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PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION IN LIBRARIES

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A major dilemma, one we can no longer afford to ignore, faces all librarians. The dilemma is: How can we optimally integrate the technical and human resources that we manage toward achieving the library’s service mission and, at the same time, manage working arrangements and role relationships so that people’s needs for self-worth, growth, and development are significantly met in our libraries?

This issue of *Library Trends* addresses itself to this dilemma in various ways. An increasing amount of vigorous, quantitative research in the behavioral sciences provides stable evidence that when emphasis is placed on developing the potential represented by the human resources in organizations, an inevitable by-product is an increase in productivity.\(^1\) The problem dealt with here is to discover to what extent libraries have used personnel development and continuing education as a means of bringing about the full utilization of talent, and of creating an organizational climate conducive to human growth. The intent of the issue, through a professional survey and assessment, is to create an awareness of some of the things that have been done, that are being done, and that are yet to be done. If all the suggestions offered for meeting this challenge have not been as widely accepted into practice as might be wished, it is hoped that this issue will stimulate meaningful action.

This issue of *Library Trends* is (perhaps) unique in that the idea for it was conceived by a committee, two of the presentations were prepared through long hours of discussion and revision by members of the committee, and other members served as readers of the papers. In a very real sense, all of the thirty members of the Staff Development Committee of the Personnel Section of the Library Administra-
tion Division of the American Library Association, in varying degrees, served as “issue editor.” So that communication links can be established between these committee members and readers who may live in their geographical areas and wish to correspond with them, all members and their positions are listed at the close of this introduction.

Perhaps it should also be added that this is but one of the activities of this committee in the area of personnel development and continuing education. Others include: the initiation and implementation of a staff development micro-workshop on the opening day of each ALA annual conference (starting with Detroit in 1970); preparation of the papers from these workshops for publication; initiation of a pilot abstract publication, *Clips and Quotes on Staff Development for Librarians*, which covers applicable literature from other disciplines in the area of personnel development; and, most recently, planning for a series of staff development workshops at six regional library conferences.

The question arises: Why do the members of this committee give so much of their time, energy, and resources to the planning, implementing and evaluating of such projects? It shows their commitment to the belief that increased social responsibility and professional development are demanded of librarians at this time. The committee recognizes the need for improved, dynamic concepts, plans, and programs for the development of the library’s most important resource—its personnel. Members of the committee feel, in common with such authors as Bennis, Beckhard, and Walton, that current changing conditions—the knowledge, technology and communication explosions; affluent societies; and values held by youth, ethnic and other minorities—have produced a completely new set of expectations of the contract between employer and employee from those which existed a few years ago. Some values in relation to man and his work place which are becoming increasingly recognized across national, ethnic, and economic boundaries are:

Man has a right to be free and independent.

Man wants to be a whole person in relation to his job—he no longer wants to be just an extension of someone else.

Man should have choices in where he works (he is not bound to any one organization).

If man’s needs are in conflict with organization requirements and/or mission, it is relevant and appropriate for him to move toward
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meeting his own needs before he moves toward meeting organiza-
tion requirements.

It is not only an employer's responsibility to meet survival and se-
curity needs (economical and psychological), but also to col-
laborate actively in meeting individual employee's needs for
achievement, self-esteem, and growth.

Power is seen not as a set quantity, but like capital, is susceptible
to indefinite growth as it is shared. Participative management is
emerging in which administrator and worker share powers of
decision on the matters that directly affect the employee in his job
situation, not only his welfare, but the use of his talents.

In fact, according to Walton, we are in the midst of a minor social
revolution in which “a new equity is being developed which will
change the perimeters within which the administrator functions.” 8
Today, if managers are not in tune with these new values and expec-
tations, not only will they have difficulty in bringing in new, young
talent to their organizations, but they will also find incidence of mid-
career employees becoming dissatisfied and wishing to leave for other
institutions or occupations. The committee notes with some alarm
the recent findings by Robert Presthus in his 1970 study, Technological
Change and Occupational Response: A Study of Librarians, particu-
larly the discovery that there was only a marginal degree of job satis-
faction among the librarian respondents. In fact, fully two-thirds of
them indicated that, given another chance, they would not choose
librarianship as a profession.7

This set of values and conditions raises critical questions for library
leaders. For example, how willing are we to consciously work toward
a state of human relationships in libraries that will catch up with the
state of the development of our hardware? It seems it has become
easier to computerize a library than to cope with the employees
involved in the process. In the efficient and sometimes clinical en-
vironment of some libraries, employees are apt to lose their feeling of
personal value in the overall effort of the library to meet its objectives.
And that brings us back to the dilemma with which we opened: How
can we have efficient knowledge systems that will not have the effect
of depersonalizing and dehumanizing personal relationships?

The Staff Development Committee believes it is a matter of high
priority for all who manage libraries to find answers to such questions,
conditions and issues. That is the reason they have committed their
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energies to the work of the committee. That is the reason they have invited qualified leaders to contribute to an issue of Library Trends on “Personnel Development and Continuing Education.” These authors, in this issue, suggest some approaches to solutions.

Now, without going into very much detail, it will be helpful to review briefly the basic plan of the issue, to note some of the chief points made by its authors, and to identify common concepts and conclusions that seem to emanate from the articles. The organizational plan of this issue centers around three concepts intimately related to the development of the human resources represented in our libraries—personnel development, training, and continuing education. As these terms are defined, the articles related to them will be identified.

The term “personnel development” is equated in this issue with the term “staff development,” and refers to effectively meeting the needs for self-worth, growth, satisfaction, and self-realization of all personnel within a library system, while at the same time optimally achieving the library’s objectives. As it is used here it is more than a maze of development programs and activities. That is not to say that courses, orientation programs, institutes, and inservice programs are not important, but rather to emphasize that in themselves they do not constitute the total means for the development of a library’s human resources. Personnel development is not carried out in a vacuum. It functions in an environment of policies, procedures, standards, and institutional objectives and is intimately related to the style of the management system operative in the library and to organizational structure. Personnel development is fully possible only in an environment which not only permits, but actively encourages individuals to develop their potential. Therefore the first four chapters of the issue deal with conditions and practices which recent research in the behavioral sciences seems to indicate have a direct relationship to the releasing of human energies to accomplish both the library’s and the individual’s objectives.

The first statement, prepared by Robert Lee, University Chief Librarian, Western Ontario Library, Canada, and his wife, Charlene Swarthout Lee, presents an overview of the nature of the library’s personnel planning system which is concerned with the management of all the human resources in the library system. As summed up by the authors:

Good personnel planning evolves from the manpower plan, the
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personnel development plan, and the recruitment plan, all of which have systematic in-depth approaches to developing and nurturing human resources. When emphasis is placed on developing the human potential, an inevitable by-product is an increase in productivity. When the individual is a participator in a process integrally related to his own development as a human being, that process illuminates both his contribution to and his interdependence with mankind.

The criterion they offer for measurement of a personnel development plan follows: “success in developing human resources must be considered in terms of the organization’s ability to satisfy the personal goals of those persons in the organization.”

Since, as the Lees point out, people are the main ingredient in personnel management, the personnel development plan should take into account the information available from motivation research. Motivation is dealt with in the second chapter by Charles Goodman, Associate Dean of the School of Government and Public Administration of American University. He stresses the uniqueness of the individual in the organization, especially his “needs system” as defined by Maslow. Factors and conditions that tend to motivate an individual are discussed: involvement through participation, job enrichment, target-setting conferences, and high performance goals set by the supervisor and the employees.

In the next chapter, Maurice P. Marchant, of the library science faculty of Brigham Young University, reports—from both his own extended research and that available from the behavioral sciences—that participative management and group decision-making have important implications for staff development. Yet, he found that the theory and practices regarding patterns of decision-making in libraries have been largely neglected aspects of library administration. In fact, prior to his research no study of library staff participation had been reported in library literature, and he finds that most books dealing with library administration are still bureaucratically oriented. In his research he has found that university library personnel tend to be more satisfied with opportunities for professional growth under a participative management system. To those who are afraid that managers will lose their influence if they adopt this style, Marchant points out that the group method of decision-making holds the supervisor fully accountable for all decisions and for their execution and results. The supervisor is responsible for building his subordinates into a group
which makes the best decisions and carries them out well. He emphasizes: "Participative management is not the abdicating of responsibility by top management and allowing staff members to do whatever they wish. That pattern is more a description of anarchy. Participative management forces decisions down to the level best suited to determine them by virtue of availability of relevant information and the effect of the decision on the operation."

Evaluation is vital to all programs for personnel development, but, according to Ernest DeProspo of the faculty of the Rutgers Graduate School of Library Service it is a concept and practice which is neither understood nor practiced in a manner which will aid personnel development; in current practice it adheres chiefly to trait methods of performance appraisal, which are generally dehumanizing.

He concludes: "The changing life style so obvious today, as with the clear distrust of authority and power, especially the arbitrary uses of either, calls for some dramatic changes in the way individuals are treated and used in the organization. It would be to the interest of the profession to incorporate rapidly a goals method approach to evaluating personnel. At the very least such an approach would provide great impetus to staff development and growth."

As the personnel development plan is designed to achieve effective utilization of existing staff, it may be found in the process of matching persons to positions that additional training may be necessary for certain personnel based on the identification of their individual needs. The next chapters are concerned with training which, in this issue, is viewed as one means of personnel development, referring more directly to methodology. In the words of Scott, as quoted in the chapter on "Guidelines," "The immediate goals of training aim at improving individual job effectiveness and the climate of interpersonal relations in organizations. By necessity, training must be oriented toward organizational objectives." 9

The presentation by David Kaser, Director of the Cornell University Libraries, offers a general view of the training subsystem and its elements, the degree to which training is systematically provided for in library systems, and the extent of library resources that are being regularly budgeted for training. His discussion is based on a survey that he conducted of 145 of the largest libraries in the nation late in 1970. He concludes that although the American library community is becoming increasingly aware of the need for training programs for and continuing education of personnel, and that although
substantial resources are being devoted to the effort, there is no systematic approach being made to the problem; managers are playing an essentially passive role in this area of personnel development.

The next chapter offers a systematic approach to one of the most fundamental concerns of that training subsystem—the development of a library staff effectively interrelating with colleagues and clients and working toward organizational goals. The nature of the need for social interaction skills grows from the fact that the library is a human organization. Findings of applied behavioral science are explored, and a sample model of team building illustrates the methods found by the authors to be most effective in this area. Lawrence Allen and Barbara Conroy have drawn from their extensive experience in conducting institutes, workshops and seminars throughout the country. They have found repeatedly that a staff working smoothly and cooperatively together makes the achievement of both organizational and personal goals more possible.

The following chapter, prepared by members of the Staff Development Committee, presents a model for use by librarians in analyzing and defining basic needs and problems, and in developing the framework for a program of personnel development or continuing education which will facilitate the application of managerial techniques. It is flexible enough so that it can be implemented in any size or type of library or library system, or group of cooperating libraries.

The “Guidelines for Human Resource Development” chapter, also written by the Staff Development Committee, takes the point of view that an individual library system can strengthen its role in the development of human resources by 1) developing from a systems point of view, a philosophy, policies, and programs in the area of human resources development; and 2) making sure they are known and practiced throughout the system.

A considerable portion of this chapter discusses a rationale based on current behavioral science research because the committee believes that the human side of libraries is “all of a piece”—that the theoretical assumptions management holds about the development of its human resources determine the whole character of the library. The human resources approach in action emphasizes the motivation and development of people, high performance goals, participation in problem solving or decision-making, and the encouragement of innovation. It also emphasizes that the extent to which human resources will be developed in any given library system will largely be dependent on
the management perspective and leadership style of the chief administrator, for he, more than anyone else, sets the tone and philosophy of a library. Believing that personnel development and continuing education are shared responsibilities in the profession, the committee makes some suggestions for action to other relevant groups—state and federal agencies, library schools, and professional associations.

Finally, there are three articles on continuing education which, in this issue, is conceived of as being a lifelong process through which individuals maintain themselves as competent people and grow to meet the challenges of change. Continuing education refers to all activities and efforts by the individual to upgrade his knowledge, abilities, competencies or understanding in his work field or specialization. Often the scope of continuing education is divided for the purpose of discussion or study into formal study and informal learning activities. The former category would include formal course work in credit or non-credit courses. The latter would include a wide spectrum of activities such as attending conferences, workshops, professional meetings; reading, writing, and editing; consultation, teaching, and speaking to groups; membership in informal study groups; research participation in inservice, on-the-job training programs, etc.

In a recent paper, Houle has emphasized a concept which is incorporated into the use of the term here. He defines continuing education as "that learning which clearly, in the mind of the learner or teacher, advances from some previously established base to extend and amplify awareness or capacity—and does so during the years of adulthood. . . . In continuing education, as here considered, it is always necessary to look to the immediate situation. Somewhere earlier a base has been established; now that base is being built upon." 10

Thus, the term "the educational third dimension" seemed an appropriate one for an umbrella heading for our papers on continuing education, for, as explained by James E. Allen, Jr., when he used the phrase as the subject of an address at the Galaxy Conference on Adult and Continuing Education in 1969, it is built on the proposition that education is a lifelong process, and that after basic elementary and secondary education, followed by post-secondary training, there must be concern with a third dimension—the lifelong learning of adults. He emphasized the importance of continuing education when he stated:

We need lifelong learning—that is, the repeated return of the experienced and developed adult to the learning process so that
new knowledge can continually be applied to living and working. It is increasingly accepted that all workers must be retrained periodically to keep abreast of the knowledge explosion. Experience alone has only limited value in modern work-life. Using knowledge makes change and personal growth inevitable. For knowledge by definition innovates, searches, questions, and changes.\(^\text{11}\)

As presented here, a basic philosophy for any continuing education program is the necessity of building into the program a strategy for planned change.

In the first of three articles on continuing education, Mary Gaver reports on her questionnaire to a non-random sample of “librarian achievers” to discover what motivates them toward continuing education activities; to find out the kinds of continuing education that had been most effective with them; and to learn what strategies they would recommend to the young professional just starting his career. In addition to a thorough analysis of the returns to these questions, the author concludes that “current efforts of the associations are fragmented, lacking in continuity, with no culmination but rather a tapering off, and little of sequential learning resulting in many cases. A strong recommendation has been made to the American Library Association for a more structured approach. . . . in this paper, by Rothstein five years ago, and as one of the suggestions derived from Stone’s research.” It is interesting to note that this same suggestion reappears in the last chapter of this issue.

John Harvey, former Dean of the Drexel Library School which for many years has made a significant contribution in continuing professional education programming for librarians, emphasizes in his article problems inherent in keeping professional librarians up-to-date after their professional degree and suggests approaches to solving these problems. A survey of types of programs is presented along with an innovative list of “Fifteen Ideas for Dissemination.”

The final presentation is authored by Peter Hiatt, Director of the Continuing Education Program for Library Personnel for the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE). He opens with several important assumptions: 1) the continuing education of librarians is one of the most important problems facing the profession today; 2) the task of continuing education is not only passing on the wisdom, experience, and knowledge of the past, but it is also preparing librarians for change in themselves and their institutions; 3) ultimately the individual is himself primarily responsible for his own education.
and most of his learning efforts must be self-directed; 4) continuing education—formal and informal—is essential for all people employed in libraries, not just the “librarians” who constitute the professional segment of the library community; and 5) the fragmented elements of present continuing education programs have not been put together in any pattern.

This brings us to his thesis, that the pieces should be put together in an organized whole through the development of a practical, well organized national plan so that continuing education, utilizing all available methods and technologies, would efficiently meet the lifelong learning needs of all library personnel. He suggests that “such experimentation is most likely to occur when a broad, regional view is taken, and seems even more probable on the national level.” As a backdrop to his proposal for a national plan, he describes the work that has been done in WICHE on a regional basis. Not everyone may agree with his particular version of what the national plan should be or with his suggestion that the location of the profession’s national program for continuing education should be within the American Library Association structure, but most would agree with his position that “professional associations and library schools must share responsibility for continuing education.”

In this connection, it should be noted that an idea for another national plan is in the recently published work, A Study of Needs for Research in Library and Information Science Education, in which James J. Kortendick suggests as a high ranking priority “A Feasibility Study of a National Program of Continuing Education for Librarians.” This outline proposal differs from Hiatt’s in that it suggests that the problem be initially approached through a study of alternative structures and operational guides by a committee representative of all the various interests and segments of the profession concerned with continuing education. The objective as stated is more personalized than Hiatt’s, namely a conceptual and practical plan for provision of equal, coordinated educational opportunities throughout the country for all library personnel who wish to continue their lifetime of learning.

Several conclusions might be drawn from reading at one sitting the articles which make up this issue of Library Trends. First, the contributors seem to agree with the forthright statements by Kaser, based on his survey of 145 of the largest libraries in the country, that although there is more concern for and talk about training and continuing education than ever before in the history of librarianship,
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actually not much is being done about it in any organized or con-
certed way—objectives are not clear, there is a lack of planning
(short-range as well as long-range), and there is little evidence of a
systems approach to personnel development, training, and continuing
education. The reader receives the impression that generally, as con-
cluded by Kaser, library managers take a passive, almost indifferent
role toward continuing education.

The issue authors were generally in agreement that the degree to
which personnel development and continuing education can be used
effectively in any library organization is, to a large extent, dependent
on the management perspective of the chief administrator. However,
as a group, the authors reported that they had found little evidence
in the literature, from the surveys, or from experience up to this point
in time to indicate that many chief administrators or managers had:
1) reexamined work and moved it toward being concerned with meet-
ing individual needs for achievement and recognition (as through
job enrichment) while at the same time meeting the library objectives,
2) reexamined the organizational structures with a willingness to
change them as needed (only one example had been found of a matrix
structure with shared responsibility), 3) consciously worked toward
building a climate of confidence and trust throughout the library, or
4) experimented with the use of participative decision-making as a
means of personnel development or with a goals-oriented approach to
personnel evaluation.

On the positive side, however, a number of encouraging signs
emerge. The Kaser survey revealed that there are now substantial
amounts of funds being used for training and continuing education.
There seems to be a growing recognition of the advantages of ap-
proaching manpower development from a systems point of view, even
though implementation of the concept seems minimal to date. The
same would seem to hold true for the use of educational technology
in developing training and continuing education programs—concep-
tually it is recognized as important, but not too many libraries or
individuals are making optimal use of the potential, as represented
by recent articles in the literature.

But most important of all, it would appear that throughout the
profession there is a great awakening to the fact that personnel
development and continuing education constitute one of the most
urgent problems facing librarianship today and that this realization
in itself may provide an impetus to change what Presthus has termed
"the challenge now facing conventional libraries." Indeed from the response to surveys conducted and reported in these chapters, it seems there is realization of the necessity of building into the personnel development plan a strategy for planned change. At least there is evident a willingness and openness to look beyond librarianship to other professions and disciplines for new ideas and innovations. Finally, there seems to be the recognition that proposed change should be based on actual needs—needs of the library personnel and needs of the user (and many of these will relate to the user's continuing education needs).

One of the problems the committee faced in planning this issue was to decide on the breadth or scope possible within the limits of a Library Trends issue. There are a myriad of ways to approach such a broad subject as personnel development and continuing education in libraries, and whatever the final decision there are sure to be omissions. To answer questions of omission, a word is in order on them.

First, the content dealt with in the majority of these articles is limited because of the size of the issue and because the emphasis here is on the development of the human resources of the individual as related to the work situation. Basically it is in but one of four areas that Bone and Hartz suggest to librarians in their recent article, "Taking the Full Ride: A Librarian's Routes to Continuing Education," that is, understand the principles of management and make intelligent application of those principles—an area also singled out for priority attention in continuing education programs in other recent studies. The other three areas Bone and Hartz list are communications, the new media, and understanding communities. Judging by the findings from two recent studies, by Presthus and Kortendick and Stone, a fifth would be related to automation and technological change necessary in libraries. The committee feels that the topic, "The Role of Educational Technology in Human Resources Development," is very important, but that to do the subject justice would take another entire issue of Library Trends. (The committee has chosen this as the topic for the staff development micro-workshop at the annual ALA Conference in 1972.)

Another area not covered which is being talked and written about by leaders in continuing education is the concept of inter-professional cooperation. The recommendation here by Houle and others is that members of each profession should not act as though they alone had any need to learn and should drop the assumption that their pro-
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cesses are wholly unique. According to Houle such inter-professional

efforts to learn would lead to important consequences and provide a

whole new range of insights. However, as the intent of a Library

Trends issue is to learn where we stand in relation to practice, there

seemed to be so little evidence of such inter-professional cooperation

in continuing education at this time in librarianship that it did not

seem to warrant a chapter devoted to it.

A third area not dealt with is a detailed analysis of what the library

schools have offered and are offering in continuing education pro-

grams, but the committee felt this was beyond the scope of their

emphasis, namely the development of the individual in relation to the

job situation. This field would also take a whole issue to present ade-

quately. Furthermore it has just been covered in the 1971 study by J.

Periam Danton, Between M.L.S. and Ph.D.\textsuperscript{20}

Finally, a chapter reviewing the literature in personnel development

and continuing education seemed in the end not to be necessary

because the individual authors in the present issue have covered in

their reference lists and bibliographical suggestions most of the re-

search and writing in the field. Also a very complete sixteen-page

bibliography is already available in the study cited earlier by Korten-

dick,\textsuperscript{21} and the ERIC Clearinghouse for Library and Information

Science is currently preparing an extensive review of related continu-

ing education literature for release in the summer of 1971.

Presthus, in closing his 1970 report on Technological Change and

Occupational Response: A Study of Librarians, states in the last two

paragraphs:

Substantial change often has to be imposed from outside a given

occupation or institution, and some of the values of some of our

librarians are, as we have seen, somewhat inapposite to demands

now impinging upon their field. In this sense, it would be neither

surprising nor unusual if the major thrust for automation and sys-

tems concepts would have to wait for a new generation of librarians,

trained in schools that have fully incorporated the skills and con-

cepts of a new librarianship into their teaching programs.

Another alternative is that librarianship may by default allow the

emerging “information specialist” groups to determine the condi-

tions of participation in the changing library occupation. Certainly

this consequence would be one way of accommodating to the exist-

ing situation, but it would probably mean the end of librarianship's
aspirations for the independence and prestige that come with professionalization.22

In sum, the theme of this issue is: A rapidly changing age is forcing libraries and all the individuals who work in them to attach a new importance to personnel development and continuing education. Its thesis is that to meet effectively the technological change which Presthus states is demanded of conventional libraries, it is necessary at the same time to pay attention to individual needs. If this challenge is not given high and immediate priority and hopes for a productive response to individual as well as institutional needs are not met concurrently, the words of Presthus are apt to have, in future years, a strongly prophetic ring to them.

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Personnel Planning for a Library Manpower System

ROBERT LEE
AND
CHARLENE SWARTHOUT LEE

What is personnel planning? How is personnel planning approached in a library manpower system? What conceptual framework can be utilized to develop a manpower system within an individual library?

A search of library literature uncovers only isolated instances of attempts to deal with personnel planning; relevant suggestions for effective library personnel planning have therefore been sought from the research literature of business and industry.

The intent of this paper is to review the most typical, pertinent and significant research which indicates the directions being taken in personnel utilization. No attempt is made to provide a "how-to-do-it" recipe; the aim is to provide an overview of the major aspects of personnel planning. The other papers in this issue discuss various aspects of personnel planning, management and development in more detail.

Personnel planning is concerned with the management of human resources. It is explicit planning; it is planning with such clarity and distinctness that all the elements in a library manpower system are apparent. Since it is planning for human resources, it must place particular emphasis on assisting each individual, according to his background, to achieve his career values, desires, and expectations. Since it is planning for the use of human resources for effective organizational operation, personnel planning must include a statement of what kinds of qualities are desired, at what places, and at what times. It is planning which includes all personnel within the system.

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It is planning with emphasis on both preparing for the future and providing knowledge necessary for effective day-to-day utilization of manpower.

A personnel research orientation is important in a manpower system because it offers a way of thinking—based upon data—about the utilization of human resources. It is a basis for resolving current organizational problems and for introducing innovative approaches that may help avert future problems. The traditional organizational chart and staff manual are not useful as analytical tools. The organizational chart is only a static picture of an organization and not a schematic design of organizational activity. While it is important to know how the organization is functionally structured for the purpose of communication and information, it is also vitally important for the purpose of analysis and planning to know how the organization operates.¹

An organization operates as a system. The systems concept or viewpoint is based on the notion that any organization is made up of interrelated segments, or subsystems, each of which has its own goals. The systems approach to organization and management of human and material resources includes these basic ideas:

a) an organization is composed of many subsystems;
b) the organization is not an entity in itself; it must interface with other groups;
c) subordinates are only a part of the organization which also includes peers and colleagues;
d) the organization may be built around a specific project so diagonal and horizontal contacts are required;
e) individuals in an organization have a mixture of roles, not a narrow specialization; and
f) management must understand the relationship between the parts of the system.²

“Systems analysis [as applied to personnel planning] in the business environment . . . proceeds by the same process as scientific method in the physical sciences: data collection, formulation of tentative hypothesis, testing, and the formulation of a conclusion or informed professional opinion. Consequently, personnel systems analysis is an adaptation of scientific methodology to the personnel environment.”³

A systems approach to the human aspect of management is not to
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be equated with programming in a computer sense. There are four roles of the systems approach:

1) to appraise limitations, needs and opportunities in order to state overall goals and give them priorities,
2) to determine alternative potential solutions and develop measures of their relative effectiveness,
3) to distinguish between what is known and what needs to be known about goals and alternative solutions, and
4) to select and develop the most promising combinations of problems and solutions.a

A conceptual framework is essential in developing a manpower system whether the organization be business, industry or a library. Current literature describes various frameworks for manpower planning. Although the terminology designating each step may differ, the frameworks are similar. The initial step is concerned with the determination of organizational objectives which are needed in every area of activity where performance and results directly and vitally affect the survival of an organization. The succeeding component parts of personnel planning are the manpower plan, the personnel development plan, and the recruiting plan. The manpower plan is concerned with an analysis and forecast of organizational needs as well as an assessment and inventory of the skills and abilities of the existing staff. The personnel development plan is concerned with the effective utilization of the existing staff. The recruitment plan is concerned with locating personnel to fill unmet and specific needs.b

THE MANPOWER PLAN

The manpower plan is an employment forecast. It is the complex task of forecasting and planning for the right numbers and the right kinds of people, at the right places and the right times, to perform activities that will benefit both the organization and the individuals involved. The effectiveness and quality of the manpower plan depend upon establishing communication with all aspects of the organization and integrating this communication into a plan.

Barnard has stated that “the first executive function is to develop and maintain a system of communication.” c Effective communication is obviously a vital aspect of the job of every member of the organization. All management personnel in the organization must be aware of feeding manpower planning “tidbits” into a central point and of de-
veloping specific instructions on what to watch for in the way of information. The chief executive, however, inevitably sets the general tone and attitude about communications and should hold every department head and supervisor accountable for effective two-way communication.

Since the key to manpower planning is communication, a myriad of complex methods are available to provide an immense and instantaneous amount of information which management may use in its forecasting: cost accounting, electronic data processing, computers, operations research, systems and procedures, wages and salary administration, motivation research, statistical quality control, and organization planning methods. These tools can give management a better understanding of the individual, of his skills and potential, plus some measure of his progress and his job satisfactions.

This information, however, must be combined with a comprehensive profile of existing skills, an assessment of the promotable individuals within the organization, training or retraining requirements and capabilities, detailed turnover statistics and analysis, knowledge of current and expected salary levels and pertinent information about the labor supply. All of this information must be refined and a continuous feedback loop established for comparison and verification of the resulting data.

Basic data are needed to develop a manpower plan. In the development of the manpower plan an organization must utilize not only the generalized data from within its organization but it must consider the data available from the broad field in which it operates.

What generalized data are available in the broad field of library management? Recognizing that the library and information fields should be concerned with their manpower resources, a full-scale search for information has been undertaken in the research blueprint, Manpower for the Library and Information Professions in the 1970's; An Inquiry into Fundamental Problems. Librarianship is faced with the fundamental question of what persons—for what purpose and with what training—will be needed to foster, encourage and support the further development of the field. Librarianship has not had an adequate basis for predicting, with any degree of precision, where, how many, at what level of sophistication, and for what particular purposes personnel will be required. It is imperative to have data concerning an individual's psychological orientation, academic background, and educational content in order to fit him for a career in library information
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service in the 1970s. This full-scale manpower investigation of Wasser-
man and Bundy seeks to identify and illuminate these and other shadowy areas of obscurity.

In the inquiry eight major aspects were selected for research analysis:

1) the economics of the library and information profession,
2) the image and status of librarians and information workers,
3) factors influencing choice of a career in library and information work,
4) concepts and attitudes toward authority among librarians and information workers,
5) the role of the library and information executive,
6) the sociology of the information profession,
7) education and training patterns in the information field, and
8) environmental factors influencing library and information development.

The research seeks, in effect, to identify and estimate library manpower requirements. Reports of some of the pilot studies will soon be available through ERIC.

These studies are basic, with the questions and hypotheses derived from theory and knowledge drawn from the behavioral sciences. They are designed to determine what type of human beings, with what kinds of educational preparation, working in what types of organizational settings, under which terms of leadership are necessary and will be necessary in library information activities in the decade ahead. The manpower situation in librarianship is particularly complicated by the state of change in the field, and these studies offer great promise of rich basic data for personnel planning in the library organization.

The Maryland Manpower Research Study will provide only the generalized intelligence upon which library administrators may begin to develop their manpower plan. While there has been much discussion of efficient allocation and utilization of manpower in our economy, to date it has had little relevance for managerial decisions. The influence of this major study of library personnel will be measured, ultimately, by the extent to which those in the field—practitioners, educators, administrators, as well as those who support and rely upon information services—are disposed to make use of the evidence to advance the field.

Another characteristic of the manpower plan, in addition to a profile
of existing personnel and data from the broad field of management, is organizational relationships. What is the best organizational form for the effective use of human resources? The traditional formal charting of organizational relationships offers little in the way of indicating effective utilization of human resources. Organizational relationships must be conceived as meeting manpower management needs.

Should these relationships be organized around functions or products? More specifically, should all specialists in a given function be grouped under a common head, or should the various functional specialists working on a single product be grouped together under the same superior? Traditional practice indicates specialization in terms of grouping of functions, i.e., similar activities or skills, without consideration of psychological and social consequences. More recently, behavioral scientists have found that there is an important relationship between a unit's or individual's assigned activities and the unit members' patterns of thought and behavior.

A recent study conducted in two manufacturing plants—one organized on a product basis, the other on a functional basis—describes in detail the significance of both approaches to organizational structuring. The conclusion of the study indicated that functional organization seems to lead to better results in a situation where a stable performance of a routine task is desired, while product organization leads to better results in a situation where the task is less predictable and it requires innovative problem-solving.

The findings of this study may have relevance to library organizational structure. An insistent problem within libraries has always been the integration of the aspects of library service—selection, acquisition, cataloging and circulation. In most instances the specializations are grouped under a functional rather than a product structure; that is, rather than a mingling of these subsystems under the library product—service to its public—they are usually separated by functional concerns. Consequently, library management is constantly plagued with the problem of communication between these functional subsystems. In the functional versus the product organization study, the lack of communication within the functional subsystems was emphasized. The integration of these specializations for optimum communication in the development of the library's product—service—has major implications for the organization of library personnel.

To make an appropriate choice between the functional or product structure for organizational relationships, it is essential to identify the
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demands of the task confronting the library. Is it a routine, repetitive task? Is it possible there is a task so routine that there is no need to explain to the worker how his work is integrated with the work of the other people in the organization? If library management is satisfied with this view of a task, then the functional organization is quite appropriate.

On the other hand, if the task is concerned with problem-solving, or if management defines it this way, the product organization seems to be more appropriate. This is especially true where there is a need for tight integration among specialists. To give a high order of public service, there can be little argument that library specialists must be integrated. To collaborate effectively, they must deal constructively with conflict, communicate directly and openly with each other, and confront their differences. The product organization seems to encourage this type of behavior among staff members. A research study conducted by the Stanford University Graduate School of Business concludes: "If a trend toward any one type may be regarded as discernible, based upon the thirty-one companies studied, it is perhaps in the direction of the product-division plan."9

A specific recommendation has been made for library organization that is in the direction of product structure. It is a gridlike organizational form. In adapting this model to libraries, Sager suggests that "the public service functions such as reference services can be conceived as forming the grid components located on the X axis, and the supportive functions, such as technical services, on the Y axis. The administrator's position on the grid would be on the Y axis, since his role is supportive; he functions as a coordinator or consultant."10 Sager appears to be in agreement with Drucker's conception of the role of the administrator in a social institution, i.e., as coordinator of the operation. The administrator is the person who creates the organizational framework in which the institution functions, and he becomes a specialist in relating one operation to another so as to avoid waste. This requires staff involvement, familiarity with the organization's goals, and effective communication throughout the organization.

Another suggestion for change in library organizational relationships has been described by Kaser.11 He notes the historical failure of library administrators to allow for widespread participation by professionals in the organization's total goal determination. This runs counter to the increasing attempt to build the concept of librarianship as a high order profession. In commenting on university libraries, he states that
a traditional pyramidal structure will have to be maintained for support staff but suggests the possibility of a parallel professional peer group structure, with responsibility for the following:

1) the determination of standards of service, both institutional and personal, and the monitoring of those standards;
2) the drafting of broad policies concerning the service thrust of librarianship at the university level; and
3) the design of appropriate governance methodology.

He suggests that the relationship of the director of libraries to the professional group should be similar to that of a dean to his faculty.

The first component of personnel planning—the manpower plan—assesses basic data on existing personnel as well as in the total field, explores organizational relationships, and forecasts changes in the utilization of human resources. Within the framework of a research orientation which tests, measures, evaluates and modifies, the manpower plan seeks the development of a desirable or "proper" form which is related to growth in a social institution.

PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The overall planning represented by the manpower plan should be well under way when the second component of personnel planning—the personnel development plan—is launched. The personnel development plan is designed to achieve effective utilization of existing staff. The study of existing staff should identify key individuals within the organization, regardless of level, whose contributions are considered essential to meeting the objectives of the area in which they work, and determine if these individuals are making the maximum contributions of which they are capable.

The manpower supply for libraries is drawn from the personnel group that Drucker describes as "knowledge" workers.12 The knowledge worker needs a challenge. He needs to know that he contributes. He respects knowledge and demands that it become the basis of measuring his accomplishment. "Knowledge workers also require that the demands be made on them by knowledge rather than by bosses, that is, by objectives rather than by people. They require a performance-oriented organization rather than an authority-oriented organization."13 The knowledge worker expects the organizational structure to identify where final decisions and ultimate responsibility rest, but knowledge work itself knows no hierarchy. The task decides who is in...
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charge. Drucker suggests that to make knowledge work productive will be the major task of management during this decade.

Knowledge workers must be considered as assets and be included in the balance sheet to optimize the use of scarce resources, human as well as physical. A method of valuing human resources is needed which will be consistent with the valuation of physical resources. This concept, if implemented, could contribute to job satisfaction and develop organizations where “manpower, like materials and facilities, should be considered as an investment alternative subject to similar cost, return, allocation, and control considerations given to other resources.”

An interesting observation about the effective utilization of support staff has been made by Hersey and Blanchard. Since people who occupy high level positions in an organization tend to be more “mature” and therefore need less supervision than people who occupy lower level jobs, it is assumed that top managers should be able to supervise more subordinates than their supervising counterparts at lower levels.

Unquestionably, the largest “management gap” is now in the area of personnel management. As organizations have grown in size they have utilized professional personnel management. This is becoming increasingly important to the development of the library organization. The role of the library personnel officer is to develop “total management information systems.” The design, implementation and operation of a total management information system is an extremely complex “people problem.” It is necessary to measure the degree of challenge, the degree to which goals are satisfied, and the degree to which personnel participate in decision-making. “The measurement that is needed is not some psychological probing into the mental recesses of the individual, but some objective test of the degree to which the individual possesses potentialities, within the corporation, for the satisfaction of his personal goals, and his capacity to capitalize on those potentialities.” It is important to accumulate data concerning the needs and interests of current employees and to synthesize this information into more effective functioning of the organization. The steps necessary for the analysis and synthesis of this information are 1) recognizing all the sources of possible planning intelligence, 2) establishing coordination with these sources to insure full and timely inputs of information, and 3) evaluating and integrating the data for expression in curves and detailed specifications.

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Success in developing human resources must be considered in terms of the organization’s ability to satisfy the personal goals of those persons in the organization. This success may be achieved by plans or designs directed to the efficiency sought, and there must be adequate means for testing the success of the planning. “The successful creation of opportunities by and for all who participate and the satisfactory use of those opportunities is the business efficiency which must be sought. To seek it rationally the ends to be served must be identified, the means to achieve them must be made specific, and methods of measuring the degree of business efficiency must be found. This is a program of staggering and challenging proportions.”

To satisfy the high demand for programs that produce effective participation, personnel officers must be well informed about each member in the organization. Basic types of personnel information as well as definitions of detailed personal needs are necessary. Hinrichs outlines several types of inventories that are useful in developing the basic type of personnel information. Neuendorf provides a systematic approach to the definition of detailed personal needs which aid personnel to identify and list their needs. He maintains that only those people directly involved can define their own needs. Delegating responsibility for need identification to brain trusters or outside consultants dooms the effort at its conception, or, at best, produces limited results. Neuendorf has designed a step-by-step approach which personnel managers may use to help individuals identify their own needs.

As the data about all personnel accumulate and are analyzed, the personnel development plan can be activated. The matching of persons to positions may begin, additional work experience and training may be planned around the needs identified, and a program of evaluation may be instituted. It is likely that programs for increasing effectiveness on the job, for developing managerial skills and for team building will be outgrowths of the demands indicated from the information compiled on personal needs. To give direction to these programs it is important to consider research relating to personnel organization and management.

Since people are the main ingredient in personnel management, the personnel development plan should take into account the information available from behavior and motivation research. While people differ they have in common certain basic needs which are the origins of human motivation. “Man is a perpetually wanting animal.” He has basic needs to be developed in a hierarchy of prepotency—the
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physiological needs, the safety needs, the belonging and love needs, the need for self-esteem and the esteem of others, the need for self-actualization, the need to know and understand, and the aesthetic needs. Porter, in a review of research in the satisfaction factor in industrial and business organizations, states that, in terms of motivational theory, the modern American business enterprise has succeeded in providing adequate basic need satisfaction but still has a considerable way to go in providing satisfaction of higher order types of psychological needs. If this is so, it means that organizations must focus on these higher order needs if they wish to apply increased motivational leverage.

The most salient and crucial higher order needs are those for autonomy and self-realization. These appear to be the needs that are important and yet are the least satisfied. A study of two hundred engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh who were interviewed on events which had increased or decreased their job satisfaction reports that the satisfiers in terms of job satisfaction were achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement. The major dissatisfiers were company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions. What is significant about the report is that these factors are not opposite; that is, it is not enough to alleviate dissatisfaction, but satisfaction must be developed.

A study in management by participation concludes that concern for individual workers, democratic management and participation in decision-making are significantly more effective than were the authoritarian methods of a previous management. During the period of the study the earnings of the workers increased, turnover decreased, absenteeism decreased and the return on capital invested increased from minus 15 percent to plus 17 percent. While the review of research on management systems indicates many times that productivity grows with participation, it is also often true that when faced with a crisis, management returns to a mistrustful attitude and depends on some form of authority—exploitive or benevolent. In the area of management and labor relations, however, we can see a shift toward participatory behavior. Effective problem-solving has often replaced irreconcilable conflict.

How is participatory management developed? Some of the principles of participatory management are:
1) All manpower will view their experiences as supportive. The work experience is one which builds and maintains a sense of personal worth and importance. It is important that not only the supervisor's intentions are supportive but that the subordinate's perceptions of them are positive and that the work experience is arrived at through a group process which encompasses the supervisor and the reporting subordinates.

2) The supervisor is accountable for all decisions, for their execution and for their results. While goals are set through decision-making and multiple, overlapping group structure, the supervisor is responsible for the quality of decisions and their implementation.

3) Each member of the work force has high performance aspirations. Group objectives must represent an optimum integration of the needs and desires of the members of the organization. An absence of such goals represents a deficiency in the interaction process and a failure to recognize situational requirements.

If these principles are positively met, it is suggested that peer group loyalty develops, coordination improves and there is effective interaction which influences the work experience. A time variable—usually longer than expected—may be anticipated in attaining participatory management systems. However, the growth which does come about is substantial and enduring.

If participation on the job is conducive to developing effectiveness on the job, team building can often lead to more satisfying participation and rewards in productivity. McGregor cites Eric Trist's Socio-Technical Systems in a description of a group of forty-one coal miners who were experimentally encouraged to organize themselves into a team. While the other miners continued to work individually for individual pay on an assigned task, members of the test group worked as a team, restructuring itself and redefining tasks when breakdowns occurred. The resulting record indicates a significant increase in productivity and a decline in work stoppages, absenteeism, and accidents.

McGregor also reports on a detailed case study involving the reorganization of a major public utility. The intent was to encourage the development of general managerial skills and a concern for the business as a whole. A multi-level task force was developed to direct the organization of a new geographic subdivision. The managerial team was encouraged to study the proposals of the task force and then to organize itself. While the objectives were management de-
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velopment and improved customer service, later interviews indicated that those on the managerial staff were working harder and getting more satisfaction out of their jobs.

Crockett reports the experiences shared by a group of workers in the Department of State as they participated in a program designed to develop team skills. This was not a research program but an exercise in individual development in building skills useful in team work.

The lesson that was most impressive to us all was that the so-called Theory Y Style of management—management by participation—is neither soft headed nor "easy." It is much easier to sit in the big office and issue directives. It is much easier to avoid confrontation by issuing orders. It is easier to avoid personal involvement and conflict by smoothing over the surface. Theory Y management is not for the executive who likes surface serenity and obsequiousness. Theory Y management is for those managers who are willing to take the gut punishment of a truly tough-minded approach to management. It is for those who believe that conflict can be handled best by confronting it openly and for those who understand that real commitment of their people can be secured only by their continuing participation in making plans and setting objectives.

Organizational development is not a panacea but a style—a tough-minded management style—and it works! 27

While working toward management by participation in the library organization, it might be useful to consider some findings as to needs among library personnel that may have to be satisfied in order to encourage individual motivation. Roe has noted that an important relationship exists between occupations and need satisfactions. It is the task of the organization to provide a working environment which meets basic human needs but also to match personality types with work roles. Brophy and Gazda question whether or not library administrators, as well as librarians, may not be intolerant of characteristics which do not fit the bureaucratic mold. Enforcement of a working milieu which strives for congeniality, homogeneity, and conformity may exclude the innovator and the change agent.

A current research study reports that male library science students at one midwestern university were found to have mean scores on the femininity scale of the California Psychological Inventory (C.P.I.) that were significantly greater than norms established by unselected.
samples of American men. High scorers on the C.P.I.'s femininity scale typically manifest characteristics that can be described as patient, sympathetic, and appreciative. These may be the traits which people most want to find in library workers. However, while a willingness to serve is important and a kindly spirit is appreciated, the demands on the library in a knowledge economy will probably require personnel who manifest more aggressiveness and less nurturance than were exhibited in the students in this investigation.

The Maryland Manpower Research Study\textsuperscript{31} describes the changing library profession and refers to it as the information profession, representing a merger of librarianship with newer information fields and with branches in subject areas and technical spheres. A central core of identity will evolve and gain societal recognition for the professional in information service functioning in the many varied settings and sharing a common educational experience. As this development toward an information profession increases, it is likely that the characteristics and psychological needs of personnel in the "library" organization will also be more varied.

Evaluation is vital to all programs for organizational and personnel development. Assessment must be made of the degree to which programs succeed or fail short of their goals. Individuals within the programs, as well as the program itself, must be evaluated. A new approach to evaluation that fits into a framework of management by objectives and is consistent with this philosophy has been suggested. "This approach calls on the subordinate to establish short-term performance goals for himself. The superior enters the process actively only after the subordinate has (a) done a good deal of thinking about his job, (b) made a careful assessment of his own strengths and weaknesses, and (c) formulated some specific plans to accomplish his goals. The superior's role is to help the man relate his self appraisal, his 'target,' and his plans for the ensuing period to the realities of the organization."\textsuperscript{32}

McGregor\textsuperscript{33} also reports on the effectiveness of a typical evaluation completed along these lines. More than 90 percent of employees answering questionnaires approved the idea of the appraisals. They wanted to know where they stood.

A survey\textsuperscript{34} of governmental employee performance evaluation plans mentions several problems with this form of personnel appraisal. Some of the sample criticisms were inadequate supervisory training, a time-consuming process, inconsistency among supervisors, supervisors
fearing unpopularity, supervisors rating too high, and the instruments used which attempted to do too many things.

A recent trend in performance rating has been to evaluate the results that personnel achieve rather than rating the individuals in terms of their qualities or traits. This approach appears to take on added respectability from its apparent closeness to the concept of management by objectives. However, measuring by results and managing by objectives are not the same thing. Gellerman suggests that an effective system of performance evaluation has at least three characteristics:

1) ratings have to be based on specific, verifiable events;
2) these events have to be demonstrably significant; and
3) the scale used for rating each of these events must be firmly anchored in specific, easily recognizable behavioral descriptions, not in ambiguous terms like “average.”

While performance appraisals are a step forward from the traditional supervisory rating, they leave much to be desired in evaluation. Performance appraisals are instruments that must be handled with delicacy and considerable insight. It is not surprising that the literature on the effectiveness of performance appraisals indicates much disagreement; however, evaluation must accompany performance. Perhaps it is possible to find a better way—a way less potentially damaging to human dignity. Though a major departure from the traditional judgmental forms, the “research orientation attitude” is an approach to individual evaluation which can be considerably more objective.

The adoption of the research orientation attitude can provide useful and objective assessment. As personnel develop their own programs and work through the successive steps of their programs, they inevitably come to the evaluation stage and can see not only the effects of the total program but the part they as individuals have played in its success or shortcomings. A further advantage of the research orientation attitude is that it shifts the emphasis from appraisal to analysis. When all aspects of the program come under scrutiny and are examined for weaknesses as well as strengths, the individual becomes an active agent who can take responsibility for developing his own potentialities, planning for himself and learning from putting his plans into action. He is utilizing his own capabilities to achieve both his objectives and those of the organization. When this relationship exists, personnel development becomes more than a euphemism.
The effective personnel development plan is concerned with individuals; it is specific where the manpower plan was general. Its specificity lies in its understanding the uniqueness of an individual’s career aspirations, providing him with opportunities for participation and decision-making, and increasing his potential for growth. When the plan is operational and has accounted for the potentialities and talents of existing manpower, desirable promotions and transfers will be planned and, in some cases, executed; key personnel will have been identified and plans made to prepare them for future assignments; and appropriate training programs will have been devised for trainees from the current work force. In its totality the personnel development plan is a studied, deliberate design to collect career data and program work experience for the nurturance of productive humans.

THE RECRUITMENT PLAN

Though careful consideration has been given to the existing manpower within an organization, inevitably there comes a time when it is necessary to consider recruitment to fill specific needs. The recruitment plan, like the manpower plan and the personnel development plan, should have a research orientation. However, the recruitment plan relies heavily upon experience data gleaned from previous recruiting efforts. “There are three basic dimensions of recruitment which determine whether or not it is effective: 1) It must bring in enough talent to meet the organization’s current and continuing needs. 2) It must bring in the right kinds of talent. 3) It must bring in talent in such a way that it continues to make a sustained contribution to the organization’s objectives.”

The lifeblood of any organization is its talent, and it follows that the process of recruiting this talent is a critical one. It is important that the individual recruit is convinced that the job which the organization can offer him will mesh with his personal goals. The fact that a significant proportion of college graduates enroll in graduate school immediately after undergraduate study indicates that by the time they are available they have a strong vocational commitment, and their career goals are considerably refined.

A study of the career goals of 629 graduates in engineering, business and physical science provides a listing of the factors which top-talent recruits rate as most important to them in their job choices. The goals of these individuals were oriented largely around the work
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itself, the intrinsic satisfactions of the work, and the potentials for personal growth and advancement in the organization. This suggests that recruits are seeking a challenge in their assignments.

Gellerman^{38} points out that when an organization offers a combination of high security and low challenge it tends to screen out the more enterprising and vigorous sort of person and to attract and hold the steady, methodical types. This can be fatal for an organization faced with technological or economic changes. The optimum reward system within any given organization would probably be when its people are provided with as much security as they need and as much challenge as they can handle.

The library profession is faced with the demands of technological and economic changes. The needed recruits should be individuals who are adaptable to careers in innovating organizations; who are oriented to machine applications, systems analysis, and science and social science disciplines; and who are characterized by an ability to function in more fluid and flexible organizations. Many of these recruits will have to be sought not only from library schools but also from other professions. Can the library as an organization offer the challenge that such recruits may be seeking? Will such recruits be able to mesh their personal goals with the goals of the library organization?

Recruiting leads to selection and selection is a rather ill-defined area of management in which there is a need for a firm “yes” or “no” decision about people. Selection, in the abstract, is the science—or art—of decision-making about people which “(1) Assimilates, sorts, and evaluates a wide range of information about potential job candidates from many different sources. (2) Examines this information in the light of future requirements of the organization; that is, simultaneously extrapolates the best guess about the organization’s manpower and skill requirements, as well as personal data about John Doe, candidate. (3) Makes a decision about whether the probable future job requirements mesh sufficiently with the probable future skill and ability level of John Doe.”^{39}

This idealized sequence of logic is rarely applied to the selection decision, however. Hinrichs^{40} suggests that a combination of the statistical approach and the clinical approach will lead to the most reliable selection. Certain criteria need to be developed and evaluated in the selection prediction: what the candidate has done, i.e., his prior accomplishments at work, in school, with his family, and in his extra curricular activities; his knowledge, i.e., his education, training,
perience, self-assimilated knowledge; his capacity to learn and grow, i.e., his intelligence and aptitudes; his motives and drives, his interests, his physical and mental health and stamina. Because of limited time and limited resources and because of the complexity of the hiring decision, it is most important that the input be systematically and purposefully collected and evaluated.

The recruiter himself is a vital element in the recruitment process. He is a personal link between the manpower market and the needs of the organization. The recruiter must have a responsiveness to organizational needs and a high degree of interpersonal competence. This competence requires sensitivity to people, the ability to establish rapport, the ability to listen, self-confidence, patience and tolerance.

Perhaps the most important aspect of the recruitment plan is that it, like the manpower plan and the personnel development plan, is a long-range endeavor. Knowing the organization’s need and filling it on demand require early planning. “Science” can bring some specific understanding to the desirable qualities to be sought in a recruit but “Art” in human understanding supplies the added element in recruitment.

Good personnel planning evolves from the manpower plan, the personnel development plan, and the recruitment plan, all of which have systematic in-depth approaches to developing and nurturing human resources. When emphasis is placed on developing the human potential, an inevitable by-product is an increase in productivity. When the individual is a participator in a process integrally related to his own development as a human being, that process illuminates both his contribution to and his interdependence with mankind.

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29. Brophy, Alfred L., and Gazda, George M. "Handling the Problem Staff Member." In Paul Wasserman, comp. Reader in Library Administration (Reader July, 1971

31. Wasserman and Bundy, op. cit.


36. Hinrichs, op. cit., p. 86.

37. Ibid., p. 88.

38. Gellerman, op. cit., p. 32.

39. Hinrichs, op. cit., p. 86.

40. Ibid., p. 93.

The problem of motivating other people is probably as old as the history of man himself, or at least as old as that point in time when man found he could only accomplish certain tasks by combining his efforts or abilities with those of other individuals. With the onset of this realization of the value and need for cooperative effort, the problem was further compounded when larger numbers of people were needed to accomplish a task. The situation then arose of providing direction to such a multiple effort; and with direction, i.e., someone telling others what to do or overseeing the effort, there came the matter of how to motivate these people. The old saying, one can lead a horse to water but one cannot make him drink, was and remains the crux of the motivation problem.

The whip, the lash, cajolery, persuasion, bribery, promises, pleadings, and numerous other techniques have been and are still being used in an attempt to motivate others. Yet, despite our long confrontation with this problem, we are still far from understanding or knowing how to motivate others. Motivation is a matter further complicated by the particular period of time, the particular circumstances and the particular economic conditions surrounding an act. Under conditions of prosperity and full employment, such as the U.S.A. has experienced, the problem of motivating others may become a far more difficult task, particularly in a free society. It is not uncommon today to hear employers ask: How does one get his employees to be genuinely concerned about their work, to take real interest in what they are doing, to accept challenges, to take pride in what they are doing, to want to accomplish at a high level, to want to assume responsibility?

While the questions asked are simple, straightforward and real, the answers are inversely complex and contaminated by factors little

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understood or even known. While the questions raised are known to be related to the area of motivation, this is an area which has received some systematic psychological study only in the past seventy years. It will be the purpose of this article to explore and examine some of the knowledge that has been acquired and to see how this knowledge may be applied to the matter at hand.

Let us begin by examining the problem of motivation in an organizational setting, for it is here that our particular interests are most concerned. Analytically and for simplicity’s sake, one can discern five key elements which play a major role in motivation. These are the employer, the employee, the work environment, the goals of the employer and the goals of the other members of the organization (the workers, supervisors, and managers). It is the interplay of these factors that influences the problem of motivation and determines the outcome.

Let us then make some quick observations of this organizational setting for it is here, within these bounds, that the drama is played. If one observes the work place, one can see people engaged in a variety of activities. Some of these activities may seem to be related to the activities of others, while others may seem to be quite independent. One catches a glimpse of a particular individual who appears to be telling others what to do, or of other people near each other engaged in conversation, while carrying on some activity. The total effect is one of much activity about the scene. This activity—whether similar or different; whether it is writing, talking or making machines function; or whether it is unobservable activity of thought—all has purpose. The purpose or purposes may be different for different organizations, but one basic fact emerges regardless of the kind of organization it may be—all organizations have purpose, and all of the activities that take place within the organization are deemed essential by someone to accomplish the organization’s purpose.

In seeking to accomplish these purposes or goals, the manager has at his command the following resources or tools: ideas, money, materials, time and people. In using these resources, he will eventually find that it is the individual, the worker, who must put these resources to work for him, and that the best and most effective use of these resources will depend upon how these workers use them. The condition which emerges is that one can only get things done with people, with one’s workers: unfortunately it is a fact overlooked by too many supervisors or managers. While this may be overlooked, another factor emerges which is widely noticed; that is, this worker can be highly
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variable, inconsistent and unpredictable. How well the job is performed is affected by this variability and depends upon how well the worker is self-motivated or how well the supervisor can motivate him.

Lest one gain from this description a picture of uncertainty and unpredictability of output, it is important to add that management cannot function or accept such a condition and, therefore, imposes standards of productivity or output. In the factory these are most readily known in terms of piece rates or units of production. Despite these requirements by management, it is well known that workers withhold production; that is, workers may well have the ability to produce more than that required of them. This problem of level of production is far more amorphous in the work situation where the professional person is engaged. How does one measure output in these situations and by what standards? One looks in vain for answers. Attempts have been made and will continue to be made to find solutions, but most of the attempts so far have crumbled or floundered because of the subjectivity involved in establishing such criteria. To date no precise mathematical formulae for determining such standards have been found, and even if they were, it is highly questionable whether they would be equally acceptable to managers and workers. At best, in the business and industrial situation, the worker is considered as a cost factor in the grand total of production costs. Successful companies approximate or determine some level of productivity needed from the worker to consider this element a profitable aspect of the overall operation. In state, national or urban governmental work where services are rendered to the public, even the cost concept of the worker as he relates to productivity or profitability becomes lost.

One must add an additional factor to this sketch of the organizational habitat. First, some psychological studies have shown that people of ability can generally perform better than those of lesser ability at a ratio of two to one, and in some instances, even at a ratio far higher than two to one. Yet, empirical evidence in the work place will tend to show most workers functioning at some overall average level of performance despite their levels of ability. We are charged by some writers as having become a society of average mediocrity, of organization men, and of individuals who have lost their identity and individuality. Social pressures within the work groups or unions, individual attitudes, individual levels of motivation and aspiration, and other elements all play their role in this leveling effect. Many studies of workers have
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disclosed that only a small percentage of workers feel they work near
their full capacity.

What then are some of the factors that lead to this situation and
what can be done to motivate people? Earlier five factors were men-
tioned as playing a key role in the motivation area. At this point, I
mention two of the vital ones—the supervisor and the employee.

First, let us repeat quickly some points already made. All organiza-
tions have purpose. A library is an organization having the purpose or
purposes of providing a professional service to the public or to special
publics. All of its employees are then the means by which this service
will be provided. How well this service will be rendered will depend
upon how well the various activities are carried out by the employees
of the library. How adequately these employees will perform will de-
depend upon their own self-motivation or how well they have been
motivated by their supervisors.

Even if there is satisfaction with the work being done today, it is
only momentary for the accomplishments of today merely become the
base for the improvements of tomorrow. The overwhelming character-
istic of work in our time is change, and the only instruments capable
of making these changes are the managers, the supervisors and the
workers. There is only one effective way to get these changes made
and that is to influence employees to want to make them.

How do we do this? What are some of the factors involved? First,
it is important that we never forget that it is the individual, the worker,
who is being asked to make this change and that it is the employee who
is in control of the situation. It is the worker who must make the final
decision to make this change and he will determine how much or how
little he will do. The supervisor, in the extreme position, can fire the
worker, but the question then arises as to what this will accomplish.

A second point that must be made is the point so well stated by
Drucker: "In hiring a worker one cannot hire a hand; its owner always
comes with it . . . one can hire only a whole man rather than any part
thereof."¹ And when one hires this whole man or woman, one has
hired a personality, attitudes, motives, levels of aspiration, goals, am-
bitions, needs, egos, roles, abilities, interests, values and many other
factors.

If supervisors are to be effective in motivating their workers they
must have some understanding of these factors. Gage feels that the
better one understands people the better one can get along with them
and the better one can motivate them.² The supervisor who wants to
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be able to understand his people must first seek some understanding of himself. What are his own problems, his worries, his ambitions, his prejudices? How do these factors affect his own behavior and in turn so vitally affect his workers? Is he conscious of the possibility that it may be his own behavior which is producing the kind of response from his workers which he does not like or want? Unless we seek some understanding of ourselves in terms of how we affect our workers, we may experience considerable difficulty in motivating them.

Now let us briefly consider the other half of this duality of the supervisor motivating the employee. This worker has a personality which is defined in Menninger’s words as “all that a man has been—is—and hopes to be.” This is the total person—the way he thinks and feels, his likes and hates, his abilities and interests, his values, and his hopes and desires. It is here in this work place where his hopes and ambitions may be fulfilled or smashed. It is here where his aspirations may be achieved and challenged or where he may develop frustration, aggression, hostility, and apathy. It is this work place which consumes so large a part of his life and either provides fulfillment of his needs or miserably fails to meet them.

Searching deeper to understand this worker, one can see him as a “needs system” seeking to satisfy his wants. Maslow sees the individual in our society and culture as one having a hierarchy of needs. These move from a base of meeting physiological requirements for survival to the apex of self-accomplishments in one’s own right. Between these bounds he traces the need for safety and protection from bodily harms and the next level of dependence, the need to feel secure and to be able to depend upon others. This is followed by the need for independence, to be able to stand on one’s own two feet, to be respected, to have self-esteem. And lastly this need hierarchy is capped by the need for self-realization, the need to achieve and accomplish. Gratification of our basic needs frees us to move on to the next higher level. In this concept one moves from the area of physiological requirements to the psychological needs. McGregor points this up clearly when he states, “Man lives by bread alone, when there is no bread.” He points to this area of higher needs as the place where managers and supervisors fail to motivate their workers. He points out that today most employees can generally fulfill their basic physiological needs, whereupon they attempt to seek fulfillment of their needs in the areas of self-expression, recognition, having some voice in job affairs, doing something worthwhile, and demanding a chance to grow. Often these needs
Fundamentally, the problem can be raised in question form as follows: How can we apply the knowledge we have gained to the problem of motivating people? In posing this question, certain conditions must be recognized: 1) One cannot blanket all workers by a general formula. Motivation is an individual matter, and one needs to know and understand as best one can the individual who is to be motivated. 2) One will not be able to motivate others for any length of time if such motivation is used for personal or selfish reasons, i.e., if people are being used for one’s own gain. 3) A most important condition, one that cannot be overlooked, is that individuals have their own goals, objectives and aspirations. Unfortunately and all too frequently, only the organization’s goals are considered. True, these are important, but equally important is the need to help the individual seek to achieve his goals within the context of the organization’s goals. It is a concept of integration, of the realization of individual goals within the larger framework of the organization. It is possible, and it becomes an essential element in motivating others.

Now let us bear in mind a concept set forth earlier, namely, that when a need is satisfied, it is no longer a motivating force. Employers will frequently say, “I pay my people good wages, they have good benefits. Why don’t they produce better, and why aren’t they more interested in their work?” Essentially what has happened is that their physiological needs are satisfied, and the problem becomes one of meeting the higher social and psychological needs: the needs of association, acceptance by one’s fellow workers, of belonging, as well as the needs of his ego—self-confidence, self-esteem, the need for status, accomplishment and respect. These needs, unlike the lower level needs, are rarely fulfilled. Most organizations today, designed on the basic scientific management concepts of direction and control, rarely provide for meeting such needs. It is here then that attention must be directed if we are to be able to motivate with any degree of success. While employers cannot provide these higher level needs to employees in the same sense as they provide salaries or income for the physiological needs, they can provide the climate wherein the employee can seek to satisfy these needs.

Let us now turn to some specifics. First, let us look at a psychological law called the Law of Active Participation. Essentially, it states that when a person actively participates in a learning situation, he tends to
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acquire the response far more rapidly, and that these response patterns tend to be more stably formed than when he remains passive. By participation, we mean the person is “task involved.” But the question comes to the fore—is he ego involved? That is, are his talents involved, does he understand his work, is he working well with his group? If he is, then there will be identification with his job. He will be absorbed, he will be an active participant. If, on the other hand, he does not find his work meaningful and he is not actively participating, he becomes reactive and hostility, aggression, and apathy will follow. Allport has stated that “people must have a hand in saving themselves; they cannot and will not be saved from the outside.” What is being considered here is the factor getting the employee involved and participating in seeking to accomplish objectives. This does not imply, as some would suggest, that employees are involved in all decision-making. It does imply the involvement of employees in decision-making where the outcome involves them as a group or individually. This principle of ego involvement is brilliantly shown by Coch and French in their study of the Harwood Manufacturing Company. Their experiment was well designed and controlled and it demonstrated how a “failure group” can, by the method of ego involvement and participation, become a success group. In this area of ego involvement and participation lies one of the most important tools of motivation which the supervisor needs to use actively and vigorously.

Along with the above concept flows the process of giving greater freedom and responsibility to the individual to direct his own activities for the accomplishment of organizational objectives. At the same time, this will provide the individual with the opportunity to meet his own egoistic needs. Along with this one can allow the individual to enlarge his job responsibilities and more fully to utilize his abilities. Here one is providing the opportunity of challenge, and the environment for accomplishment, and again one sees conditions being provided for the meeting of higher level needs.

Now let us explore one last set of factors in the problem of application of our knowledge to motivation. Let us examine the role and impact of the supervisor on what takes place in the work situation. Likert, reporting on the studies made by the University of Michigan on worker productivity, found that the workers of units having high levels of productivity reacted differently to their supervisor than did the members of low producing units. How did these higher producing workers see their supervisor? They saw their supervisor as helpful,
supportive, and friendly to them. They found him a kind, but also a firm person. They saw him as a just person who was equally concerned about the company and his workers. He had confidence in their motives and looked upon them as individuals of integrity; he treated them with trust rather than with suspicion. He had high expectations of their performance, he expected much and was confident they would not disappoint him. He endeavored to train them well for their jobs and help them become proficient for jobs at the next level. He assisted employees not performing at expected standards. He was a good planner and scheduled work well for the group. He developed his workers into a team with high levels of group loyalty by using group participation methods. He was interested in their ideas and was prepared to do something about them.

Finally there is the matter of appraisal. Ratings and evaluations of workers have long been in use. In general, they have not been very successful, and much of the cause is related to the fact that they have been used critically, destructively, and with little sound data to support the evaluation. Within this process of appraisal, however, there lies good potential for motivation of the worker. But first, it becomes necessary that we reverse the attitude that the appraisal process is destructive. It must be used to allow the employee to set objectives or goals for himself and his work. It can be used to allow the individual to evaluate himself, or, as in the case of General Electric, IBM, General Mills, and others, it can be used as a process of self-evaluation by the employee as well as his supervisor. This is then followed by a discussion with both parties and a plan of action for both supervisor and employee. Regardless of specific technique, the fundamental factor is that evaluations become a constructive developmental approach which can be vitally effective in the motivational process.

In conclusion, one can see the supervisor as one of the prime forces in the motivational process. His prime role is one of developing people who want to participate spontaneously and cooperatively in reaching both organizational and personal goals.

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3. Menninger, William C., and Levinson, Harvey. Human Understanding in
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6. Ibid., pp. 36-42.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES
Participative Management as Related to Personnel Development

MAURICE P. MARCHANT

 THEORY AND PRACTICE regarding patterns of decision-making in libraries have been relatively neglected aspects of library administration. Yet the decisions by which a library attempts to control its operations are of major importance to its welfare and effectiveness. Recent theories in management and social psychology have addressed themselves to the implications of participative management and group decision-making, and their findings appear to have important applications to libraries, not the least of which is personnel development.

Likert has described in some detail the implications of group decision-making on productivity. Not only does it affect the quality of decisions, but their implications as well.1 If the involvement of the library staff in determining the library's objectives and its means of attaining them is reflected in the service the library provides, this factor should be considered as libraries and those responsible for the libraries' operation search for means of improving library service.

Research into the power of group influences upon the functioning of organizations has provided increasing evidence of its effect on the achievement of the organization’s objectives. One of the behavioral aspects of group influence is participative decision-making. The findings indicate that group decision-making has two major advantages over decision-making imposed unilaterally by management; these are that group decisions tend to be of superior quality and they tend to be more readily accepted by the group. While group decision-making alone appears to be neither adequate nor necessary to assure high productivity, it has been found to be generally characteristic of high production organizations.2 Decisions are found to be superior especially

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if the group is composed of individuals with differing areas of expertise and points of view, but with a common need for a solution. These characteristics appear to typify professional librarians, especially those in academic libraries, who routinely have undergraduate majors in a wide spectrum of academic and professional areas in addition to their professional library degrees and many of whom have master's and doctoral degrees in non-library science disciplines. As a consequence, it would appear that their involvement in the library decision-making process might improve library service.

Generalized from the Likert theory of participative management has come the open system theory of organizations. Implicit within it is the concept that an organization has several subsystems with varying characteristics which include the production, maintenance, adaptive, and managerial subsystems.

The open system theory of organizations recognizes a cyclical character in organizational behavior. Within its construct, continuing cycles of production occur which are related to the broader environment. A major relationship is the processing of production and informational inputs which results in some product which can be utilized by the environment and whose acceptance triggers the acquisition of new inputs.

Specialized structures such as maintenance and adaptive subsystems are developed to give support to the organization's well-being. Maintenance activities are directed not at the end product but at the equipment for getting the work done. Usually this equipment consists of patterned human behavior, and the effectiveness of maintenance activities can be measured in terms of the extent to which personnel are tied into the system as functioning parts. Adaptive subsystems are concerned with sensing relevant changes in the environment, translating the meaning of those changes for the organization, and designing new patterns of behavior. While neither of these subsystems is part of the production subsystem, their effectiveness can be expected to affect end-product performance measurements.

The process of staff development belongs to the maintenance subsystem, but its effects might be felt in any subsystem, depending upon the direction taken by the developmental program.

A search of library literature reveals that no study of library staff participation in decision-making had been reported prior to this author's research. The standard texts on academic library administration tend to assume a bureaucratic structure wherein decisions are made
by supervisors and carried out at lower levels, although the texts may suggest the expediency of good communications concerning them and provision for staff reaction to tentative decisions prior to their enactment.\(^7\)

Traditionally, libraries have been administered as bureaucracies. Directors have a high degree of authority and responsibility regarding the general activities of the library which they derive from their positions. The operation is broken down into simple, component tasks where possible. Authority and responsibility are delegated downward as appropriate to the supervision and function of those specific tasks. People are hired according to their aptitudes and skills in performing the tasks assigned and are trained to do their respective tasks in the specified way. Decisions are made at the supervisory level and imposed on all lower levels. This was the general pattern characterizing business administration at the beginning of the twentieth century when many public and academic libraries were being developed and expanded as service systems, and when library schools were just being instituted. As a result, the authoritarian system of administration was adopted widely in libraries as being the most appropriate to their purposes and functions.

Most of the recent books on library administration are still bureaucratically oriented. Mohrhardt's 1966 revision of Stebbins's *Personnel Administration in Libraries* describes the traditional chain of command in which all authority resides in the chief administrator.\(^8\) The 1968 edition of a manual on personnel organization and procedures for college and university libraries takes a similar position.\(^9\) Within this framework, however, it recommends staff participation in formulating policies and procedures and the establishment of an effective and systematic communication system; and these recommendations appear to reflect a general, slow change in library administration toward participative management. Wheeler and Goldhor, in their text on public library administration, speak in support of democratic administration, which is characterized by a sharing of decision-making with the staff.\(^10\)

Increasingly, rank-and-file librarians are demanding greater opportunity for participation in decision-making through which they can improve services and at the same time restructure the library organization to better actualize their aspirations.\(^11\)

Research into library decision-making as a process has had little consideration paid to it in terms of modern administrative theory. An
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exception is Bundy's paper on the relationships between three decisions (selecting a book, cataloging a book, and helping a user) and the broader considerations of library objectives.12

Related to decision-making is Kemper's dissertation on strategic planning. He looked at library planning from a true systems perspective and established a model for developing the broad plan which should control development of operational procedures.13 His research indicated that librarians have substantial room for improvement in the area of decision-making.

This author's doctoral research was designed to test the application of Likert's participative management theory within academic libraries. Implicit within the model was the open system theory, within which the value of the library's end product is determined in the library's environment.14 The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between the involvement of the professional librarians on the staff in the decision-making process of the library and selected performance characteristics. Performance characteristics were drawn not only from the production subsystem but from the adaptive and maintenance subsystems as well. As a result, the findings are applicable to the study of staff development. The model is presented as table 1.

TABLE 1
RESEARCH MODEL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variables</th>
<th>Performance Measurements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Decision-making</td>
<td>Faculty evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Circulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Organizational profile</td>
<td>Long-range planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uniformity of evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Staff satisfaction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Control Variables

1. Doctoral degrees granted
2. Perquisites available to librarians
3. Library expenditures
4. Decentralization of collection
5. Library autonomy
6. Beginning librarian salary
7. Staff size and composition
8. Collection size and growth
9. Staff breadth of education
10. Service time

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[51]
To achieve the research purpose, the investigation was designed to measure professional librarian participation in decision-making as the independent variable, the performance measurements as dependent variables, and those control variables thought to be significant. Data were collected from twenty-two universities. Using appropriate statistical procedures, primarily regression and correlation analysis, variations in the performance measurements related to variations in participation were examined.

Two independent variables were measured. The first was an index of the extent to which the professional library staff perceives of itself as involved in the decision-making process. The second was an index of their perception of the participative nature of the library's managerial style in general. Data used in developing the indexes were collected by the use of Likert's research instrument, "Profile of Organizational Characteristics." In the study, they were differentiated by naming the first one the Decision-Making Index and the second one the Profile Index.

There were five dependent variables: 1) faculty evaluation of library services, facilities, and resources; 2) circulation of materials for home use; 3) extent of library long-range planning; 4) library staff uniformity in library evaluations; and 5) staff satisfaction with their jobs. The first two are production measurements, the first qualitative and the second quantitative. The third is an adaptive measurement. The fourth includes both adaptive and maintenance elements. The fifth is a maintenance variable and most directly related to staff development.

Control variables included variables thought to affect one or more of the dependent variables. Some emanate from the broader environment of the university, some reflect organizational factors within the library, and some are variations in staff personnel. They include 1) doctoral degrees granted, 2) perquisites available to the library staff, 3) library staff, collection, and total expenditures per full-time equivalent student and per full-time equivalent faculty, 4) index of the physical decentralization of library collection, 5) index of library autonomy from control by university administration and faculty, 6) beginning librarian salary, 7) number of professional librarians, 8) ratio of librarians to total library staff, to students, and to faculty, 9) size of collection, 10) acquisitions rate of library materials, 11) serial titles received, 12) breadth of education index of the professional library staff, and 13) percent of librarians who have been members of their present staff for at least three years.
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The results were essentially as predicted, though not quite as strong in all areas as originally anticipated. Table 2 gives the partial correlations relating the independent and dependent variables. The relationships were significant with staff satisfaction, uniformity of staff evaluation of quality, and uniformity of evaluation between top management and faculty. There was a near significant relationship with uniformity of staff evaluation of importance and an indirect relationship through staff satisfaction to faculty evaluation. Moreover, all these relationships were in the predicted direction. Long-range planning was an exception. While the correlations related to it did not reach a significant level, they approached it from the direction opposite that predicted.

**Table 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Measurements</th>
<th>Decision-making</th>
<th>Profile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff satisfaction</td>
<td>.4835†</td>
<td>.5889†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-range planning</td>
<td>-.2063</td>
<td>.2423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniformity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff evaluation of importance</td>
<td>-.3655*</td>
<td>-.3230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff evaluation of quality</td>
<td>-.4249†</td>
<td>-.4329†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff vs. top management</td>
<td>-.2702</td>
<td>-.2412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff vs. faculty</td>
<td>.0932</td>
<td>.0600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top management vs. faculty</td>
<td>.4184*</td>
<td>.4688†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circulation per student</td>
<td>-.0220</td>
<td>-.0210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Circulation per faculty</td>
<td>-.0609</td>
<td>-.0169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty evaluation</td>
<td>.2200</td>
<td>.2915</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at the .10 level  
† Significant at the .05 level  
‡ Significant at the .01 level

It would appear that the staff’s job satisfaction is highly affected by managerial style and the opportunity to participate in the decision-making process. Moreover, the group interaction associated with participative management helps the staff unify its value system regarding both the relative importance of various aspects of the library and the quality of those aspects in a given library.

While top management tends to think of staff involvement basically as a morale booster, it is in fact a distinct asset to them in improving feedback from the faculty through the staff. Also as a result of staff involvement...
involvement, the faculty is better satisfied with the library. In the libraries studied, this action appears to flow primarily through improved staff satisfaction.

From the data acquired, the beginning of an organizational model for university libraries has been constructed and is presented as figure 1. Six variables are included and their direction of influence indicated.

$X_6$ is faculty evaluation and is the end product. The primary variables influencing it are staff satisfaction and collection size. Wealth is shown as affecting both of these. In addition, staff satisfaction is affected by staff breadth of education and managerial style. Further work can be expected to modify and expand this model, and for this reason it is labeled as preliminary.

- $X_1 = \text{managerial style}$
- $X_2 = \text{wealth}$
- $X_3 = \text{breadth of education}$
- $X_4 = \text{collection size}$
- $X_5 = \text{staff satisfaction}$
- $X_6 = \text{faculty evaluation}$

Predictions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictions</th>
<th>Actual</th>
<th>Estimated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$r_{16.23} = r_{15.23} r_{56.4}$</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.26 = (.52)(.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{26.13} = r_{25.13} r_{56.4} + r_{24} r_{46.5}$</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.54 = (.63)(.50) + (.51)(.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{36.12} = r_{35.12} r_{56.4}$</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.22 = (.44)(.50)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Partial correlations entering into the prediction equations

- $r_{15.23} = .52^*$
- $r_{25.13} = .63^\dagger$
- $r_{35.12} = .44^*$

* Significant at the .05 level.

† Significant at the .01 level.

Fig. 1. Preliminary model of causality explaining faculty evaluation

Included with the figure is a test of prediction formulae implicit in the model. The correlations given are partial correlations where
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appropriate. The tests validate satisfactorily the relationships projected of faculty evaluation with the wealth and managerial style variables, but leaves open to question the relationship with breadth of education.

Staff members were queried not only about their overall satisfaction with their jobs, but about nine specific factors of satisfaction as well. Specific variables included satisfaction with superiors, peers, subordinates, clientele, university administration, opportunity for promotion, salary increases, professional growth and currently assigned duties. The one most clearly related to staff development was satisfaction with opportunity for professional growth. This variable had a simple correlation with overall staff satisfaction of .68, which is significant at the .001 level. Moreover, when it was used as a dependent variable in a regression and correlation analysis partialing out the effect of wealth and breadth of education, the partial correlation with the decision-making index was .46, significant at the .05 level, and with the profile index was .57, significant at the .01 level. It is apparent that the staffs in university libraries in which the managerial style is participative are more satisfied with their opportunities for professional growth than those in which the style is authoritarian. The reasons for this were not gathered from the staff participants but are apparent from an understanding of participative management.

Participative management is not the abdicating of responsibility by top management and allowing staff members to do whatever they wish. That pattern is more a description of anarchy. Participative management forces decisions down to the level best suited to determine them by virtue of availability of relevant information and the effect of the decision on the operation. There the problems will be discussed, and the recommendations made by use of small group interactions. The group works cooperatively on problems of mutual concern, sharing ideas and information. Any ideas may be put forth but must run the gamut of group evaluation. When the ideas are finally approved, they belong to the group, not just the instigator, and all participate in the rewards for good work. In that way, cooperation replaces competition in the value system.

Because several people work together, there is room for incompetency and inexperience at the discussion level. The group can filter out poor ideas, and in the process can provide a successful model for the novice to build on. Modeling is the most powerful teaching procedure known for behavioral learning, thus the process is educational in nature.

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One person from the group, called the linking pin, is chosen to represent them and their position in the next higher echelon. He may be the supervisor or he may be just one of the group. His responsibility is to represent the group's attitudes and to communicate in both directions. There is a linking pin for each hierarchical level. 

The level at which decisions are made depends on whose work will be affected by them and where the relevant information is most available. Generally, this means that decisions are made at lower levels of the organization than in the traditional authoritarian organization.

As a result, higher level personnel are freed from making operational decisions and can concern themselves with long-range planning and relationships outside the library, areas of concern that have previously been identified as inadequately served by library executives partially because of lack of time. If top management allows lower level personnel to take care of lower level decisions, it should have the time for more important matters.

Involvement of the staff in the decision-making process is a major strength of participative management. Simon has pointed out that a basic feature of organizations is that the division of labor along the spectrum of hierarchy occurs in terms of decision-making. Therefore, preparation for advancement, especially in administration, requires developing the capacity to make good decisions. Since participative management pushes decision-making down to lower levels, the experience needed for developing the competence required at higher levels is provided, and in such a way as to provide one with an evaluation of his competence in an unthreatening atmosphere.

Such evaluation is part of the control process through which the organization reviews its performance and its personnel. In authoritarian organizations reliance is placed on policing procedures and reward and punishment incentives. Participative management emphasizes group evaluation and self-guidance to improve awareness which is directed toward readjustment; it rejects punishment as a tool of control. The group is supportive of the individuals comprising it, and criticisms of their performance are directed toward helping them improve rather than chastising them. As a result, they are better able to recognize the need and opportunity for personal change and to acquire help in making it. The involvement of threat and reward as means to staff motivation to readjust carries dangers of misinterpretation, improper perception of reality, and manipulation not consonant with organizational objectives. This is less likely when group consideration
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is directed specifically at improving performance. Under participative management the staff is taught to pay attention to the realities of organizational fact related to the specific matter at hand, rather than hazarding a measure of confusion by interjecting spurious emotional considerations introduced by reward and punishment mechanisms. Under participative management the learning which occurs has a better chance of being internalized with greater retention as a result of the process.

Leadership qualities under participative management are not the same as those appropriate in a bureaucracy. The need turns more toward the ability to get people to interact and to focus that interaction on the subject at hand. The capacity to mediate is very important, and the ability to plan and analyze feedback is emphasized. The leader’s role is not diminished but it is changed in nature.

The decisions made in this way have two advantages over autocratic decisions. One is the commitment of the group to the decisions because of their involvement in the decision-making process; the other is the relative excellence of decisions made by groups over those made by individuals when the decisions are concerned with organizational behavior.

Factors accounting for the superiority of decisions by groups over those made by individuals are as follows: 1) there is an increase in the cues available; 2) the availability of immediate feedback regarding suggestions allows faster recognition of potential mistakes; 3) the greater formulation of ideas by people in groups as compared to people acting separately favors group decisions; 4) the increasing division of labor favors group decisions by utilizing to greater advantage the group’s cumulative expertise; 5) there is less inhibition because of mitigation of personal responsibility for failure; 6) pooling ideas provides an opportunity for identifying and removing errors; and 7) objectivity is enhanced by lack of identification with the group if the group is short term. All of these are appropriate to participative management.

It is apparent from the data that the flow of information regarding faculty attitudes toward their libraries moves upward with greater ease and accuracy under participative management than under authoritarian procedures. The greater magnitude of threat experienced by the individual, especially at the lower levels, inhibits that flow and encourages the transmission of whatever is thought will please the boss, even if it is inaccurate or misleading. The result of the upward
flow of accurate information is an improved service program.

Similarly, staff aspirations for their own professional development can be expected to flow upward more freely and to be given greater consideration under participative management than in a bureaucracy.

Stone's research into continuing education for librarians demonstrates relationships between several variables which are appropriately discussed here. She discovered that professional librarians with the highest professional index are the least satisfied with their jobs. Characteristic of librarians with high professional indexes are a commitment to serve, a drive toward the mastery of knowledge relevant to their work, involvement in writing and research activities, involvement in professional associations, a healthy capacity to change, and involvement in activities and ideas outside as well as inside library science. These are characteristics needed by libraries in the present age, and libraries should want to encourage their development within their staffs. Yet librarians report that administrators resist rather than support their accomplishment. Much of the dissatisfaction in librarians with high professional indexes is related to top management's failure to respond to their aspirations for professional growth and improvement in their libraries. These are precisely the types of changes that are encouraged by participative management, and, likewise, these are the types of personnel which are most appropriate to the satisfactory functioning of participative management.

In summary, active staff development programs and participative management in libraries appear well suited for each other; they ought to be getting together. Perhaps they are, but there is substantial room for improvement.

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16. Breadth of education attempts to measure the contribution of the average librarian to the overall expertise available in the professional staff, including top management. This was done by counting up the number of different disciplines in which a given staff reported having a degree and giving each discipline represented a weighted value depending on the highest level of degrees reported. The index was the number of educational points divided by the number of respondents in a given library.


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Personnel Evaluation
as an Impetus to Growth

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The practice of analyzing the performance of individuals in organizations is one that has existed since man first began forming organizations. Clearly, some concept of “survival of the fittest” urged primitive man to consider past performance of his contemporaries in order to select the best leaders for his communities. However, it is equally obvious that man’s progress in refining the techniques of performance evaluation has not kept pace with many other tools he uses for the management of his organizations, e.g., operations research, PERT. Unfortunately, much of the literature on performance appraisal is bogged down in “how to” schemes, and has little to say on what is being measured, what factors in the evaluation must be controlled, and why past performance implies future success. It soon becomes apparent that the concept of performance evaluation is one of those ideas unclear enough to be clearly wrong.

It is unfortunate that a profession which professes concern in the worth of the individual should generally adhere to a practice which is essentially dehumanizing. I am referring to that process which routinely assumes that the checking off of certain “traits,” always by definition based on past performance, relates to how that individual is likely to perform in the future. More importantly, it is assumed that such a process is an adequate basis for determining the organization’s reward system. Such assumptions are unwarranted, although there are numerous explanations for the persistence in maintaining the traits method approach.

Part of the difficulty rests with the limited progress that has occurred in developing better approaches and with the human inclination to do

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that which is most comfortable. But also, part of the problem rests with the almost rote agreement to the general statement that scarce resources need to be properly used. For one thing, the human element is often subconsciously forgotten as part and parcel of the scarce resource complex. For another, the overwhelming agreement tends to exclude serious analysis of how one ought to proceed in the difficult job of properly using people. In the final analysis we find management retreating behind the bureaucratic structure to justify its methods, the checking-off of traits, as the only pragmatic approach available. And after all it does the job, or does it?

Librarians have tended, until very recently at least, to regard themselves as unique in the field of personnel administration. The view typically held is one of being more personal and not bound to follow the guidance of personnel specialists, particularly in the case of libraries which are not part of a large system and have a small staff. It really was not until the 1960s that library personnel administration began to develop a definable body of literature which it could call its own.¹

Some have argued that since the library staff is critical to the success or failure in satisfying the client, its competence in dealing ably and fairly with the client is the determining factor. Such a competence, or lack of it, will be revealed repeatedly, and rapidly, in the day-to-day routine.² Whether or not these statements reflect reality in no way seems to influence the verbiage. Thus, we find the following statement typical of the literature: “No library can render effective service without adequate and competent personnel. The library’s unique function of serving as the one unbiased, nonpartisan bureau of information for the people calls for personnel of the highest competence and integrity. The selection of qualified staff members as well as the organization and conditions under which they work, are basic considerations in an institution dedicated to public service.”³

The literature abounds with suggestions on how to acquire and develop these adequate and competent people. We are told that the chief librarian will deal directly with persons on the staff in small libraries, i.e., twenty-five or less people. On the other hand the chief librarian should delegate this responsibility to the assistant chief librarian if the staff has twenty-five or more.⁴ The American Library Association recommends that if the staff exceeds 150, a full-time personnel director should be hired, and it uses this ratio as a standard in public library service.⁵
Typical of the suggestions offered in the literature are:

1) All libraries should have a policy handbook and staff manual. Policy pertaining to personnel should be specific.6

2) A position classification is essential to equitable personnel administration. Pay scale should be based on this plan. Also, tasks should be assigned to positions, not individuals. Salaries, qualifications and standards should be according to the position, not the person.7

3) It is the responsibility of the board of trustees to have the head librarian prepare a personnel policy giving job specifications, salary scales, the workday, coffee breaks, overtime, illness, vacations, etc.8

4) Two-way communications are important, i.e., remember anniversaries, have office chats, baby showers, etc.9

The suggestions along the above lines provide the norm for much, if not most, of the content one is apt to find in the library literature. There have been, of course, some important exceptions. In the light of existing practice, they remain almost weak cries in the wilderness.10

Standard methods of personnel evaluation—clearly in the practice if not the verbiage—underscore the accepted notion that for the most part library positions are “task” oriented. Such a notion justifies the reliance on the traits method approach, assuming that an evaluation of the task affects the efficiency (not to mention effectiveness) of the operation. Of course, if libraries typically functioned as efficient institutions, one might be more inclined to accept the current mode of evaluating personnel! In any event, we find repeated efforts to improve the traits method of evaluation. In a paper prepared for a conference on in-training of library and information staff, K. Boodson writes about job evaluation:

[it] may be defined as a method of systematically analysing the content of a job, assessing the requirements of the tasks which comprise it, and using defined factors to grade the job against an established scale. It is based on the idea that a job can be broken down into a number of unit tasks, which can be treated as common units where jobs cannot. The assessment should be capable of establishing requirements analytically and precisely. At this stage it is concerned with a job and not a person; the ability of an individual to meet the requirements can then be considered separately.11

An excellent example of the traits method, and one which clearly
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encompasses the above definition, is the “Personnel Services Rating Report,” revised in 1970, offered by the American Library Association, Library Administration Division. There are two key points to be made: 1) the rating report represents a model for use by many types of library work and presents a good example of the procedure typically employed, and 2) it reinforces an approach which has contributed to the dehumanizing process referred to earlier.*

An analysis of the form reveals the following:

1) The emphasis is on traits, e.g., accuracy, memory, judgment, manners, poise, disposition.

2) The emphasis is on qualitative judgments expressed in quantitative terms, i.e., four-point scale which is clearly biased on the “positive” side. For example, under “Punctuality” the options to check are: a) always ready for duty promptly, b) always on time (Is this really different than a?), c) usually on time, and d) frequently late. Of course the form provides the usual out with “no opportunity to observe” and “additional comments.”

3) The complete burden is placed on the supervisor. The subordinate’s observed past performance is his only substantive contribution to the appraisal, although supposedly the subordinate does have an opportunity to see the evaluation and react to it.

It is important that the Personnel Administration Section Personnel Publication Committee on October 31, 1966 recommended that the ALA no longer publish and sell a rating form. The chairman was instructed to suggest that inquiries requesting rating forms be answered by sending a reproduction of the pertinent chapters and forms from the newly revised personnel manuals. Note that the “Personnel Services Rating Report” referred to above is dated 1970.

Again, if one looks at the forms used by some of our largest library systems, we can quickly see the influence of the ALA recommended form. Generally, for example, the same basic traits are used, but the check-off system is modified to include three choices: a) superior, b) satisfactory, and c) unsatisfactory. A further modification is the considerable emphasis given to “additional” comments to be supplied by both the immediate supervisor and the appropriate second supervisor, e.g., branch librarian, community library manager, division chief.

*I do not want to suggest purposeful intent for I am sure that is not the case—care is taken in the instructions on the most advantageous use of the form. Nevertheless, as a model which accepts the traits method it reflects and reinforces the current behavior in the field.

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In spite of these improvements the same inherent weaknesses persist and the same basic assumptions are made.

A review of the literature on the subject of performance evaluation reveals that the most definitive statements have thus far come from those with an orientation toward psychological explanations. The impetus provided by those concerned with the human consequence has offered us some exciting new dimensions of performance appraisal. Stanley Sloan and Alton Johnson, writing in the *Harvard Business Review*, suggested that four major trends in the evolution of performance evaluation are reflected in the literature:

1) The traditional view has been enlarged to include how the individual functions as an integral part of the organization's system.
2) Organizations are becoming more concerned with using the performance appraisal for planning and less as a method for controlling performance.
3) The changing composition of the labor force has produced a decrease in the formal evaluation of nonsupervisory personnel with a coincident increase in the formal evaluations of supervisory personnel.
4) Theoretical research and developments in the social and behavioral sciences have accelerated the growth of sophistication in performance appraisal.

These trends as reflected in the literature, if not in the way people are in fact evaluated, suggest a significant shift in purpose. Research findings indicate that indiscriminate use and undue confidence and reliance on quantitative measures of performance result from insufficient knowledge of their potential and limitations. Judith use of a tool requires awareness of possible side effects and reactions. McGregor argues that the traditional techniques of performance evaluation tend to place the superior in the position of "playing God" in judging his subordinates. Most men find such a role intolerable and they usually reject it. This fact of life, McGregor insists, explains the failure of most management appraisal schemes.

According to McGregor's Theory Y, management's task is to create an organizational environment in which the employee can achieve his personal goals in consonance with those of the organization. McGregor indicates that a professional's work should be managed by establishing desirable results as objectives and by obtaining the individual's commitment to them. Of course, McGregor assumes the existence of measurable objectives. This type of management en-
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courages the professional to bring his talent, training, and creativity
to bear on his job. The logical conclusion of this argument is that the
professional ought to be evaluated by the degree to which he achieves
the given objectives. In essence this type of evaluation procedure is
nearly equivalent to self-evaluation, inasmuch as it is based on a system
of self-direction and self-control. McGregor believes that such an
appraisal provides the only fruitful opportunity for the superior to
realize the full potential represented by professional resources.

In a study concerning the professional development of librarians,
Elizabeth Stone found that the consensus of librarians responding to
her questionnaire felt that administrators are trying to run the library
with outdated methods and outdated attitudes. She notes, correctly
I believe, that if the library administrator fails to meet the aspirations
of his employees, he must or ought to admit to the reality of having
someone else take his place in the key administrative positions of the
library. Stone then forcibly observes:

Clearly the library administrator and the library manager have
been unwilling to accept the philosophy that what is good for the
employee is good for the library—that is, the prime objective of
rendering maximum service to society with full respect for the
dignity of man. For this reason few library managements keep up
with the changes suggested by research in the behavioral sciences.
Fewer administrators chart an imaginative course in the manage-
ment of employee assets or try to ascertain the needs of their em-
ployees in order to create an environment which will realize the
potential they have recruited for the profession.

In essence, Stone describes a management attitude that is remark-
ably close to McGregor's Theory X, i.e., conventional organizational
structures and management policies designed to direct and control
employee behavior to suit the needs of the organization. The Theory
X approach to management assumes that employees naturally resist
the influence and demands of the organization and that the supervisor
must cajole, reward, and punish to make the employees work and
cooperate. The traditional (and for the most part current) approaches
to personnel evaluation reflect this notion of management by direction
and control.

After all is said and done, a fundamental purpose of personnel
evaluation is to improve performance. To accomplish that purpose we
need to make some estimate of future capabilities. The evaluation then
can only succeed, by definition, when it differentiates performance.
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The evidence is clear, though, that the traits rating approach usually does not discriminate one individual's performance from that of another. For one thing employees and their supervisors often find it impossible to tell each other the truth during performance appraisals: to avoid conflict, they tell little white lies. If the concern is with the improvement of performance, the process needs to be related to work goals and the act of assessing an employee's performance needs to be related to achieving these goals, i.e., a "goals method" approach.

In the goals method approach the subordinate creates short-term performance goals for himself. The subordinate's goals are to be in the form of concrete actions he plans to accomplish. It then becomes the supervisor's responsibility to assist the subordinate in integrating his plans with the needs of the organization.\(^{19}\)

Following the many implications of the goals method, a test of "better" and "less effective" supervisors was undertaken to see if different qualities in subordinates were looked for by the supervisors.\(^{20}\) The results of the experiment indicated that the "better" supervisors discriminate more between the high rated and low rated subordinates. The "less effective" supervisors were more "lenient," especially with the low rated subordinates. It was found that the "better" supervisors placed more importance on initiative, persistence, positive and constructive action, and on anticipating and planning ahead. By contrast, the "less effective" supervisors placed greater emphasis on following orders, tact, good team efforts, getting along with others, and loyalty to the company. The study concluded that mediocre supervisors were more likely to encourage and reward mediocre performance. Since a basic objective of personnel evaluation is to differentiate performance, the "better" supervisors seem to be doing the more effective job.

Acting as a middle man or mediator, the supervisor then must use his position to personalize simultaneously the employee and the organization. He can do this only if he seeks out and understands the employee as an individual and, more importantly, guides the employee to participate in his own evaluation.

What are some of the positive suggestions which can be offered to improve the process of evaluating personnel? As a first step, library administrators must explicitly recognize the existence of a "personnel problem." The human personality is a complex and highly abstract concept. Psychologists commonly disagree on how it should be defined or approached. Personality traits themselves are difficult to define. Any attempt to judge the individual in terms of his personality is
likely to induce hostility and block further communication. The absence of effective communication is not likely to increase the capacity of the organization to reach its objectives.

Some personnel specialists believe that the basic objectives of performance appraisal should be: 1) the preparation of some plan for future action based on what has been learned from the past, and 2) answers to the questions “How am I doing?” and “Where do I go from here?” Kindall and Gatza suggest a five-step program to achieve such objectives:

Step #1: the individual discusses his job description with his superior and they agree on the content of his job and the relative importance of his major duties—the things he is paid to do and is accountable for.

Step #2: the individual establishes performance targets for each of his responsibilities for the forthcoming period.

Step #3: he meets with his superior to discuss his target program.

Step #4: checkpoints are established for the evaluation of his progress; ways of measuring progress are selected.

Step #5: the superior and subordinate meet at the end of the period to discuss the results of the subordinate’s efforts to meet the targets he had previously established.

While the five-step approach suggested above is a time-consuming one, that argument alone can only mean that the superior is really saying that he has no time to manage. But, more/equally as important, there are at least six distinct advantages gained from the process:

1) The subordinate knows in advance the basis on which he is going to be judged.

2) The superior and subordinate both agree on what the subordinate’s job really is.

3) The program takes place within the superior-subordinate relationship and should strengthen this relationship.

4) The program has a self-correcting characteristic which tends to help people set targets that are both challenging and reachable.

5) The program provides a method of spotting training needs.

6) The appraisal approach treats as a total process a person’s ability to see an organizational problem, devise ways of attacking it, translate his ideas into action, incorporate new information as it arises, and carry his plans through to results.
As a caution, the authors strongly urge the recognition of two caveats if an organization plans to implement the five-step program: 1) do not rush it—announce it early and give everyone plenty of time to think through his ideas about the relative importance of various parts of his job, and 2) do not force it—it would be logically inconsistent to force a person to adopt against his wishes a program built around the notion that a manager should have a strong voice in planning the conduct of his job.

In an equally thought-provoking article Paul Strauss suggests some similar pragmatic steps which should be undertaken to improve the process and thereby improve communication in the organization. Strauss believes that the performance appraisal interview can and should be an opportunity for the supervisor to induce a change in the behavior of his subordinates. Often, though, to the supervisor this change means manipulating the employee through the reward system, i.e., salary. But, Strauss asks: “Could it be that the supervisor and employee are not communicating at this critical time because the employee is looking for more than just a raise based on past performance or future promises? Isn’t it possible that what the man really wants is support for his inner motivation to grow—professionally, intellectually, psychologically—and to be recognized as contributing to the system as a full-fledged member?”

Effective management is not accomplished by avoiding its basic responsibility. Clearly there are decisions which only the superior can and/or should make. Because of this truism, not in spite of it, effective management requires the full and effective use of people. The “what”—the decision to do or not do this or that—is quite often much less critical than the “how.” It is precisely with the varied approaches available that the human input is so important. That evaluation process which does not incorporate the aspirations, uncertainties, and goals of the individual is unlikely to produce the quality of input so very essential in determining the ways in which decisions are made operational.

The approach I have taken in this article should clearly reveal some of my biases—hopefully balanced through an examination of the literature. It seems to me that administrators have not faced up to a fundamental ambivalence—I am not at all sure the ambivalence is recognized in the first place—between the inherent conflict of what may be “effective” and what may be “efficient.” The two do not necessarily coincide. The library as a service agency exists, in large
measure, because society has deemed the services it has to offer socially valuable, not necessarily because such services produce dollar profits.

More specifically, as a socially valuable service institution, carried on within the context of a profession, there ought to exist a basic concern for the growth and development of the whole person, not just that part which pertains to the task.

The fact is that the library director has had historically almost unlimited opportunities, in the absence of profit motif and in the light of social value ascribed to the library, to tell us what is "effective." His failure to take advantage of this opportunity has led increasingly to the outside agency—be it a budget office or a labor union—dictating the terms of performance. The prospects are that these outside groups will take an increasing interest in the total operation of the library—clearly implied in the concept and execution of community control, be it the neighborhood center or student body. In any event, the already difficult life of the administrator is likely to be further complicated.

The changing life style so obvious today, as with the clear distrust of authority and power, especially the arbitrary uses of either, calls for some dramatic changes in the way individuals are treated and used in the organization. It would be to the interest of the profession to incorporate rapidly a goals method approach in evaluating personnel. At the very least such an approach would provide great impetus to staff development and growth.

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The Training Subsystem

DAVID KASER

Whatever else may be said about "continuing education" in American libraries today, it may at least be accepted as fact that concern and deference are now directed toward it. It is encouraging, moreover, to be able to suggest that much of this concern and deference appears to be of relatively recent origin. Although, as so often in the library profession, there are no "base-line data" that would indicate relative levels of concern for the subject at any point in time, it seems reasonable to assert that the current level is vastly higher than it has ever been in the past. Conferences and workshops on staff development, articles in the library press, and speeches on the subject virtually abound, creating an impression that untold manlives of time are being devoted to it in the nation's libraries and library schools.

Despite all of this new talk about continuing education, however, few libraries actually seem to be doing much about it in any organized or concerted way. Or at least this would seem to be a reasonable deduction to draw from replies to a query sent late in 1970, by the author, to 145 (69 public and 76 academic) of the largest libraries in the land. "Does the library carry a discrete budget line for continuing education?" the survey asked. Fifteen replied yes, ninety-one replied no, and the balance replied not at all. Of these fifteen affirmative replies, six institutions reported that the line amounted to less than $2,000 per year, an additional six reported spending less than $5,000, and the remainder spent between $5,000 and $12,000 annually.

Perhaps it is too much to hope that large libraries could so quickly have adjusted their internal organization, and the budgetary reflection of that organization, to show by 1970 all costs of the continuing education of their staffs in a separate fiscal category. Accordingly the same survey asked other responding institutions to estimate the amount currently spent from all budget categories on continuing education;

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only twenty-four found it possible to reply at all, of which fifteen estimated $2,000 per year or less; the balance furnished replies ranging up to $10,000.

Clearly these unimpressive figures reflect unfairly upon a substantial number of the nation's largest libraries. For a number of reasons, questions concerning the continuing education of staff can be difficult to answer. Among such reasons one must include:

1) an unquestionable vagueness to the term “continuing education”; it can mean much or little depending upon local experience;
2) vagaries of local budgeting law or practice, which may require that continuing education costs in effect be “buried” as part of the cost of “travel” or of “general expense,” or indeed prevent their being shown at all; and
3) continuing education shades imperceptibly into the broader “system” of staff development generally, which in turn blends into the normal operation of a well run organization.

In addition, of course, it must be observed that some libraries with remarkably advanced recognition of the inexorable need for an ever-active upgrading of the expertise of their staffs have simply chosen other routes to fulfilling this requirement than by thinking of it and treating it as a single, discrete, “training subsystem.”

The paramount importance for tomorrow’s services of continuing education today will not be dwelt upon here, but its recognition manifests itself in a number of ways in America’s larger libraries. In order to gain some sense of the degree to which such recognition shows itself, the author queried the same 145 large libraries concerning their present practices regarding: 1) orientation of new employees, 2) in-house training offered, 3) high school or college level instruction made available, 4) out-of-house workshops utilized, 5) study or research leave opportunities, and 6) encouragement to participate in conference activities. Results of the responses to these inquiries are given here seriatim.

Fifty-four of 117 responding libraries reported having some kind of formal orientation program for new staff members. The number of hours of class contact for such orientation ranged from a low of one to a high of twenty-one, but with an unimpressive median of four. Fifty-six libraries furnished, in one way or another, formal courses of in-house, inservice training for staff members. Most frequently cited as examples were courses surrounding the general areas of human rela-
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tions (e.g., supervision, sensitivity training, and personnel management generally) and skill training (e.g., typing, searching, storytelling, and languages).

Seventy-three institutions responded affirmatively to this question: “Can employees take high school or college courses for credit on released time?” Clearly, however, there was some confusion as to the meaning of the question, because eight of the affirmative respondents, when asked to define the conditions of such opportunities, replied, “If time is made up.” Otherwise the major qualifier, stated in one way or another, was that courses so taken should somehow be calculated to improve library effectiveness. Thirty-seven institutions reported that they paid all or part of the expenses of courses so taken. Responding institutions indicated that a total of some 1,100 such courses had been taken by staff members during the previous year, ranging institution-to-institution from 1 to 275, but with a median of only 4.

In response to the query as to “out-of-house” seminars and workshops utilized, 92 of 107 replying indicated that they did indeed pay staff members’ expenses in attending formal training programs elsewhere. An estimated 850 staff members had availed themselves of such opportunities in total during the previous year, ranging from a low of one in each of two institutions to a high of forty in each of two institutions; the median per institution was six. Fully 104 institutions granted some kind of leave for study or research, twenty-four with pay. Most frequently observed practices here were one or another variation of the “sabbatical leave,” primarily in academic libraries. Some libraries required guarantee of return upon completion of the leave.

Substantial variation lies in the issue of reimbursement of costs incurred by staff members in attending conferences. Ninety-three institutions reported that they at least participated in paying the expenses of staff members at conferences, but these responses were hedged around by qualifications. Twenty-seven did so to the extent to which funds were available; twenty-four did so only when the staff member had official duties to perform. Ten required that the staff member be a member of the association, three paid for higher administrators only, and two limited the number of such trips per year. Given such opportunities (or restrictions, depending upon how one looks upon it), an estimated 1,740 librarians from the libraries polled last year had at least part of their expenses to state conferences paid by their respective
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institutions, 715 to regional conferences, and 1,430 to national conferences.

As was pointed out earlier, it is patently unfair to state, or even imply, that the large libraries of the land should necessarily have organized their opportunities for the continuing education of staff into carefully coordinated and articulated systems, yet they should doubtless have been at least thinking of it in those terms. Certainly the experience in some other industries and in the library community as well, is that the most comprehensive and efficient programs of continuing education and professional growth of staff are those which have been systematically developed.

There has been wide recognition and considerable literature in the general management field of the desirability for large organizations with needs for the continuous upgrading of the expertise and self-fulfillment of staff to develop training subsystems in their personnel management units. There has, on the other hand, been practically no literature, and apparently only limited recognition of the desirability of such a systemic approach to the problem in America’s large libraries.

It is probable that most continuing education opportunities in libraries have come about in response to specific, individual, ad hoc staff requests received by management over a period of time. Acceded to once, of course, a particular activity thereafter carried with it the full force of precedent and was usually difficult rationally to deny the next time. It became an unplanned module in an unplanned system, a kind of alien pebble wrapped into a growing geologic accretion, the ultimate structure of which was known only to the Almighty. There must be a better way.

The “nonsystem” of the past, however, in the eyes of current experts in the field, has had one substantial and persistent redeeming virtue: namely, much of the content has been determined in fact “from the ground up”—by the staff members who were to draw upon the opportunities they sought—rather than being forced upon them from the top down. This essentially passive role of library management in continuing education understandably accounts for the present belief by many librarians that the major benefits from more active management participation in the future will accrue to libraries themselves more so even than to librarians. At any rate, it is perhaps obvious that the content and methodology of any training subsystem in libraries, as in any other industry, should represent the best and most prudent structured input from all segments of the organization, including student assis-
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tants, clerical and technical employees, professional and subprofessional staff, lower, middle, and top management, and perhaps even patrons. Properly sought, each group will be able to present its own views of unique value to the total enterprise.

A helpful yet simple example of the systemic approach to a training module resulted from a recent activity of the National Industrial Security Association; this example proposes the following series of possible steps toward the development of a training subsystem for any organization:

1. State the real NEED you are trying to satisfy.
2. Define the training OBJECTIVES which will contribute to satisfying the real need.
3. Define those real world limiting CONSTRAINTS which any proposed system must satisfy.
4. Generate many different ALTERNATIVE systems.
5. SELECT the best alternative(s) by careful analysis.
6. IMPLEMENT the alternative(s) selected for testing.
7. Perform a thorough EVALUATION of the experimental system.
8. Based on experimental and real world results, FEEDBACK the required MODIFICATIONS and continue the cycle until the objectives have been attained.5

These guidelines, which are fleshed out in some detail at their source, could well be adapted for use by a library planning team.

The literature of management also contains helpful examples of planned and coordinated training modules from other industries. The training and education programs conducted for its personnel by the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York are an example.6 Programs are enumerated for each of several groups of employees: orientation and skill training for new appointees; supervisory training; and management development programs for junior, administrative, and executive officers. Both objectives sought and methods used are listed for each program.

The Mutual Life Insurance Company of course is a huge corporation “where literally millions are spent on training each year.”7 Libraries obviously must be more modest in the programs they devise for themselves. Yet the self-actualization of an organization is just as important for a library as it is for an insurance company, and it can only be attained through the self-actualization of its individual staff members themselves. It would seem, therefore, to be worth at least a similar ratio of effort. Many, of course, would argue logically that since li-

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brarianship is an education enterprise it is worth a great deal more effort.

As indicated in the survey described at the opening of this paper, most libraries, even without benefit of systematically developed training programs, are already spending some monies on staff development, continuing education, and professional growth, with costs distributed throughout the budget. Their rationalization, articulation, and incorporation into a single, coordinated module would therefore, even without expenditure of more money, seem to furnish the following benefits: 1) overlapping effort, if such exists, can be reduced or eliminated; 2) gaps in coverage can be readily identified for remedial action; 3) a fairer distribution of opportunity across the staff can be attained; 4) efficiency is likely to result from the fact that all training activities will have been planned beforehand; 5) personal development opportunities will be more readily understood by prospective new staff members; 6) there will be improved recognition of the value of training both to the individual and to the organization; and 7) greater visibility of training opportunities will spur wider staff participation in them.

In addition, it appears likely that greater visibility of the library training program will help library managers to elicit increased support for the activity from the library's fund sources. It should also motivate the library administration to "sell" its fund sources more zealously than has often been true in the past on the necessity for increasing dollar support to the continuing education of staff.

Although best practice seems to call for continuing education opportunities to be planned and implemented centrally, it is desirable for at least three reasons that a kind of program budget accounting mechanism be utilized that can show the distribution of all costs of the program back to the beneficiary operating units. A first reason is that without it the large budget line for continuing education takes on an appearance of "administrative overhead" which can too easily become a prime target for would-be budget reducers. Second, it places the responsibility for finding benefit in the program directly where it belongs—upon the shoulders of the middle-echelon line supervisors whose units are being charged for the system anyway. Third, it is only through such a system of "charge-backs" that any meaningful input/output evaluations of the training subsystem can be accomplished.

In summary, it appears that the American library community is becoming increasingly aware of the need for attention to the continuing
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education of staff and that substantial resources are being put to the purpose. It is as yet, however, seldom thought of as a subsystem of the total library system. The possibility of coordinating all continuing education opportunities into a single, institution-wide training module is becoming increasingly attractive, and some experience exists which can show the way to others, although little of this experience exists in libraries. It does, however, appear likely that such training subsystems will be much more widely in evidence in large libraries in the years just ahead than they are today.

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7. Ibid., p. 23.
Social Interaction Skills

LAWRENCE A. ALLEN
AND
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This issue, by its theme and its contributors, strongly affirms the value of developing the human resources of the library organization. We endorse this attention to the "people" approach. Specifically, our concern here is with the social interaction skills needed by those human resources for personal effectiveness within the library and in the relationship of the library with its client system, be that public, academic, or school system.

The role we see for the library is based on the ability of that organization, through the information and services provided by its staff, to support the thinkers and doers who enable our democratic society to define and meet its goals. Basically, this role is a linkage function.

As libraries serve this role institutionally, librarians and library educators are links in a more directly personal sense. Librarians are links in the sense of knowing and meeting the needs of their clientele through the resources and services of the library. Library educators are vital links in knowing and meeting the professional demands of the field through a relevant curriculum of pre-service education and continuing educational opportunities.

To be effective, these human links require not only knowledge and expertise with regard to information organization and its distribution, but also with regard to the social interaction skills needed in interrelating with colleagues and clients and the implementation of programs both in and outside of the library. For our use here, we regard social interaction as "a generic term for the exchange of meanings between people . . . all the various ways in which people can and do

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express themselves in face-to-face meetings. ¹ More specifically, we will be speaking of such competencies as communications, collaboration in shared decision-making, and problem-solving.

Our purpose in this article is to briefly explore the nature of the need for social interaction skills, how that need grows out of the library as a human organization, what the behavioral sciences have to offer to our field in the development of social interaction skills, and to present a sample model to illustrate the laboratory method which the authors feel on the basis of their experience in creating learning climates to be the best means for learning social interaction skills.

Awareness of the value of social interaction skills is usually given explicit acknowledgement as being a common sense ingredient of good leaders, educators, and administrators. But too often the awareness that some "have it" and some do not is regarded as the end point. We consider this more promising as a beginning point and will go in some depth into ways that these skills can be developed and suggest human relations training methods as a means by which libraries can become more effective organizations. We address ourselves equally to library administrators, library educators, and librarians in general.

Whether or not libraries in our organizational society are effective depends in large measure on their ability to function and move toward their goals. The effectiveness of organizations is primarily dependent upon their ability to integrate the talent and skills of their members into a team working toward viable and understood goals. Goals are the very raison d'être of the organization. Yet, Etzioni points out that in achieving the goals of the organization it is imperative that the needs of the members of the organization, as well as the clients and the organization itself, be satisfied.²

Argyris extends this and warns that unless needs and goals of both the organization and the individual are accommodated, the institution will begin to falter.³ Thus it would seem that library administrators and staffs need to address themselves to a clear understanding of their goals as an institution and direct their attention to the goals of the individuals who are members of that organization as well as to those who are its clients. Library literature, insofar as it is representative of the field, indicates that neither the goals of individuals nor those of libraries as institutions are very clearly articulated or commonly understood.

Several recent studies have pointed to the need of all levels of service in the library for sound social interaction skills—those needed in ad-
administration and supervisory responsibilities, those needed in work
groups, and those needed in serving present clients and in reaching
out to broader clientele. Judging from these expressed needs, the de-
velopment of these skills has apparently not been found to an adequate
extent in the professional education curriculum or in staff develop-
ment programs. Yet present trends in librarianship reveal the growing
emergence toward participative management styles, emphasis on
client-centered services, social consciousness and the need for ac-
countability to justify allocation of scarce (and ever scarcer) resources.
These trends call for the increased ability of library staffs at all levels
to work together within their organizations and with their clients. This
ability to work together effectively becomes even more crucial in the
light of the ever increasing pressures for change in our institutions and
our society.

"Although a number of popular articles have discussed human re-
lationships in libraries, there have been few basic studies." McCoy's
comment in 1953 seems equally true today. But that should not be a
limiting factor, for the literature of applied behavioral sciences is rich
with research, analysis, and even handbooks for building social inter-
action skills. Lopez and Rubacher point out that "Quick to adapt and
adopt the advances of relevant technologies to Technical Services,
librarians have been slightly less receptive to the advances made in the
behavioral sciences. Such 'selectivity' can only be, in time, detrimental
to the professional growth of the librarian, the library as an institution
and to the patrons, for whom it exists."  

Surace is more specific as she foresees that libraries will be organized
differently in the not-too-distant future. Signs of this are now being
reported in the library literature on administration. She notes that
"one of the reasons will be the continuing influence and application
of the behavioral science methods and techniques in management—a
human relations approach that clearly places the emphasis on human
understanding, group organization, the responsibility of management
to the worker, and fluid, task-oriented organizational structures."  

As librarians we must be aware of our own responsibilities in this
area, and not simply to hand over the responsibility to the "experts"
as we seem to have done too often in the case of adopting modern
computer processes in libraries. Gomersall says, "The manager should
look to behavioral scientists not to solve his problems, but only to pro-
vide needed information about them. To ask the scientists to do more
robs the manager of his charter . . . the behavioral scientist is operating
within his proper realm of responsibility if he serves as a change agent by assisting managers in planning the application of theories and principles and by giving visibility to their achievements."

Librarians in the field express their great need for more ability and knowledge in management skills and interpersonal relationships. The need for these skills in working with colleagues and clients is often greater than the need for those technical skills directly related to the processing of information. Thus it becomes essential that we, as librarians, look to resources beyond our own professional literature and research. Reluctance on the part of the library world to look to other disciplines for information and knowledge that could be utilized in the field of librarianship might prove fatal as well as foolhardy.

Sound research developed in the behavioral sciences has significant implications, for libraries and library systems are complex organizations working to serve a complex and changing society. Lippitt documents how management in all fields is turning increasingly to the behavioral sciences to discover a deeper understanding of the human element within the increasingly complex organizations with which our society operates. This is also true of the service professions—health, education, social welfare, etc. Each of these fields is coming more and more not only to rely on the literature and research of the applied behavioral science field, but also to increasingly generate its own professionally oriented findings using concepts and methods now available from the behavioral sciences. Librarians need to use the behavioral scientists as they themselves seek to be used by their clients—as resources in their own problem-solving processes.

Although it may be stating the obvious, organizations are made up of people—not people in isolation from each other, but rather, people in groups. Social interaction occurs in several dimensions—two people interacting with each other, group members interacting within their group, groups interacting with other groups and with the total organization including all its members and groups. The total organization is made up of many diverse groups which result in a complex mosaic of intergroup relationships. Social interaction skills are necessary in each of these dimensions.

Homans points out that the relationship between one individual and another represents man’s most natural attempt at socialization. This one-to-one relationship is inevitable and necessary in any organization. A great deal of what is accomplished depends in large measure on the mutual effect each has on the other in the relationship. This is
true in staff relationships, in librarian-client relationships, and in faculty-student contacts.

One-to-one relationships are perhaps most frequent in most library organizations. However, much of the direction and work of any organization is done in groups. Studies of how a group behaves in terms of its leadership, goals, communications, and memberships have developed a substantial fund of knowledge in applied behavioral science for individual and organizational behavior.10

In addition to the one-to-one and within-group relationships, the behavioral sciences have recently begun research in the group-to-group relationship. It is here that much of the organization’s decision-making and social interaction skills become so significant. Two prominent contributors in the area of groups working with groups are Chris Argyris11 and Warren Bennis12 who employ research in group concepts to bring about planned change in organizations.

Since human relations training methods have been shown to be the most effective method of really learning about human relations and since they are not widely used in library education, we would like to make clear what we mean by human relations training, specifically, laboratory education.

“Human relations research and training is very much interested in studying the processes of social influence and in helping individuals use such knowledge in building fuller and richer lives for themselves and their associates. It is equally interested in helping people develop skills in building more effective groups and organizations.”13 If human relations training is directed solely at personal growth objectives, it is not justifiably the responsibility of the organization to provide it. However, when organizational objectives as well as personal objectives are tied together, it is justifiable for both the commitment of the individual and the organization. In connecting these two aims—personal and organizational—human relations training becomes most real for the individual lives within the organizational structure, and the organizational structure consists of individuals. To divorce the two is unrealistic and non-productive. Human relations training achieves most of its objectives best when it deliberately and carefully integrates organizational tasks and goals with individual tasks and goals. Our most successful workshops and institute programs over the past two years have shown the most definite impact where these two realms are brought together in design, programming, implementation and evaluation.
The most productive method for human relations training has been shown to be laboratory education. Laboratory education, very simply, is experiential learning. It is based on the adage that experience is the best teacher—learning by doing, in other words. Knowledge and skill in human relations become real and significant, not through lectures and books, though those might help, but through direct observation and participation in actual events. In laboratory training some of the learning comes from the educator, but most comes from the interaction of members. Thus direct laboratory learning enhances a person's ability and skill in working with others and includes a sharpening of the perspective on his “growing edges” where he needs to find alternative modes of behavior which will enable him to more effectively fulfill his objectives in working with others. It is learning which occurs through a process of interacting with others who are directly seen and related to by the person.

Relationships are always present, so learning about human relations is a lifelong process. Laboratory learning is designed to help each individual recognize his own potential and to increase his ability to work more effectively with others in a variety of situations—not only immediately but as a continuously renewing experience. It relies on the most effective learning environment—one which encourages free expression of thoughts, ideas and feelings and which contributes to understanding, insights and skills of individuals, groups and, ultimately, the organization." Programs involving laboratory training, as any other staff development programs, must address directly the specific purposes and needs of the organization as well as the individuals in the program. Schein and Bennis affirm that, in their opinion, “laboratory training has come along at just that point in time when these twin needs of interpersonal competence of the individual and development of organizational effectiveness are at their peak. Not that laboratory training is itself capable of solving these problems; but it is one tangible and vital method which can be applied to examining and diagnosing them.”

More specifically, the National Training Laboratories pinpoint the learning objectives and outcomes of laboratory training as follows:

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<tr>
<th>SELF</th>
<th>INTERPERSONAL AND GROUP RELATIONS</th>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
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<tr>
<td>Own feelings and motivations</td>
<td>Establishing meaningful interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>Understanding organizational complexities</td>
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Correctly perceiving effects of behavior on others

Finding a satisfying place in the group

Developing and inventing appropriate new patterns and procedures

Correctly understanding effect of others' behavior on self

Understanding dynamic complexities in group behavior

Helping to diagnose and solve problems between units of the organization

Hearing others and accepting helpful criticism

Developing diagnostic skills to understand group problems and processes

Working as a member and as a leader

Appropriately interacting with others

Acquiring skills of helping the group on task and maintenance issues

The aim in designing learning experiences is to apply those methods that best accomplish the goals of the program. Typical methods drawn from various sources and used in laboratory education usually involve the following:

1) face-to-face grouping in some form of structured or unstructured group depending upon the goal to be achieved;
2) planned activities involving interaction between individuals and groups;
3) a systematic means of providing frequent "feedback" and analysis of information regarding what happened in the "here and now" and with what effect;
4) a continuous means of evaluating the needs of the participants and a means of adjusting the program to meet those needs; and
5) attempts to make generalizations and apply what is being learned to the "back-home" situation.

As Knowles points out, this method of human relations training is the most effective approach to the learning of adults. Both professional and continuing education concern themselves with the adult learner. Laboratory training as awareness of self and social processes has been with us for more than two decades. A good deal of research has centered on the effects of laboratory learning: there is no question that the approaches are diverse and that innovation continues in this developing methodology. However, the common goal of training staff and participants is to promote more effective action as individuals, in groups and in organizations.
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Perhaps the most frequently asked question is “What are the lasting effects of laboratory education upon individual performance and interaction in the work setting?” Boyd and Ellis in their study report that not only are there more frequent changes of action but also more varieties of action on the part of the participants in laboratory learning after they have returned home. These findings are corroborated by Miles in his experimental study concluding that laboratory participants were seen to have changed much more significantly than the control subjects in perception by self and by others in a predicted direction.

In two articles, Bunker comes to somewhat the same conclusions but perhaps a bit more tentatively. He feels that although we have evidence that new perceptions and behavioral capacities gained through lab learning can be translated into adaptive behavior changes in the participant’s home setting, it cannot be said that all persons learn in a laboratory or that more change, individual change, takes place in a laboratory setting. Participants are seen by co-workers as having increased significantly in cognitive openness, behavioral skills and understanding of social processes. Schutz and Allen concluded that after a period of six months participants changed in a positive direction with respect to the participant’s self-concepts and behavior and feelings toward other people, as well as behavior of others toward the participant.

How does one go about developing more effective social interaction skills, or attempting to teach them to others? One of the ways it is not done is through the usual formal classroom technique. This is given eloquent testimony by McGregor who speaks about the crucial importance of these skills for effective managerial problem-solving and who notes that the relatively small amount of research evidence available indicates two things:

1) effective learning in this field requires the solution of some exceedingly complex problems, and
2) lasting changes in behavior as a result of conventional classroom methods are quite unlikely.

He goes on to point out that most of us have been barraged by inspirational lectures at conferences on human relations which give some new words and rationalizations that tend to defend or protect our present behavior rather than change it to become more effective. In McGregor’s opinion there are two current educational methods which
appear to bring about significant improvement in the skills of social interaction—one of these is psychotherapy which is not only expensive but time-consuming and “the other method is a form of ‘laboratory’ training developed during the last dozen years.” He points out, “One of the very real problems connected with this highly unconventional approach to education in the skills of social interaction is the difficulty which participants have in communicating meaningfully about the experience after it is over. They often succeed only in making the program sound highly mysterious and esoteric.”

Since we agree with the behavioral scientists that lab learning is the best means of achieving the development of social interaction skills, we have sketched a sample model employing this method to develop the skill of co-operative work relationships. Employing the method of laboratory education, this model has been designed as a practical sample of ways professional librarians and library educators might implement a program to develop the skills of social interaction.

Agreeing with Argyris that “the important human relationships are not only those related to achieving the organization’s objectives but those related to maintaining the organization’s internal system and adapting to the environment, as well,” we present on the following pages a model which seeks to fulfill three purposes simultaneously:

1) build interpersonal competencies and social interaction skills in individual staff members;
2) strengthen the ability of the staff to work effectively as a collaborative team on organizational problems; and
3) initiate the managerial mode of democratic decision-making and provide a base for its continuation.

The primary purpose of the model is the development of effective working relationships among organizational members. “Team building” is rapidly becoming one of the most effective techniques in developing social interaction and individual skills which contribute to organizational effectiveness.

The methodology and approach used are as important to achieve the intended outcomes as is the content focus suggested. The concern for content is not eliminated, but the coverage of that content is built in such a way as to allow maximum participant interaction since the primary goal is the development of effective relationships among organization members.

The process of building social interaction skills is most usefully
accomplished in the organization if they are developed simultaneously with other organizational activities. For instance, task groups (i.e., committees, departmental staffs, task forces) meeting their assigned responsibilities more effectively is a prime objective for training procedures. Yet interaction skills such as the processes of communications, the helping relationship and group dynamics can be achieved at the same time and support, without impairing, the basic aim of the training. The effective working relationship built by the team members can then be used for other tasks, and its members may be dispersed through the organization as an aid in facilitating other groups.

Team building is a deliberate effort to provide structures that enable a work or task team to "experience the unique and indispensable part each plays in accomplishing the common task." Its success depends on the real possibility of full, individual participation in designating responsibility and making consensual decisions. Each member speaks for himself through a process of mutual, open sharing, each acting and feeling shared responsibility for each other member and the group as a whole. The ideas and feelings of others on the team are heard and responded to.

"The fundamental building block of an organization is the team. Any given organization team is composed of those who work together to discharge that part of the total organization's work for which they share responsibility. Such teams have the basic elements of all groups." Basic guidelines for a group engaged in team building consist of the following: a setting and climate which facilitates communication, shared decisions made about group time and agenda, and shared responsibility for carrying out that agenda. The basic method is to plan and accomplish something together as a team, and then, continuing as a team, to discuss what happened and what was learned from what happened.

All direct team building activities stem from the development of team objectives. This fundamental function facilitates the team building process by engaging the team in the meaningful task of building its objectives—the essence of the laboratory method. Specific structured activities enable this to happen. Activities would vary in accord with the nature and purpose of the group. Single suggestions are made as examples in three different situations—groups with assigned responsibility, self-directed groups with old and new members, and a self-directed new group. These show a sampling of the range of team building possibilities on a staff.

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For a group with assigned responsibility, an important part of team building is the opportunity for all members to reach agreement about the way in which those members with specific responsibilities carry them out. The individual (or individuals) with assigned responsibility clarifies in writing how he sees his responsibility and what he would like to do to carry it out. The group is then divided into smaller groups and they discuss what they would like him to do to fulfill his responsibility as they see it. These “mirror views” of role and responsibilities are then shared in a discussion exploring and resolving the areas of agreement and differences, concluding with a clear cut agreement between the group and the responsible individual about the most effective way they see to accomplish the assigned group task.

In a self-directed group, without a specific assignment, initial objectives must be set jointly. If the group combines both old and new members, the initial task could be to evolve, through working in dyads which pair old members together and new members together, what they feel to be the most important objectives of the team. These results are then shared and discussed by the total group to explore the perceptual differences and evolve the objectives for the total group.

A design for groups that know each other and have worked together before uses a basic triad structure. In each triad, two members tell the third what they think he believes is the most important objective of the group. He then clarifies his view of the group’s objective. Each triad shares its agreed perceptions in discussion with the total group. This discussion considers what objectives appear most often and evolves which objectives are shared by the group.

Each of these designed structures provides the group with a primary task function of any group—the establishment of clearly understood objectives to guide its work, and the primary process function of any group—learning how to work effectively together in their interaction. “Observations of its own group process and a diagnosis of its own effectiveness are . . . interwoven with the actual problem oriented work to facilitate learning about itself and how it can become more effective as a team.”

Initial team building efforts can be sustained and can continue to grow and be a learning experience if, at the end of each meeting the group looks at each team meeting evaluatively, identifying the feelings of members and the strengths and weaknesses of it and reflects on how the next meeting can be more effective. “A focus for looking at
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their own group may be introduced in a variety of ways. One of the
commonest is simply to ask the group, after a number of sessions, how
they feel about their own progress as a group and what suggestions
they might have for proceeding more effectively . . . . Most groups find
a discussion of their own process fascinating and pursue it with vigor
once the door is opened to this possibility.”

Models for developing social interaction skills lend themselves to
use in a staff development program in a library, in formal library
school courses or in continuing education opportunities offered by
professional organizations and state agencies. We express a word of
cautions, however. Whether the models are used in an orientation, in-
service, on-the-job training program, or a combination of these, or as
a means of looking at the whole system, one should not attempt to
implement them without some consultative help from people who
have experience in the laboratory method. We underscore this caution
to prevent any possible misapplication of the method and consequent
deleterious results.

In the final analysis what we have been really talking about is
change and people. Within every organization the greatest resource,
we feel, is its people. Consequently, it would follow that the develop-
ment of this “people” resource would result in more effective organiza-
tions. The development of interpersonal relationships in the form of
social interaction skills is something that can be done and done now.
We do not have to wait for huge money resources to do it. The re-
search mentioned and our own experiences show it can be done effec-
tively by what is suggested here. Most importantly, we stress that
social interaction skills are best learned not by “manipulating” people
and “teaching” them something, but rather it is more effective—and
ethical we believe—to manipulate situations by creating environments
wherein people “learn” at their own rate according to their own needs
and learning style.

The best means of developing these social skills is by the laboratory
method. The classroom and formal lecture-type methods alone have
not been able to develop these important skills. By means of laboratory
learning we should be able to develop librarians in both pre-service
and in-service education who will become more effective in achieving
the service-oriented goals of the library. We have presented a model
based upon the laboratory method and principles of adult learning
and programming in the hope that they will stimulate action programs
to implement the development of social interaction skills. A word of
caution was introduced not to implement these programs without some form of consulting help from people experienced in the laboratory method.

As we began so we conclude—our concern is with the people within organizations and their development. We believe that as social interaction skills can be developed within the individual, his knowledge, skill and insight into group and intergroup behavior will be increased. This organization, in this case the library, can thus become a more effective social institution. As librarians we function within an organizational structure wherein there exists an ongoing social process with our colleagues and clients. To be more effective we need to develop our human skills in order to better understand ourselves, others, and our organizations.

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23. Ibid., p. 221.

24. Ibid., p. 223.


29. Ibid., p. 90.

30. Ibid., p. 93.

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Developing a Model for Continuing Education and Personnel Development in Libraries

A continuing education and personnel development program set up to accomplish a number of specific objectives is composed of many elements. For such a development program to be maximally effective, all these elements must be integrated into a system designed to accomplish the objectives within a cost effective framework. Various principles and techniques of learning must be applied in the development of the system.

The principal objective is to design a model for use by librarians in analyzing and defining the basic problems and in developing the framework for a program of continuing education or personnel development which will facilitate the application of management techniques. The model should be flexible so that it can be implemented in any size or type of library or library system or in a group of cooperating libraries. Therefore, provision should be made for the combination
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of elements in a rational way to make up a complete system which would not only be affected by internal factors, but also by elements outside the specific program developed, such as the attitude and motivation of those participating in the programs, the climate of the library or library system in which the program takes place, and the attitude of the administration of the given system toward continuing education and staff development.

The model should provide for an overall framework adaptable to any library. It should identify the major elements of the system which would: 1) include constraints that must limit the choices of the system designer, such as the policies and attitudes of top management toward continuing education and a personnel development program, the nature of related systems in the library, cost ceilings, personnel ceilings, and facilities restrictions; 2) include the identification of staff development needs within the library system and the determination of priority needs; 3) include the determination of behavioral objectives for each part of the program and the sequencing of these objectives; 4) include the development of program elements which would meet the behavioral objectives and develop strategies best calculated to implement the objectives and provide methods for adjusting to individual differences; 5) provide selection policies for programs established; 6) suggest areas of decision necessary in order to determine the feasibility of a given program at the local level; 7) detail the steps necessary to successfully implement a given program; and 8) provide for methods of quality control and evaluation, including a method of feedback of results of the program to the system designer and manager, procedures for taking appropriate action on the results, and provision for obtaining supervisory support for a given program.

The program model which has been developed is shown in a flow chart arrangement as a part of this article. (See figure 1.) It is a comparatively simple flow chart, but even in its simplicity, some explanation is required before it can be implemented.

Basic to the institution of a personnel development program is an analysis and identification of the basic problems facing the library and its community. The library's community should be considered as its personnel (including administrators), its users, and the individuals entitled to its services who are neither personnel nor users. The basic problems to be analyzed must be defined with personnel, users, and the participating community whenever possible. It is quite possible
that non-users can identify appropriate problems to be analyzed and defined more effectively than either users or staff.

Once the problems are analyzed and defined, the library must be capable of organizing to solve or alleviate problems through staff development programs. This could involve training the staff to respond to currently unmet needs such as programs for the disadvantaged or handicapped, and developing the staff to accept responsibility to participate in management or to train individuals for more responsible positions within the organization or within the profession. In order to organize, it is necessary to obtain approval to assign personnel for planning the program and to allocate time for planning. The planning need not involve a forty-hour week for several staff members for a period of months, but, depending upon the complexity of the problem and the number of people to be involved, it can be conducted in a comparatively short period of time with participation by a limited number of individuals.

The individuals assigned to planning should be active participants in gathering all the relevant data and in validating it in relation to the proposed program. Data and background information should be collected from many sources—reports and other documents, statistics, personal interviews, and reactions of individual staff members, users or other members of the community.

Once the data have been collected and validated, the data need to be analyzed in relation to the total program of the library. For example, if it were decided that the library needed to provide services to a currently unserved segment of the community, all the information applicable to this segment of the community would be collected and validated. Once the validation was completed, the information would be analyzed and related to other appropriate activities within the library and the total community. It is most important that the staff actively participate in this phase of the planning because they will be involved in the total service program and concerned with the development of the individual staff members as well as the service program of the library.

Because most libraries will find that a number of programs will be identified as a result of the analysis of data, the needs must be ranked. No single institution or group of institutions can be expected to meet all the needs identified in a comparatively short period of time. The ranking of needs cannot be an arbitrary measure but must be a result of a consensus of those participating in the planning process. This can
be done at a meeting of all participants where a list of needs is presented for them to discuss. If no choice is immediately obvious then a simple selection process can be set up with everyone having a certain number of points to be assigned to a single item, or to be split among the group of items in order to produce a ranked order.

Although this appears to be a long process, it should be understood that many of these activities can be completed in a very limited time period. They all have been detailed in this presentation in order to provide a guide for those organizing staff development programs for the first time or for institutions which have not been receptive to such programs. Some of these tasks will be completed without ever being formalized, but they are identified in the flow chart in order to insure a continuity in the development process.

Once the program to be implemented has been selected the program must be organized, but only after support and personnel have been assigned for this activity. The program will need to be formulated in a way that will insure maximum participation of the staff. The steps to be followed in formulating the program will differ depending upon the program itself. For example, in the case of a development program for service to an unserved segment of the community, the program should allow for participation by representatives of the community as well as other agencies which actively serve the community. In a program to involve staff in the application of new technology perhaps the key participants should be representatives of the commercial firm supplying the computers and those at the library responsible for implementing the computer technology within the operating system.

Each library implementing a staff development program will have to identify the actions to be taken for a successful program. We believe that the model program and these brief comments are sufficient for the individual librarian to begin implementing his own staff development program.

RELATED REFERENCES


Miller, Richard I. A Comprehensive Model for Managing an ESEA Title III Project from Conception to Culmination (ED 024 842). Fairfax County Public Schools, Fairfax, Va., Center for Effecting Educational Change, Nov. 1968.


Guidelines to the Development of Human Resources in Libraries: Rationale, Policies, Programs and Recommendations

Guidelines Subcommittee of the Staff Development Committee, Personnel Administration Section, Library Administration Division, American Library Association

IN RECENT YEARS there has been a considerable increase in the attention given to personnel development in libraries. However, it is apparent from research-based studies in librarianship, and from listening to librarians as they talk about their jobs—in daily conversation, in meetings, in the current literature—that there are still many roadblocks which prevent the release of the human potential that exists within our libraries today. These guidelines take the position that a great deal can be done in the work situation toward diagnosing and removing these roadblocks by establishing and developing meaningful personnel development policies and programs. The need for such assistance—for guidelines—is implicit in the ALA Activities Committee on New Directions for ALA and Subcommittee Reports' demand to "develop and publish new personnel guides and tools which will assist library administrators in establishing better policies and procedures."

Members of the Subcommittee of the Staff Development Committee who produced the guidelines are: Elizabeth W. Stone, Associate Professor, Department of Library Science, The Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.; (Chairman of the Subcommittee); Dale B. Canelas, Budget and Planning Officer, Northwestern University Library, Evanston, Illinois; Barbara Conroy, Director, Washington Seminar: Library Career Development, The Catholic University of America, Washington, D.C.; Frederick Duda, Assistant Director of Libraries for Administrative Services, Columbia University Libraries, New York; Y. T. Feng, Assistant Director for Research Library Services, Boston Public Library, Boston, Massachusetts; Karen Nelson, Assistant University Librarian for Personnel, Harvard University Library, Cambridge, Massachusetts; Christina Carr Young, Librarian, Washington, D.C. Public Schools, Washington, D.C.

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It is hoped that, taken as a whole, these guidelines will stimulate responsible librarians to match their concern for staff development with meaningful action directed to that end.

RATIONALE AND SCOPE

Personnel development, which is used synonymously with staff development, as presented here is more than development programs and activities. That is not to say that courses, orientation programs, institutes, and inservice programs are not important, but rather to emphasize that, in themselves, they do not constitute the total means for the development of a library's human resources. Personnel development is fully possible only in an environment which not only permits, but actively encourages individuals to develop their potential.

These guidelines present some of the conditions that research in the behavioral sciences seems to indicate are necessary in an organization for the optimum effectiveness and growth of its human resources. Some ways in which managers may facilitate the implementation of these conditions are suggested. Because comparatively little research has been done that has specifically applied to libraries, many of the references are from other disciplines. One of the major findings emanating from behavioral science research has been the universality of those elements which apply to the development of human resources in any type of organization. Therefore, it is assumed, as Joeckel was advocating in 1940, Martin in 1945, Wasserman in 1958, Stone in 1967, Harlow in 1969, and DeProspo and Huang in 1969, that these elements are generally applicable to the library organization.

Definitions overlap in this field. As a result there is a lack of clear distinction between continuing education, personnel (or staff) development, and training. In these guidelines, continuing education is conceived as being a lifelong process through which individuals maintain themselves as competent people and grow to meet the challenges of change. Asheim has suggested that perhaps it would be better if the operative word were "continuation education," implying that "it comes after or over and above... the formal period of schooling which has terminated when one has achieved the basic, the first entrance qualification, to his present occupation or profession."

Staff or personnel development more narrowly restricts those competencies to being job-related, yet broadly defines that term beyond only knowledge and skills to include attitudes and behavior which thus involve the total person as a worker and member of a library organiza-
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tion. Training is viewed here as a means of personnel development, referring more directly to methodology. In the words of Scott, "The immediate goals of training aim at improving individual job effectiveness and the climate of interpersonal relations in organization. By necessity, training must be oriented toward organizational objectives." 11

For libraries to strive effectively toward their goals as viable organizations in a changing culture, it becomes important to view personnel development with an "asset management approach," which is concerned with the best allocations of resources. 12 The overriding importance of developing human resources in an organization has been forcefully stated by Likert: "Every aspect of a firm's activities is determined by the competence, motivation, and general effectiveness of its human organization. Of all the tasks of management, managing the human component is the central and most important task, because all else depends upon how well it is done." 13

Two attitudes toward personnel development in libraries point to the need for these guidelines. One attitude is revealed by those librarians who have shown a concern for the development of human resources, but have considered it, as defined by McGregor, 14 as a production problem—if enough inservice training programs are manufactured and enough employees are directed to take them, staff development will automatically follow. A second attitude is evidenced by those who have been unsure or unaware of the values of staff development and are reluctant to make a full commitment to it. The second attitude is shown, for example, by supervisors who have been either apathetic or antipathetic toward continuing educational opportunities for their staff. 15 This paper hopes to offer concrete guidelines for the first instance and a new perspective for consideration in the second instance.

One of the pressures which intensifies the need for personnel development in libraries is the influence of modern management concepts which have tried to adapt to such contemporary realities as those summarized by Bennis in a recent article: "1) rapid and unexpected change; 2) growth in size beyond what is necessary for the work being done . . .; 3) complexity of modern technology, in which integration between activities and persons of very diverse, highly specialized competence is required; 4) a change in managerial values toward more humanistic democratic practices." 16 This last factor has largely developed out of basic research in the behavioral sciences and
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has sought to understand the behavior of people as workers and members of organizations. This has resulted in a trend toward participative management. According to contemporary behavioral scientists such as Likert, participatory management is the most effective management pattern for achieving organizational goals. From the point at which classical organizational theories view individuals in the organization merely as passive components of the system, participative management moves to a new stance of active involvement of employees in formulating and achieving organizational goals. A recent study by Marchant found that libraries in general still tend toward the former, traditional attitude.

Democratic leadership involves shared decision-making. There are various degrees of this kind of participation. In one library it might take the form of allowing employees to share in all decisions which affect them directly. In another, participation might apply to sharing in the decisions relating to the alternatives open for the accomplishment of the objectives set. The report of Cornell’s Committee on Continuing Education and Professional Growth in University Libraries reveals how vitally continuing education and staff development are linked with participation in decision-making by stating: “it appears that education without responsibility for decisions is hopelessly abstract, while decision-making without continuing education is inevitably inadequately informed.”

Democratic leadership involves more than just participation in decision-making. It also implies a “climate” in which employees have a chance to grow and develop, where supervisors are concerned about the development of those they supervise, where employee attitudes and involvement are solicited and respected. Thus, democratic leadership calls for a “state of mind” in which the management is committed to the recognition of the dignity of employees as men and women and not merely as factors contributing to the efficiency of the library. Scott states that the realization of greater personal potential stems only from an organizational atmosphere which allows its participants freedom to decide and to act. If not allowed and encouraged, the organization as well as the individual suffers.

The constant need for change is another pressure which intensifies the need for personnel development. The role of the library in its changing culture seems to be an issue everywhere. Evidences of cultural change alter the missions and goals of the library, modify its priorities, and call for change within the library to meet the challenges
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and needs of the society. Social factors, as the study "Social Change and the Library: 1945-1980" has pointed out, are redefining the responsibilities of libraries and shaping the future in which they will operate. Among the widely varied channels of communication needed to keep this "complex, highly integrated, and powerful society going . . . libraries have a special role as the only medium giving its user a wide freedom of personal choice and an opportunity to inform himself in depth by the use of a wide variety of materials." Further, "the events of the next decade may indeed sweep libraries into positions of unprecedented importance, or they could be bypassed and superceded by other agencies and devices that can serve the public more effectively. . . . If we are to survive as a free society, albeit overcrowded, tense, divided, and uncertain, people must be helped to think rationally and to maintain their perspectives. Libraries are better fitted than any other agency we now have to do the job." 23

The challenges of rapid and unexpected change that libraries face offer a route for obsolescence or for greater realization as a functional part of our society—depending on the response to those challenges. This has a direct relation to personnel development, as pointed out by David Kaser, director of the Cornell University Libraries:

Libraries are going to be able to meet the new challenge of change only if working personnel keep their professional "implements" honed to maximum working capability. Library personnel, however, can best accomplish this if library management makes it as desirable as possible for them to do so. I feel therefore that a strong and coordinated program of continuing education and professional growth is in our best interests, both individually and collectively, and that it is incumbent upon the library administration to do all it can to foster one.24

Scott maintains that those interested in planned organizational change have found that they can have the greatest impact on an organization through personnel development. Other reasons often used to justify staff development efforts include: increased job competence, improved interpersonal competencies, improved understanding and methods of conflict resolution between and within groups to reduce tension, development of more effective team management, attitude and value change to encourage creativity and innovation in problem-solving, and creation of an open organic system as the base of operation.26

Before proceeding to the section on the human resources approach
The importance of a systems approach to library personnel development. "Systems approach" as used in this paper, is viewing the library organization as an orderly whole, of perceiving clearly the interrelationships of all the parts of the library to each other as well as to the whole library structure.

As a basis for our discussion, a concise definition of a system as given by Knezevich is presented:

A system can be defined simply as any collection of persons with a plan, and a goal. The various elements within it are ordered and arranged to accomplish a stated mission in a particular way. . . . A system may be pictured as a device for converting inputs (such as manpower, machine power, space and money) into desired outputs. All this is done according to a plan and any constraints that apply must be spelled out. Components within a system are interactive and interdependent.

Stated another way, every system has boundaries. There is an environment that surrounds it—a kind of skin that separates the unique entity called a system from factors outside it. If there is interplay between factors within and those outside the system, it is called an open system. If there is no interchange . . . it is called a closed system. Closed systems are unstable in the long run, for they lack the mechanism to sense changes in the surrounding environment which have implications for the effectiveness of internal operations. 27

The systems approach consists of several components or subsets: analysis, design, operations, and evaluation. For our purposes, “systems analysis” is conceived as only one dimension—one part—of the total approach and thus has a restricted meaning. Systems analysis bears a close relationship to operational analysis and generally involves a quantitative oriented study of a system, and is not within the scope of this paper.

The systems approach in terms of staff development needs to be applied fully with regard to: 1) the relationship between the system of management of a library and the content of the development programs, 2) the internal consistency of the content of management development courses, 28 and 3) the congruence of the methods used in the programs with the management approach of the library. Many problems and frustrations arise when the philosophy used in the area of staff development is incongruent with other components of the library’s management system. For example, in a library in which the
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structures and procedures are based on an authoritative style of management, a personnel development program based on the concepts of participatory management is likely to be disfunctional to both. The systems approach emphasizes that the goals and objectives, the organizational structure, the policies and procedures, the management activities, and the selection process must be compatible with training practices. For example, Likert warns that a system which does not have such total integration will fail to benefit from a training program which is democratic in its structure and the results may even be harmful.29

To sum up, thus far we have attempted to show, using a systems approach, the “what” and the “why” of personnel development. Now we will proceed with some guidelines to present the “how.” These guidelines, we hope, will offer individual librarians at any level in the organization (not only the formal library administration) the opportunity to review and reexamine their present program, to plan for the future extension of their past efforts, or to initiate and develop a new comprehensive and interrelated (i.e., systems) approach to the development of human resources within the organization. Therefore, with the systems approach still in mind, we suggest some important elements for an action program within the library system related to personnel development.

THE HUMAN RESOURCES APPROACH IN ACTION

The responsibility for personnel development is shared by the individual and by the institution. Neither of these alone can fully assure a staff successfully working toward established organizational goals. Individual responsibility is based on professional commitment and a belief that learning is a lifetime excitement and reward. Institutional responsibility is a more formalized awareness of the organizational need for an alive, vigorous staff making the library capable of meeting changing societal needs. Fulfilling each of these responsibilities requires real conviction and commitment.

It must be emphasized, however, that the total organizational structure and overall management philosophy of the library as represented in policies, operational practices, and associated managerial procedures often affect the growth and development of the individual just as much, and sometimes more, than the policy statements and practices that deal specifically with staff development and continuing education.30 A few examples may clarify this statement: 1) a de-

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centralized organizational structure can provide an environment in which the individual is encouraged to take greater responsibility for his own behavior, thus increasing his feelings of accomplishment and self-assurance, in turn motivating him to take still more responsibility and contributing to his further growth; 31 2) a system of tight control often has the opposite effect as constant tight surveillance by superiors tends to increase staff anxiety, and employees are apt to complain of detailed supervision and boring work; 32 3) since all levels of the staff fear performance measurements which are used in a punitive manner by their superiors, measurements that can be applied by the individual to his own performance and that can help guide group decisions and actions are the most acceptable and useful both to the individual and to the library; 33 4) personnel who are growing in the direction of specialized professional competency are as useful to the library as those who will become high level managers; consequently the rewards and punishments (both formal and informal) should be so designed that they will encourage both kinds of growth. 34

A key factor in personnel development is the head librarian for his approach affects a great many other people in the organization. There are many specific ways the chief administrator’s leadership has an impact on the library’s staff development program. His leadership is important in developing, with his employees, a clear statement of policy on personnel development and continuing education—a statement which is known and understood throughout the organization and which is made realizable through supportive procedures, adequate financing and a positive working atmosphere. His leadership in developing a strategy for the selection of highly motivated employees based on the institutional objectives to be achieved is also important.

The responsibility for creating and maintaining a climate in which the full potential of all employees is recognized and used rests largely on the chief administrator. What creates this climate? Perhaps the most important factor is the application of the principle of supportive relationships—supervisors with confidence and trust in employees. “The leadership and other processes of the organization must be such as to ensure a maximum probability that in all interactions and in all relationships within the organization, each member, in the light of his background, values, desires, and expectations, will view the experience as supportive and one which builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.” 35

The chief administrator is responsible for the nature of institutional
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decision-making. Recent research and experience in organizational development indicate that leadership toward participative decision-making is important to staff development. Participation in decision-making by those to be affected by the outcomes of those decisions either as a group or individually provides for both motivation and continuous learning experiences. At each level in the library's organizational hierarchy there is an opportunity for the supervisor to use his work group to identify problems, to cast them into opportunities for improvement, and to work for solutions to those problems that confront them. In this way fulfillment of organizational objectives proceeds hand in hand with personal motivation and fulfillment of the employee as well as his growth in both personal and organizational terms. The principle of group decision-making does not take from the supervisor the responsibility for the quality of all decisions made by his work group and their implementation. Since he is accountable for the decisions and results of his work group, personnel development becomes an important concern to him.

The leadership of the chief administrator is instrumental in moving those responsible for the library's funding to provide adequate financial support for personnel development and continuing education. This implies that all resources—those within the library itself, and those without (library schools, library associations, universities)—offering opportunities for expansion of conceptual, technical and human skills needed in the library are fully used. Opportunities outside the library offer many advantages which cannot be obtained through an in-house program such as the opportunity to think, to do research, to question, to discuss job problems and situations anonymously without fear of jeopardy to one’s job. Asheim has stated that library administrators must accept responsibility for providing support and opportunities in the form of leaves, sabbaticals and released time for continuing education of their employees. For inservice programs funding should be sufficient so that no particular individual is deprived of its benefits.

The administrator's commitment to a systems approach strongly affects the quality of the library's program. The systems approach is a way of anticipating new environments, developing plans for coping with emerging expectations, and maximizing benefits from resources allocated for reaching various goals. Such an emphasis implies that the chief administrator seeks to anticipate the impact of various forces acting upon the library from the outside and that he uses his influence to prepare the staff for change. It means that he will view with a long-

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range perspective staff needs and development, and will not be totally occupied with a “crisis management” approach.

The systems oriented administrator by definition is future oriented and mission oriented. He is characterized further as a strategist who places a premium on those executive functions related to goal orientation, planning and coordination. . . . The modern day administrator is judged no longer, as was his historical counterpart, by merely how well or efficiently he operates the system at present levels or as a maintainer of the status quo. Recognizing the dynamic quality of institutions in a troubled world, a key role of the administrator is that of a change agent. He is a prime agent for innovation. 38

As a prime agent for innovation, a systems oriented administrator will lead in creating conditions within the library which will encourage and promote creativity and innovation among his staff. Such activity on his part was seen by participants in a recent survey as being an important way to encourage and motivate staff members. 39

In summary, those library administrators who provide the leadership essential for keeping libraries alive, vigorous, and capable of meeting societal needs will be aware of change, make necessary adaptations in the program, discard outmoded procedures, not be afraid of innovations (even when they might disturb the “status quo”), delegate authority in the development of programs, prevent the library from splintering through over-emphasis on some types of specialization and failure to keep the “whole” library and its objectives constantly in mind, maintain supportive relationships of confidence and trust with subordinates, provide subordinates with all information regarding both library operations and profession-wide developments that apply to their area of competence and specialization, and realize that programs and procedures do not cause staff development of themselves but that the staff grows within the total environment created by the administrator. 40

In some libraries there may be a development staff (or single person) whose primary concern is the personal growth and continuing education of employees. The chief role of such a staff would be continuous strategy planning with top management. In this capacity it would be concerned with improving the organizational environment so as to provide a climate in which personal, professional, and organizational goals could be achieved. In pursuit of this objective it would demonstrate to library management the effects of organization struc-
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ture, policies and day-to-day managerial behavior on the growth, development and motivation of employees.

A second important function for such a staff would be that of providing competent counsel and help to managers who are attempting to fulfill their responsibilities for the development of their subordinates. If a development staff is competent in this, their advice will be sought. The emphasis here should be that such a staff would seldom be engaged in developing training courses per se but rather would help the managers themselves and the employees—individually or collectively—to find and utilize whatever means of development would best meet their needs and help them in their planning and implementation.

A third but much less important function would be keeping records for purposes of planning, but, as McGregor emphasizes, records and statistics are not methods for developing talent; they are means of keeping track of the process. An example of the type of recommendation that such a staff might make follows. As the supervisor at each hierarchal level is entrusted with human assets for whose development he should be responsible, he should be asked to answer regularly and in detail questions such as these: “What are you doing to further the self-development of each person under your supervision? What are you doing to help those in your work group gain skills in group interaction and small group decision-making? Have you held target-setting conferences with each of your subordinates that will help him in establishing specific targets or objectives for a limited time period?”

Within the institution the employee’s immediate supervisor is probably the most important influence affecting his staff development and growth. The supervisor is, in large part, responsible for the job environment in the work place and should assume the responsibility for creating a climate conducive to growth. The climate created by the relationship between the individual and his supervisor on a daily basis is far more real and tangible to employees than occasional workshops or nicely printed policy statements. The day-by-day contact between a supervisor and his work group will reinforce or modify the attitudes, habits, expectations, and thus, the performance, of employees, and will overshadow what they learn in other settings. This obligation of the supervisor to develop his work group must be given recognition by top management, and the supervisor must be made truly accountable for creating a climate conducive to growth. Unless the supervisor’s rewards (promotion, salary increments, etc.) are clearly related to his performance in the area of staff development,
supervisors will characteristically give scant attention to this function. Moving from the institutional responsibility for staff development to that of the individual staff member, the focus is less complex but not less important. With the individual rests much of the initiative for seeking and utilizing the opportunities offered within the organization and those outside. The improvement of personal and professional competency requires the individual to assess his needs and to determine his goals and directions as the starting point. Concurrent with this is the need for awareness of the issues, trends and developments in the field of librarianship, plus a sensitivity for the relationship of libraries to society, both on social and technological levels.

Fulfillment of the individual responsibility for staff development requires levels of involvement, time and energy commensurate with the level of commitment and the nature of other responsibilities the individual feels. The individual is the only one who can decide to what degree and in what direction he wishes to extend himself. To make those decisions requires a self-awareness as well as a knowledge of available opportunities and a sensing of the implications such an involvement might have. The institution's role, particularly that of the immediate supervisor, enters here. Present and intended work situations—their needs and potential—must be considered by the individual and the supervisor to assure that both individual and library goals are kept in sight.

Specific routes to the individual's approach to his own continuing education would include: reading and writing, not only in professional library literature, but also in general and specialized literature; involvement in research projects; active participation in civic, social and professional groups; participation in formal course work, institutes, workshops, etc.; involvement in new and developing areas of the library; and working beyond the department boundaries in planning, task forces and study groups. Implicit in all of these suggestions is the ability of the individual to use the many opportunities for continuing education that present themselves daily. Also not to be ignored are the resources of the library collection itself—offered to patrons but often overlooked by those who work there.

Thus far in this section we have considered suggestions for action programs related to the growth and development of employees on the part of the individual and on the part of the institution, including the effects of the library's philosophy and policies on personnel development, the responsibilities of the chief administrator, the responsibili-
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ties of a development staff (if one exists), and the responsibilities of the immediate supervisor. Next we turn to specifics involved in effective program planning for personnel development within the library.

Planning for Personnel Development

The purpose of a systematic, comprehensive program must be directed toward greater organizational effectiveness through increased individual competency. The time, money, and effort its initiation and maintenance require can only be justified by this overall objective. The best program is based on a long-term plan with continuity and sequence, although short-term programs may be designed to meet immediate objectives within that long-term plan.

Before a program is developed, careful decisions must be made. Does a training need exist—is it really a training problem? If so, what kinds of training content and method are needed? What results are expected from such a program? The following review of basic principles can apply to all levels of in-house programs as well as continuing education programs developed by library agencies and professional associations.

1) To be accepted and effective, training must be based on valid present and emerging interests and needs of those for whom it is intended.

2) The objectives, responsibilities, and expectations of individuals and the organization(s) involved must be clearly defined and understood.

3) Training methods and media must be congruent with organizational structure, management approach, and available resources.

4) All available resources—financial and human, as well as physical facilities—must be used to the best advantage.

5) Planning, implementation, and evaluation must actively involve participants.

6) The program must support the long-range goals and planning of the organization (its effective functioning) as well as the individual (his continuing education). As such, it must be flexible and open-ended.

7) The program must be evaluated in terms of its objectives—to what extent is it meeting the objectives set for it? Evaluation must be planned from the beginning.

Since the ultimate test of a personnel development program will be the extent to which it brings about effective libraries providing good

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library service, results should be expected to be revealed over a long period of time, rather than immediately.

Specifically, evaluation can be in terms of the individual (competency), the unit (organizational operation) or the training program (effectiveness). Evaluation must formulate criteria in relation to the objectives of the program at the beginning, collect data relating to the criteria during the program, analyze and interpret the data during and following segments of the program, and make modifications indicated during and after the sequences.

8) The design of the program must be based on the nature of the adult as a learner. The adult is a self-directed human being. As such, he is capable of controlling the learning process, of self-diagnosis of his own needs, and of self-evaluation of progress toward his goals. He must WANT to learn. An informal social and psychological learning climate is the best medium for encouraging the desire to learn and for the learning process itself.

B. The adult has accumulated a reservoir of experience which is a unique resource for learning—for himself and for others. This enables him to gain progressive depth of meaning from each new learning experience and make the best use of a variety of learning methods and techniques.

C. An adult's readiness to learn is oriented to the development stages he is in. He will learn what he feels the need to learn. This timing and relevance are important, a sense of progress is important, and the grouping of learners must be appropriate for the kind of learning.

D. An adult tends to be problem-solving oriented to his learning experiences. The organizing principle for the design of learning experiences should be focused on problem area rather than subject, and emphasis should be on the practical application.

Each of these factors points up the validity of actively involving the participant in the personnel development program—to make full use of resources and to assure commitment of those involved.

9) A support base must be built to assure a stable foundation. The elements of this support base are: established policies, budget allotments, structures for incorporating new resources, structures for a constant inventory of training needs, structures to enable full awareness and use of continuing education opportunities within and outside the organization.
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10) The value of the program must be communicated and understood throughout the organization.

Professional development and continuing education are a nationwide challenge which ultimately call for the best thinking and planning of individuals and groups. Some relevant groups are to some degree accountable for planning, implementing, and cooperating in the area of continuing education. These guidelines conclude with some specific suggestions regarding involvement of four relevant groups—state library agencies, the U.S. Office of Education, graduate library schools, and library associations. These recommendations represent the opinions of the committee writing the guidelines and are submitted with the intent that such a listing might stimulate responsible leaders in each of these groups to move ahead in developing continuing education programs uniquely adapted to the needs and resources of their specific groups. In addition these statements might indicate some prime areas for cooperative action between these groups.

Recommendations to Relevant Groups

The major concern of each agency responsible for library development at the state level is to strengthen the quality of library service. As such, continuing education becomes a major function of the state library agency. The need for continuing education for librarians is paramount today because of the increasing needs and demands of society for improved service, the need to make fuller use of the human resources recruited to the profession, and the development and planning for information networks now made possible by new informational technology. State agencies will not fully meet their responsibility until they:

1) assign individual staff member(s) major responsibility for developing human resources in the libraries of that state, including conducting and reporting periodically on staff development and continuing education activities in the state;

2) initiate, promote and implement continuing education opportunities directly or support efforts of others doing so—opportunities and programs which reflect the needs of library personnel in the area and make use of a variety of educational methods and resources, including the use of newer educational technology which is able to make those opportunities more conveniently available to all librarians in the state, at the time, place, and pace convenient to them;
3) adopt policies and operational procedures that will enable key agency personnel to join with other agencies, associations and institutions as well as libraries in thinking through broad problems and issues and developing long-range plans in advance of crises to solve these problems;

4) provide a clearinghouse function for program ideas, leaders, and facilities which can be used in planning, implementing and evaluating continuing education opportunities, including staff development efforts. (Building the knowledge and skills of the state library staff in reference to program planning and design, educational technology, evaluation methods, and criteria is necessary to directly serve the needs.); and

5) evidence concern and commitment for the continued growth and development of their own staff, both at the state library and in the field.

Without the active support of the federal government, personnel development and continuing education programs developed at local, state, and area levels, no matter how well conceived, will have little chance for successful impact. In supporting personnel development and continuing education throughout the nation the Office of Education should:

1) provide national leadership in finding ways and means by which all librarians may have equal opportunity to continue their professional education so that they will be able to meet adequately the new demands for service that society imposes on them;

2) provide national leadership in finding ways in which local inadequacies in continuing education opportunities for librarians can be minimized or eliminated by new educational patterns and technology;

3) plan, extend and coordinate at the national level all types of continuing education programs, including seminars, workshops and institutes so that the needs of each geographical area are adequately met; emphasis in long-range planning should be based on two criteria—need and cooperation with all relevant agencies.\textsuperscript{47}

4) sponsor major research programs that would develop empirically validated curricula for persons for new and emerging roles in librarianship, employing wherever possible individualized and multi-media approaches to learning.\textsuperscript{48}

5) call working conferences to identify the skills, knowledge and insights needed in areas where new approaches to the dissemina-
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ation of knowledge demand new skills from personnel, such as the
development of networks;
6) provide leadership and long-range planning in training and re-
training personnel in the concepts of networks; and
7) provide research effort which will continually evaluate the ener-
gies and resources that the Office of Education has expended in
the realm of continuing education.

The library school, in order to contribute fully to the development
of the profession, must not limit its program to pre-service education.
The many expert resources in a library school should lend themselves
also to continuing education for the librarian. The perspective as well
as the professional expertise and responsibility of the library school are
unique. Research efforts can be used to supplement curriculum op-
portunities. The professional commitment of library schools can be
given tangible form through:

1) support for the development of post-M.L.S. level continuing edu-
cation opportunities (courses, workshops, institutes, packaged
courses, etc.) which make maximal use of the new media and
technologies (cassettes, electronic video recording, talk-back
television, closed-circuit television, etc.);
2) constant assessment of the relevance of course work to the actual
needs of practicing librarians based on continuing research to
identify those needs;
3) initiation and implementation of policies to make wide use of all
available resources for use in continuing education;
4) developing skills in faculty to enable the school to provide “con-
sultant assistance” for personnel development and continuing
education programs;
5) promoting the use of the school as a medium for free flow of
communication between faculty and field as well as within the
school itself;
6) development and promotion of new teaching methods that may
increase the effectiveness of the student’s educational experi-
ence;
7) cooperating with and contributing to other professional efforts
at state, regional, and national levels for developing and distribut-
ing professional continuing education programs;
8) realizing that the provision of new effective services (such as
provision of interlibrary communications and information net-
works) will demand new specialized skills, creativity and open
minds, and aggressive reeducation at all levels based on continual
individual learning and growth; and

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9) accepting the challenge: To implement a library without walls we need a university without walls.49

Professional library associations—local, regional and national—provide organizational frameworks which can enable interchange of ideas, cooperative planning of programs, and pooling and development of resources. These are significant functions.

Local, state, and regional associations are uniquely able to assure that programs are relevant and feasible and specifically related to the interests, needs and resources of each area. With continuity of effort assured, possibly through standing committee structures, these associations can:

1) constantly assess and inventory interests and needs;
2) be aware of and develop resources at state and regional levels;
3) develop active programs on issues of concern to librarians;
4) use and develop leadership potential in the area in order to broaden program planning expertise;
5) urge, conduct, and publish models of staff development endeavors;
6) use meetings and publications to further staff development efforts and available continuing education opportunities; and
7) cooperate closely with agencies, library systems, institutions (especially library schools) in developing avenues of continuing professional education.

National professional associations, having the advantage of greater continuity of staff and funding, can:

1) support more localized levels with expertise in program planning, provide a research base, and seek funding with strong emphasis on developing these abilities at local levels possibly through regional demonstration conferences on staff development;
2) assign staff member(s) responsibility for working with other associations and organizations (in the library field and outside) to initiate and develop programs;
3) involve all of their members, individually and collectively, in activities that will lead to a better understanding of the values of continuing education;
4) aid in identifying and utilizing leadership potential at local levels;
5) provide for dissemination and outcomes of their programs to others in the field (i.e., publish what they will do, are doing, and have done); and

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6) establish and maintain liaison with library schools, business and industry, governmental agencies with regard to their goals and objectives in continuing education.

The purpose of these guidelines is to stimulate responsible librarians to match their concern for personnel development and continuing education with meaningful action directed to that end. The committee feels that a recognition must permeate the profession of the ultimate need to develop a conceptual and practical blueprint for the provision of equal, coordinated, educational opportunities for every librarian in the country who wants to extend his education throughout his working career. The committee sees personnel development and continuing education as a profession-wide problem which calls for planning at a national level. We further believe that any plans or programs which are evolved must, to be successful, meet the individual criteria of librarians themselves, and thus must involve individual librarians in developing those plans and programs. What is needed is a wide spectrum of continuing education opportunities, including in-house development programs in individual libraries.

References


7. Stone, Elizabeth W. Training for the Improvement of Library Administration (University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, Monograph Series, no. 2). Urbana, University of Illinois Graduate School of Library Science, 1967.


17. Likert, op. cit., p. 15.


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32. Morrison, *op. cit.*, p. 27.
35. Likert, *op. cit.*, p. 47.
The Educational Third Dimension: I
Continuing Education to Meet the
Personalized Criteria of Librarians

MARY V. GÄVER

The directive for this paper, as it was planned by the issue editor, was to examine the role of the individual professional librarian in a plan for continuing education—his motivation, his criteria for such a program, and his strategies for developing a course of lifelong learning. As a partial data base to assist in the development of her own thoughts on this very challenging subject, the author turned to a small, highly selected sample of colleagues for their opinions on aspects of this problem. A series of three open-ended questions were used:

- What was your motivation for getting involved in continuing education?
- Name the forms (kinds) of continuing education which have been most effective for you. Characterize briefly.
- What strategies—objectives—for continuing education would you recommend to the young professional starting his career today?

These questions were mailed to a non-random sample of librarians whom the writer knew or had reason to believe would be likely to answer the above questions and who represented a range of ages and types of positions. The aim was to select persons who could be called “achievers,” whether at the beginning (relatively speaking) of a promising career, or midway into or nearing the close of an accomplished career. The assumption is that such persons must have carried out, whether consciously or unconsciously, some kind of continuing education program—and their opinions should therefore carry some weight.

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Tabulation of the returns along with data from standard sources such as the ALA Membership Directory and Who's Who in Library Service revealed the following information:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of questionnaires sent</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of questionnaires received</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent returned</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Professional education**

- M.L.S. (or equivalent) degree: 28
- Ph.D. or other doctoral degree: 15
- Not given: 4

**Sex**

- Men: 24
- Women: 23

**Age**

- 35 and younger: 7
- 36-50: 19
- 51-65: 14
- 66 and older: 2
- Not given: 5

**Other characteristics**

- Special library work: 2
- Federal libraries/National associations: 7
- State/Regional libraries: 6
- College/University libraries: 4
- Public libraries: 4
- School libraries: 4
- Library education: 18
- Students: 4
- Administrators: 18
- ALA officers (past or present): 4

*The data here do not add to 47, by reason of multiple assignments, e.g., administrators or educators primarily associated with a particular specialty were tallied twice.*

All returns were signed and all but one completely filled out; in this case, the respondent felt she had graduated too recently to be able to complete all answers. The group appears to be fairly representative of the profession as a whole so far as age is concerned, but certainly not as to sex. In type of library or type of work allegiance, it probably overrepresents educators and administrators and underrepresents special librarians. Although it was a personally selected, non-random
sample, the author feels justified in claiming that it does represent a group of “achievers” in the library profession, possibly even some of the “establishment.” Stone in her recent dissertation analyzed some of the same variables reported here, but no effort will be made to (directly) compare findings with her study, though reference will be made where it is appropriate. A study planned to make such comparison possible with Stone’s data, using her sample of the library school classes of 1956 and 1961 and a structured sample of achievers might, in fact, be a useful way of discovering needs in continuing education.

The respondents’ answers to this inquiry will be given in their own words, as examples of informed opinion of the group described. It is hoped that such quotations, in each person’s own sometimes colorful style, selected for pertinence and relevance, will have greater impact and significance for the reader than cold statistics.

Many of the respondents commented on the lack (which was deliberate) of a stated definition for “continuing education,” reflecting no doubt the lack of agreement among librarians on the precise meaning of this term. Stone in her recent dissertation equates the term with “professional development” and uses both terms to refer to “all activities and efforts by the individual to upgrade his knowledge, abilities, competencies and understanding in his field of work or specialization so that he can become a more effective professional.” Drucker makes a distinction between extended schooling and continuing education which characterizes each and appears to the writer to be useful in this context:

Continuing education assumes that school becomes integrated with life. Extended schooling still assumes that one can only learn before one becomes an adult. Continuing education assumes that one learns certain things best as an adult. . . . Continuing education assumes . . . that the more experience in life and work people have, the more eager they will be to learn and the more capable they will be of learning. . . . We will, in other words, rediscover experience—but order it on a knowledge basis. Experience argues strongly that the assumptions of continuing education are a good deal more valid than those of extended schooling.

Houle defines two major kinds of inservice education, the first deferred or extended pre-service education and the second, continuing education, which occurs when “fully equipped professionals maintain and develop their ability as a normal part of their life-work responsi-
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bility." These three imply the same point of view which will be used in the analysis and recommendations which follow.

What motivated this group of librarian-achievers to engage in continuing education activities? Stone analyzed a sample of library school classes of 1956 and 1961 in her study, and it may be assumed that a group selected because they are achievers would respond quite differently. The classification of motives which she used has two parts: work-study forces, incentives, and internal-individual forces were categorized as direct influences, and development opportunity group forces and situation forces were categorized as indirect influences. This classification will be used in presenting the motivations of the group sampled here.

Direct motivations which were internal-individual in source were typically reported by the respondents as follows:

To acquire and maintain for myself a functional awareness of the total current social climate and to relate this awareness (however factional and faulty) to the more effective use by all citizens of libraries, books and other media of communications so they might more effectively shape sound personal and public policies and decisions.

My basic commitment to librarianship is based on my faith in intellectual growth as a way of life. This is a large part of what libraries are all about. . . . Like many others, librarians as well as non-librarians, I feel a sense of urgency concerning the needed improvement and dramatic change in libraries and, of course, librarians.

A joy in reading, a maturing perspective, a fondness for young people, and a faith in self-determination and education as a force for social progress, all contributed to one of the wisest decisions I ever made: to continue my education. Always a champion of women's rights (my grandmother was before me), I know now that I had to find my niche and test my deepest beliefs. I was fortunate to find my metier in librarianship and teaching.

Since the age of four I have believed in the potential miracle that lies within the library's power to perform for each user.

A sense of commitment is assumed to be a reason for choice of a profession; as such it should certainly carry over into one's motivation for development in the chosen career.

Another form of direct influence is that categorized as the extrinsic
incentive—"on-the-job atmosphere," mandates from employers or employing agencies, and the like. These were stated by the respondents as follows:

Here I have been directly involved in all aspects of continuing education for labor management. I have gone into such detail to indicate that my motivation has been not so much inner-directed but rather required by the circumstances.

It seems to me that one-the-job atmosphere or climate has been, under some circumstances, the important motivation. Unless job surroundings create a climate for continuing education, only the very highest personal motivation is sufficient stimulation.

As I recall, my initial motivation was related to my library job at the time. I undertook a formal course to help me on the daily job but this soon changed to recognition of the need for further education.

In the first instance, because I was told that I had already hit the ceiling for advancement in librarianship without [more] professional training.

The primary motivation was involvement during doctoral research in information and computer technology and seeing the initial impact of this infant (at that time) on my own areas of specialized interest. A secondary motivation was working with people who had the vision to see the impact of these new technologies on traditional disciplines and who believed in the idea of continuing education enough to provide the opportunities to participate in programs.

I believe my primary motivation was an economic one. Recognizing that librarianship was relatively down the economic ladder and that there were relatively few high level positions in the library profession, it was obvious that competition for good paying jobs would be keen and that extra effort would be required to stay ahead of the competition. An important but secondary motivation was a sense of insecurity stemming from a weak formal educational background in both the humanities and library science.

In the beginning: Necessity for meeting certification requirements and conditions for promotion and increased salary. Later: Desire to do a better job and native yen to see what was going on in my profession and in the world.

In library school, there was constant recognition of the need for education beyond library school. . . . Staff associations and employ-
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ing agencies have also encouraged me by offering full or partial tuition on a merit or application basis. . . . Unfortunately, this rather spoils one who then goes to a place where it is not encouraged. Also, I grew up in a family where attendance at meetings and conventions, responsible work with groups, office-holding, etc., was customary and where we were encouraged to have similar responsibilities.

Two respondents described how they provided this atmosphere for their staff members:

In order to stay abreast of new concepts and developments in the field, I have always felt that it was imperative to read most of the professional journals and attend professional meetings as well as institutes. At the same time, I have encouraged my staff to attend conferences and institutes and to keep up with the literature in their field. I remember being told by one of my colleagues where I served as chief librarian at one college that “We never read the professional journals until you began routing them to us.” This comment led me to institute a discussion of provocative articles at staff meetings in order to help the staff engage in professional self-renewal.

As it became apparent that many in our profession have become (or are becoming) obsolete technologically, I became increasingly concerned about providing opportunities for continuing education. As an administrator, I tend to use a word much stronger than “opportunity,” something similar to “insist.” One criterion for promotion and pay raises at ——— State College was an individual’s willingness to engage in self-education activities.

A third respondent, not an administrator, in describing her choice of strategy spoke to this point from the view of a staff member:

First of all “opportunity.” The young professional must be given opportunity (time off) to participate in workshops, institutes, conferences whenever possible. Early opportunities will show him the benefits to be accrued from this type of activity and later when greater involvement with the job forces the individual to make decisions, he will not forego the continuing education for the job. . . . The second key is “support,” both financial and moral, for those desiring continuing education. Look for an employer who believes in, participates in, and supports continuing education, and realizes its values.

On this point, Stone reports findings of actual opposition among some administrators to continuing education activities on the part of staff! 5

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Still another kind of direct motivation is that represented by the availability or accessibility of opportunities for continuing education:

Just sheer opportunity. Someone in a local, regional, or divisional organization either within the profession or a university decides to make a program available. Obviously there has to be some sense of need, but availability is sometimes the principal reason for attending a program. [Also] a genuine recognition that training or information in a particular subject or function is needed to understand the direction the profession is taking or to do better work in one's own position.

Availability of ——— State College and courses that were given in the late afternoon and evening.

After four years in the Army, I was frankly stimulated by the G.I. Bill to continue my formal education. By this time I was interested in the extension of library service to include non-print materials and my objective was to secure a degree in educational communications.

Curiously enough, in this day of the availability of HEA fellowships and scholarships, this respondent was the only one to mention availability of federal financial assistance for continuing education. It should be noted here that Stone reports three major deterrents of continuing education found in her study, of which the first was lack of available time and the difficulty of fitting activities into the schedule—certainly an aspect of climate or opportunity which is the administrator's responsibility.

Job mobility is mentioned briefly by Stone; two respondents in this sample noted its possible significance as a direct motivating factor:

While this may be unorthodox and certainly outside the general definition of continuing education, I consider the changing of jobs (assuming the change to be upward in terms of the kinds and ranges of responsibilities involved) and the on-site learning of a new position to be a rather practical form of continuing education.

Since I have changed specialities several times (from public to school libraries, from traditional library to media center, and from work with the public to supervision to administration to staff work to library education), the changes in the tasks I have undertaken have required more education. . . . The fact that I have moved into and out of several large cities has also meant that affiliation with a professional group was one way of becoming acquainted with a segment of the community with which I might find much in common.
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Indirect influences were stated frequently by the group of “achievers” selected for this sample. The author’s subjective analysis of the returns indicates the likelihood that this group of achievers was more highly motivated by indirect motives, perhaps more “inner-directed,” than was the case with the sample used by Stone. One indication of this was the almost total absence of any mention of deterrents such as those reported by Stone. The “threat of personal obsolescence” category cited below should not be taken as a deterrent in this sense, since it is stated as a personal, indirect motivation. It might be significant to study two different kinds of samples for this factor using a structured sample of achievers, in comparison to Stone’s sample of two library school classes. The answers fall under 1) the threat of obsolescence or, conversely, the desire for advancement in the profession, and 2) changes desired in one’s own qualifications.

Statements which can be explicitly categorized under “threat of obsolescence” or desire for advancement were typically made as follows:

I feel that it is imperative that librarians keep abreast of the new techniques, ideas, innovation, and information that concerns the profession and the community it serves.

I was forced to just for self-preservation. Just because I had “obviously” something of leadership ability, I quickly rose to supervise 15 people (four professionals and 11 non-professionals). Running a large department forced me to read management material. And I enjoyed it also. But I felt my great lack of background in administration.

A realization of the change taking place in librarianship and a realization that there is a real limitation as to what and how much you can learn in library school, particularly if you have had no previous good library experience.

The motivations were many and various. I suppose that the two most important were, in order, personal interest in particular fields and increasing my abilities in librarianship. There is the corollary which I do not lose sight of, that continuing education increased my marketability. While I like money as well as anyone, my primary purpose, however, in increasing my marketability was primarily to increase my capacity to effect some kind of changes or to have influence on the profession.

It has always been the problems to which I have no answers, the
continual changing patterns of library service and the philosophies of service that startle one into examining one's own motives and reasons for doing things that have kept me reaching out. I can't call the process that I have followed continuing education in the formal sense, but I do feel it is typical of many public librarians who never get sabbaticals for study and have to absorb all there is in the library meetings, professional literature, inservice training courses given around them.

I was primarily motivated to become involved in continuing education because for 11 years I served as chief librarian of two predominantly black colleges and for seven years in a rather isolated setting. I felt a compelling urgency in this isolation to establish Great Books discussion groups for the people of the community, which not only helped blacks and whites to meet and intellectualize over the great philosophical questions, but it was also a mechanism for keeping my own mind open to new ideas.

As the director of school libraries in a rapidly developing program it was necessary for me to seize every opportunity to participate in informal continuing education activities—a year-around position allowed little time for formal advanced study.

Initially the motivation was simply a desire for upward mobility in the profession and continuing education, rather broadly defined as a means of achieving such mobility. However, in subsequent positions, it became clear that continuing education was vital to carry out new responsibilities, and then continuing education became a necessity for continued professional growth and for maintenance of the skills needed on the job.

My conviction that librarians, especially young adult librarians, needed fresh perspectives relative to their work. And a personal promise to improve personally and professionally.

Another group of indirect motivations falls more clearly in the category of a desire for change in knowledge, skills and understandings, and, in some cases, specified particular needs which were felt:

There are inevitably not one but many motivations to consider, including the desire to learn and to understand, as well as the desire to share, to participate, to enjoy, to compare, and to brag a little.

To update my library education in order to meet the changing and growing responsibilities in my own career; to strengthen my knowledge in those fields which increasingly touch that of the urban
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public library and which were not included in my library education: politics, urban sociology, municipal finance, regional planning concepts, etc.; to keep current on concerns which occupy the thoughts and motivate the responses of younger staff members.

My reason was to develop a deeper understanding, supported by objective research methods, of the problem of book selection and censorship in the high schools of America with the possibility of publication. Continuing educational experience in the past has served the purpose of broadening my scope of knowledge as well as to sharpen my professional consciousness about more effective and meaningful library service.

My motivation for whatever involvement I have is clear. It is simply the pressing need to keep up with advances in the library field in order to do my job properly. I include under this heading, of course, the need for a steady input of new ideas as well as factual information. In my own situation (and this is purely personal) the motivation has not been a desire for professional advancement.

My main motivation was to extend my horizons beyond the immediate positions which I have held in order to be in step with trends, developments, new ideas, and experiments that were being discussed, criticized, implemented, etc. Perhaps equally important is my general inclination to enjoy meeting people with common interests, goals, etc.

My motivation for continuing learning has been developing personal interests (and no doubt self-interest), supported by the encouragement of library school faculty and an employer.

I simply don’t know enough about numerous aspects of librarianship in general and administration in particular. [This respondent is one of 15 Ph.D. holders in the sample.] I firmly believe that in order to run a library, I need to have at least some familiarity with various activities under my supervision. Furthermore, the field is changing so rapidly that I’m hard put to keep up on the job.

This is not an easy question for me to answer. I think, however, that curiosity and desire to perform well rank high for me as motivation for continuing education.

Having just completed the doctorate, I’m still recuperating from the rigors of formal study. However, I’m fast becoming motivated to begin study in the areas of technology (needed for personal survival on the job), educational technology (some expertise is desirable for classroom presentations) and higher education (the subject interests

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me and also should prove helpful to my academic career). The strongest personal motive for my engaging in continuing education would be personal pride, i.e., the desire to stay abreast of current trends so that I can keep the respect of my students and colleagues. Of course, interest in the field, intellectual curiosity, also plays an important role.

To summarize the statements of motivation quoted above from a group of library achievers who represent the full span of ages in the profession today, their own statements of motive suggest a high degree of similarity: both direct and indirect motives have been reported, with indirect (and internal-individual direct) motives appearing to have had greater weight with this particular group than forms of direct pressure. Stone concluded that “length of time in librarianship makes a difference in kind of motivation and degree of motivation toward continuing education.” 7 Degree of aspiration and number of years between the bachelor’s and master’s degrees also seemed to be significant factors. Stone’s Professional Index Score was the single individual measurement that seemed to have the greatest overall relationship to degree and kind of motivation. Whether achievers selected, as they were for this sample, would also rate high on the Professional Index Score is another interesting question for further study.

The question of criteria for programs of continuing education for librarians was not directly asked in the inquiry used for this report; however, some indications of the criteria which this particular sample would set can be gleaned from their responses and from the literature of continuing education. Houle has perhaps studied the subject of continuing education in the professions more intensively than any other scholar today, and he has pointed out that “all professions have marked similarities of approach when they undertake continuing educational programs. . . . Yet this similarity of approach is almost entirely ignored in both theory and practice.” 8 In describing further the characteristics of a program of continuing education for a profession, he identifies two aspects: 1) a formal program set by external agencies, a collective approach, and 2) the internally set program laid out for himself by the individual member of the profession. This paper will deal only briefly with the first. The second, the strategy of the individual librarian, will be dealt with in more detail.

Houle points out in connection with the collective approach that:

If the term “continuing education” has any meaning at all, it implies
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sequential experience in which one module of learning, however independently valuable it may be, gains force and direction from the cumulative impact of its integration with other modules.

At present, the most startling and ironic characteristic of continuing education is its discontinuity in the experience of the professional himself. Sequence is seldom planned—at least in the entrepreneurial professions (such as law, medicine, or architecture) or in the organizational professions (such as teaching, engineering, or librarianship).\(^9\)

As a past officer of the American Library Association who has had the responsibility of chairing conference committees at divisional, association and state levels, the author can confirm that Houle’s assertion is certainly true of the library profession. The fragmented planning, a new committee each year, each member with different notions as to what is of concern, and with subjects broken up among “regular” conference sessions, preconference sessions, divisional publications, etc., reflect certainly an “age of discontinuity” so far as continuing education may be concerned. It seems safe to say that at present there is no long-range planning of either state or national association programs for the continuing education of membership. The content of each activity is based on whatever is, for the moment, new and demanding. The institutes held in the past few years by the new Information Science and Automation Division (ISAD) of ALA, however, seem to the writer to be the most hopeful sign of a countermovement. It is therefore recommended, as being of the strongest urgency, that each division of the American Library Association, as well as the association itself, examine its program planning with the aim of setting up a long-range plan for the continuing education of its members. The experience of ISAD indicates that it can be done. State associations should work closely with state library agencies to the same end.

The comments from the respondents to the questionnaire imply some support for this recommendation, though it is generally by implication and is stated directly in only one or two responses. The responsibility for such action was clearly assigned by Houle in his speech to the American Library Association at its 1967 midwinter meeting:

The professional association crowns all other efforts at continuing education and bears the chief collective responsibility for it. A manifest function of every professional association is the continuing edu-
cation of its membership; indeed, scarcely any other function has a longer tradition than this one.\textsuperscript{10}

The admonition to young professionals to join state associations, to join the national association, and to become involved in their activities was made almost without exception by the respondents and implies that the professional association plays an important role; but almost invariably this admonition was coupled with the comment that it was the personal contact achieved at the meetings which was the important component.

The role of the professional association in furthering continuing education is, however, only one side of this coin and, in the opinion of the achievers responding to this questionnaire, possibly not the most important part. The other side of the coin is the role of the individual librarian/professional in furthering his own continuing education through his own efforts. This comes from the general literature on continuing education as well as from the responses. A federal judge, speaking in another context, has stated: "The most fundamental premise of our constitutional scheme may be that every adult bears the freedom to nurture or neglect his own moral and intellectual growth."\textsuperscript{11} And in one of the most widely quoted books of the past decade, John Gardner stated: "The ultimate goal of the educational system is to shift to the individual the burden of pursuing his own education."\textsuperscript{12} And Houle confirms this as it applies to the professional:

For ultimately every professional must accept the responsibility for knowing and for serving, for facing the daily task of applying his specialized knowledge to the particular cases which he encounters and for guiding and shaping his own career. . . . When the young professional moves into the field, the prime responsibility for his learning passes from the professional school to him and to the association to which he belongs.\textsuperscript{13}

As one of the respondents to the questionnaire so cogently put it: "Every professional worthy of the name has to keep up with his profession or he wakes up years later and finds himself buried and forgotten in his own rut." Another respondent closed by saying: "This letter may explain why I do not believe the whole responsibility for continuing education rests with the graduate schools." But though many would share this former dean's opinion that the responsibility is shared, few have recognized as explicitly as is needed the fact that the prime
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responsibility rests in the long run with the individual librarian himself.

If this point be recognized, the question then becomes “At what point in his career should he start on continuing education?” The respondents had very decided opinions on this question:

The young professional should very early in his career plan for the systematic up-dating of his professional and technical knowledge through continuing education.

Start planning your continuing education (ideally with the help of faculty) even before you leave library school unless you really have a “fix” on one type of library work.

I would recommend to the young professional that he come to the realization at the beginning of his career that he has already entered the first stages of obsolescence. Once he understands and accepts this fact the strategies for continuing education will be determined by the individual’s perception of his role in his chosen career.

Upon graduation, begin right then to take courses which will support and extend his formal library school education... every librarian must recognize that his amount of professional satisfaction and success will be in direct ratio to his ability to relate and to respond to current forces... only through continuous education can this be achieved today.

Since I have only been out of library school for four years, I am just now getting to the point where I feel the need for some continuing education.

As for a timetable, a beginning professional should have identified at least one area of professional concern by the time he has put in five years. At this point enough experience has been gained to take advantage of greater specialization with little loss of enthusiasm.

It is interesting to see the author’s preliminary assumption confirmed; i.e., unless the professional has decided on a specialty and made a beginning of a continuing education program within five years after graduation from library school, he will, in the opinion of this group of librarian achievers, be hopelessly lost and “behind the eightball.”

In any development of a plan, the setting of goals or objectives is normally one of the first requirements. The respondents saw this activity as being both long-range and “operational” and more immediate in nature. One administrator of a large university library had some doubts about objectives, but then described her own long-range goals.
as advice to the beginning professional: "If young librarians today are at all like me, they will not have very articulate objectives for continuing education for some time, but will take the opportunities that suit their temperament and seem relevant to their hopes." Most of the respondents however felt very strongly that it was important to set objectives, for example:

It seems to me important for young persons to think seriously about their future goals. Where do they want to go? What do they want to achieve? A hit-and-miss professional advancement which just seemed to propel me along is not really a satisfactory way of operating. In my own defense, however, I will say that university teaching has always been my ultimate goal. The young person should consider his goals and what type of continuing education is important as he achieves them.

It might be useful for the beginning professional to set himself career goals and educational goals for say three years, five years, and ten years after graduation from library school. In my own case, there was an interrelationship between career advancement and educational achievement. Which came first is difficult to say. [This from a younger library school dean.]

And from a young professor, recently completing the doctoral degree:

Establish career goals early in life and then choose those continuing education programs most likely to help you achieve these goals. Keep in mind that the longer the time period since your last formal study, the greater the effort you must put into continuing your education via more informal approaches.

Operational objectives were implied by the sequential recommendations made by several of the respondents, for example:

Maintain alertness to developments in the field by:
- widespread reading of library literature;
- being active in professional library organizations;
- participating in conferences and institutes where high level interest and relevance in coverage of dynamic problem areas are maintained;
- taking advanced study for delving more deeply into changing patterns of library service and the critical issues of the times;
- keeping up with regular library journals plus several of the better state journals;
- attending as many seminars as possible in your state;
- starting such seminars yourself with other young professionals;
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attending state library meetings; and
pushing for active, substantial programming plus follow-through.

When practitioners come across technological developments that they are unfamiliar with or do not understand, they should take the initiative to fill in the blanks either by registering for an institute, attending a short course, or by encouraging others in their community to establish a course. I think the keynote is to take an active role rather than remaining passive until someone else takes the initiative.

The principles for determination of areas of study within the continuing education program are implied by the respondents rather than stated explicitly. The individual librarian must assess his own competencies, interests and needs and determine what he needs on that basis. Many of the respondents stated specific individual needs but these will no doubt change as time passes—and as interests and needs change.

Young professionals should as soon as is practicable, select a specialty or an area which interests them (information retrieval, work with the disadvantaged, etc.) and involve themselves in as many continuing education activities dealing with this chosen area as is possible.

Establish an area of specialization as early as possible so that continuing education can be directed toward specific goals. Be alert to innovative aspects of the profession and, if compatible with his own interests and capabilities, search out opportunities to prepare himself for a role requiring the new skills and knowledge. Analyze the competencies needed for the type of position he hopes to attain.

An ALA officer and director of a large urban public library system feels the need for continuing education in the following areas of study:

Management principles (e.g., program planning and budgeting system, etc.); library buildings; planning techniques; urban planning as it ties in with the library; and community and public relations.

He says further:

In terms of strategy, I have found that my master's degree in a subject field has been of enormous importance in relating to faculty from the teaching departments on campus; therefore, I would strongly urge young librarians who desire academic library careers
to acquire a second master's degree in a subject field and in some instances . . . the Ph.D. degree would be an asset.

Two young professors report the following formidable programs of continuing, post-doctoral education already accomplished and important to their current careers:

1) Formal courses in mathematics and managements at the graduate level which provided necessary tools in advancing my performance and knowledge in information science. 2) Formal short courses in computer programming, information technology, and coordinate indexing, which provided background and practical experience in developing systems which were not yet part of formal library school programs. 3) Informal programs such as attendance at conferences, participation in and attendance at workshops (i.e., Rutgers Seminars 1964-65). To a certain extent through consulting activities although one is usually hired because of subject expertise. Active participation on professional committees although this too usually involves professional expertise at first.

1) Library institutes: e.g., 1968 Federal Library Institute sponsored by Catholic University/USOE. Proved enormously helpful for teaching government publications because of personal contacts made through it as well as current information given. 2) Educational research workshop, USOE sponsored, a week long, 1969. Helped me to improve statistical skills and other basic techniques. 3) Participation in state committee meetings. Helps keep me informed of what is currently happening in the field and provides opportunity to visit libraries. 4) Attendance at professional conferences, e.g., library school curriculum conference at University of Illinois, 1970, as well as state and national association conferences.

Other recommendations are more general:

Identify both general and special areas related to your chosen field and plan some ways to get involved and to learn. Consciously plan a reading program for yourself to extend your horizons as well as to reinforce. Be selective in choosing the best ways to spend your money in relation to conferences attended, associations to become involved in, etc.

One of the most important gaps in our knowledge, no matter how much is written about it, is our ability for interaction with people—so one should keep one’s eyes peeled for that. Second is the knowledge, true knowledge, of what today’s technology is, what it costs, what it can do to achieve the objectives of the institutions we are
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serving, rather than a means for itself. Third, one must realize that one is not frozen in time, so that newer devices, techniques, and ideas are always around. One must therefore read voraciously in all fields of knowledge.

I suggest that the beginning professional attempt to identify areas of concern around which he or she can orient his or her professional aspirations. The identification of these areas necessitates increasing the level of specialization. Becoming involved in professional associations is one way of getting exposed to various areas. . . . This is the most important aspect of continuing education—identification of interests.

This last quotation leads directly to the next pertinent question—how to set priorities—and is itself one answer to the question. Only one respondent stated a basic priority, which no doubt is taken for granted, but nevertheless will bear repeating:

One of the most important things is to get as much formal education as early as you possibly can. While there are many complaints about formal education, anyone with the intellect of a moderate-sized rabbit can easily cover the prescribed requirements of a course and, at the same time, get from the professor and from course activities which he generates for himself an understanding of the area that is really tailored to his own needs. Too many people don't understand how to do this and I must confess that I learned it very late myself. I happen to think that collecting all the little labels indicates that you are qualified to practice your profession and teaches you quite a lot about librarianship. Even if it did not, the ability to carry through on this shows that you can do all of the conventional things and gives you the necessary licenses to have a reasonable amount of influence, without sounding like a malcontent who is complaining only because he can't meet the existing criteria.

Others state priorities in more general terms:

If I had it to do over again, I would rate the potential quality of supervision very high in job consideration.

Take every chance you get to work on the “edges” of your profession, where people are playing with new ideas, trying new experiments, working out new combinations of activities, procedures, and organizational patterns. Don’t let yourself get committed too firmly to any long-term “well-laid” plans.

Get in on the programming. . . . Plan a dynamic realistic program of continuing education in terms of needs and resources.
Select, if possible, employment opportunities in systems which offer inservice programs. Make some long-term decisions, e.g., whether to work toward a degree and if so, what one. Determine whether (or more probably, what kind of) continuing education may be needed for the goal one may have in mind, in terms of specific jobs, types of libraries, etc. Review one’s goals and one’s progress toward them periodically but regularly.

In considering the final question of strategies for continuing education of librarians, the writer must confess that the idea had not occurred to her before that strategies should be selected and plans made. Like the majority of the respondents to this questionnaire, her rationalization obviously was that continuing education consisted primarily of externally organized course work. This, in spite of the fact that also like most librarians worthy of the name, the writer is a constant reader and critic of professional literature. However, the work done at Harvard Graduate School of Business by Dill and his associates has been most helpful and is recommended, along with Stone and Houle, as basic source material on this topic. Selecting a strategy, choosing a learning agenda, is only the first step in continuing self-education. Putting the agenda into effect is the real nub of the question; Dill recommends three approaches which have been used in business:

The acquisitional process: “knowledge, opinions, or cues to understanding and skill development are absorbed by reading and listening. . . . It alone is not enough. Acquisitional strategies break down if there are no experts to consult or if what the experts offer is difficult to understand and use.” And by the time the expert has published, he probably knows something better.

Experimental strategies may suffice where acquisitional do not. “Managers learn by living, acting, watching, and listening for results, and reflecting on the relation between what they see happen and what they expect to happen.” Limited because “it provides diffuse ambiguous signals which are hard to interpret . . . likely to be rooted in the past.”

Exploratory learning is appropriate when the problems are unfamiliar, or when the costs of finding experts or accumulating experience are high. It is “a deliberate organized search for information and experience. It involves posing questions, testing hypotheses, and running experiments. The end objective may be to find ‘answers’ or it may be only to learn how to pose sharper questions or more believable hypotheses.”

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Stone in her recent research on professional development of librarians found that: “No matter how the librarians were classified they all were generally spending the most time and energy on the same professional development activities and they generally thought that those activities were the ones which would do most for their growth in the profession.” She further concluded that: “The librarians were less involved with activities which call for independent action. Most of their time was devoted to library association work; meetings and conventions; visiting other libraries; recruiting for the profession; and reading professional literature, particularly library journals.”

An analysis of the returns from the forty-seven respondents designated by the author as librarian-achievers confirms that this is indeed the case with almost all of this particular group, as well as the two library school classes with which Stone worked. Without categorizing the continuing education activities too closely, it would appear that the great preponderance of forms (kinds) of continuing education reported by the respondents would fall under Dill’s first two strategies: acquisitional and experiential. Only a few of the statements will be quoted here as typical:

The most important form of continuing education for me has been reading. The kinds of reading have included not only the strictly professional literature of library publications, but also a much broader span of books, journals, and documents which reflect what is going on in the whole field of higher education. The formal literature seems to me perhaps less useful than such things as the annual reports of librarians and reports of various special committees.

As someone has noted, librarians are the only professionals who are not up-to-date in their field if they are reading only in their field. Professional reading provides information and background, general reading the raison d'être for the work of librarians.

As I see it, the newcomer needs to be a sponge, soaking up as much as he can about the field in general, his personal interests within it, and about his kind of library and position within that library in particular.

Reading of the professional literature in itself was neither most effective nor most important, except that it was fundamental to satisfactory participation in other forms of continuing education.

Institutes, workshops, short seminars seem to be indigenous to librarianship; the evidence is that a majority (a minimum of thirty-seven out
of forty-seven) of the respondents have been involved, either as participants or leaders in some form of institute, another example of acquisitional strategy. There was enough questioning of this activity, however, to be worth quoting in more detail:

Pro: Participation in short-term (usually 1-5 days) meetings and conferences, I would rank second, especially the stimulation and challenge received from others who are knowledgeable in my chosen field and in other disciplines.

I have found that the institute or workshop approach seems to be the most effective, if done properly. It requires a good mix, a small group (no larger than 35 I would say), the possibility of splitting into smaller groups, a combination of lecture, media, practical and tutorial sessions, with a certain amount of socialization thrown in. And finally it requires feedback and follow-up devices when the sessions are over.

Con: Workshops and such things are often fun and you meet people there. But you can do better by going to visit people’s shops. . . . It doesn’t mean to say that I’m against workshops, but rather that they cannot serve, at least as presently constituted, the role that we are constantly setting for them of retreading old skills.

Qualified approval: I have found inservice training courses and the longer institutes to be more effective than the shorter sessions. In part this is because systems and management are complex topics and a one-day institute can do little more than whet one’s appetite. The same can be said for the one-day institute that purposes to train people in automation. It can’t be done.

Seminars, workshops and institutes where in-depth study of specific problems can be carried out have been most effective for me. Numerous comments were made of the superior value of institutes by non-library agencies on library-related topics, for example:

A program on management offered jointly by the USOE and the U.S. Department of Agriculture was very enlightening concerning modern administrative techniques—and applicable to library problems.

The most effective types of continuing education for me have been primarily those which were not related to librarianship, at least not sponsored by library agencies. Among these are: a training course in management sponsored by the State Personnel Board; a training course in Program Planning and Budgeting System (PPBS) de-
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developed by the State Bureau of the Budget; an IBM customer seminar on the use of automation in libraries.

A number also bore witness to the special effectiveness of formal course work, pursued after completion of library preparation and at a time in the individual’s career when a specific need had become pressing, for example:

I am pretty sure that I set a very high value on learning and understanding in a long-term structured, theoretically oriented program of education. For instance, the 16 quarter hours which I recently took in the public administration program seemed more fruitful than anything I had done previously because the graduate courses provided theoretical insights for the experiences of the past and the problems of the future; although I did not find time to continue the program for the degree, I benefited immeasurably from this mind-stretching.

I think that people tend to forget that formal education is one of the most effective, well organized, and worthwhile forms of [continuing] education. . . . I would put formal education among the top ways of increasing one’s personal effectiveness as well as learning.

As a further confirmation of this last point, Stone found that “if an ideal is to be achieved, it should require, among other things, more advanced study, both formal and informal in areas which did not appear to be of major concern to the librarians in this study.”

One gets the feeling, both from reviewing the literature on continuing education in librarianship and from reviewing the respondents’ answers, that the profession must be filled with people frantically, even frenetically, searching for help in upgrading their qualifications—a search which, however, it must be remembered, is not peculiar to librarianship but is today shared with all professions, from the most ancient to the newest and most recently established. And yet, in measuring the library profession against the recommendations from other fields, one is also forced to recognize that relatively little attention is being paid by librarians to the third strategy of self-education recommended by Dill: exploratory learning as a “deliberate, organized search for information and experience.” This low attention paid to exploratory learning would also appear to have a close relationship to the well documented lack of esteem for research on the part of librarians, as a learning activity in which the practitioner should engage.
In applying her research findings to the field of school librarianship, Stone reports that:

One of the significant findings in this study was the minimal interest of all librarians in research: 77.5 percent of the total population and 94 percent of the school librarians had not engaged in any research projects since receiving their MLS degree. . . . In actual practice, however, probably the best device to combat librarian obsolescence is giving the librarian responsibility for solving library problems through the use of research findings.18

Only seven respondents gave evidence in their comments of having used as a part of their own continuing education programs this exploratory approach; in several cases it is closely tied to the obligation to write or to prepare speeches, an activity which, if effectively done, certainly requires an exploratory approach. Some examples are quoted here:

I suppose my own study and research in preparation for speaking, teaching, and coordinating workshops and federal institutes would be rated as most effective.

I consciously decided to take the route of independent study and publication, both of which in any event appealed to me. My continuing education has therefore been built upon this model. Writing seems to lead to speaking, and this stimulus (with its built-in deadlines) was added to my own interests as they continued to develop.

The most effective kind of continuing education for me has been my personal engagement in research activities—for the required reading, the search strategies, and the writing of articles—for beyond a shadow of a doubt, I learned a great deal which did not culminate in the publication of a paper, but more importantly, I discovered new ideas and methods that I could bring to bear upon problems that I had to solve as librarian.

And from a past president of ALA, who has been a major contributor of new ideas and new solutions to old problems in the profession, the following terse statement came: “Intellectual curiosity, continuously applied to every feasible approach to increasing one’s knowledge and skills in all areas of librarianship at every opportunity.”

In final summation, then, this paper has attempted to portray the motivations of a group selected as “librarian-achievers.” On the basis of this admittedly superficial survey it appears possible that a group of achievers may be somewhat more indirectly motivated and perhaps
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more "inner-directed" than would be the case with a cross section of two library classes—a finding which may be worthy of further investigation. Further, in describing criteria for a continuing education program it has been pointed out that other professions have found two kinds of programs to be important: on the one hand, that of external agencies, a collective approach and, on the other hand, the internally determined program set in motion by the individual professional.

Criteria for programs of continuing education and strategies for self-learning seem to the writer to be confused both in the minds of the respondents and in the literature cited. For example, strategies for self-learning found to have been followed by achievers are reported as follows:

There are three strategies which the achiever tends to follow throughout his life: 1) Achievers like to set their own goals; 2) Achievers tend to avoid extremely difficult goals, prefer moderately difficult ones that will be challenging and at the same time possible of accomplishment (the achiever wants to win); 3) Achievers prefer tasks which give prompt feedback. For the achiever in an organization, motivation can be provided through building more achievement characteristics into jobs, such as personal responsibility, individual participation in the selection of productivity targets, moderate goals, and fast, clean-cut feedback on the results each individual is attaining.19

The criteria cited from the replies of the librarian-achievers included the selection of a specialty and the initiation of continuing education during the first five years after graduation (or earlier if possible); the setting of goals (preferably by the professional himself); the choice of positions where there were opportunities for continuing education and a degree of mobility as providing this opportunity automatically, were indicated as three of the priorities. The selection of continued, structured educational opportunities for continuing education as part of the self-education program was also considered important and a number of areas of study were designated, with indication that administration, human relations, and automation are particularly significant at this time.

The evidence seems to indicate that many librarians are participating in programs of external agencies, but that there is a very definite need for a more organized structure with the professional associations and the library schools sharing the major responsibility. Current efforts of the associations are fragmented, lacking in continuity, with no culmina-
tion but rather a tapering off, and little of sequential learning resulting in many cases. A strong recommendation has been made to the American Library Association for a more structured approach in this paper, by Rothstein five years ago,20 and as one of the suggestions derived from Stone's research.21

It will, however, do little good for the finest structure of external courses to be built up (and in many cases non-library courses and programs may be more profitable), unless the individual librarian makes it his personal responsibility to initiate and plan his own continuing education. Strategies for the individual's self-learning have been identified as being acquisitional, experiential, and exploratory. Considerable evidence has been found that librarians are making heaviest use of the acquisitional strategy, possibly somewhat less use of the experiential strategy, and even less use—as measured both by involvement and esteem for it—of the exploratory strategy. Evidence from the field of business, however, shows that the exploratory strategy is in fact the most effective method for solving the extremely difficult problems and for producing the greatest change in knowledge and attitudes.

References

2. Ibid., p. 21.
6. Ibid., pp. 37, 207.
7. Ibid., p. 168.
10. Houle, "The Role of Continuing Education . . .," op. cit., p. 266.
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16. Ibid., p. 197.
17. Ibid., p. 198.
The Educational Third Dimension: II
Programs for Continuing Library Education

JOHN F. HARVEY
AND
BETTINA LAMBERT

This paper discusses some aspects of the problems inherent in keeping librarians up-to-date and educating them after library school graduation, and suggests approaches toward solving these problems. The need for improving the contemporary program of continuing education is described and specific changes are suggested. The paper is based upon the American situation, and although public librarians are used as subjects, the generalizations should also be useful to all other librarians. Its theme might be a quotation from Jesse and Mitchell: "A rapidly changing age is forcing the professions to attach a new importance to continuing education."¹

Houle states that every profession must be concerned with the total education of its members, and continuing education is just as important as pre-service education. Each institution has the responsibility of educating its staff, particularly in keeping up with new concepts and methods and in preparing for new positions. Because the library school curriculum can only briefly cover all that the librarian needs to know, it should include nothing which can be learned better later.²

Idea Obsolescence

One of the librarian's problems is an inadequate background of goals and ideas against which new activities can be evaluated and full understanding eventually acquired. If college and library school curricula were more comprehensive and current, perhaps the begin-

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ning librarian would not be educationally handicapped. Because these curricula include too few courses, they cannot include all that a student needs to know to be a knowledgeable citizen, consumer, cultural leader, and librarian. Nor does a student have the desire or ability to learn all the material presented to him. Furthermore, in most cases it is not known what type of librarian (public, academic, school, or special) the student will become until his five-year educational period is nearly over, and sometimes not even then, thus making his educational programming difficult. In any event, the problem is further complicated by his having to learn some things by experience.

The courses in all curricula are to some extent based on a synthesis and idealization of conditions perceived by faculty members several months or years ago, when their textbooks and other basic sources were written, or else when they worked in the field. Since a course seldom teaches the most current conditions, it is difficult for the instructor to incorporate recent changes, and consequently he is behind actual practice. This is more significant for technique courses than for theoretical courses, but even principles are modified and may become historical or obsolete. Obviously, then, some ideas and techniques are being taught that have ceased to be useful. Teaching effectiveness may be further reduced by outdated or ineffectual techniques.

It is possible to conclude that at graduation the typical librarian does not completely understand the ideas, methods, techniques, trends, and problems of the library world, nor the society to which his library must contribute. He is already somewhat out-of-date, incompletely informed, and beginning his career with a handicap rarely overcome.

Today, ideas and methods dealing with acquired response patterns obsolesce rapidly. An idea becomes obsolete because of its failure or because of its replacement by a more useful one. Ideas about book selection change as well as ideas about neighborhoods. However, idea and technique obsolescence are not as important as the incorporation of change and adaptation. Attention to current activities in a given field will bring the most thoughtful solutions to its problems and an understanding of its trends. The ideas formulated about last year’s poverty program may not be as useful now as they were then, especially if the related social agencies have modified their approaches. Undoubtedly a table could be constructed which portrayed the annual obsolescence rates of fundamental theories as changing relatively little (they may not change in the extent to which they are true, but only in the extent to which they are useful, relevant, or are being taught),
while practical techniques and equipment would portray a much
greater change.

In his first position a librarian is seldom able to survey similar posi-
tions well enough to collect currently effective ideas and practices, thus
instead of becoming au courant, he merely becomes oriented to one
position. As he obtains more experience, visits other libraries, and talks
with friends, he learns more but probably never reaches a widespread
understanding of trends, developments, ideas, or techniques. His fa-
miliarity with practice covers only a small geographic area (i.e., county
or city), whereas happenings in Sweden or Iran might also be relevant.
Often state library field specialists are knowledgeable enough about
public library activities, but their understanding is confined to one
state, to libraries visited recently, and to particular areas of operation
observed.

Idea Generation

Not only is everyone somewhat out-of-date, but not enough good
new library ideas are being produced. Much of librarianship produces
good ideas laboriously, and then treats them with bureaucratic com-
plexity, complacency, and inflexibility. Better ideas are needed for
continuing education and better problem solutions must be derived
through organized or private brainstorming, or experimentation. The
primary need is for two kinds of ideas: 1) those which present new
understandings of basic situations in which the library is relating to a
new condition or agency, and 2) those demonstrating how this has
been done successfully.

We must brainstorm better or we will obsolesce sooner. Brainstorm-
ing is most needed in the newer areas of library involvement, since in
many of the older areas, two or three generations of activity have pro-
duced workable solutions. For example, a few years ago the entire
service area for the disadvantaged needed basic principles and specific
solutions. This area is currently in intermediate flux with many li-
braries participating actively. Other older relationships, such as those
to garden or social clubs, may be relatively settled or “solved” prob-
lems. However, few service relationships exist where all problems are
solved and librarians can quit worrying.

How can new and useful ideas, viewpoints, solutions and techniques
of all kinds be generated? How can idea production be organized for a
specific occupation? Ideas are produced by knowledge and imagina-
tion. Solutions to a specific problem are arrived at by combining
knowledge and imagination with need, the opportunity to study a problem carefully, reviewing previous solutions, considering the solutions suggested by informed colleagues, and then experimenting until the best answer is derived.

Useful ideas usually come from a person whose imagination is strong, whose creativity is well above average, whose knowledge of past solutions and present practice is quite extensive, whose contact with real situations is close, and whose appraisal is shrewd. Seldom can a combination of all these characteristics be assembled in librarianship. If the members of a committee possess them together it is unusual, if one person possesses them it is phenomenal. Individuals with some of these talents should be identified and put in situations favorable to idea generation. In this connection certain researchers in librarianship and a few professionals from other disciplines have been useful, but very few of them are presently attempting to solve library problems. Traditionally the graduate school has been the center for new solutions, so perhaps there is a dearth of idea-producing and research-oriented library school instructors and students. Useful brainstorming is expected to occur at such places as the Institute for Advanced Study at Princeton, but a similar center for library thinking has not been established. Asking the Council on Library Resources to subsidize Jesse Shera full-time is, however, closely related.3

Some thought is stimulated by library association conferences which schedule discussions of current activities in leading libraries, and which plan programs around provocative and broadly based questions; unfortunately these programs seldom incorporate sufficient detail for evaluation. A conference can bring together a committee of specialists who are problem oriented and can find tentative solutions by comparing experiences, but more often this is a side effect and not a direct result of conference planning. Few association committees have been equipped to experiment or have been oriented toward creativity. More small and closely matched discussion groups similar to the public library personnel directors meeting at ALA conferences should be established. They are successful because everyone attending has a similar background and similar problems, and can share solutions face to face.

Idea Dissemination

Extensive idea production does little good unless it is extensively distributed to the appropriate people. Something done well in Bangor
will not help in Tehran until it reaches the right Tehrani. The plaguing problem is that many good ideas are being used which would be useful elsewhere if they were known about. Phinney mentions the lack of written information about what is going on. Even when there is no necessity for a new idea, locating an older one is difficult. Published ideas are oversimplified and omit many facts related to their successful use. Because controls are inadequate, complete and exact policies and procedures are seldom available within the library, and there is no staff of researchers and writers to record idea prospects, implementations, successes, and failures. Leadership like that of the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore is partly due to its staff members exceptional activity in writing and speaking of their successes. The communication of their failures would also be instructive.

The time lag between idea production and arrival at a given library must also be dealt with. An idea may be used successfully in Philadelphia for several years before it arrives at Swarthmore where it is equally needed. Then it may be in garbled or incomplete form, and consequently prove less than successful. Library service would have improved sooner had the idea been transmitted earlier and in complete and accurate form.

Publications are important as an idea source, but their dissemination is usually only done in small numbers, and often omits important details. Also, publication reading is very selective, with each librarian reading only what interests him and omitting the rest. Almost the only persons reading library literature carefully are library school faculty members and students. Librarians are deluged with library literature with which they are somewhat familiar, and thus tend to “thumb read,” or not read at all. Even though the dissemination of ideas through publications is less than desirably widespread, publications are still the best carriers to large groups of leaders and remain the best way of keeping a permanent record and disseminating solutions. Ideal dissemination would require early release and full details of an idea, along with adequate research data and controls.

Not only must we replace obsolete ideas with newer and more useful ones, but we must also get them quickly into the stream of library consciousness. The librarian’s cultural lag must be combatted by spreading the word faster. The ERIC program to distribute certain library information can hardly function successfully if the information is not readily available. Getting the right idea into the right head at the right time is the problem.

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Idea Anticipation

So librarians could plan better, it would be desirable to have trends and changes so analyzed and controlled that they could be predicted five to ten years before their actual appearance. For instance, if the recent trend of intensive public library use by students had been predicted, then these libraries could have planned and budgeted for the changes necessary to absorb the additional load gracefully. Through municipal administration, social service, and sociology, much has been learned about social behavior that should have been introduced into librarianship, but continuing education for librarians seems not to be keeping up with the increasing accumulation of knowledge and understanding about society. What are good barometers of library change? How can public librarians be educated to anticipate changes in their cities and their services? There are many questions and many answers.

Usually the library exists as a small unit within a large governmental structure—local, county, state, national—and feels administrative, political, and financial trends and changes within that institutional setting. Changes should be easily anticipated from within. Demographic changes are now used to predict the library future. However, too few sets of statistics are available, usually the library has no analysis staff, and instruction is needed to interpret them. All levels of government legislation and departmental activities provide indicators of trends. Government subsidized programs are felt by the library, so it must learn how to anticipate their effects, for example, in urban redevelopment housing. Someone to watch reports of enacted legislation and alert library staffs to their implications would be useful.

Public librarians seem to be improving their contacts with school officials but still have difficulty fully anticipating school needs. Closer cooperation with state and local school and college systems will better inform the librarian of educational trends and new activities likely to affect student use and demands for library service. A full-time liaison and coordination staff should be assigned to schools and colleges. The present efforts of children’s and young adults’ librarians seem superficial. It would be more reasonable to make a significant budget and personnel commitment to conduct a continuous, comprehensive, and thorough study of those persons whose library use is motivated by school and college requirements—the public library’s largest discrete patron group. Such an educational anticipation service should be staffed by persons familiar with both institutions. This study should
lead eventually to forecasts of school and college student use patterns, followed by attempts to influence this use toward certain types of superior materials and services. Certainly, if modern corporations had a similar large and easily identifiable customer group, they would carefully study and cultivate it. That the public library has retained a submissive and apprehensive attitude toward such a large group of customers seems to indicate an unprofessional, uncreative, and outdated posture toward community service.

Because the public library is so imbedded in education, public librarians should understand educational theories and techniques and take a more active role in educating their patrons—during and after formal schooling. Trying to educate children and adults without having studied education and without close daily coordination with schools is difficult, but remains the librarian’s responsibility. The public librarian must develop his own educational theories and practices for elementary, secondary, and adult levels; they should be entwined with formal education but differ in orientation. The short inroads made in this direction can be measured by the poor staffing school services receive. An illustration of misdirection is found in certain library poverty programs where more effort is expended on attempts to locate pupils, rather than on learning how to teach them or attempting to anticipate their needs and interests.

Now that poverty program librarians have gotten outside the library, perhaps other personnel can be sent out for similar user contacts. In the business world a library department should carry out an anticipation function by contacting businessmen and chamber of commerce leaders in their offices. The businessman, whose information needs are important to the economy, has been neglected by the public library. Services to forceful and influential business leaders surely are as important as those to garden clubs. A department is needed to anticipate business trends and relate them to library planning so materials and services can be ready for these patrons.

Closer association with club groups requires at least one offer of assistance to the president each year for specific programs and committee projects. This should lead to other interviews with committee members shortly thereafter, and eventually to close working relationships with every group organizing specific club functions.

Librarians must anticipate trends in publishing and the availability of material useful to specific groups. As an important customer the librarian has influence on publishers, and closer contact and liaison
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with them could lead to the publication of more books for particular library uses, as well as better distribution of them. As an example, the poverty program suffers from a lack of juvenile reading books which hold adult interest. Librarians should attempt to anticipate subject interests by reading level and have the material published before the demand becomes acute. If this relationship is not fruitful then librarians could form their own publishing firms; the market should be large enough to support several such companies.

Government and cultural groups studying community developments can provide information about trends which involve the library. Reading their publications, hearing their speakers, and conversing with them help the librarian anticipate changes that will affect him. Careful study of local and national periodicals and theses containing social, political, and economic trends will also help the librarian, e.g., Kiplinger's Newsletter which forecasts business trends, city periodicals which concentrate on local happenings, or university theses which discuss local trends.

Perhaps a profession-wide group should monitor societal trends which will create new library problems. Prediction would be more accurate if a staff was interpreting each trend for librarians, and as a further service, turning them over to brainstormers for problem solutions. Trial solutions could then be tested by pilot programs within an experimental library. Perhaps both the monitoring and the brainstorming would be best manned primarily by social scientists. Recently many significant contributions to library science have been made by those outside the field.

Currency

Librarians who are themselves attempting to educate, need an effective adult education program to keep them up-to-date in librarianship and tangential subject areas. Adult education techniques must be used because return to the campus has been resisted, even for refresher courses, let alone for advanced degree curricula. Whether the same techniques can be used for all librarians is difficult to determine since they serve different audiences with different materials and staff members; many principles and techniques are, however, similar. Whether the continuing education program should concentrate on the post-master's degree period only, or can also improve learning at the college and library school level, must be subject to experimentation.
Recommendations should be made for all educational levels. Whether or not the ERIC program can substantively satisfy these information needs of librarians is yet to be seen.

Thousands of worldwide information sources should be coordinated by a data bank and separated into three categories—administrative, professional assistant, and clerical—so pertinent information can be distributed to the specified category soon after its discovery. Five major subject divisions should cover all of librarianship: administration, technical processes, materials, adult services and children’s services. Further, information dissemination should be separated by the four major types of libraries, although there will of course be overlapping. A constant stream of ideas and problem solutions from libraries and other sources that range from major policy decisions to clerical assistant techniques should be aimed for.

There should be good system coordination from theses, workshops, conferences, and extension courses to periodical publications. Such a system must give more data about more new solutions so more knowledgeable actions can be taken sooner by all parts of the profession. The problem is to find freshly proven ideas, present them usefully and objectively, then broadcast them throughout the profession. Because a librarian cannot take a hit-and-miss approach toward solutions, he must have fully considered the alternatives beforehand. Immediate, full and accurate information must be presented for each position. There must also be a provision for users to offer suggestions for data bank system improvement.

The ability to browse for specific topics should be available in the data bank. For instance, if a children’s department head wishes to solve the fifth grade simple vocabulary book problem, he should be able to learn what solutions are used in other cities. He should have a wide and thoroughly descriptive selection from which to chose a specific adaptable solution. Now, when seeking solutions, librarians are dependent upon periodicals, friends, and their own experience.

The librarian should not have a haphazard approach (have nine specific problems, ask three vague questions, and hope the fallout will contain all the needed information), but rather should expect the data bank to give the fullest possible answers to the right questions. The bank’s information should be arranged by specific subjects so the user should gain most by giving careful study and concentration to one problem at a time.
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Enlivening Types of Work

Continuing education and information vitalizes all employees—janitors to trustees. As janitors handle more numerous and complex machines, maintenance instructions and demonstrations become increasingly important to them. Trustee education is the most important and difficult of all since trustees must be aware of major developments and be knowledgeable about administration. Their concern for role and mission and for the library’s integration into city government and community should be as great as the chief librarian’s. Yet trustee publications are almost nonexistent, and only a few states offer workshops for them.

Since administrators are believed by some to be a weak part of the library’s organization, their continuing education is very important. Because they have primary responsibility for change, many periodicals are addressed to them, and it is likely that their experience with people and ideas causes them to read more conscientiously than other librarians. Trustees, department heads and city officials eagerly instruct them. They do not do research, but probably their association conferences are informative and helpful, and sometimes they attend special workshops. Although few of them study beyond the master’s degree, the increasing complexities of the administrator’s position are forcing more formal, specialized study.

The administrator, whose information needs are universal, needs an assistant to alert him to the material useful in examining his library problems. First, he must tend to his own job of personnel, finance, relations with superiors and outside groups, organization, planning, and supervision. Then, for possible adapted solutions, he needs information from other sources—public administration, education, business, hospital administration, social service, etc. Also, he needs to learn the trends within his community: shifts in power alignments, emergence of new ideas, operations of new political and economic groups, residential pattern changes, employment shifts, and entertainment changes.

The technical processing staff would be helped by closer contact with the Library of Congress. They should also publish their potentially useful classification system adaptations, local cataloging and filing rules, and acquisitions and catalog department policy and procedure manuals. Acquisitions needs better bibliographic services and more prepublication information, including more comparative data on publisher and jobber prices and services.

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Adult service librarians should know more about adult interests and needs and what materials will best serve them. Hawes said that there was not enough research literature to ascertain what reading does to people, or even if most people prefer group to individual education. Monroe made a distinction between training and education and said there had been much training to improve skills but little education to improve understanding for library adult work. She commented also that since the American Heritage and Library Community Projects produced principles, it was time to think about education for adult work. The beginning could come in the library school, supplemented by field work, internship, work-study programs, and subject preparation. Formal advanced education could include on-the-job training, staff workshops, conferences, courses, exchange and study-grant programs, consultant advice with some experimentation, self-surveys, professional reading, travel, and observation. She concluded that we must educate students to carry on present services and at the same time be innovators. She agreed with Phinney that research must become commonplace, with libraries and library schools working closely together. Stone said that for adult workers there has been too much to teach and too few qualified to do so. Committee assignments under skilled leadership and participation in the workshops of other community agencies are needed.

Children’s librarians should partake of recent insights into child psychology and education and relate them to reading interest patterns. The children themselves must be listened to as well as teachers, curriculum planners, and recreation leaders, who can also help in predicting reactions and planning library-related programs. Instilling lifetime reading habits should be a primary goal.

Prepublication of critical librarian-oriented evaluations are needed for children’s books. They should be available despite the difficulties of reviewing for different kinds of readers and getting advance information printed. At present, summer workshops and extension courses help school and children’s librarians learn about new books.

Only in certain colleges and universities do librarians and faculty have equal opportunities for continuing education. Jesse and Mitchell found: “As professionals, librarians should have the opportunity for further study and research, just as they should have faculty rank. Opportunities should be provided when they can be without the interruption of good library service.” Although very often there is no policy for course work or research, most academic libraries allow
Their staffs to interrupt work in order to take courses at that institution. In two-thirds of the universities and half of the colleges, librarians were eligible for study or research leaves, but only a few college libraries and one-third of the university libraries gave released time for research.

How Research Should Proceed

Joeckel and Winslow said:

Research is an indispensible foundation for library planning and for the development of library services. It identifies needs and discovers methods of meeting them. It evaluates the results achieved by library programs. Library objectives, the framework of organization, techniques, service procedures—in determining all of these, research is useful and essential. [Vastly more emphasis should be placed on research simply to make a minimum adjustment to the world libraries serve. Even though we cannot afford basic essentials, research is often worthwhile.]

Emphasis is naturally placed on applied research which may be directly useful in the solution of library problems, but the importance of basic research which may have little immediate practical application is fully recognized. 14

Gilbert Prentiss made three points about government involvement in research:

1) The government should direct most of its support for libraries into research; 2) Research is needed on all kinds of library service since it plays similar roles in all kinds of libraries; 3) If we assume that libraries are similar, one total picture should define needs and functions in terms of government levels. This should be done only once, and should have government continuity in support level. 15

A recent Wilson Library Bulletin view of library research calls it the greatest problem facing the profession. 16 Ennis 17 points out that it is noncumulative, fragmentary, generally weak, and relentlessly oriented to immediate practice. He cites Joanne Stewart's thesis, "An Evaluation of Empirical Studies Dealing with Students in Public Libraries in the United States," which portrays the inability of public librarians to do their own research successfully. She found their studies to be poor, with samples inadequately drawn or too small, and their primitive methodology yielding few useful conclusions. Bundy claimed
JOHN F. HARVEY AND BETTINA LAMBERT

the public library had organized a shockingly small amount of research into fundamental problems.18

As a continuing education method, research has not been widely used. Yet, for obtaining a valid picture of library conditions, it is excellent. A few libraries have employed competent commercial research organizations or individuals for particular projects, but many of these projects seem less useful to the profession than formal thesis research, since there is no way of judging if they were done properly. Formerly, library school master’s theses contributed more information than they do now.

Before seeking solutions to existing and future problems, the state of each area within librarianship must be researched and evaluated. Then the questions needing research can be laid out, priorities established, and projects assigned. The next step is for the profession to define its goals. Evidence suggests that the public library does not have a clearly defined set of goals. It is attempting to do several things in which it is succeeding poorly, and is not attempting several things it might be expected to do. Its leaders appear to have underestimated the magnitude of their task and overestimated future budgetary support.19

A philosophy is needed to rationalize library existence, explain purposes and goals, immediate and ultimate, and place them in their proper perspective. This discussion should spell out relationships to both formal and informal education programs, the political system, recreation programs, organized research, the business world, formal organization life, and to persons at all economic levels. Philosophical research is needed—writing, reading, thinking, and discussing. A larger number of patrons served surely is not the ultimate goal. In fact, it may be more sensible to seek a citizenry increasingly competent to solve its own problems, and not to use the library directly. The reluctance of patrons to ask librarians for help suggests their self-service preference, and it is doubtful that they will change.

Because very little library school research is being done, a way must be found of studying the field.20 Ennis has several suggestions about current activity: establish library positions for researchers and systems analysts, organize long intensive INTREX-type seminars to study library problems, and recruit research-oriented staff from other fields. He lists the most important research as measuring library performance, analyzing print users, and studying the organization of knowledge.21 For processing centers Peter Hiatt suggested that “the
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area delineated by technical services lends itself to measurable research more easily than do public services.” We should do research on methods of handling non-book materials and political and social research relating processing centers to state government trends.

Several other authors had useful suggestions. Goldstein recommended forming a research arm of the profession at all governmental levels and believed many basic ideas could best be established by testing. He also noted that most public libraries were too poorly financed and staffed to provide more than minimum service. Hiatt urged librarians to create social change and seek greater understanding of society. Doms urged clarification of the public library’s role vs. that of the school library. Anderson was eager to know user and non-user motivations and the city’s changing character.

Conant suggested establishing research teams to review on a continuing basis the local library service market; routine data collection mechanisms should be developed and consumer and management studies are also desirable. The number of possible points of entry for new influences should be increased. Also, provision should be made for the mid-career administrator to take a year off to study business administration or urban planning.

A detailed description of the staff manual policies and procedures used in each department in every library and their success under described conditions is needed. Evaluations of successes are also needed against objective criteria, some of which must be adapted from other fields; Wasserman pointed out the technique for measuring performance success quantitatively. In many library areas success is still indistinguishable from failure: “In sum, the public library remains a basically purposeless agency with relatively weak resources, diversified commitments, and fundamental biases which severely circumscribe its effectiveness.” Time has marched on but the public library has stood still; it may atrophy further.

The Educational Media—Library Literature

Library literature should be creative and scholarly and attempt to prove or disprove ideas, to define goals and roles, report research, and detail techniques and procedures. When the research to identify goals and successful programs is done, and the refocused library has begun to work intensively in its primary emphases, probably the most efficient medium of education providing a permanent record will be library publications. To some extent library periodicals are already
disseminating useful material, but little of it is detailed and thorough. Currently a major periodical trend is toward increased proliferation without any improvement in quality or coordination. There is much overlapping and competition, yet some areas are still underrepresented while others are briefly and superficially treated. Probably the library periodicals most successful in carrying out a useful role are Journal of Chemical Documentation and American Documentation, both quite specialized, but both objective with respectable scholarship, providing considerable detail and no news. Perhaps a journal like Public Library Abstracts came close to the ideal also, though it was short on details. Some library literature appears in book, report, or pamphlet form, often an improvement over the periodical form in providing more detail.

More reading and thinking about library literature and closer interrelations between publications is needed. Perhaps each library should hold a weekly group discussion of new idea applicability. Study and discussion groups should provide better brainstorming.

A librarian would read more if the material were interesting, directly relevant and useful to his own position, and in sufficient detail that he could see exactly how the idea was carried out and in what context. Also, each librarian needs a bulletin copy for his own desk, not just a reading room copy. Since distributing periodical and monographic material to all librarians would be expensive, perhaps it should be done by government subsidy for publishing costs, or block subscriptions where one library payment per year brings several copies.

Conferences and Workshops

Educationally, the association conference is contributory by its formal program papers and informal discussions. Usually the formal programming is aimed at the less specialized levels, some national associations excepted. Local associations need improved programming guided by their state and national units, since their programs seldom provide more information than a suggestive summary of different developments. Programming should aim at the high level specialists, not the general audience. Except for the recent series sponsored by the ALA Library Research Round Table, programming for library researchers is nonexistent.

Most special workshops, seminars, or institutes are well above association conferences in educational quality. Workshops are usually
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led by “experts,” whereas too often conference speakers have had less experience than some of their listeners. Unless association speakers have developed original viewpoints or have had unusual experiences, learning from well recognized experts is more rewarding. Association programs often include limited case studies, whereas workshops often provide a more comprehensive and cohesive picture, cover backgrounds and develop several topic phases. Frequently, the pre- and post-ALA conferences are more useful than the conference itself.

Special workshops on a single problem which last several days allow greater subject expansion and greater learning opportunity. They are the shortcut to knowledge, if well organized, topic-focused, and combine theory with experience. Usually the workshop succeeds in imparting more knowledge in depth than does the conference, which is often too brief, fragmentary, and distracting.

The libraries which send staff to workshops, and thus gain by them, should also subsidize them. The USOE workshop subject breakdown shows need for more goal study, technical processing, leadership education, and supervision, as well as attention to the subjects in library school curricula. There is also the problem of applying the new knowledge to the job.

The visible trend is toward polishing—more workshops and conferences instead of further schooling. In order that the entire staff can share the information gained at conferences and workshops, reporting should not be neglected. Libraries should sponsor local conferences during which their activities are reported, analyzed, discussed, and evaluated, and community leaders and staff members from other libraries should participate in them.

For administrators, leadership workshops are useful when they consist of a concentrated session of two or more full days where: 1) visiting speakers analyze shifts in community life, 2) several committees focus sharply and extensively on specific library problems, or 3) a combination of the two occurs. They allow administrators to pause, study, reappraise programs, and gain fuller understanding of community trends. Administrators should also join the leadership workshops of other groups and learn how to coordinate with them.

Because practicing librarians so seldom demand formal graduate courses, few are offered even though several library schools now offer useful advanced electives. Workshop education is one of their ways of expanding course offerings to serve alumni and the profession at large.
Extension Courses

Extension courses are too rare and remain another untapped source of continuing education. For a long time they have been a part of pre-professional and beginning professional education, but do not help the professional. Those run by state libraries can be useful to trustees.

Boaz pointed out that in 1965 about 40 percent of the accredited library schools offered extension courses in thirty-five places, with Indiana, Syracuse, Illinois, and the University of Southern California having well known programs. There seems to be no trend toward expansion here and Monypenny found few formal extension courses in state libraries. Communication between libraries and library schools is defective regarding extension courses, many of which should be subsidized by the state or local library system.

Doctoral Programs

More first-class student minds must be attracted before the library’s value as an education medium can be realized. Doctoral students can study a field sufficiently to become completely current in one or more aspects of it. Study is the best way of understanding theoretical matters, while certain practical aspects can be examined in the thesis. Library science doctoral programs provide at least three kinds of continuing education for leadership: 1) preparation qualifying the graduate to carry on research, 2) preparation for teaching, and 3) preparation for administration.

So far, doctoral programs have produced leaders in library education and university librarianship only. Doctoral students in public librarianship, for instance, are so rare as hardly to exist at all. A large increase in enrollment would help to meet the research problem and suitable staff members should be sent, with full salary, to do doctoral study and research.

Inservice Education Programs

Public administration literature suggests that in large library systems continuing education programs should be directed by an inservice training officer. Commonly, libraries provide continuing education through staff association meetings, staff workshops, newsletters, manuals, daily supervision, orientation sessions, and other devices. In administrative meetings chief librarians transmit knowledge and advice to their department heads along with situation evaluations. Through
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hourly contact, professional assistants learn from their supervisors in much the same way.

Recommended executive development ideas have been listed by Stebbins, and Wheeler and Goldhor described on-the-job training and supervision. City-wide orientation sessions, workshops, and even formal course work for municipal employees are being used in certain cities like Detroit. Serving as an understudy, having a guide appointed to help achieve the next position level, job rotation, and role-playing are useful in learning decision-making. Millen listed several continuing medical education devices—internships, residencies, and company-supported courses; Bryan described induction training, education to maintain efficiency, education for new responsibilities, and education for adopting new processes. Stone presented a long-range administrator's development plan.

Toronto provides one example of a well developed orientation and inservice education program led by department heads and administrators. It provides orientation for new staff members and gives all other staff: 1) knowledge of the library, its collection and services, 2) continuation of the previous ability level in a specialty (i.e., work in a segment of the community), 3) better management or operational skills, and 4) explanations and tours of the library. Courses are given in storytelling and epic literature. Meetings featuring special speakers, informal reports, and book discussions are held frequently. A six-week course on professional responsibilities is offered to assist subprofessionals toward promotion. Staff members visit new departments or take formal courses. They consider a staff member's full familiarization with librarianship to cover a five-year period.

In North York, Ontario, the goal of inservice management training is to educate and utilize staff to the utmost level of their abilities. Weekly ninety-minute sessions are held for three months with separate series for professional and nonprofessional supervisors. Each session is started with a film and continued with a discussion of problems and theories. Sample topics are: overcoming resistance to change, leadership styles, supervisor-subordinate relationships, judging people, creative thinking, work attitudes, engineering agreement, delegating responsibility, developing management material, and coordination. In other libraries such sessions may last for several working days and include talks on the library's history, objectives, service areas, book selection, human relations, financial policies, organization chart, branch system, the role of major administrators, policies of the coordinators of

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children's and adult services, a tea where staff members can meet neophytes, and a tour of the central library and branches. New specialists such as children's or history librarians are given further orientation by the department head.

Formal all-day orientation programs are most often found in large systems and might include half of the nation's new professionals. State and national association conferences attract only a handful of librarians from each staff, and extension and other course work, a negligible few. Library periodicals, local conferences, departmental and type-of-work staff meetings therefore may be the only continuing education programs involving a majority of librarians.

Librarianship has not felt the need for updating its practitioners as extensively as has the field of engineering. Stebbins said that libraries lagged in carrying out staff training programs. However, almost no library has professionals with backgrounds in information science, audiovisual materials, and recent findings in related fields. Obviously the professional librarian has little interest in most forms of continuing education and receives satisfactory pay raises and promotions without them.

Coordination and Professionalism

The trend toward increased federal and state government involvement in continuing education should be encouraged, but until appropriations are stabilized this support is undependable. State libraries have sponsored more public library research and had more influence on library association programming than have the library schools. Through the state libraries, the U.S. Office of Education's Library Services Branch has coordinated a national program of continuing education. Either USOE or ALA would be the logical group to carry on coordination and system planning of continuing education, although metropolitan area library organizations may also play an important role. Rothstein believes ALA should take this responsibility, and that special courses and certification should be developed.

If USOE has developed overall continuing education goals and principles for librarians, they are not readily available. Before setting any overall goal or principles the problem must be resolved of an occupation group which is not improving educationally within an increasingly complex society. There is no modern and effective, coordinated and continuing education program in a field where awareness is necessary and educational levels are already low (many public
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Library branches operate without professionals). To emphasize the situation's seriousness, there is evidence that librarianship is more nearly becoming a trade or clerical occupation than a profession, e.g., increasing dependence on outside consultants and trade unions for creative thinking, major decisions, and continued personnel status; the prosperity of undergraduate library science programs; inability to conduct research; persons with no library education continuing to enter the field; and recent papers showing its paucity of professional qualities.

Bundy and Wasserman have recently discussed library professionalism and indicated their fear of a custodial future. Unfortunately, librarianship is not yet client-oriented but remains medium-oriented, doctoral work is merely an academic exercise, and faculty members do little useful research.42

Planning Continuing Education

The role of each participating continuing education program should be clearly described, allowing leeway for variations by locality and support, immediate and ultimate. Educational needs by levels and types of personnel should be identified, and there should be careful alignment of each staff member's goals with his present position and his continuing education program. Berelson points out the conflict over deciding who is the more skillful practitioner, the one with a broader and more basic education or the one with a narrow and specialized education.43 A coordinating agency must establish the most efficient system for educating personnel initially and continuously. Statewide plans and provision for emergency learning are needed.44 By 1975 good progress should have been made on a program, and by 1980 it should be completed and operating smoothly. Administrators should be the first to benefit since they are the decision-makers, but a pilot program for clerical assistants may be more practical. As an example, a children's assistant may need five years of full-time formal higher education, plus continuing education, to fill in gaps and keep her up-to-date as her position and field change. Exactly how much continuing education must come through floor experience, workshops, lectures, reading, discussion, course work, or other activities, is not certain. However, a minimum of one departmental meeting per month, one national seminar or workshop per year, one association conference per year, one formal credit graduate course in this or another field per year, daily advice from the supervisor and weekly
periodical reading is suggested. The weaker the educational background, the stronger the need for supervisory education; a person weak in a specific subject will need to reinforce his knowledge of materials in that subject.

**Fifteen Ideas for Dissemination**

1. A public library staff member should be assigned full time to help students and faculty members of nearby colleges use the public library more successfully. Individual conferences should be held with many students and faculty library users. After the project has proven successful, the college should subsidize it.

2. Selective dissemination of information (SDI), an alerting service, should be particularly useful to patron groups having discrete and serious subject interests, such as colloid chemistry or art education, and want the newest material. Such a service would combat the idea that the public library offers no reference service for the serious and qualified student.

3. To demonstrate their function as scholarly institutions, public libraries with special collections should subsidize research and publication about the collection.

4. Though a significant percentage of library patrons fails to find the material desired, they have seldom been studied carefully. Further, there are few studies of patron needs apart from their requests. A list would be useful of all the material required to satisfy patron needs at a branch library for one month.

5. In many towns, the residents who do not speak, read, or write English are no one's responsibility. Perhaps the public library should teach them English.

6. A list should be made of all desirable community services, then of those locally handled poorly or not at all. The public library could select one new service to budget, staff, and promote each year.

7. A special library service could be established on a break-even fee basis. For instance, scanning service for physicians could be offered by photocopying the tables of contents of 100 leading medical journals, binding, and sending them to subscribing physicians.

8. A library could operate a fully stocked bookstore to give patrons a choice of buying or borrowing material, and then study the results.

9. A literature search goes quicker with a dictation machine than by hand. Dictating machine and secretarial service should be provided at cost for research patrons.
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10. The library faced with a continual shortage on any subject could hire a writer to produce its own books.

11. A comparative study of two businessmen of the same position level in the same firm should be made, one a heavy library user, the other a non-library user. How does the second get along without the library? Does the first increase his effectiveness by its use?

12. Match closely two elementary school groups, one of which uses its own school library and the other using the public library, to see which group gets better grades. What are the implications for service improvement?

13. Studies are needed by subject field to match library materials, user interests, user needs, and use. How are they mismatched? What are the consequences and remedies?

14. A large number of studies of leading non-users is needed. How can so many leading citizens be non-users? How can so many poor people be non-users?

15. Intensive user studies should ask in detail who the patron is, what the material is, where he will use it, how, and for what. Only general characteristics have been described; no one has yet discovered an essential difference between users and non-users who appear alike in all other ways.

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The Educational Third Dimension: III
Toward the Development of a National Program of Continuing Education for Library Personnel

PETER HIATT

Cyril Houle identifies five areas influencing continuing education: the individual, the informal group, the employing institution, the university, and the professional association. This chapter deals with the last area. The author argues that it is necessary to coordinate, plan, stimulate, develop and evaluate continuing education for library personnel, and that the responsibility for doing so should rest with the professional associations at the national level. Even so, the origination, consumption and ultimate responsibility for one's continuing education rests with the individual; any system of continuing education for library personnel must recognize this truth.

This chapter briefly reviews the need for continuing education of all personnel working in libraries, discusses the elements which presently contribute to our "system" of continuing education for library personnel, and concludes with the reasons for the author's belief that a national program of continuing education is necessary. A suggestion is made for the location of a national office for library continuing education, and a description is given of a model for a national program.

Need

This issue of Library Trends is entitled "Personnel Development and Continuing Education in Libraries." Most efforts to bring new skills, knowledge and attitudes to our field have been directed at the professional aspects of our work. In workshops designed for the non-
professional, the typical effort has been to instill professional attitudes, or to make it possible for these workers to carry out duties usually considered professional. Thus, the title of this issue of Library Trends calls attention to the need for broadening the scope of the audience for continuing education to include all levels of library personnel: janitor, clerk, technician, librarian, administrator, subject specialists, and other professionals. A search of the literature from 1876 to the present reveals almost no evidence of librarians’ concern with the additional training that the clerical staff needs to perform effectively in library situations. Somewhat more attention has been given to pre-professionals (today’s library technicians).

Yet, the entire library staff needs continuing education if the institution is to react positively to technological and social changes. Physicians are concerned not only with their own continuing education, but also with that of nurses and technical assistants. They recognize that innovations they wish to introduce into medical practice must be understood by the full range of medical personnel, not just the physician. The library profession can ill afford to assume a different view. Further, with the growth of library technician programs, the education of professionals will be modified as technicians take over tasks once performed by librarians. These changes must be reflected in continuing education for present library staff.

The need for continuing education in a profession, indeed in most occupations these days, is well known. The literature of our field, as well as that of similar service professions, has dealt well and thoroughly with the need for continual re-tooling to keep up with the changes in technology. Librarianship should be particularly sensitive to social change as well. The most recent figures available indicate that the median age of librarians (academic, 44.9; school, 50.2; public, 50.4) emphasizes the need for updating. The years between last formal education and present practice (academic, 9.4; school, 19.6; public, 22.7) further dramatize the need for librarians to be concerned with their continuing education. Statistics could not be found for special librarians. How realistic is it for us to expect necessary changes in our profession to come from the newer professionals, if they must expend energy battling an Establishment working from a philosophy and utilizing skills learned, on the average, two decades ago?

Continuing education for librarians is one of the most important problems facing library education today. The damage an out-of-date librarian can do may not be as visible as the results of a physician’s
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application of outdated techniques, but the neglect of a client's information needs may have greater social consequences.

Another need for continuing education of library personnel is too often overlooked. Much of the literature, indeed this article, stresses the need to update practice, i.e., to bring the most recent knowledge of the field to those no longer involved in formal education. This might best be described as passing on the knowledge of the Establishment. But experts from within and outside the field have been telling us that the library of the 1980s must be a very different institution if it is to meet the needs of society. Passing on the wisdom, experience and knowledge of the past is necessary, but this knowledge may not bring the change in libraries and librarianship necessary to serve the society of the 1980s. The other task for continuing education, then, is to help librarians prepare themselves and their institutions for change.

For a profession committed to the education of others, it would be ironic if we were the last to get the message. Unfortunately, there is some evidence that we have not yet formalized the lifelong pattern of learning necessary for the health and growth of our own profession.

In July 1970 the American Library Association adopted a new policy on library manpower and education. This policy conveys the profession's sense of urgency and commitment to continuing education:

Continuing Education is essential for all library personnel, professional and supportive, whether they remain within a position category or are preparing to move into a higher one. Continuing education opportunities include both formal and informal learning situations, and need not be limited to library subjects or the offerings of library schools.

Library administrators must accept responsibility for providing support and opportunities (in the form of leaves, sabbaticals, and release time) for the continuing education of their staffs.  

This brief discussion merely summarizes the very real need for continuing education of library personnel. A look at the present situation is necessary to demonstrate that a program of continuing education does not exist, and that such a program is necessary in order to effectively meet the needs identified.

Present Continuing Education Activities

Other authors in this issue have dealt with various components of a continuing education system for library personnel: staff development,
interprofessional cooperation, and individual continuing education. In 1965 the federal government began funding institutes for library personnel under Title II B of the Higher Education Act. Federal funding of institutes for library personnel is probably the most important and significant breakthrough for continuing education of library personnel in recent decades. And, of course, formal education programs after the first professional degree, such as a sixth-year degree, degrees in other disciplines, and doctoral work in librarianship or other disciplines can be considered continuing education.

It should be noted, also, that library personnel have available to them a wealth of "non-library" continuing education activities. Lectures, individual courses, conferences, regional meetings, mass media, and their own library collections can contribute to their continuing education if related to a specific learning goal, and not simply absorbed at random. Such a systematic approach can be self-managed by an individual or can be constructed on a massive scale by an agency or institution. In either case, the library profession has not yet attempted to coordinate the many elements of continuing education into a coherent pattern. Title II B institutes illustrate this lack.

The lack of coordination of these institutes results in a scatter-shot approach. It is not yet possible for a person to build from one institute to the next. It is still impossible for an individual to plan a program of institute attendance, for example over a five-year period, to increase his effectiveness in his specialty. Equally important, it is also not yet possible for a successful institute to be repeated and receive federal support.

In summary, we see many elements of a continuing education program for library personnel which have not yet been put together into an organized pattern.

Need for a National Program for Continuing Education

To improve continuing education opportunities for library personnel, four objectives must be fulfilled: planning, experimentation, funding, and, finally, the institutionalization of continuing education.

Planning must involve a survey of present continuing education opportunities available and appropriate to people working in libraries, including both "library" and "non-library" activities. Such a survey would reveal gaps in continuing education activities and would identify existing resources, human and material, which could be used in creating a coherent, planned program of continuing education.
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Concurrent with a survey of available continuing education activities, potential resources and gaps in present programming, a reexamination of the continuing education needs of library personnel must be made. Some typically identified continuing education needs of library personnel include the following: administration and management; the role of libraries in a changing society; and changing patterns of library service, e.g., reaching the unreached. However, some library educators and practitioners are skeptical that these needs typically expressed by library personnel accurately reflect their real needs and especially those needs of the profession as it seeks to change to meet the emerging social problems of the decades ahead. As noted earlier, the passing on of the wisdom of the Establishment should be only one objective of continuing education. Planning of this scope must be done at the national level and should involve setting long-range goals.

This writer has been particularly critical of the many institutes which have failed to take advantage of the flexibility and innovation which such an educational format allows. All too often institutes are nothing more than a classroom transferred to another locale and labeled “institute”; their content, methodology and format seldom reflect the specific needs of the participants or consider the learning process of the mature, experienced adult. The techniques described in the chapter in this issue by Allen and Conroy are too seldom applied to library continuing education. Other innovations, technical as well as methodological, need to be tried. Experimentation is needed. Far more mistakes must be made in our effort to find ways to effectively and efficiently meet the lifelong learning needs of our profession. Such experimentation is most likely to occur when a broad, regional view is taken, and this seems even more probable on the national level.

With methodological and technical experimentation must come evaluation. Which educational methods are most effective with which groups and under what conditions? Is a particular piece of equipment more efficient and effective in conveying content to certain groups than others? When is telecommunication useful, and when not? Is sensitivity training an effective technique for some, and not for others? Would multi-media, self-learning packets meet some continuing education needs? Is the invisible college a necessary component to continuing education? Evaluation of such materials and techniques requires the resources, know-how, and objectivity more often available on a multi-state or national level.

The first two objectives, planning and experimentation, cannot be
achieved without solid, long-term financing. A continuing education program utilizing a variety of educational methods, providing continuity, and bringing long-range coordinated educational programming activities requires money. A good deal of money is needed if such a program is to have any significant impact on improving library services. This kind of money is available only if the program has national importance, although at the beginning it need not necessarily be national in scope.

In 1969 this writer, with two other consultants, recommended the establishment of a regional continuing education program for library personnel, recognizing these same concerns:

The manpower shortage in the field of librarianship, the increasing demands for quality library service, the impact of new technology on library services, and many other factors have made continuing education for all levels of library personnel increasingly necessary. It is essential that the library profession develop and utilize its present personnel more effectively. One obvious and meaningful way to achieve this aim is to implement a continuing education program designed to confront these problems. Available training programs for library personnel are provided by library schools, state agencies and professional organizations. However, investigations by librarians and others interested in the field indicate that present opportunities are not adequate to meet educational needs. Extensive budgets and time, together with skilled staff, are required to plan and implement quality programs.

Ultimately a continuing education program for library personnel must be institutionalized. Recent discussions and the adoption of the ALA Policy on Library Education and Manpower at the 1970 annual conference of the American Library Association have emphasized the fact that continuing education for library personnel is a nationwide problem and that a nationwide plan is the best solution. The institutionalization of library continuing education must be at the national level.

Location of a National Program of Continuing Education for Library Personnel

The most feasible, logical location for a national program of continuing education for library personnel is within the American Library Association structure. Some arguments could be brought forth to suggest a Washington, D.C. base (such as proximity to many funding
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sources, and ease of interchange with USOE personnel). These argu-
ments probably could be countered, for example, by the fact that sev-
eral other professional associations conduct continuing education ac-
tivities from Chicago; furthermore, interplay with professional staff at
ALA headquarters is vital. But the physical location is not the key, the
American Library Association is.

Why the American Library Association? It has demonstrated far less
concern with continuing education than the Special Libraries Associa-
tion (SLA) or the American Society for Information Science (ASIS).
USOE controls the most significant institute funding, and also has
people qualified in this area. Library schools have mounted the bulk of
in-depth institutes in the last five years. The fact that ALA is broader
in its membership than either SLA or ASIS is one reason. ALA's per-
missive membership requirements mean that all levels of library per-
sonnel, library trustees and all types of libraries can belong to and
be represented by one organization. The need for an overview in plan-
ning and coordinating continuing education activities rules out library
schools per se, and the focused interests and restricted membership
of the American Association of Library Schools makes this association
a less than ideal location. In any case, the professional associations and
library schools must share responsibility for continuing education.

But other, more positive reasons argue that ALA should take this
responsibility. "A characteristic increasingly evident in continuing edu-
cation for the professions is that it is considered not as a luxury, fringe
or supplement, but as an integral part of the education of the profes-
sional." 10 The Office of Library Education, the ALA Committee on
Accreditation, and the Library Education Division all play a significant
role in shaping the programs of our library schools. Any continuing
education program must interface with library schools, and can do so
far more effectively if the responsibility is shared between the as-
sociation which already possesses the mechanism and know-how, and
the library schools.

The creation of the Interdivisional Committee on Education of State
Library Personnel by the (then) American Association of State Li-
braries (ASL) and the Library Education Division (LED) illustrates
the kind of cooperation which ALA can foster. The LED Newsletter
listing of institutes is an example of the benefit of a clearinghouse
function at the national level. The preconference programs, many of
the division conference programs, and the general conference pro-
grams all have elements of continuing education. Some of these pro-

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grams have offered exemplary models of ALA’s potential in conference-related continuing education activities.

The current discussions about the creation of an overall Office of Library Education and Manpower demonstrate the members’ desire that ALA take on an increasingly aggressive role in coordinating educational and related activities. Houle comments that “the professional association crowns all other efforts at continuing education and bears the chief collective responsibility for it. A manifest function of every professional association is the continuing education of its membership; indeed, scarcely any other function has a longer tradition than this one. It is, moreover, undertaken not merely by a few people working at a separate task but by the whole body of people engaged in the affairs of the association.”

It would be dishonest, however, if it were not pointed out that ALA has not yet achieved the level of concern for the continuing education of library personnel which is demonstrated by SLA’s sponsored seminars for its members, nor has ALA developed the sophisticated procedure for eliciting, reviewing and presenting papers related to their annual conference themes. Given the responsibility for such activity, ALA could usefully work with other professional associations.

Funding a continuing education program would be greatly enhanced if the program were regional or national in scope. If ALA were identified by the profession as the organization responsible for the coordination, planning and evaluation of library continuing education activities, foundation and federal funding sources would be easier to tap. The ability of ALA to make optimum use of resources and to have a national impact would be appreciated by funding agencies.

To be effective, a continuing education program needs capital to experiment. The Adult Education Association has stated that the goals of continuing education should include the “Provision of risk capital for imaginative and innovative experiments and for the initial presentation of educational programs in new program areas or for new publics.”

The example of other professional organizations gives evidence that they have found it appropriate and feasible to assign continuing education responsibilities to their associations. The American Hospital Association (AHA) and the American Management Association offer prototypes for ALA consideration. Each has mounted highly imaginative and effective programs for its membership. The continuing education activities of AHA suggest areas of particular interest to li-
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Librarians. An AHA affiliate, the Hospital Research and Education Trust has, for example, with the support of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, established seven regional centers of continuing education for hospital personnel in universities offering graduate programs in hospital administration. Programs of continuing education for personnel in smaller hospitals, home study courses for hospital administrators, stimulation of state hospital association continuing education programs by support of half-salary of a director of education in several states, and programs to improve inservice training techniques in smaller hospitals are examples of AHA's involvement in continuing education.13

The 1967 Annual Report of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation gives some insight into the breadth and diversity of approach in continuing education in the hospital field. Sponsored by the Hospital Research and Education Trust of the American Hospital Association, the foundation has funded cooperating university centers, study programs in nursing management, correspondence education, inservice education in the hospitals, a clearinghouse of information on training programs, and demonstration projects.

In January 1971 the Boards of ALA's (then) American Association of State Libraries and Library Education Divisions approved the recommendations of their Interdivisional Committee on Education of State Library Personnel. The original charge to the committee stated these objectives: "1. To assess the needs of professional personnel performing functions unique to state library agencies, with emphasis on the consultant and administrative-supervisory personnel; 2. To recommend means and methods of designing educational programs to meet these education needs; 3. To recommend a structure for carrying out this programming."14

The committee's recommendations (below) have particular significance for this discussion, and serve to summarize the need for ALA to be the profession's active agent for the continuing education of library personnel.

In the Committee's attempt to develop a feasible means of implementation, the programs of other professional organizations were investigated in order to gain some knowledge of how they keep their personnel "up-to-date" through continuing education. It is apparent that continuing education in the professions is becoming, indeed has become a major facet of many national organizations representing an occupation or profession. Hoping that we might glean some ideas from these organizations, an inquiry was sent to a selected group
of these. From the replies it was apparent that in at least two instances, the American Hospital Association and the American Banking Association, national organizations carry on extensive educational programs of a complex nature ranging from formal to informal education opportunities.

It would take a great deal of space to describe each of these organizations and the structure of their educational programs. However, it is evident that each has an extensive program and one that involves a national network. Essentially, there is an office of education at the national headquarters plus regional and state organizations. Each of these relate to the other with the national being responsible for coordination and perhaps more importantly, providing programs of a more advanced nature, experimental, if you will, and developing materials for use by the regional and state associations.

Many of the programs offered by these associations are self-supporting. Indeed, the continuing education workshops and institutes actually are self-supporting and in some cases develop a funding surplus. The American Banking Association seems more advanced in the sense that it has a sequence of education from local levels to the national, beginning to advanced, with certificates and graduation diplomas, actually a school in its own right.

It is, therefore, suggested that the American Library Association consider assuming this role at some time in the future . . . .

Realizing that ALA is not at present in a position to mount an extensive program of continuing education, or, indeed, to establish an Office of Continuing Education, the Committee has developed what it believes to be a practical means of immediate implementation which has long-range implications for ALA and the full role it eventually could play.

It is recommended that a National Advisory and Action Committee for Continuing Education of State Library Personnel be established. It would have the following functions:

1. To coordinate with the Continuing Education Program for Library Personnel of the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE).
2. To implement and test on the national level programs and materials developed by WICHE's Continuing Education Program for Library Personnel.
3. To stimulate greater interest among library personnel in continuing education.
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4. To aid state library agencies and library schools to develop and implement continuing education programs.
5. To act as a clearinghouse of continuing education activities of all types.
6. To evaluate the practicality of creating a national office for continuing education for librarianship at ALA.15

The WICHE Continuing Education Program for Library Personnel

The ASL/LED report recommends that ALA consider the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education’s (WICHE) Continuing Education Program for Library Personnel as a model for a national program to be housed in ALA. A brief description of this program is appropriate.

WICHE is a non-profit agency created by thirteen western states. This commission operates under the Western Regional Education Compact, which is an agreement among the states to work cooperatively to improve educational programs and facilities. Program activity began in 1953, and WICHE currently administers more than thirty-five programs to improve higher education in the West. Among these three dozen programs are: the Mountain States Regional Medical Programs, Continuing Psychiatric Education for Physicians, Continuing Education Program for Nurses, Improvement of Nursing Curricula, Minority Students in Higher Education (increased access and educational relevance), the National Center for Higher Education Management systems at WICHE, Western Conference on the Uses of Mental Health Data, and the Corrections Program.

In June 1967 the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education received an invitation to participate in an informal discussion with the state librarians of Colorado, Idaho, Montana and Wyoming. The purpose of the meeting was to develop a plan to implement a program of continuing education for personnel working in libraries in the West. In the summer of 1968 three library educators, Lawrence A. Allen, Robert E. Lee, and the author, contracted to serve as a team of consultants to identify the continuing education needs of library personnel in the West, to identify resources, and to develop a plan to implement a continuing education program to meet the identified needs. After a year of study the consultants submitted their final report,10 which outlined a regional plan and called for the hiring of a director competent in the area of library continuing education.

The WICHE Continuing Education Program for Library Personnel
officially began on September 1, 1970, when this author became its director. The following states were early participants in the program: Alaska, Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Washington, and Wyoming. The general purpose of the WICHE program is to effect change in libraries of all types so that they may more effectively respond to today’s social needs, whether educational or informational. To achieve this goal the WICHE library program is pursuing the following objectives:

1) The development of an interstate continuing education program which reflects the needs of library personnel in the participating states, utilizes a variety of educational methods, and provides continuity.

2) The development of a regional organizational structure for continuing, long-range coordinated educational programming activities for library personnel in the western states. This program will make optimum use of regional resources, including institutions of higher education, state libraries, and other concerned agencies and institutions.

3) The aiding of library educators and library practitioners to work toward the institutionalization of continuing education programs for library personnel.

Of interest here is the fact that the WICHE program is designed as a demonstration program to result in the establishment of a self-supporting system of continuing education for library personnel in the western states. Some of the components of this demonstration are: basic continuing education programs to help update and improve library services in all types of libraries in the West; experimental programming emphasizing forward-looking content and a variety of educational methods and materials; training the trainers institutes to develop continuing education leadership capable of employing a range of educational methodology and program planning techniques; identification and testing of materials for continuing education (e.g., multi-media self-instruction kits); stimulation of the use of good teaching methodology and content; and evaluation not only of its own programs, but of continuing education techniques, methodology, and materials which could be useful in continuing education programming.

As a regional agency for higher education, WICHE can help states share their resources and specialized know-how to bring a strength and depth in programming not ordinarily possible on a single-state basis.
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Further, the regional nature of WICHE offers the opportunity to develop a continuity of continuing education by building a sequence of educational activities and by repeating successful programs in various locations.

For precisely these reasons the WICHE Continuing Education Program for Library Personnel is considered by its advisory committee to be a potential model for a national program. It may be that other regional library continuing education programs could serve as models, but at present no others exist. If ALA were ready to move, there is no reason that it could not immediately assume such a role, and the benefits of building on the experience of WICHE would be substantial.

In 1968 the Adult Education Association’s Delegate Assembly approved a position statement on the common concerns of adult education. The statement included these goals relating to suitable methods for effective adult education:

The selection of methods, materials, and media to achieve most effectively the educational objectives.
Selection of subject matter in accordance with the educational objective of the program rather than on the basis of conformity to the boundaries of a subject-matter field.
Awareness of the process of program development and of those principles of learning which are most relevant to adult learning.

Inclusion of evaluation procedures in the development and design of adult education programs.
Development of evaluation procedures which will permit evidence-based judgment of program effectiveness.
Program design to insure feedback to the learner as a part of the learning process.17

This statement neatly underlines the need for a national continuing education program for library personnel.

The need for any effective continuing education program for library personnel to interface with library technician programs, fifth- and sixth-year and doctoral programs in library science, library educators, library practitioners, and experts, agencies, organizations and institutions in related fields argues for a national level program with overall responsibility in the hands of the American Library Association.

Continuing education for library personnel is the responsibility of the profession, of the library schools, of libraries, and finally of the
individual himself. As Mary Gaver points out in her article in this issue, some of us are self-initiators, others are not. Cyril O. Houle told librarians at the 1967 midwinter meeting held in New Orleans, “Ultimately the individual is himself primarily responsible for his own education, and most of his learning efforts must be self-directed.”18 The establishment of a national program of the continuing education for library personnel must stimulate and reinforce the individual’s efforts to grow professionally.

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Forthcoming numbers are as follows:

October, 1971, *Library Programs and Service to the "Disadvantaged."* Editor: Helen H. Lyman, Director, Library Materials Research Project, University of Wisconsin, Madison.


April, 1972, *Current Trends in Urban Main Libraries.* Editor: Larry Earl Bone, Assistant Director of Libraries for Public Services, Memphis Public Library and Information Center, Memphis, Tennessee.

July, 1972, *Current Trends in Reference Collections of Recorded Sound.* Editor: Gordon Stevenson, Assistant Professor, Graduate School of Library Science, State University of New York, Albany.