participants taught a full course/subject as a student. For doctoral students wanting to pursue academic careers, teaching should be a part of their academic training. Service work, which was mentioned as something to avoid by several participants, is also a part of academic work. It is an important aspect of academic work not only because of the work that is accomplished, but also in learning to contribute in a new way and having opportunities to make connections more broadly. However, opportunities to perform service work are often limited for doctoral students. Doctoral studies are specifically designed as a time when new knowledge and skills are learned with the guidance of supervisors and help from more senior peers. Therefore, opportunities to gain experience in all aspects of academic work need to be available.

This research demonstrates that doctoral education should include preparation for the teaching and service roles of academic positions, as well as research roles. Although some universities provide opportunities for teaching or service experience, pedagogical training or other preparatory development is not ubiquitous. Universities should provide opportunities for all doctoral students to teach at least one full course/subject within their discipline. For those who take up this opportunity, doctoral students should be assigned a teaching mentor to provide guidance and answer questions about pedagogy, as well as to walk students through the administrative tasks that come as part of teaching work. Additionally, universities should provide all doctoral students with opportunities to take part in service work, either at the university, faculty, academic unit, or discipline level. Providing these opportunities would allow all doctoral students to have some experience in each role within academia, research, teaching, as well as service. While mandating induction, professional development, or mentoring relationships for doctoral students may not feasible (or beneficial), supervisors should be encouraged to talk about the day-to-day aspects of academic life, including advising, grant writing, budgeting, the

confirmation/tenure process, and administrative work. By concentrating almost exclusively on research and the dissertation, many doctoral students do not have an accurate picture of academia and may develop unrealistic expectations. While nothing can fully prepare students for every instance they will encounter in an academic position, knowing what to expect is important, as this research demonstrated. Participants with more experience and a better idea of what to expect in the academic job had easier time of transitioning.

Supervisors, senior academics, and peers are important in doctoral studies in providing information and helping in the socialisation of doctoral students. In academic positions, colleagues become particularly important. Colleagues are sources of help, support, and information for early career academics. This is not to say that interactions are all one-sided. Early career academics develop collegial relationships with their colleagues, which are reciprocal. Additionally, early career academics are aware of the time, energy, and help colleagues provide, and try not to overburden colleagues with questions. So while early career academics are aware of and appreciative of the work that colleagues do, this work remains unacknowledged by institutions. Unless part of a formal mentoring program, colleagues help early career academics transition into their departments but are not allocated any time nor are they able to count the work in any way to demonstrate their collegial contribution. There are no categories in annual reports for informal help to newly hired academics. Early career academics rely on colleagues in many ways to help them and universities rely on senior colleagues to do this work. This work is unacknowledged and unpaid, yet a vital part of departmental life. Senior colleagues are not asking for acknowledgement or time allocation or money, yet without their contribution, there would be serious problems for departments. The informal work colleagues do needs to be formally acknowledged.

One of the reasons colleagues are so important for early career academics is because early career academics rely on them for information when universities fail to provide the information they need. Participants frequently mentioned universities not providing information, providing enough information, or providing the information they needed, whether in documents

or through induction programs. One issue is that current trends in higher education promote self-help through documents and information systems provided. These forms of self-help become another activity to be done, rather than a source of help. With these documents and information systems provided, there are frequently assumptions made about what information early career academics would or would not need. When information was provided, and quite frequently it was not, information tended to be of such a general nature as to be unusable by academics. In all of this, early career academics are not asked what they need. The information provided by universities to early career academics that was most useful was personalised information, whether personalised for academics within the department or specifically for individuals through the assigning of professional staff members to be a contact person. Universities need to increase the personalised information they provide to early career academics, allowing them to ask questions specifically related to their circumstances. Providing a contact person who can answer or direct queries is a huge help to early career academics who may not know where to turn for help.

Future research

The area of transitions is ripe for future research. As transitions are a time of change and calling into question what is known, their very nature aids examination into issues of power and marginalisation. While a challenging area to study because of the constant change, looking at people during transitions demonstrates the complexity of their experience, a complexity that is missing when examining experience at stable points in time. Information behaviour research would benefit from making transitions an area of focus, being able to better understand individuals and groups in liminal spaces.

This research brought up several avenues to pursue for future study. More research needs to be done Systemic Managerial Constraints to determine whether this proposed theory is useful in understanding academics' experiences beyond outside of Australia and Canada, as well as for more senior academics. The nature of academic work described by participants was from the

perspective of early career academics, relatively unused to administrative tasks. The precarity experienced is particularly heightened for those academics who do not have permanent positions or are still on probation. This research found less competition between academics and more collegiality. In examining the experience of other academics the transferability of SMC could be determined.

One group that exists in a liminal space and that would benefit from more study is casual academics. While casualisation has been the subject of a great deal of discussion within higher education, there does not appear to be any studies within information behaviour with into the information experiences of casual academics. Many participants mentioned working casually as a challenge, particularly the precarity of the position and being marginalised from much of the university. This position influences information needs, as well as having an impact on what information is available and how that information is found. However, the precarity and marginalisation experienced by casual academics is not necessarily experienced as a result of being in transition. Casual academics can remain on casual contracts indefinitely. While many academics spend time in between doctoral studies and their first academic position as a casual, some academics remain.

Specific areas within information behaviour research require specific attention and further research. Further research needs to be done in the area of affect and its role in information behaviour. Participants experienced strong affect during transition, which had an impact on information seeking and use. While affect has been an area of increased study, there remains more to be done, particularly related to the role of stress and frustration. These were very prominent emotions that came out during transitions and about which is little research in information behaviour. This is particularly true of stress. Further research also needs to be done in the area of informal information. The informal nature of the resources used by early career academics and the informal information exchanges that were such a prominent part of their information seeking deserve further study. Many information behaviour studies, particularly those modelling the information behaviour of academics, have focused more on formal information sources and retrieval systems. Particularly in the examinations of workplace information behaviour, the role of social

information and information encountering/serendipitous information finding need to be further explored.

Additionally, information behaviour research that focuses on transitions needs to go beyond "school to work" studies, such as this study, and into other areas of individuals' lives. There are a great number of transitions that would benefit from further study, including, but not limited to, the experiences of: becoming a parent, getting married, changing family structures, changing living arrangements, the grieving process after the death of a loved one, coming out as LGBTIQ, gender transition, retiring, coping with addiction, change within organisations. Over their lifetimes, individuals experience many transitions, some relate to natural development and others to life circumstances. At each of these points information concerns become prominent and using an information behaviour lens can help to better understand their experiences.

This research examined the transition of early career academics, focusing on transitions as a topic of study, as a way to better understand early career academics' experiences and the role of information behaviour within transitions. The study of individuals during a transition, in a liminal space, provides new insight into how they move from one phase of their life to another and how they make sense of their new environment. The important role that social information from colleagues played was particularly significant, allowing participants to both accomplish new tasks within their job, as well as to integrate into their new environment.

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Appendix A: Glossary of Terms

This research includes two geographic locations. Writing in an Australian context the Australian terms will be used. While attempting to be clear and consistent in the terminology used, the terminology used in each location reflects differences, often subtle, between the education contexts in which this will research take place. These differences remain.

Academics: used to describe those who are undertaking academic work in a contract or in a continuing position, who are no longer students. See also "Faculty member."

Casual academic: used to describe academics who are hired to teach classes at universities on short-term contacts, often on a part-time basis.

Course: used to refer to an academic unit. Commonly used in Canada. See also "Subject."

Early career academic: used to denote academics in Australia and Canada, who are in continuing, full-time, probationary appointments, whether permanent or contract positions. Includes academics with titles of "lecturer" (used in Australia) and "assistant professor" (used in Canada). In Canada the title *assistant professor* denotes someone in an academic position that is continuing, full-time but probationary (i.e. tenure track). While *lecturer* is a term that in Australia can denote academics at different stages in their career, it is the title that academics assume on beginning a continuing, full-time position.

Faculty members: used to describe those who are undertaking academic work in a contract or in a continuing position, who are no longer students. See also "Academic."

Graduate student: describes students who have completed an undergraduate degree and are continuing further academic study in masters or doctoral programs. Used commonly in Canada. See also "Postgraduate student."

Induction: used to describe to provide an introduction or to familiarise with an academic unit or position. Used commonly in Australia. See also "Orientation."

Marks: another term for grade, referring to percentages or a grading scale used for students' work.

Onboarding: providing induction or orientation for a newly hired staff member.

Orientation: used to describe to provide an introduction or to familiarise with an academic unit or position. Used commonly in Canada. See also "Induction."

Permanent position: a position that is ongoing, such as a tenure-track or confirmable position.

Postgraduate student: describes students who have completed an undergraduate degree and are continuing further academic study in masters or doctoral programs. Used commonly in Australia. "Doctoral student" or "PhD student" will be used when referring to PhD students or candidates. See also "Graduate student."

Probationary period: used to describe the trial period of faculty positions. Faculty positions after the probationary period are often called "continuing appointments" in Australia and "tenured" in Canada; however, these terms are not synonymous.

Professional staff member: a staff member who is neither an academic nor a manager but works in a professional capacity. Often professional staff members provide support for academic work.

Subject: used to refer to an academic unit in Australia. See also "Course."

Teaching assistant: used to refer to paid teaching work, consisting of aiding the academic responsible for the course, which may include teaching classes or other duties, commonly used in Canada. See also tutor.

Tertiary education: referring to education beyond the high school level. Used rather than "post-secondary," which is commonly used in Canada.

Tutor: used to refer to paid teaching work, consisting of aiding the academic responsible for the course, which may include teaching classes or other duties, commonly used in Australia. See also Teaching Assistant.

Appendix B: Sample Initial Semi-Structured Interview Guide

I appreciate you agreeing to talk with me today. I'm going to ask you about the transition you've made from your doctoral studies to your new faculty position. I'm interested in your experience of the transition, particularly how you've found information about your new job, experienced figuring out your institution, the new roles you've taken on, the expectations around those roles, and how you've found information on those roles and expectations. I'm going to start by asking you about some of your doctoral experiences and then move to talking about your current position.

As was mentioned in the information letter, I will be recording today's session. I'll also be asking you to supply a pseudonym (if you'd like) at the end of the session. You won't be identifiable in the research but I'll use the pseudonym when referring to your experiences or quotes from you in my dissertation or publications, so I'm giving you the option to pick it yourself. If you don't want to pick one, I'll pick it for you. Also at the end of the interview I will be asking you for any documents, that are publically available, that have been useful in your transition to your current position.

I have some questions to ask but what I'm really interested in hearing your experiences, so we can chat about anything you think is important. I see this as more of a dialogue than an interview with set questions. Do you have any questions before we begin?

1. Tell me a bit about your doctoral studies.
    a. Where did you study?
    b. What was your dissertation on?
    c. When was your dissertation examined/did you defend your dissertation?
2. Tell me a bit about your job here.
    a. What's your position here? Title? School/Department?
    b. When did you start?
    c. What are the components of your position (teaching, research and service)?
    d. Are you from [city] or did you move here for the job?
        i. [If they moved] How did you find the move?
            1. How did you go about putting together your life here? Did you do lots of research before your came? Did you take time once you moved here?
            2. Who or what helped you in your move?

3. How did you find making the move from doctoral studies to faculty member?
    a. Did you feel prepared for your position here?
    b. What aspects of your position did you least expect?
4. Thinking about your current position and a typical day, what kinds of information do you need to do your job?
    a. How do you find information for the components of your job – teaching, research and service?
    b. What resources do you use to find information? What resources do you keep, in physical or digital form?
    c. If you have questions about things, where do you go for help?
    d. How do you feel about your information needs? Are they being met?
5. How do you find information for your current job, for information about how the university operates, how your department/school runs?
    a. Who or what helped you to figure that out? Was it orientation, someone in your department, university website?
    b. If you have questions about things, where do you go for help?
    c. What about the way people work at this institution has been an adjustment?
6. Tell me about a time when information that you found useful for your job popped up without you looking for it. What information did you get? Where did you find it? Does this happen frequently?
    a. Do you find that you go looking for information or that information finds you?
7. Tell me a bit about how you view your current context in this position. What in your current context creates information needs (social context, political context, policies)?
8. What is similar/different from the information you needed and how you found information during your doctoral studies?
9. What (if any) changes have you noticed in how you find information since you've started this position? The types of information you need? How you find information?

10. Do you have a pseudonym you'd like to use for this study?
11. Do you have any documents or websites that have been helpful in making the transition, either to the city or the job?
12. Would you like prompts in your blog?

Appendix C: Sample Follow-Up Semi-Structured Interview Guide

Context: Here's what I heard you say about your context:

- Department – …
- Faculty – …
- University – …
- Classroom – …
    - Have I characterised that correctly?
    - We didn't talk much about your disciplinary field. How involved are you with the larger community of in your discipline?

Differences: The main differences I heard you express about your transition from PhD student to academic were around…

- Have I summarised that correctly?
- Are there other significant differences you're experienced?

Information behaviour: Being in information science, I'm always interested in what information people need, how people find information, and how they use it. Particularly in organisations, how new people gather the new organisational information related to their position and context, how they are socialised into the new environment, and how they do the work they have been trained to do in a new context. Everyday information to complex information. When we talked before…

3. Have I characterised that correctly or missed anything?
4. Some participants have mentioned physical location as being important to getting information, having an office close to senior faculty or to a helpful colleague or being down the hall from the admin person so you can just go pop your head in. Has location been important to you?

Colleagues/Connections: You talked a fair amount about working with others. It sounds like you've established good relationships with many different colleagues both professionally and socially. It sounds like collegial connections, including social connections, are important to you.

5. How do you make and maintain connections?
6. And how do you keep your collaborations up?
7. [Role of technology]

Administrative work: Something other faculty mentioned was the impact of administrative work, filing travel expense claim sand timetabling, on their time and the difficulties in doing that work, particularly in know what to do and working with different online systems to accomplish those tasks.

- What's been your experience with those types of administrative tasks?

Personal life: You discussed…

- How has moving from being a PhD student to a faculty member impacted your personal life?
- How, if at all, has your change in role impacted how you live your life?

Thank you.

Appendix D: Guidelines for Blogging

WordPress is a blogging software tool that is easy to use. While blogging is often used for scholarly communication, the privacy settings on a blog can be set so that it can only be accessed via a password and will not be indexed by search engines. In this way, blogs can be used as a way to journal.

This research project will use WordPress as a way to share journals between you and myself, the researcher. I will create a blog for you to record your journal and that only you and I will be able to access.

If you do not have a WordPress account, please go to https://en.wordpress.com/signup/ to create a username and password. You don't need to sign up for a blog, you can choose the "Signup just for a username" option. If you do have an account, skip this step. Once this is done, please e-mail me your username and the e-mail address you used to create the account. I will set up a private blog that only you and I can access and send you the information about how to access the blog.

When you access the blog you will see an introductory post by me that covers informed consent, aspects of participation that were discussed in the information letter, as well as a reminder of the topics in which I am interested for this study. If during the interview you mentioned wanting blog prompts, there will be a blog prompt included. I will go in periodically to add other prompts.

To add a new blog post, click "Posts" on the left-hand side of the screen and then "Add New."

[Screen capture removed]

Once you have selected "Add New," you will be given a blog template that allows you to enter a title for the post and a section for the content.

[Screen capture removed]

Once you have completed your blog post, click "Publish" button to the right and near the bottom of the page.

Your post will be added to the blog and the researcher will be able read it. The date you posted it will automatically appear on the post. Again, all your posts will be confidential and only you and the researcher will be able to access them.

[Screen capture removed]

Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions. If you would like a more extensive guide on using WordPress, please go to http://easywpguide.com/ and download the free version of the guide.

Thank you,

Becky Willson

Appendix E: Example Blog Prompts

Have you taken on any new work in the past month? If so, how did you hear about this work? How have you gotten your questions about this work answered?

Have you stumbled across any information about your work lately? What was the information and where did you encounter it?

Has someone or something become a source of information that now would be hard to imagine doing your job without? What about them/it has been helpful?

Where do you do most of your research work? What makes it a good place to work?

Where do you do most of your preparation for teaching? What makes it a good place to work?

In what ways do you feel like you have a handle on the information you need to do your job? In what ways do you feel like you are still missing important information?

In thinking about the research you've had a chance to do in the past month (if you've had a chance), have you noticed a change in the types of information you need or how you gather it (e.g. ethics, research plans, research grants, etc.)? Did you go to new or familiar sources? New or familiar, where did you learn about the sources?

In thinking about the teaching you've done in the past month, what information have you needed to gather? Have you noticed a change in the types of information you need or how you gather it (e.g. scheduling information, learning management software, submitting grades, plagiarism policies, etc.)? Did you go to new or familiar sources? New or familiar, where did you learn about the sources?

In thinking about the service work you've had a chance to do in the past month (if you've had a chance), have you noticed a change in the types of information you need or how you gather it (e.g. university/committee organisational structure, committee history, Roberts Rules of Order, etc.)? Did you go to new or familiar sources? New or familiar, where did you learn about the sources?

Appendix F: University Documents Used for Critical Discourse Analysis

Charles Sturt University. (2014). First day at CSU: Documents to be completed and returned to HR. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.csu.edu.au/division/hr/starting-at-university/first-day

Charles Sturt University. (2014). Learning and teaching at CSU: Professional development. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.csu.edu.au/division/landt/professional-development/profdev

Charles Sturt University. (2014). Prior to first day at CSU. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.csu.edu.au/division/hr/starting-at-university/prior-first-day

Charles Sturt University. (2014). Probation. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.csu.edu.au/division/hr/starting-at-university/probation

Charles Sturt University. (2012). *CSU orientation & induction program: Checklists for workplaces and supervisors*. Retrieved from http://www.csu.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0005/181454/InductionandDevelopmentProgramChecklist.pdf

MacEwan University (2014). New faculty orientation. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from https://facultycommons.macewan.ca/services/facdev/programming/new-faculty-orientation

Macquarie University. (2014). In your first few weeks. Retrieved October 7, 2014 from http://staff.mq.edu.au/human_resources/induction/in_your_first_few_weeks/

Macquarie University. (2014). Macquarie at a glance. Retrieved October 7, 2014 from http://staff.mq.edu.au/human_resources/induction/macquarie_at_a_glance/

Macquarie University. (2014). Macquarie University induction. Retrieved October 7, 2014 from http://staff.mq.edu.au/human_resources/induction/

Macquarie University. (2014). On your first day. Retrieved October 7, 2014 from http://staff.mq.edu.au/human_resources/induction/on_your_first_day/

Mount Royal University. (2014). New faculty support program (NFSP). Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.mtroyal.ca/ProgramsCourses/FacultiesSchoolsCentres/TeachingLearning/Departments/AcademicDevelopmentCentre/ProgramsServices/nfsp

Mount Royal University. (2011). *Faculty: Your guide to Mount Royal University*. Retrieved from [http://www.mtroyal.ca/EmploymentCareers/HumanResources/LearningDevelopment/index.htm]

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Academic. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/WhoAreYou/Academic.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Before you start. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/en/Discover/WelcomeGuides/NewEmployeeGuide/BeforeYouStart.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Benefits. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/Benefits.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Connect. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/en/Connect.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Discover. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: First 6 months. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/WelcomeGuides/NewEmployeeGuide/FirstMonth.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: First days. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/WelcomeGuides/NewEmployeeGuide/FirstDays.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: First weeks. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from

http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/WelcomeGuides/NewEmployeeGuide/FirstWeeks.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: First year. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/WelcomeGuides/NewEmployeeGuide/FirstYear.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Grow. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/en/Grow.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Health and wellness. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/HealthAndFitness.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Identification cards & documents. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/IdentificationCardsDocuments.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Must knows. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/MustKnows.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Pay and tax information. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/PayAndTaxInformation.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Personal development. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Grow/PersonalDevelopement.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Resources & online guides. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/ResourcesandOnlineGuides.aspx

University of Alberta. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation: Supporting you. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://facultyandstafforientation.ualberta.ca/Discover/SupportingYou.aspx

University of Alberta. (2005). *Orientation to the university: New staff orientation checklist*. Retrieved from

http://www.hrs.ualberta.ca/Learning/Programs/~/media/hrs/LearningandDevelopment/Programs/NewStaffOrientation/Checklist.doc

University of Alberta, Human Resource Services. (2014). Faculty and staff orientation. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.hrs.ualberta.ca/Learning/Programs/FacultyStaffOrientation.aspx

University of Calgary. (n.d.). *Academic hire – onboarding at a glance: Prior to the first day – onboarding activities*. Retrieved from http://www.ucalgary.ca/hr/system/files/Academic-Onboarding-at-a-Glance.pdf

University of Calgary. (2014). Academic orientation program: New academic orientation – welcome to the university. Retrieved October 7, 2014 from http://www.ucalgary.ca/hr/nao-program

University of Calgary. (2014). Welcome to the academic team. Retrieved October 7, 2014 from http://www.ucalgary.ca/hr/academic/getting-started

University of New England. (2014). FAQ. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.une.edu.au/staff/new-staff/induction

University of New England. (2014). Induction. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.une.edu.au/staff/new-staff/faq

University of New England. (2014). Paperwork for new staff. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.une.edu.au/staff/new-staff/paperwork-for-new-staff

University of New England. (2014). *Staff induction kit*. Retrieved from https://www.une.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0013/5620/New-Staff-Kit-2014-Ver-2.pdf

University of Sydney. (2014). *Employment commencement advice*. Retrieved from http://sydney.edu.au/documents/about/working-with-us/hr-forms/employment_commencement_advice.docx

University of Sydney, Institute For Teaching and Learning. (2014). Building a career in teaching. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.itl.usyd.edu.au/programs/newstaff/career.htm

University of Sydney, Institute For Teaching and Learning. (2014). Get feedback from your students. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.itl.usyd.edu.au/programs/newstaff/feedback.htm

University of Sydney, Institute For Teaching and Learning. (2014). Get a qualification in teaching. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.itl.usyd.edu.au/programs/newstaff/qualification.htm

University of Sydney. (2014). New staff – about the university. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://sydney.edu.au/about/working-with-us/new-staff.shtml

University of Sydney, Institute For Teaching and Learning. (2014). New staff welcome. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.itl.usyd.edu.au/programs/newstaff/default.htm

University of Sydney, Institute For Teaching and Learning. (2014). Short courses on teaching and supervision. Retrieved October 7, 2014, from http://www.itl.usyd.edu.au/programs/newstaff/shortcourses.htm

University of Wollongong. (2014). Awards & agreements. Retrieved October 8, 2014, from http://staff.uow.edu.au/personnel/awardagree/index.html

University of Wollongong. (2014). eLearning@UOW: Info for teaching. Retrieved October 8, 2014, from http://staff.uow.edu.au/eteaching/index.html

University of Wollongong. (2014). Salary details – academic staff. Retrieved October 8, 2014, from http://staff.uow.edu.au/personnel/salary/ac/index.html

University of Wollongong. (2010). *Teaching@UOW*. Retrieved from http://www.uow.com.au/content/groups/public/@web/@cedir/@man/documents/doc/uow013265.pdf

Appendix G: Recruitment Email

Dear Sir or Madam,

You are invited to participate in a research project exploring the experience of new faculty members, particularly around the need for and use of information during the transition to full-time faculty positions. This research is for my dissertation and will contribute new understanding about this important transition. As a new faculty member, I am interested in your experience.

Your participation would involve taking part in interviews and following your experience over the approximate length of a semester.

This research has received ethical approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee at Charles Sturt University. Your remarks will be treated in confidence; participants will be asked to select pseudonyms for any quotes shared in the final report of this project. The benefits of participating in this project include being able to share experiences of this transition and gaining greater experience with blogging, a form of scholarly communication growing in importance. There are no risks involved in taking part in this research.

If you are interested in participating and/or if you have any questions about the project, before agreeing to participate, please contact me [removed]. I will provide you with an information letter that provides more detail on the project and can answer any questions.

Sincerely,

Rebekah Willson, PhD Candidate
Charles Sturt University

Appendix H: Information Letter

You are invited to participate in a research study about the transition from being a doctoral student to a faculty member. I'm interested in your experience of the transition, particularly your experience settling in to and figuring out your institution, how you've found information about your new job, the new roles you've taken on, and how you've found information on those roles and expectations. This research is in the field of information which is defined as a human-centred approach to research that examines information needs, as well as information seeking, use, and practices that occur within a particular context and are purposive, unintentional or passive.

The research consists of:

- an initial in-person interview
- documents you identify as useful in your transition
- a journal kept in a blog format
- and a follow up phone/Skype interview

The interviews will be approximately 4 months apart and will be audio recorded and transcribed. At the first interview you will be asked for any documents (e.g. files, websites, etc.) that have been of use in your transition to your new position. Between the interviews you will be asked to write at least one blog post a month over the 4 months. Each participant will be provided with a blog that is private and only accessible to the participant and the researcher. The blog format will be used for the journals to facilitate access to the journal content. For those not familiar with blogging, help will be provided for using the blogging software. Once the study has concluded, participants will gain full control of their blog and can determine how they would like to use (or dispose of) it.

The benefits of this research are being given a venue to talk about your experiences of transition, as well as to be able to contribute to the body of knowledge on this topic. For those unfamiliar with blogging, there is an added benefit of gaining experience with this form of social media that is becoming an increasingly important form of scholarly communication. There is no foreseeable harm associated with participating in this research.

At any time during the session, you can withdraw your data from the study for any reason, without consequence. All data gathered will be kept confidential and will be de-identified. All participants will be given pseudonyms and participants will not be able to be identified from any discussion or quotations in publications. All data, excluding the blog entries that will belong to you, will be stored securely and kept for a minimum of five years.

The results of this study may be used to help in research, used in a dissertation, presented at scholarly conferences and published in journals. All information will be handled in compliance with standards for research data.

The plan for this study has been reviewed for its adherence to ethical guidelines and approved by the School of Information Studies Human Research Ethics Committee at Charles Sturt University. For questions regarding participant rights and ethical conduct of research, contact [removed].

The researcher, Rebekah Willson, is a doctoral student in the School of Information Studies at Charles Sturt University. The research is being conducted as part of the coursework at the School of Information Studies. If you have any other questions, please contact Rebekah Willson [removed] or Prof. Lisa Given, primary supervisor [removed].

Your participation in this research is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Rebekah (Becky) Willson
PhD Candidate
Charles Sturt University

Appendix I: Consent Form

I, ____________________________________, hereby consent to participate in a
(print name)

research study about transitioning from a doctoral student to a faculty member conducted by a PhD candidate at the School of Information Studies, Charles Sturt University.

I understand that:

- the interview will be recorded
- all information gathered will be treated confidentially
- I will not be identifiable in any documents resulting from this research
- a pseudonym will be used for any non-identifiable information or quotes for use in documents resulting from this research
- I may withdraw from the research at any time without consequences
- I may withdraw my data from the research at any time without consequences
- any information I provide will be stored securely
- any information I provide will be kept for a minimum of 5 years

I also understand that the results of this research will be used in the following:

- dissertation
- presentations and journal articles
- other research purposes

________________________________ ________________________________
signature date signed

If you have concerns or questions please contact:

- Rebekah (Becky) Willson, PhD Candidate, at [removed]
- or Charles Sturt University Ethics Board, at [removed]

Appendix J: Participant Descriptions

Adam: Adam is a 32 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Australia. He is in the discipline of philosophy and was beginning his first year of a two-year contract when we first spoke. Adam completed his doctoral studies at the same institution where he received his contract. Adam helped support his wife and children working as a casual academic before obtaining his current contract.

Ben: Ben is a 32 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Canada. He has a tenure-track appointment and works in the social sciences[8]. He was in his second year when we talked. With his wife, small child, and a second child on the way, Ben bought a house and moved to the city where his current job is located.

Casey: Casey is a 30 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Australia. Originally from China, English is not her first language, though she completed her PhD in English at an Australian university. Casey is in a faculty of business and has a permanent position, which she had started approximately two months before we spoke. She moved, alone, to the city where her job is located, as her husband (also an academic) lives and works in another country.

Claire: Claire is a 40 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Australia. She is in an institute within a faculty of business; she completed her PhD in the same institute in which she now has a two-year contract. She has had extensive experience in industry, working after her bachelors and through her masters degrees at a variety of positions. After getting her current contract she bought a home.

David: David is a 37 year-old francophone academic in a medium sized, urban, undergraduate university in Canada. He has a tenure-track appointment and works in the social sciences. He had experience teaching several classes during his doctoral studies. He is in his first year of his current appointment but had completed one year of a long-term contract with another university before starting at his current university. He moved with his wife across the country to take up his current position.

Evelyn: Evelyn is an academic in her early 50s in a large, urban university in Canada. She was in the first year of a tenure-track appointment in a faculty of education. Her PhD was not in education, but in a related discipline. Evelyn was hired at the same institution where she completed her doctoral studies when her university created positions specifically to focus on indigenous education. As an indigenous woman and scholar she has been very active in her community. Before starting university as a mature student, she worked in industry and raised a family with her husband.

Fredric: Fredric is a 36 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Australia. He is in the first year of a permanent, continuing position within a business faculty. Originally from Europe, English is not his first language, but he completed his PhD in English at an Australian university. The discipline in which he did his doctoral studies was in a different,

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[8] Some specific disciplines are not included as the small size of the discipline could interfere with the anonymity of the participants.

but related, discipline to the discipline of his current school. His partner, also an academic, received a post-doctoral fellowship overseas and he has been several times to visit her.

Jason: Jason is a 29 year-old academic in a medium-sized, rural university in Australia. When we first spoke, he was in the first year of a three-year contract. He worked frequently as a tutor and casual academic during and after his doctoral studies, including a semester of work for his current university. Jason is in the discipline of sociology. At the start of his contract he moved with his partner to the town where his university is located.

Jesse: Jesse is a 29 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Canada. He has a tenure-track appointment and works in the discipline of psychology. He is in his first year of his current appointment when we spoke but had previously completed one year of a tenure-track position with another university across the country. His current university is the university at which he completed his PhD and he knows a lot of the academics there from his days as a student. He had experience teaching several classes and running many research studies during his doctoral studies.

Laura: Laura is 32 year-old academic at a large, urban university in Australia. When we spoke, she was in the second year of a permanent position in the discipline of law. Laura was the only participant I talked to who started her position before finishing her PhD, which she completed about a year and a half after taking up the position, during her participation in my study. Additionally, Laura was pregnant with her second child and went on maternity leave during the study. I conducted my follow-up interview with her via telephone from her home when she was on maternity leave. Laura moved with her husband and first child to the city where her current university is during the first year of her position.

Leanne: Leanne is a 41 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Canada. She completed her PhD in English in Canada, though she is originally from Europe and English is not her first language. Leanne is in the second year of her tenure-track position in a faculty of business. Leanne was hired at the same institution where she completed her doctoral studies, meaning her family – including her husband, children, and parents (who moved to be close by) – did not have to move cities.

Madeline: Madeline is a 32 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Canada. When we spoke, she was in the second year of her appointment, which is in the discipline of political science. Madeline did her PhD and a post-doctoral fellowship at different universities across the country before taking a tenure-track position at the university where she did her masters degree, and still knows several academics from her postgraduate studies. In moving and buying a condominium, she settled closer to her family. She taught several courses during her doctoral studies and post-doctoral fellowship.

Marie: Marie is a 30 year-old academic in a medium-sized, rural university in Australia. She completed her PhD in in a social science discipline in Australia. Marie had experience publishing solo articles during her PhD but had not taught a full subject or taught online, which is the main mode of teaching at her current university. When we spoke, Marie was in her first year of a three-year contract position, which she had started a few months before our first interview. She moved to the town in which her university is located, but returns with some frequency to the city where she completed her university and where most of her social ties are.

Mark: Mark is a 34 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Canada. He is American and completed his PhD in the United States. When we spoke, Mark was in the second year of his tenure-track position in a faculty of business. Mark moved to the city where his university is located before starting his current position.

Nathaniel: Nathaniel is a 29 year-old academic in a medium sized, urban, undergraduate university in Canada. When we first spoke, he was in his second year in a tenure-track appointment within a faculty of business. Originally from the Middle East, English is not his first language, but he completed his PhD in Canada in English. He had experience teaching several classes during his doctoral studies. He moved to the city in which he currently works directly after finishing his PhD, returning to defend his dissertation days before starting his current position.

Nicole: Nicole is an academic in her late 30s to early 40s in a large, urban university in Canada. Nicole is from Canada but did all of her university degrees in other countries, including her PhD, which she completed in the United States. She had two years of full-time adjunct work before accepting a tenure-track position in the humanities. When we first spoke, she was starting the second year of her appointment. In taking the job, she moved with her husband and child to a new city.

Niels: Niels is a 32 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Australia. When we first spoke he was in the in the first year of a contract position, which, during the study, became a permanent, continuing position within a department of philosophy. Originally from Europe, English is not his first language, but he completed his PhD in English at an Australian university. He moved with his partner to the city in which he currently works. He did some work as a tutor and casual academic during his doctoral studies, including teaching as a casual academic for his current university.

Seth: Seth is a 32 year-old academic in a large, urban university in Australia. When we first spoke he was in his second year of a two-year contract position in education, though his doctorate is in psychology. Originally from Canada, Seth completed his PhD at a Canadian university, finishing his degree from Australia after moving there with his wife. He worked casually during and after his PhD, teaching for his current university before receiving a long-term contract position.

Tim: Tim is a 31 year-old academic in a large, rural university in Australia. Tim is in the humanities. When we first spoke, he was starting his second one-year contract. He has worked more than one short contract for his present university. When he first started working for this university, he commuted from his home and stayed for one day a week. This has increased over time to several days a week during the term, though he still lives with his wife in a city a few hours away.

Tom: Tom is a 38 year-old academic in a small, urban university in Canada. The university is a private, religious institution that mainly has undergraduate students. When we first spoke, Tom was in his second year of a full-time, continuing position within the humanities. He position includes research but it is teaching intensive. He taught during his PhD and had a two-year post-doctoral fellowship that was research focused. His current university is in

the same city as the university where he did his doctoral studies. He moved back to this city when his wife got a tenure-track job and since that move they have had a child.