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Library Trends

Community Analysis and Libraries

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Issue Editor

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Community Analysis and Libraries

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Introduction

LARRY EARL BONE

In selecting the topic of "Community Analysis and Libraries" for this issue, Library Trends, in its ongoing survey of the state of the art of this field, is recognizing an aspect of librarianship long deemed important by the profession. Even if the record of librarians' uses of community analysis was not traced in one of the articles contained herein, very tangible evidence of the importance of such use rests in the support given in the standards established for various types of libraries. All have knowledge of the community as an implied prerequisite to effective library service. The public library's minimum standards in particular stress the need for community analysis, stating that "continuous as well as periodic study of the community should be made."¹ More recently, the Public Library Association's goals and guidelines for public libraries emphasize throughout that community analysis is needed to achieve effective community library service.² Moreover, one can observe efforts being made by librarians in many communities to analyze and study their communities in order to provide better service. In Illinois there has even been a series of statewide programs conducted to educate librarians to the need for and in the processes of community analysis.

Yet, while the profession seems to have a growing awareness of the need for community analysis, its practice is still not sufficiently widespread. This editor, for example, in a recent Council on Library Resources study of large public library goals and objectives,³ found in his sample that except for library user studies, which frequently include only the library's current clientele, formal community analysis is not commonplace in some communities. Whether this lack of activity stems from a feeling by some librarians that their communities are so complex and so formidable as to defy meaningful analysis, or whether it stems from insufficient knowledge of and inexperience with the...
methodology is not clear. The editor hopes that this issue of *Library Trends* will both reinforce the importance of community analysis and offer help to those interested in this process.

The reasons for community analysis, if not already obvious, are made amply clear by contributors to this issue. Goals and objectives, on which both long- and short-range planning are based, cannot be clearly established for any library unless there is thorough knowledge of the community. In fact, an understanding of the local community and the changes in society that it reflects may affect the goals and objectives so profoundly as to lead, as Jesse Shera has suggested, to "adaptation and adjustment... [which] may create for an existing agency an entirely new role or roles quite different from those with which it was originally charged." On a more basic level, meaningful selection and acquisition policies cannot be formulated to guide the selectors of library materials, nor can viable programs and services be planned. In short, a library cannot be a living, growing and changing force in any community—public, school, academic—unless it remains sensitive to the character and needs of the community it serves. To achieve this sensitivity requires that community study and analysis be an ongoing management activity.

While there may be varying definitions of the community survey or analysis, the broad definition provided by the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences* is closest to that which the editor had in mind in planning this issue of *Library Trends*. This definition describes the community survey as a "first hand investigation, analysis and coordination of economic, sociological and other related aspects of a selected community or group."

Before outlining this issue for the publications committee of *Library Trends*, the editor solicited the opinions of a number of individuals known to be interested in the subject of community analysis and libraries to determine what particular issues they thought worth exploring and to identify topics which they thought would be of most significance for individual articles. Since many of their suggestions have been incorporated, the editor would like to give special thanks to Herbert Goldhor, Lowell Martin, Patrick Penland, and William Robinson, among others, for their thoughtful responses. The editor hopes that this issue, in reflecting the state of the art, will prove to be a useful background source on the subject of the library's role in community analysis and will be referred to frequently by practitioners, library educators and students alike. It will prove of utmost value,
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however, if it serves to promote more widespread use of community analysis in library operation and management.

The articles contained in the issue, ranging widely and sometimes differing in their views of the uses and means of accomplishing community analysis, are designed to complement each other. From the vantage point of both library administrator and leader in the profession, Allie Beth Martin states in her overview a strong case for community analysis and presents several different ways that it can be achieved. Charles Evans traces the evolution of the library profession's concern through the years with the process of community analysis. Arthur Kunz, an urban planner, identifies the various data gathering instruments now available to the librarian engaging in community analysis, and Morris Massey, a professor of marketing, explains the relevant principles of market research and suggests ways in which his field's methodology may be used for library purposes.

Lowell Martin, in discussing the significance of the user study commonly employed by librarians, raises important questions about the effect of such studies on library planning. Margaret Monroe, in her explanation of the process of community development, points out ways in which a librarian's knowledge of the community can be enhanced by this community planning process if librarians involve themselves in the identification of community problems and participate in their solution.

To provide examples of libraries which have engaged successfully in some form of community analysis, two case studies are included. First, Robert Croneberger and Carolyn Luck describe both the formal and informal methods used by the Detroit Public Library in analyzing the information needs of the residents to be served by the library's information and referral program. Muriel Javelin describes another kind of need analysis—that of community organizations—conducted by the Nassau Library System, and shows the changes which that study effected.

Lest readers think that community analysis is confined to public libraries, James Govan, who has served as both a college and a university librarian, takes the position that community analysis assumes a greater role in academic librarianship than in other types of librarianship, describing in his article the kind of analysis an academic community needs for short- and long-range planning. Ernest DeProspo explores the increasing difficulty that library decision-makers will face in proving the value of libraries to society, and he suggests appropriate questions that they will want to ask in their use of community analysis in the measurement process. Because
understanding by public librarians of community politics is important to the library’s operation, Kenneth Beasley, after tracing the library’s gradual evolution into a political institution in its own right, seeks to present a picture of what occurs in the local political sphere as a whole and to relate the library to it.

Looking at the critical need for libraries’ identification of goals in the planning process, William Monat discusses in a more theoretical vein the importance of such social and behavioral sciences as sociology, social and industrial psychology, political science, economics, operations research, and systems analysis, seeing effective use of these disciplines as having a potentially salutary effect on definition of the mission of the public library. Rose Vainstein, having sampled in preparation for her article current library school efforts to incorporate the principles of community analysis into the curriculum, presents her findings, including some of the present successful techniques used, and identifying helpful aids to both the teaching and practice of community analysis. Finally, John Albright has prepared a bibliography of community analyses of libraries published within the last five years.

It would be idle to suggest that this issue of Library Trends answers all questions concerning the present state of community analysis in libraries. It is more the editor’s aim to have this issue raise questions, to make librarians more aware of the information they need and the reasons that they need it, to reinforce the importance of community analysis efforts, and to suggest the various approaches which librarians have at their disposal for obtaining a better knowledge of the communities which they serve. These are ambitious objectives, and if the authors achieve them even partially, then this issue will have served an important function.

References

Studying the Community: An Overview

ALLIE BETH MARTIN

The importance of community analysis, which serves as the foundation for governmental planning at all levels, cannot be overestimated as today's societal problems multiply and become increasingly complex. "The more fateful the problem grows of how daily life is experienced where one lives and labors," Roland Warren observes, "the more important it becomes to seek a valid understanding of why things are as they are, so that we may go on to consider how they may become worthy of the best that is in us."

Ironically, libraries have been little concerned with their potentially important role in community analysis, nor have they effectively utilized the products of community analysis in their own planning. Too often the library has not even been considered an element of the community worthy of study by professional planners. Browse the shelves of richly varied books about the American community in any library of more than modest size. Study the analytical documents proliferating from planning and development agencies which abound in every state. How many references can be found dealing with libraries? When libraries are mentioned, how many reflect an understanding of their potentially active and important roles in the community? How much of the substance of these publications has been used in the process of determining the objectives for individual libraries?

THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNITY ANALYSIS

The full understanding of the communities in which our libraries operate, be they urban, suburban, or rural, is no longer solely the province of professional planners. In addition to demographic factors, an understanding of social and physical indicators and the complexity of community structures is involved. Similarly, public policy is not

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determined independently by the elected officials, the planners, or the heads of individual agencies working in isolation. In recent years ordinary citizens have begun to participate more actively in the planning processes. Articulate local groups are influencing community decisions as well as the expenditure of funds necessary to implement the community's goals and objectives. As a result, analyzing the community is not a simple process of determining the numbers of people, their gross characteristics, educational levels, economic levels, and racial composition. This information is basic, but effective community analysis involves more. Developing a useful profile of a community now requires a complex range of information. An accurate picture should be drawn to serve as the basis for decisions on goals and objectives. Available funds can then be allocated within a framework of priorities undergirded by substantive information.

In this process, public services such as libraries must justify their financial support on the basis of their ability to fulfill community needs. Funds will no longer be distributed on the strength of what was allocated the previous year, but on the basis of priorities of services to be performed. John Gardner suggests that this process of problem solving will require the research of social structures, the renewal of institutions and the incentive of new human arrangements, and that familiar ways of doing things will be endangered. A writer from the field of public administration states: "Policy, performance, impact and feedback are all products of local administration. From the perspective of the client, they are the real meaning of government and public service. If they are not right, or cannot be changed to suit the citizen's desires, then the faults may challenge his sense of satisfaction with the government and his sense of control over its activities." Today we see evidence of these processes at work at various governmental levels and from differing societal viewpoints. Citizens are newly aware that something can be done about their most pressing problems. Local neighborhood improvement groups form and seek new or improved services. City and town governments attempt to deal with conflicts of interest, to set priorities, and to cope with financial shortages. States establish required planning districts in order to resolve interjurisdictional problems. Community analysis is recognized as essential in governmental management and has contributed to better response to the real needs of individuals and their communities.

Individual agencies and institutions, including libraries, are also being told repeatedly that they, too, must meet the needs of their users. Indeed, their survival will depend on meeting those needs. If they are
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not met, other, more responsive agencies will be created to do the job. Individual communities can threaten to withdraw from or refuse to join library systems lest their needs be ignored. Urban and suburban libraries are sometimes in conflict, each claiming a lack of understanding by the other of their particular problems.

State library agencies are also involved in community analysis. They must analyze the patchwork for which they are responsible—a complexity of dense urban, suburban, small city, small town, and unincorporated rural areas. Coherent and acceptable statewide plans which meet the greatest possible diversity of needs are essential. Moreover, these needs are continually changing at all levels. For example, public libraries have historically been most successful in serving children. Today this population is declining and libraries are acutely aware that in the future the need will be to serve an ever-increasing older population. In the past, libraries have served older citizens poorly or not at all. Will senior citizens in the future be served with imaginative creative programs as successfully as children have been traditionally? Would libraries have responded more readily and more effectively to this new need if a continuing process of sound community analysis had been practiced? Would they have anticipated earlier the necessity to refocus if they had been active in the community-wide analysis and planning process?

THE IMPORTANCE OF COMMUNITY ANALYSIS FOR LIBRARIES

For some time, critics of public libraries have emphasized the necessity for clearly defined goals, and have deplored the vagueness and haphazard formulation of presently existing objectives. Others have said that universally adopted goals are not practical except in the most general sense; instead, each library must develop its own goals, determined by the uniqueness of each community or institution. Assuming the latter to be true, community analysis on the part of the library is critical, and must be a constant process.

The first considerations in attempting to establish library goals usually relate to the people who are now unserved as well as to those who are presently served, and to increasing the population to be reached in the future. It is a cause for concern that many segments of the population are not served by the library. Groups heretofore relatively unserved and unresponsive include the disadvantaged, ethnic minorities, the illiterate and semiliterate, residents of institutions, and the aging. In an attempt to reach these groups,
numerous experiments have been undertaken. These experiences have been extensively described and reported, but little thorough analysis has been involved. The nineteen studies of various aspects of library service in Indiana under the sponsorship of the Indiana State Library do, however, comprise a valuable body of research at the state level. Lipsman’s analysis of library service to the disadvantaged in fifteen cities provides a starting point for the collection of data on service to the deprived which will answer questions about the disadvantaged to be served by libraries in the future.

Banfield asserts that many of our library services are already obsolete and are the business of some other public or private agency. If he is right, libraries which fail to reevaluate objectives in terms of current demands may find their support dwindling relative to that of other services.

Again, many questions must be answered. Are services which are thought to be obsolete in libraries now performed better or more efficiently by other agencies? If so, the transfer is reasonable. Are there other library services which should replace those becoming obsolete? For example, public libraries are currently examining their roles as suppliers of information and referral services. Information needs are widespread and varied. Indeed, new independent agencies providing information services are springing up daily. Is the library at fault for not anticipating the need for these services? Would better community analysis have helped libraries revamp traditional reference functions so that they could become information and referral services in the broadest sense? How much would such a change cost in terms of staff retraining, added materials and other out-of-pocket expenses? How much use of the new services could be anticipated in comparison to those traditionally provided? Numerous libraries are now initiating community information services, some are modifying existing departments, and others are starting new information and referral centers separate from traditional reference departments. In any case, no one knows the volume of use to expect or what the costs will be. Can the information needs of the community be served more effectively through the library than through new agencies? Within each library the decision must be made whether to expand present services or to set up a new department, or whether the service should be centralized or decentralized through branches.

New adult education services are also being considered by libraries as the forces of change emphasize the importance of continuing education for large segments of the population. Recent studies have
found that less than one-third of the people desiring continuing education have an opportunity to engage in adult education. Most of these do not want to or cannot return to school. They are potential "adult independent learners." Can libraries satisfy the needs of these people? What segments of the population would avail themselves of such services? Again, what would be the cost to libraries? In this case, the College Entrance Examination Board is conducting such an analysis as a pilot project so that individual libraries will have a basis for determining the practicality of providing such a service if the community analysis reveals that this is an unmet need. Data are being collected which will help the libraries; however, better methods of measuring the effectiveness of library services are urgently needed. A beginning has been made by DeProspo and others at Rutgers. The process of planning, programming and evaluation promises to insure better financial control and to provide the data so necessary in this era of accountability.

THE EXTENT OF LIBRARY PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY ANALYSIS

A survey of the general literature on community analysis indicates that almost no attention has been paid to libraries. A search of the literature yielded only one chapter in one book in the entire field of community studies and planning which deals specifically with libraries.

In the past ten years, federal library funds (LSCA grants) have been variously used for surveys and plans at the state level. These have been library surveys rather than analyses of communities which provided the rationale for the service's existence. Every state but one has had either a statewide survey, state plan, or surveys of individual regions, counties and cities. Until recently, most surveys tended to analyze the services of the library. Limited analysis of the communities being served was included. In the early 1970s, many of these surveys were conducted by library consultants and by professional research firms. Most surveys described the level of library development at the time. There was little provision for continuous updating.

More recently, concentration has been on the techniques of planning and evaluation, including community analysis. Self-studies have been conducted in some libraries. State libraries have been encouraged to adopt the CIPP (Context-Input-Planning-Program) model for planning and some have adopted the process as a result. Widespread
adoption of this process is significant since it does originate with the “context” or environment in which the service is to be rendered.

A few of the large urban libraries have commissioned surveys and studies yielding a body of library planning information which has had an influence on other libraries. All of these recognize the necessity of beginning any evaluation of libraries with a study of the communities they serve. These include: Lowell Martin’s studies of the Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore,\textsuperscript{11} the Chicago Public Library,\textsuperscript{12} and Tucson Public Library;\textsuperscript{13} John Frantz’s study of the Brooklyn Public Library;\textsuperscript{14} and the Arthur D. Little study of the San Francisco Public Library.\textsuperscript{15} The Indiana studies mentioned earlier comprise the major work done at the state level. More recently, some new techniques for systematic analysis of libraries at the local level have been demonstrated. The Rutgers study by DeProspo and others mentioned earlier promises to provide a methodology applicable to various types of libraries and useful in libraries of all sizes. Unfortunately, only the early phases of the original project were funded. These techniques are now being further applied in statewide demonstrations. In addition, Newhouse’s in-depth analysis of library use in Beverly Hills\textsuperscript{16} will be useful to other libraries; the study done for the Denver Urban Observatory on public library use in Denver may also prove of interest.\textsuperscript{17} Robbins examines the relationship between the library and the community from another angle.\textsuperscript{18}

**OPPORTUNITIES FOR LIBRARIES TO ENGAGE IN COMMUNITY ANALYSIS**

There are three avenues which a library may take to realize the benefits of community analysis. First, it can hire a consultant. With a competent consultant, this approach will produce results most quickly. It may also be productive in the long run if part of the project serves to educate the staff to continue the process of analysis on an ongoing basis. A second alternative is to conduct a self-study. This approach may take longer and even be more costly if a thorough job is done and the project includes staff training by an expert. It strengthens staff competency which will be a continuing advantage. Finally, a library can participate in community analysis with other community agencies, including governmental planning units and citizen planning groups. Regional planning agencies now serve almost all standard metropolitan statistical areas. These are logical agencies for libraries to approach for assistance and to join as members. Marilyn Gell, a library planner with the Metropolitan Washington Council of Governments,
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reports: “It is time for libraries to see themselves in this role, to think about cooperating with non-library officials and to affiliate themselves with these regional councils. While other forms of library cooperation have been extensive, and at times effective, it is this political element which has been overlooked. It is significant that of the over 300 regional councils in the country, only three (Denver, Baltimore, and Washington) have any involvement with libraries.”19

In summary, libraries involved in community analysis will realize both direct and indirect benefits. Planning and goal setting will be based on total community needs from the widest perspective—not from the tunnel vision of the library. Change can be managed more responsibly; that is, the need for change can be better anticipated in time to make positive adjustments. The library will acquire new advocates among planners, governmental representatives and citizens in the process of the community analysis. A broader understanding of financial needs will result. The library will also gain a better understanding of the activities and problems of other agencies and organizations. Cooperation will thus be more natural and practical.

The importance of community analysis and libraries cannot be overestimated. The papers in this issue of *Library Trends* provide a substantial introduction to the topic by experts from librarianship and other disciplines. It is hoped that this will provide every library administration with the stimulation and information necessary to get started.

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JANUARY, 1976


A History of Community Analysis in American Librarianship

CHARLES EVANS

Community analysis can be defined as nothing more than the division of a community into its components, but such analysis is of little real value unless the peculiar characteristics of the community and of each of its constituent elements—including characteristic needs and behavior—are identified and their significance established. Library community analysis, therefore, embraces the study of two elements: community characteristics, and the significance of these characteristics. A single study, however, need not cover the full range of characteristics or significance. For example, Bundy's study of library users in the Baltimore-Washington area focused on the characteristics of its subjects only, while the author's study of library users and nonusers in a California city was intended only to determine somewhat the significance of selected characteristics.

Community analysis must be distinguished from the study of libraries and library resources, even though library studies often include community analysis, because the study of a community—the word community means a group of people with one or more common characteristics—may be unrelated to libraries, while the study of a library can be "merely an impartial appraisal of the services a library system is rendering the community, and the equipment used to render these services," without any reference to the community it serves. Wilson's book The Geography of Reading and Lowell Martin's study of the Chicago Public Library are examples of library study; examples of community analysis include Kelley's Woodside study and the broader studies of adult reading by Gray and Munroe and Waples and Tyler.

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Knowledge of the community to be served is essential as a foundation for library management, yet libraries have not always practiced community analysis, and some still do not. The reason for this is that librarians may be unaware of deficiencies in their community knowledge. In some cases, of course, there is no community. For example, in a personal library, in which the library manager and the user community are one and the same, there obviously is no need for community analysis. Similarly, in the social libraries of the nineteenth century there may have been no need need for community analysis; managerial control was exercised by boards of trustees or directors who were, themselves, members of relatively small and homogeneous user communities.

EARLY STUDIES

Early public libraries continued the social library pattern of government, and with it the presumption of adequate community knowledge. They were controlled by boards of local community leaders, which "had full control of all affairs of the library and of its funds." Even the selection of books was made by "the directors or their library committee." Their librarians might have been more aware of a need for community study—especially since they might have been employed from outside the communities they served—but the librarian of the 1870s was still essentially a technician, responsible for routine work in the library and for serving library users, but without any real role in the managerial control of the library.

Shera has indicated that early library leaders were not really interested in serving the general public, which would account for their failure to engage in community analysis, but he confused their motives with their practices. They were like "a large portion of the better educated classes of Boston at that time," of which Henry Adams said, "The keen joy of truth aggressive and triumphant blended in their consciousness with a tranquil conviction that the limits of truth had been reached." But if they were sure of their own wisdom, and of their community knowledge, they also were humble enough to believe that others could reach their own level through education and the reading of good books, and were willing—even anxious—to help provide those books.

The attitude of Andrew Carnegie is typical. As a youth he had used books from a library opened to boys by a Colonel Anderson: "and it was when revelling in these treasures that I resolved, if wealth ever came to
me, that it should be used to establish free libraries, that other poor boys might receive opportunities similar to those for which we were indebted to that noble man."

Carnegie assumed that other poor boys shared his own intense longing for books. In the same way, other early library leaders—founders, trustees, and librarians—assumed their own tastes and interest in reading to be shared by the population at large, just as they assumed that education and reading would inevitably cause others to share their opinions and conform to their behavior. They were humanitarians who practiced the golden rule by providing for others the libraries and the books that they would have wanted for themselves in like circumstances. If they built libraries, as Harris says they did, that were "characteristically inflexible, coldly authoritarian, and elitist," it was only because they presumed all community members to be at least potentially like themselves. In essence, they shared the attitude expressed by a librarian in 1905: "We are dealing with a small crowd of people whom we call 'our public'. Who are the public? Why, you and I, and my family, and others just like us. They want just the same things that we do, and to be accommodated in just the same way that we do. The public is no indefinite, intangible somebody. It is just 'we.'"

Because of their professional preparation and closer contact with library users, librarians probably are much more ready than library trustees to recognize and admit a need for additional knowledge of the people they serve. Hence, the increasing delegation of managerial responsibility from library boards to their librarians was accompanied by expressions of a need for more community knowledge in the professional literature of librarianship.

For example, in 1880, William Foster, librarian of the Providence Public Library, pointed out the complexity of a library's community:

It is safe to say that one who has not given the subject attention will be surprised to find at how many points a collection of books, and the thought there contained, touch human life. Here is a machineshop with its hundred or more workmen, many of whom are anxious to study some mechanical work. The library has such works, and is glad to supply them. Here again is a society of natural history, whose members are systematically studying some department of natural science. To them, also, the library willingly offers its resources . . . it offers its co-operation to those who are following a course of public lectures on some topic of political science or of art, to a college class studying topically some epoch of history or period of literature; or to
a public-school teacher, with a class in geography; or a parent desiring some suitable reading for a child . . . it seeks to make its collection generally available . . . on matters of current and universal interest.16

In 1896, Mary Cutler explicitly identified community study as an element of librarianship:

The librarian should be a careful student of his own town. He should know its history and topography, its social, political, business, literary, and ecclesiastical life . . . the city officers, the party bosses, the labor leaders, members of the board of trade, manufacturers, leading women in society . . . the clergy . . . the school superintendent and the teachers . . . those who shape the charitable organizations . . . reporters, policemen, and reformers.

To what end? Broadly, that he may catch the spirit of the civic life and relate the library to the whole as the organs to the body. Specifically, that he may reach the entire population through the natural leaders, that he may select books, establish branches, open up new avenues of communication between the library and the people.17

The first published study of a library's community appeared in 1908, and was a description of Jewish immigrants who used the Brownsville branch of the Brooklyn Public Library.18 It is significant that this first community study by a librarian was of a community of people so different from their librarian that the concept of the community as "we" was obviously untenable.

A very similar community of immigrants served by the Rivington Street Branch of the New York Public Library was the subject of another descriptive, but much more rigorous study published in 1919. Its authors reveal an awareness and appreciation of the importance of community knowledge that would still be exceptional today:

There was reason here to know my community, to make my library an essential part of it, to connect my books with my people . . . these newest colonists . . .

We promptly started some thorough reading to learn the history of our different national groups and their social and religious backgrounds. Clearly, however, helpful sympathy, the useful and practical point of view, could come to us only from a knowledge of the lives of those whom we were to serve, a knowledge not only of what they had been in the lands of their birth, but of the details of this
History of Community Analysis

new living of theirs and of the new problems with which they were
daily struggling. . . .

And so we decided, my staff of twelve and I, to explore our
neighborhood. To each was assigned a section of our territory of
forty square blocks. . . .

Our daily work at the library . . . pointed to the urgency of our
need of knowledge. It was a human knowledge of facts that we
wanted,—characteristics of the different nationalities, their
occupations, living conditions, community life,—and we sought
information wherever it could be found. Yet we limited our
investigations strictly to our needs; we violated the privacy of no
home; we asked no personal, inquisitive questions. Many of the first
results were, no doubt, superficial and impressionistic, but our stock
of useful human information rapidly increased. We had as helpers
several old friends of the library, some of them notables and leaders
of the different foreign-born groups. We needed such experienced
guides, for we found appearances very apt to be deceptive.19

The Rivington study was subjective and based on almost random
observations, but in the year of its publication the use of more formal
methods was recommended by Charles Williamson during a speech in
Indiana:

A library that wishes to serve its community efficiently should be
as eager as the merchant to make every individual or every family a
customer. To do that, the library must study its community and the
initial step in such a study would constitute, in modern parlance, a
“survey” of library needs and opportunities. . . . The modern way
of attacking a problem in which the essential facts are unknown is to
make a survey. We are accustomed to housing surveys . . . church
surveys, and so on. We have talked for some time of library surveys,
but so far as I know the first real survey of library needs in any
community is still to be made. The plan, content and method—the
whole technique—is still to be worked out. The need and purpose of
library surveys, however, are becoming clear. The library to be
efficient must fit itself to the needs of the community, but how can it
fit itself to conditions of which it is almost wholly ignorant? No more
important responsibility rests upon library administrators and
trustees than this duty of understanding clearly all the library needs
of the community.20

Williamson’s assertion—unchallenged by his audience—that libraries
are “wholly ignorant” of community needs indicates a drastic change from the days of Ticknor and Everett in the attitudes of library managers. It is a change toward reality which should make community analysis almost an imperative for librarians.

Williamson’s address inspired an Indiana librarian to offer some of the required “plan, content and method” in the form of a list of questions grouped under seventeen headings. These were derived from a questionnaire then being used to train students in the library school of the University of Wisconsin. Many have only a remote relationship to library management, indicating that survey research was still not well understood by librarians. For example, the questions listed under the first heading, “Physical Aspect of City,” included: “Are the streets clean or dirty; paved or unpaved; if paved, is paving well kept; if unpaved are they kept in good condition?” “Are shade trees planted by city or property owners, and are lawns well cared for?” “Are public buildings modern and in good condition?” “Has city any federal buildings?” “Has city modern public improvements, traffic signs, fountains, etc.?” “What are the natural attractions—river, lake, etc.; has city taken advantage of them?” “Has city any parks; are they well cared for?”

Joseph Wheeler, a staunch advocate of community analysis, probably was reacting to this survey proposal when he wrote that: “A local survey for library purposes seldom needs to be made with any such thoroughness as many social welfare surveys have been made. Discoveries and conclusions from a rather brief and general study, if carefully planned, will reveal more opportunities and suggest more projects than any public library can take care of for some time. The temptation is to spend too much time on intensive study of a few phases and to find one field so fertile that the perspective may be lost.”

Additional evidence of Williamson’s influence appeared in 1924, when another Indiana librarian, Ethel McCullough, publicized some examples of her use of community analysis as a managerial tool in the Evansville Public Library. These were “carefully planned” and her school and neighborhood surveys in particular are examples that libraries still could follow. Each had a definite purpose, a simple methodology, executive supervision and evaluation, and was followed by the application of its findings in the administration of library service.

McCullough’s school survey was inspired by a decrease in juvenile circulation and the inability of branch librarians to explain it or to answer questions about juvenile library users:
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When I began asking for the number of children enrolled in the schools with which the different libraries were working, there was a lamentable lack of definite knowledge. When I asked for the percentage of children using cards of those registered at the various branches, still less was actually known.

I therefore sent to branch and station librarians an outline naming the points to be covered by a school room survey, with the recommendation that it be put on at the same time all over the city. Each branch or station librarian was to work independently with her own school principal and group of teachers, and each was to report from month to month the progress made.

One consequence of this survey was an increase in juvenile circulation which offset within six months the loss of the previous year, even though the survey outline carried the admonition: “Care must be taken not to overstimulate teachers.”

McCullough’s neighborhood survey was conducted in “our most difficult community, a community without a reading background.” For this survey, a citizen’s advisory committee was organized to plan and conduct a campaign of intensive home visiting.

Neighborhood survey cards were printed and these with application cards were given to each home visitor for distribution. Several hundred home visits were made within a short time and the number of new patrons and of books read rose steadily from week to week. From the survey cards definite information as to occupations and interests were noted, and books bearing on these subjects were placed on the station shelves. Within a short time the library really reflected the interests of the community.

When a person had signed an application blank but did not come to the library within a reasonable time, a follow-up postal card was mailed saying that certain titles were being held for his inspection. An effort was made to have one of these titles bear on his business, one on his personal interests, and one purely recreational.

The Committee feels that its work is not yet done, but is convinced that its diagnosis was correct: The library did not have sufficient knowledge of the individuals who made up the neighborhood, nor was it making definite connection with their interests.

The neighborhood survey was exceptional for its time because it went directly to individual community members for data. Until many years later, most studies examined community members only.
indirectly, through census data or data from library records. For example, studies of library users later in the decade in Wilmington, Delaware, Milwaukee and Sheboygan, Wisconsin, all were based on geographic plotting of addresses from borrowers' record files. McCullough's study was also exceptional in its concern for nonusers of the library. Early studies—like these three examples—were of users only. The first study to focus on nonusers exclusively was not published until 1936. It was conducted in Flushing, New York, by Helen Ridgway, a student in the School of Library Service at Columbia University.

COMMUNITY ANALYSIS IN LIBRARY MANAGEMENT

The major impetus toward the utilization of community analysis in library management came from the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago during the 1930s. Faculty members like Louis Round Wilson, Carleton Joeckel, Bernard Berelson, Leon Carnovsky and Douglas Waples engaged in community analysis, developing techniques and providing examples that others could follow, while they prepared students to practice community analysis and to teach it, in turn, to students in other library schools. Among the Chicago graduates of that period who are especially noted for their contributions to library community analysis are Erret McDiarmid, Edward Wight, LeRoy Merritt, Herbert Goldhor, Walter Kaiser, and Lowell Martin.

Goldhor and Kaiser both provided examples of community analysis by working librarians. Kaiser's study of registered borrowers in the Muncie (Indiana) Public Library, while he was its librarian, was an analysis of registration and census data. It found that "the library does a good job in registering students . . . but falls down in registering adults, of whom it secures only about one-fourth. Of the adult groups, the professional, a group which has long been accustomed to using books for both professional and personal reasons, shows the highest percentage of registration, but still only 57 percent of their group is registered."

Goldhor's study of opinions of Evansville, Indiana, adults while he was head of the Evansville Public Library was a much larger project, involving personal interviews conducted by students from Evansville College. Its major conclusions were that: "The Evansville Public Library seems to have made a place for itself in the lives of better educated people to a greater degree than is true of its influence over people with lesser amounts of formal education. There is a halo effect
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to the library, and people generally think well of it but they do not particularly know much about it. Parking by itself is probably not a major factor influencing use of the library."

Despite these examples, one effect of the University of Chicago Graduate Library School’s influence, which has been magnified through other library schools (most notably the School of Librarianship of the University of California, where the faculty included Chicago graduates Joeckel, Wight and Merritt) has been to make library community analysis a function of academics rather than of working librarians. Thus, most examples come from library schools rather than from libraries, and are conducted by scholars rather than by librarians.

Four important works on community analysis came from the Graduate Library School at the beginning of World War II. The first of these was Wight’s paper, “Methods and Techniques of Library Surveys,” which points out weaknesses in early surveys—“most of the reports are primarily subjective”—and lists steps to follow in a survey:

1. Definition of the purposes and limits of the study.
2. The preparation of an outline of the organization of the completed report.
3. The determination of the types of data and methods of securing them.
4. Drafting of the schedules, information blanks, and forms required for collecting and tabulating the data.
5. Collection of data.
6. Tabulation and analysis.
7. Preparation of the report.
8. Review, criticism, and final draft of the report.

Wight’s paper also contains one of the earliest proposals for the use of data processing equipment in the organization and analysis of library statistical data.

The Library Survey by Errett W. McDiarmid, Jr., discusses techniques for the study of community backgrounds for library service, for the study of library use, and for the study of potential library users. McDiarmid says that the study of potential users revolves around the question “What groups are not using the library and why?” He discusses the answering of this question, through research, under three headings: (1) Who are the nonlibrary users? (2) What are their interests and needs? and (3) What are their attitudes toward the library?

The two remaining works were papers published in The Library in the
Community, edited by Leon Carnovsky and Lowell Martin. The first of these, "The Community Survey" by Wayne McMillen, should be read by every library surveyor. Like Wight, McMillen lists steps to follow in a survey, and he distinguishes community surveys from those which "could perhaps more properly be called 'administrative studies.' "

Most library surveys are primarily of the latter type even though they may include some community analysis. McMillen warns against unintentional bias and against questions which are impossible to answer through a survey, or are not feasible because of cost: "There are many kinds of questions that can be answered which it would be inexpedient to include in a specific study." 

Lowell Martin's paper, "Community Analysis for the Library," has been described as "the best brief discussion of the subject of community study in all its various applications by the library." In it, Martin offers a warning that is still timely:

Finally, our limited understanding of the relationship between social characteristics and the actual reading of individuals must be borne in mind by the library community analyst. Information about the economic level or the occupations of a locality is helpful to a book selector, but it is not definitive. . . .

This lack of understanding of the relationship between social characteristics and reading is probably a temporary problem due to our present ignorance. It is compounded of incomplete sources of data, the fragmentary nature of reading studies to date, and the restricted psychological insight of librarians. Nonetheless, it is a reality which tends to limit the applicability of any library community study.

**LATER STUDIES**

Studying the Community is a later work on community analysis, published by the American Library Association's Library-Community Project in 1960. It was intended to serve as a handbook for the study of adult education needs, but is useful to all types of community study. It contains sample questionnaires and examples of survey reports that are especially helpful.

Library Surveys, edited by Tauber and Stephens and published in 1967, is concerned primarily with the type of study that McMillen calls "administrative studies," but it includes a paper by Andrew Geddes that discusses community analysis. One part in particular of his discussion should be given serious consideration before the launching of any community study:
Librarians must become more adept at handling their own problems and evaluating their own needs. They must also be more dynamic in their leadership roles. When a board of trustees brings in an expert to confirm an opinion already expressed by the director, one can not but wonder about the relationship existing between the librarian, his board, and the community which produces such a situation. There are always times when an outside opinion is helpful, but surveys should not be undertaken simply to achieve status by use of the newest status symbol. Librarians must assert the leadership necessary to move librarianship ahead; no better way can be found than to have their professional opinion honored. Therefore, librarians are urged to resist the temptation to ask for a survey before making every effort to solve their own problems.

Too often surveys are undertaken to find answers known before the surveyor arrived on the scene. But the director, the board, or the public were unwilling to admit they knew the answers or to make the effort needed to sell the right solution.41

Any community analysis should be preceded by study of the published reports of other analysts, because community study is far more costly in time, labor and money than those who have never attempted it might imagine. It is always desirable to minimize these costs by utilizing the work of other investigators as much as possible, to avoid the costs of duplicating their work and to avoid the repetition of their mistakes. Other studies may be used as models in the planning of a study, while their data and conclusions may supplement and validate its findings.

Berelson's volume, The Library's Public,42 is the landmark work in this field, and should be a starting point for every community analyst. Published in 1949 as one of the parts of the Public Library Inquiry, it is a synthesis of the studies of reading and public library use published during the preceding two decades, with emphasis on the nationwide survey of library use conducted for the Public Library Inquiry by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan. (A separate report on the latter study was published by its directors in 1950.43) Berelson's study is especially notable for its conclusions that public libraries are used by only 10 percent of adults,44 that they are essentially middle-class institutions,45 and that "the most significant factor in the use of libraries by adults is education."46 These conclusions were supported by Bundy's study of Maryland library users in 1966: "The most discouraging aspect of the survey was to discover that some
twenty years after the Berelson study, the public library has not changed markedly in this respect." 47

A number of noteworthy examples of community analysis have been published since Berelson's book appeared. Norvell's *The Reading Interests of Young People*, published in 1950, is a study of the reading interests of secondary school students in New York state, classified by age, sex and intelligence.48 It includes a list of 1,700 literary works with interest scores for boys and girls.

Bundy's doctoral dissertation, published in *Illinois Libraries* in 1960, is one of several studies of rural people.49 She discovered an attitude of indifference toward libraries in her subjects, thereby challenging the prevailing assumption that such attitudes are generally favorable. In contrast, Taves's study of rural people in Minnesota, conducted at about the same time but published three years later, found a favorable attitude toward the local library. Taves and his associates also found that although the library users among their subjects had a greater breadth of reading interest than the nonusers of the library, the nonusers expressed a greater interest in reading about occupation-related subjects such as farm management, crops, soils, livestock and mechanics.50 This finding supports the discovery by earlier investigators that nonusers of libraries tend to be more interested than library users in reading about "farming and gardening, financial problems, and care of young children,"51 and raises the possibility that public libraries might broaden their appeal by placing more emphasis on material on such occupation-related subjects.

Margaret Peil's study of reading by low-income mothers in Chicago compares reading and library use by black and white women; she found that "the Negro women generally read more books and magazines and spent more time reading than the white mothers, even when age and education were controlled."52 One of Peil's conclusions was that "women in their thirties were considerably more likely to use the library than women who were older or younger,"53 which raises the possibility—since other studies have indicated that library use tends to vary inversely with age—that people born during and after World War II might be less inclined to use the library than those born earlier, which in turn might indicate a bleak future for public libraries. Peil said, however, that "since more of the library users than of non-users had graduated from high school and the proportion of high school graduates in low-income areas is steadily increasing, it appears fairly certain that library use will also increase in these areas."54

Lowell Martin's study of the Enoch Pratt Free Library's service to the
underprivileged reached similar conclusions. Martin found that younger adults read less than those who are older—"young adults age twenty to thirty represent the lower group of readers of books, much lower than the teen-agers and even lower than persons over sixty-five"—but he also found that some people resume reading as they grow older. He further predicted that library use will increase as the educational level rises.

Helen Lyman directed a five-year study of the characteristics and reading behavior of newly literate adults, and of programs and reading materials intended for such adults. Most of the adults who were its subjects were taken from low-income, disadvantaged populations in inner-city areas, including many members of minority groups. Lyman's report, published by the ALA in 1973, is therefore a source of useful information about the urban disadvantaged generally, as well as about adults who have recently learned to read.

The Disadvantaged and Library Effectiveness, by Claire Lipsman, is yet another major study of the urban disadvantaged. One of its conclusions is that "both white and black library users are more likely to be active, curious persons, to know more about the community and its resources, and to be more interested in expressions of the human spirit through music, art, and artifacts." Most librarians share Berelson's opinion that "the most significant factor in the use of libraries by adults is education," despite the many poorly educated people who do use libraries and the many more well educated people who do not. Here, Lipsman has identified two other characteristics—activity and curiosity—that may be even more closely related to library use than education. Another conclusion of Lipsman's study should be heeded by library managers:

At the local level, a library system should have available feedback on program operations which will produce answers not only to general policy questions but to the management decisions of library programs: Which groups are being reached? How are library services regarded by their recipients? How efficient is the program operation? Which new activities should be tried? How do actual program results compare with expected results? How well does the program succeed in achieving its objectives?

These kinds of questions cannot currently be adequately answered, primarily because existing data collection practices in library systems are not at all addressed to this purpose. Regular reporting continues to be focused on the condition of the book collection rather than on the patrons or the programs.

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Lipsman recommends data collection methods for library use which would provide the information which she thinks is needed. She also has another observation that is especially pertinent to community analysis: "In the course of the field visits, it was apparent that the residents of urban ghettos, particularly in the larger cities, are frequently surveyed by various public and private groups. (In fact, resentment was expressed in two or three cities at 'all the surveys and no action')." 

Community analysis is as basic to library management as the physician's diagnosis is to the practice of medicine. Its use in librarianship is a mark of professionalism. Consequently, library community analysis has evolved concurrently with professional education for librarianship and with the professionalization of library management.

There are many studies, however, conducted at great expense, that reach no conclusion which would not be obvious on casual observation to any competent librarian. Often, much of the advice offered by an investigator at the conclusion of his or her study is derived almost entirely from his or her professional experience, with little reference to any of the mass of data collected during the course of the study; such conclusions be produced equally well without most of the research effort required to obtain them.

There are two reasons for this. The first is that descriptive research survey and historical study techniques are used almost exclusively in library community analysis, while investigators are expected to answer questions that descriptive research cannot answer. Surveys can determine the status quo at any given time, but they cannot tell what it should be, or how it might be changed most effectively. Yet it is this type of question that library managers most need to answer. Librarians need to know not merely what people want, but the real needs which they may not even recognize themselves. They need to know how people would react to a change in library service, and they need to know the value of library service to specific individuals and to the community as a whole. Definite answers to such questions can be obtained through community analysis, but not by means of surveys; they require experimental research. Hence, if community analysis is to serve librarians as it should, competency in experimental research must be added to the descriptive research competencies that library community analysts now possess.

The second reason for the conduct of much unnecessary research
activity is that modern library managers have too little of the confidence and self-esteem that enabled their nineteenth-century predecessors to plan and build libraries for public use without consulting or studying the public at all. Too many modern librarians are unwilling to offer or accept a professional opinion or to commit themselves to a decision not bolstered by precedent, by appearance in print, or by evidence of research activity.

Much more community analysis is needed in librarianship. It should be a part of the administration of every library, but it should be practiced only to gain information actually needed in library management, never merely to add an appearance of weight or status.

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The Use of Data Gathering Instruments in Library Planning

ARTHUR H. KUNZ

In order to plan intelligently for new and expanded library facilities, the librarian must understand the role of the library in various types of communities. In a suburban area such as Nassau and Suffolk Counties—now classified by the federal government as a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA)—there is often a total lack of local government identification. There is a great difference between cities, which often have a strong community association, and suburbs, with their fragmented units of government. In many suburbs the school district is often the only governmental unit with which people are able to identify. In New York state, libraries are often operated in conjunction with school districts where there are no cities or villages to provide library service. The initial construction of a library, capital expansions at a later date, and annual budgets are all subject to vote by the citizens of the community. The trustees for the library board are also elected by the people. This is the same procedure that is used in most suburban school districts and often is the only opportunity for citizens to vote on construction items and budgets that affect their local services. Therefore, like local schools, the library becomes a highly visible institution when there is a lack of other local government. This situation can be advantageous if the library is well located and provides proper services.

For the library to be a source of information in the community and to be able to plan for its own needs, it must respond to the diverse needs in the community. Often the only way to accomplish this is through the use of federal census information which will allow the creation of a detailed profile of the community. This profile is important because there are usually significant differences in the composition of the population among communities. This is especially true in many of the...
suburban rings around metropolitan areas, which are often viewed as homogeneous areas adjacent to the central city.

The federal census is a basic data source necessary for detailed library planning. The information contained in the decennial census of population and housing provides a thorough tabulation of the social and economic characteristics of the population, along with the type of housing existing in the area. In addition to this basic source, more detailed business censuses of regions and large municipalities are now being provided that are concerned with manufacturing, retail trade, and other industries. Other sources of data would be state, regional and local governmental units, although such data are rarely as complete as the federal census information.

The following paragraphs describe some of the key indicators that library planners should be aware of when planning for new facilities and programs. Most of the examples are from the Nassau-Suffolk SMSA, which contains 2¼ million people and includes all of Long Island outside the limits of New York City.

Age information is a very important factor in library planning, since suburbs often undergo a shift from heavily child-oriented populations to ones with a more mature population. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate age differences between the two combined counties in the Nassau-Suffolk SMSA. Figure 1 indicates that in the last decade Nassau County became a mature suburb. The very young and the young adult groups actually declined while people in the age groups between forty-five and sixty-four, along with senior citizens, increased by a greater percentage than the total population change. In Suffolk County, younger families with younger children increased at a faster rate than the rest of the population, primarily because housing was available in the moderate price range. Even though the change in total population is an important yardstick in library planning, the type of change (such as the age composition) must be used in conjunction with the total figures. This shift in age groups is occurring throughout the country as communities near large cities become saturated and no longer have new housing opportunities for younger families. In addition, older houses rise sharply in price, closing out that alternative. According to the 1970 census, the median age of city residents was 28.8 years while the suburban median was 27.3. There could be a reversal in the next decade between inner suburbs and the central city since a lack of moderately priced housing in the suburbs could keep young families, especially minorities, in the city. This means that suburban areas may no longer be viewed exclusively as places for young families with
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Figure 1. Percent Change by Age Group, 1960-1970, County of Nassau
Source: Nassau-Suffolk Regional Planning Board. U.S. Census '70—Age. Vol. 3.
Happauge, N.Y., Nassau-Suffolk Regional Planning Board, 1972, p. 9.

children. The possibility of attracting more mature families with older
and fewer children is likely.

A second area of concern in library planning is the educational level
of the population, along with the enrollment of local residents in
Figure 2. Percent Change by Age Group, 1960-1970, County of Suffolk

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institutions of higher education. A high educational level in terms of years of school completed or percentage of college graduates is often important in projecting future college enrollments which will have a significant effect on the planning for library services.

A 1974 report by the Nassau-Suffolk Regional Planning Board indicated that the full-time equivalent enrollment of colleges and universities on Long Island would increase from 65,000 to 100,000 in one decade if planned facilities were completed. Other figures in the report that relate to the subject of age indicated that one-fourth of the entering students were over twenty, and 82 percent of the part-time students were over twenty. This leads to the conclusion that large numbers of off-campus students will be generated. Greater demands by these students on local libraries in their home communities is a probable result. Reports of this type—often done by state education departments, universities or planning agencies—should be sought out by the library planner. These reports can give the planner a better knowledge of trends toward more community colleges, specialized institutions, and colleges without walls, such as Empire State College in New York.

The basic census data, which is collected every ten years and concerns the family income for the previous calendar year (i.e., the 1970 census reports 1969 income), is analyzed by marketing firms, banks, economic development agencies, and units of government. Many of them can provide copies of their research to the library to aid in its own planning.

The income of residents reflects on library needs, since it is assumed that persons of higher income and greater mobility often can take advantage of services offered by the library. There is usually a direct correlation between educational level and income, so that these two statistics can be used in conjunction with each other. A Regional Planning Board publication documented income information for 234 communities and ranked forty communities according to the highest and lowest median family income and according to the number of families below poverty level. A tabular summary of data such as this provides some immediate indications of the variation in income levels throughout an area. Income information is also broken down into sources such as wages and salary, and income from self-employment, retirement or public assistance. Major deviations from the average in a city or county could indicate a local demand for library material that relates to the way income is obtained.

One of the most significant sources of information for library
planning is the census data concerned with occupation and industry of employment. The 1970 census provided the most detailed breakdown of occupation ever compiled. Much of the information is in unpublished form on computer tapes. However, where it is available for a small community, it could be invaluable for obtaining data for specialized occupations. A special economic report on occupations was compiled by the Nassau-Suffolk Regional Planning Board in 1973 and has had wide distribution throughout the New York metropolitan area. It is designed to give general categories of employment in occupations and industry for the residents of the SMSA. The report showed wide variation in type of occupation throughout the area. Industrial, construction and agricultural jobs are concentrated more heavily in Suffolk County, while more of the service and white-collar occupations are to be found in Nassau County.

If the research for library needs is being done in a portion of a large metropolitan area, it is necessary to see where the various occupations are being carried out. The report mentioned above indicated the type of work done by residents, and current studies are underway to indicate the type of jobs which cause people to leave this area and work in New York City or areas beyond the city. The reverse of this pattern, in which New York City residents work on Long Island, is also a part of the study.

The reason for looking at places of work is that even though much of the demand for research materials is generated by residents of an area, the demands of business and industrial firms must be taken into account. Therefore, it is important to know where there are major industrial and commercial concentrations which attract a large number of workers to a given area. This type of analysis is an innovation of the 1970 census. In previous censuses, it was not possible to correlate place of work with type of employment.

There is other detailed information available from the census that could be used in determining special needs, such as ethnic or racial information. The Regional Planning Board expanded upon these subjects in two reports in 1972 and 1974. Both reports indicate where concentrations of racial or ethnic groups are found in the two-county area. This type of material would allow a library to create a special collection concerned with history or current conditions of racial or ethnic groups which constitute a large segment of the local population.

The usual figure needed by a local library in order to prepare a program for expansion or relocation is one indicating how many people are expected to be in the community in any given year. The New
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York region is similar to other parts of the country in that there is a variety of public and private agencies that prepare either current estimates of population or future projections. It is the responsibility of the person using the information to attempt to distinguish between those projections designed to reflect a very favorable economic climate and others which are done on a more scientific basis. Utilities are often a source of current population that can supplement either the federal decennial census or an interim census contracted by a local municipality and conducted by the federal government. For example, the Nassau-Suffolk region has had very reliable yearly census estimates provided by the Long Island Lighting Company. For more than two decades, the Lighting Company has made small-area estimates of population which, when checked against the decennial and numerous special censuses, are usually found to be quite accurate. The 1970 estimates were approximately one percent different from the federal census. Utilities have access to meters which are an immediate reflection on dwelling units being added or removed. The most difficult part of the estimation process is the application of an average family size to the various dwelling unit types to come up with the total population estimate. If the utility uses a methodology that takes this factor into account, there is a good chance of obtaining reliable figures. Other sources of current estimates are the birth and death records of the various health departments. If a large city or county health department exists, it is often possible to obtain good information for the natural increase in a year. If the responsibility of recording births and deaths is fragmented among a number of local governments, this source might not be valid since local municipalities do not have immediate access to birth and death statistics occurring outside of their jurisdictional area.

The U.S. Census Bureau is responsible for annual interim estimates; however, it often does not go below the county level and therefore is not helpful for determining the current population of small areas.

A projection of population for the next decade or two is usually the responsibility of regional planning agencies. In the New York area, there are public and private regional agencies that currently have projections for county figures ranging from 1975 to the year 2000. At present, the New York State Office of Planning Services has made projections for all counties in the state. The Port Authority of New York and New Jersey has made projections for the New York Metropolitan Region. The privately sponsored Regional Plan Association has also made projections for each county in the New York Metropolitan Region.
As usual, none of the projections completely agree with each other. However, all have been recently revised and most would be acceptable for providing a countywide estimate of future population.

The Nassau-Suffolk Regional Planning Board made an entire series of projections in the late 1960s which gave projections for 1970, 1975, 1980 and 1985 for the two counties, the two cities, the thirteen towns and the 124 local school districts. These were scheduled to be revised in 1975 since they are the only source of small-area projections. The projections were particularly useful for local facility planning, such as schools, libraries, parks, post offices, municipal buildings, and public safety installations. The methodology used to develop these figures was to project the population for the region based on current trends and existing age groups. This data was then matched with a land availability analysis in each school district, city and town. The result was a report indicating that some areas could not accommodate the population demand and therefore others with available land or a potential for extensive zoning changes would be required to provide new housing for the anticipated population increase. An analysis similar to this could be available from many city, county or regional planning agencies and should be obtained for a projection of local library requirements.

All of the foregoing discussion of census data must be related to the type of geographic area for which the information is compiled in order to allow the person concerned with local library planning maximum usability of the statistics. At present, the census is tabulated for major municipalities; in addition, it is possible to obtain data for urbanized areas by tract and block along with zip codes. The tracts are the most important source of census data. They are easily recognizable statistical areas that never change from census to census. They contain approximately 5000 people and are subdivided into sections if growth is occurring in the area. The largest amount of census material can be obtained on a tract basis and most tracts are designed to relate to local community boundaries. Therefore, combinations of tracts can provide a reasonable approximation of the library service area. For library service areas that have irregular boundaries, such as those of school districts which overlap municipal lines, it is possible to obtain individual block data in urban areas. This data can then be aggregated to obtain a close match with a service area. This type of tabulation for more than 100 school districts in the Nassau-Suffolk SMSA was compiled by the Nassau-Suffolk Regional Planning Board in 1972. The report

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allowed the local districts to compare their own statistics with the results of the 1970 federal census.

The U.S. Census Bureau is working on a program for the future that should be of interest to all people who must have updated information for small areas. A process of geocoding is going on throughout the country to enable users of census data to relate any information compiled by street address directly to a census block and tract. The geocoding process involves recording the number range of addresses for the face of each block so that any data can be aggregated to census tracts or municipal boundaries. This also works in reverse: information is disaggregated down to the block level using the same system. In the future, it will be possible to coordinate data assembled from many agencies in a city or region. For example, there are health records such as births, deaths, incidence of disease, etc., building records, data from social services, police statistics, information from school censuses, and transportation statistics. All of these, if listed by address, can be coded to a series of census blocks or tracts by using a computer program. This means that in the years between the federal censuses, a greater amount of local data will be used to update and expand on the census. This will allow researchers to have more current data available and should result in the greater use and coordination of locally generated statistics. This means that the ability of libraries to obtain and make available local data will be much more important both for their own use and for the needs of researchers in the community.

A majority of the work of providing a good geocoding system in a metropolitan area, along with coordinating the data, is the responsibility of a variety of local agencies. Therefore, the library is one of the institutions that could take an active part in any programs designed to improve access to local information.

Community requirements for type and extent of library service is just one aspect of library planning. The physical location of a library in relation to other elements of the community is equally important. The optimum location for a library is often dependent upon the plans local or regional governments have for locating community facilities and activities. On Long Island, the Nassau-Suffolk Comprehensive Development Plan—which was completed in 1970 and approved the following year—acts as the general guideline for development in the two-county region. It is important that the persons responsible for library location be familiar with such aspects of plans since coordination is important in providing the most advantageous sites for public facilities.
The basic concept of the bi-county plan can be categorized as a “three Cs” idea—corridors, clusters and centers. The corridors idea relates to the geographic shape of Long Island, which is long and narrow with a strong east-west orientation toward New York City. The plan calls for a series of corridors running east and west from the Atlantic Ocean to the Long Island Sound. The central corridor which surrounds the Long Island Expressway and the main line of the Long Island Railroad is envisioned as the area of greatest activity. For example, it is in this corridor that major traffic generators such as industrial parks, shopping centers, and important office centers should be located. On each side of this high-density corridor is a fairly intensely developed residential band extending from the New York City line to the two eastern forks of Long Island. The waterfront corridors along Long Island Sound and the Atlantic Ocean are recommended for low-density residential, recreational and conservation uses. This means that locations for a library serving neighborhoods or communities should be concentrated in the residential band, and regional facilities—such as a research library or cooperative library system—should be located in the more intensive area where better highway access and public transportation would be available. Cooperative library systems exist in Nassau and Suffolk counties and a research library is in the advanced planning stage in Nassau County; all are located in the central corridor.

The second element—clusters—relates to a basic planning concept being used throughout the country. The cluster concept is a way of providing land for housing and community facilities while saving open space, without an overall increase in residential density. It is an alternative to the typical suburban housing pattern of endless rows of uniform lots. The cluster concept groups various types of housing units on less land and often surrounds the units with extensive open space. The number of housing units remains the same as in the conventional pattern. The advantage of this form of development is that small communities are created rather than the usual suburban sprawl of non-communities. This concept if finally being used to a greater extent and is being expanded into the idea of planned unit developments, which carry the clustering idea one step further. The planned unit development encourages builders to build entire communities with a mixture of land uses that are related to one another. The major implication for library planning in this concept is that the creation of planned unit developments in rapidly developing areas gives a much better idea of where new centers of activity will be located. For
example, if there is a proposal to build 5,000 new units, and part of the plan is to cluster some of these units close to a new community center which will have shops, offices and community facilities, this is clearly the optimum location for a library. Therefore, it is possible to bring library planning into the planning for a new community at an early stage and be assured that the location chosen will be accessible to the maximum number of new community residents. Too often libraries, like other public facilities, are planned long after a development pattern has been established in an area. The site chosen is often on the periphery of a new development or along a major road which may provide a feasible installation but not necessarily one that is accessible to all the people to be served.

The third major idea of the bi-county plan refers to the concept of centers, which has applicability to many other parts of the country. The centers referred to in the plan are the older downtown areas that twenty-five or more years ago served as town or village centers of activity. These centers often had all of the community services located within walking distance of one another, and the center was tied to some type of mass transportation. Surrounding the centers were often housing units at medium to high densities. When the rapid post-war growth occurred, the extensive vacant areas between these centers of activity experienced continued growth of single-family housing units, resulting in a current uniform density spread throughout the countryside. As this growth took place, the older central business district lost some of its preeminence to new shopping centers and highway commercial areas. The community library was faced with the choice of remaining in the downtown area or attempting to relocate where it would be accessible to the vast number of new residents housed on the previously vacant land outside of the former towns and villages. Neither of these options is totally desirable since remaining in an area of reduced activity does not allow maximum use of the facility, and attempting to locate in areas of scattered housing patterns serves one area at the expense of others. For this reason, the concept of centers strongly recommends the revitalization of some of these older communities, since many still have the ability to function as they did a number of years ago. Often the community facilities such as the library, post office, educational buildings, governmental installations, and private office construction can be a catalyst for downtown redevelopment. In the long run, the concentration of services and the increased feasibility of public transportation provides a valid
alternative to the wasteful land practices so prevalent in most new developments in this country.

In the past year there has been an increased awareness that our land development patterns have contributed to the sharp rise in energy costs. One reason is the total reliance on the private automobile in suburban areas, since the development pattern does not lend itself to any meaningful public transportation possibilities. In addition, the typical scattered pattern of single-family housing construction is inferior to a development with more attached units which are easier to heat and to provide with community services within walking distance. In recognition of this, the Regional Plan Association in the New York metropolitan area published a report in 1974 that analyzed current and future land use configurations in Suffolk County. One of the recurring themes in this report was the recommendation that some of the main facilities providing jobs and services be linked together to form a linear community in the rapidly growing area in the center of Suffolk County. The idea here was to concentrate new housing units and offices in direct relationship to educational buildings, hospitals, shopping centers, and industrial facilities. The reason for this is to allow a possibility of highway, public transportation, bicycle and even pedestrian linkages among the various areas. At the present time, the only way to go from one major area to another is via private automobile. This concept is an extension of the Nassau-Suffolk Comprehensive Development Plan for clusters and centers. The implications for library planning in this concept are obvious since it would be possible to provide better linkages between university and institutional libraries, as well as logical locations for libraries or branches to serve new cluster residential communities. A reevaluation of planning concepts is inevitable as many agencies realize that the problems of energy conservation cannot be solved without some significant changes in the way communities are built and operate throughout the country.

There is one final area of data gathering that is important to library planning: a concern for environmental constraints. Although these constraints are often overlooked, they could be a significant factor to consider in choosing a library location. The siting of a library in an area subject to flooding is a good example of an avoidable error if proper data is used in the selection of the library building. Throughout the country, there is a great concern for environmental problems; one major concern is building that has gone on for years in places such as flood plains or along coastal areas subject to erosion and flooding.
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Many state and local agencies now distribute maps and reports that summarize these problems. The Nassau-Suffolk Regional Planning Board has a Marine Resources Council which is responsible for research in this area. In 1973 the council released a report which contained guidelines incorporating findings of studies that recommended management techniques in coastal areas such as Long Island.¹⁷ All of the above information is available and should be used especially by public or quasi-public agencies that propose to construct buildings. The recent regulations requiring environmental impact statements are often an excellent source of data about areas in which construction may be unwise or will require certain safeguards to avoid future problems.

Most of the foregoing recommendations relate to the plans of public agencies in counties, cities, towns, villages and metropolitan regions. However, there are private agencies that should not be overlooked as reliable sources of data that can be used in library planning. Local chambers of commerce often contract for specific studies that are concerned with business conditions or economic development in an area. Regional associations of various business groups often produce data which can be helpful in determining both library location and the needs for various types of special services for the business and industrial community. A report entitled Metropolis Revealed, published by the Long Island Association of Commerce and Industry in 1973, is a good example of the type of data produced by nongovernmental agencies that should be sought out by the library planner.¹⁸

In summary, it is clear that intelligent library planning requires closer ties between librarians, planning agencies, the Bureau of the Census, and those involved in research in the private sector.

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Market Analysis and Audience Research for Libraries

MORRIS E. MASSEY

A growing concern with understanding "consumers" in the commercial world led to the development of numerous sophisticated techniques for analyzing consumers and their interrelationships with firms. This area of "market research" covers product/service analysis; consumer information surveys; attitude, trait, and motivation analysis; experimentation with controllable variables; forecasting demands for products and services; and analysis of secondary sources of data. All of these approaches are aimed at providing better information, so that present and potential customers can be better served through understanding and identifying current problems and formulating better plans for the future. Application of some of the basic market research techniques to the library appears to offer helpful insights for librarians also seeking to serve their communities better.

While the breadth of market research techniques precludes complete coverage here (basic college texts on market research can be useful references for further application), some specific library applications illustrate the potential values to librarians.

An area of vital concern to librarians is the library user, both present and potential. Because the user is the basis for existence, these "customers" need to be understood in as much depth as possible. Certainly, most librarians, as well as business people, have a great deal of "gut" knowledge about their clientele. However, a systematic analysis of consumers is one of the most vital tools for improving services. For this purpose, the concept of market segmentation was developed.

As a basis for market analysis (studying the people who comprise the groups one serves or hopes to serve), market segmentation has become increasingly popular. Essentially, segmentation looks at the demand
for services and shows how rational and precise adjustments can better satisfy user requirements, i.e., specific knowledge about consumers can help to design and offer services that best serve the needs of customers. Since all customers are not the same, they are divided, or segmented, into different categories. The ways of segmenting customers are almost limitless—French-speaking, high income, high-school education, small family unit, rural, etc. However, several traditional patterns have been developed to provide segments relevant to understanding and planning purposes.

Probably the most common basis for categorizing customers is geographic. The total area served is simply divided on the basis of users. Typically, such a division is based upon geographic boundaries and limiting factors, i.e., county lines, highways, rivers, districts, etc. While customers often cluster within geographic units, there is frequently—particularly with high mobility—little clear-cut definition; rarely will many libraries have customers only from specific geographic subsections unless some arbitrary limitations are present. Further, geographic segmentation defines only where people are and little else.

Another popular approach to segmentation uses demographic variables: age, income, occupation, ethnic variables, sex, etc. However, in the marketplace demographic variables have not necessarily given the best indications of actual behavior. For example, is there a direct relationship between library usage and age or income? There is, perhaps, to some extent, but the causal factors for use are probably much more complicated than age, income, or other quantitative variables.

A third approach to segmentation is based upon volume. This "heavy half" theory notes that, at least for many products in the marketplace, perhaps only one-half of the customers account for 80 percent of the consumption. For many libraries this segmentation approach seems to have merit—the heavy users generate a large proportion of the activity, but comprise a small percentage of actual customers served. However, this method of segmentation also lacks insights into causal factors of the behavior.

Although limited in several respects, the preceding approaches to segmentation do offer several benefits for libraries. Geographic segmentation could improve scheduling of bookmobile services, or might show areas of high use rate for particular services, or even high concentrations of abuse (overdue or lost books). Demographic data might show that there are fairly clear distinctions between users and nonusers of certain library services. The "heavy-half" theory might
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indicate directions for budgeting future services, both expanding and declining.

However, all of the above approaches to segmentation focus on descriptive factors rather than causal factors, and thus cannot render an insight into future behavior. To achieve such predictive ability, a more sophisticated approach can be used for segmenting library customers—benefit segmentation. Although relatively recent in popularity, benefit segmentation is growing as a technique not only for understanding consumers better, thereby increasing predictive ability about them, but also as a focus technique for directing many market analysis efforts.

The key to benefit segmentation is to analyze the benefits which people are seeking in their consumption of products and services. After categorizing consumers on this basis, each segment is contrasted with all other segments on the basis of demographic characteristics, usage rates, attitudes, behavior patterns, images held of the library, lifestyles, and/or any other descriptive characteristics that could offer useful insights into better understanding these groups.

Through such an in-depth understanding of these segments, libraries could determine how to reach them better, communicate with them in the most meaningful terms, and offer them the most useful services—a true "consumer orientation" to serve the community best.

Although sophisticated techniques and computers are used in many such market analyses, it is possible to use intuitive reasoning with equal success. A few points should be kept in mind:

1. A segment is defined by the principal benefit it is seeking. Most people seek multiple benefits; however, it is the relative importance of a benefit to one group versus another group that isolates that segment.

2. While the principal benefit sought is the critical segmenting factor, other descriptive characteristics should be included. For example, if the segment is unique, then the people in that segment may be very similar in certain demographic characteristics (age, income, education, etc.), have certain patterns of lifestyle and personality (aggressive, passive, innovative, hedonistic, etc.), or may be relatively alike in their images of the library (dull, quiet, intellectual, etc.). As many characteristics should be described as might be useful to the given library in understanding its consumers and/or nonusers.

3. Benefits should always be defined from the user's point of view,
not the library’s. For example, what is the real benefit the children’s collection offers—entertainment, education, babysitting service? A good technique is to divide a sheet of paper into five or six columns (for segments) and rows (for characteristics), define the principal benefits, and fill in the obvious demographic characteristics, followed by other important characteristics. A small group of library staff can effectively create a basic benefit segmentation analysis in a few hours.

As a rough example, the following segments might emerge (the titles are usually applied after the basic benefit group is defined):

*The toilets* need specific information or materials, are students who are forced to use the facilities, need quiet to some extent, require good light, would like refreshments available for breaks, prefer comfortable chairs.

*The lonely hearts* need social contact, use the library because they have nothing else to do, are retired people, are lonely single people, like to talk and therefore resent “cold shoulders” and quiet rules.

*The searchers* are project-oriented—e.g., frantic about the family tree, want information about a specific topic, need special assistance, may not be regular users, need reproduction/copy machines, need areas to spread out, are in a hurry.

*The escapists* are bored people looking for personal fantasy escape in the materials, housewives, single people, regular users; new materials are most important to them.

*The uninformed* are not frequent users, but should be, are not familiar with facilities (guide books and large signs would help), are young people seeking answers to personal questions, probably intimidated by the authoritarian image of the librarian.

The above segments are only given as suggestions for the approach which should be taken. Obviously, real analyses should be made in greater depth.

Specific applications of such an analysis can be in designing new services, curtailing present methods of operations, changing hours, restructuring fine systems, physically remodeling sections, creating displays, designing publicity and public relations activities, etc. Major improvements of many types will then be directly related to better knowledge of the library’s market segments. From such insights into consumers, better products can be designed and better facilities developed to serve the needs and wants of the customers.
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A more direct approach for gathering information about library consumers is the unobtrusive methodology of observation. Simply defined, observation is “viewing with a purpose.” A great deal of insight into consumers comes from observing their behavior patterns and any other physical aspects of their usage of library facilities. For example, what “search pattern” do people use to reach their destination in the library? Do they stand perplexed and scan for signs and other directional information, or do the majority come directly to the main desk? Do frequent users still need help? Are people always seeking directions to facilities such as the music room, restrooms, the auditorium, etc.?

In order to collect data useful for analyzing the preceding situations, events should be recorded as they occur. A simple tally sheet can be kept convenient for the staff member observing. Useful information to be included might be approximate age of patron; time; whether alone or with others; approximation of patron’s occupation—e.g. housewife, student, businessman; category of request; etc.

Resulting tallies and summaries of such observations may lead to the improvement of physical aspects of layout, the placing of informational signs, the changing of staffing patterns to meet high demand times, and other improvements. For example, one library installed large colored globes to aid in directing patrons after they observed confusion in following typical directions such as “down the second aisle to the right.” The bright globes were suspended above the areas and the directions became simply “under the blue globe.”

Observations can be made of any overt event, but care should be taken to not inject any bias by making the recording obvious to the person being observed. Care should also be taken to avoid injecting any bias by the subjectivity of the recorder. For example, it is very difficult, particularly if several people record observations, to determine such things as the “mental state” of the patron (angry, confused, embarrassed). This is a weakness of the observation technique, but there is no way to observe direct data on an individual’s attitudes, motivations, plans, past actions, or highly personal activities. Observers should further remember that just because someone checks out certain types of materials does not necessarily mean he actually uses them. However, these weaknesses are minor in contrast to the ease of this technique, relative low cost—since it can be done by library employees in conjunction with other duties—and the speed of data collection. Some libraries may already have some mechanical devices that record observable data, such as turnstile counters or time-registering checkout...
systems. Data from such "counters" can be easily analyzed for time sequences or use rates. In brief, observation techniques can provide valuable data which frequently substantiates or negates subjectivity about patron behavior within library facilities.

One of the most perplexing, but potentially useful, problems faced by businesses is how to measure accurately the image people hold of a company or product. These difficult-to-verbalize reactions are highly subjective. A unique approach to quantifying these images was initially developed by Charles Osgood and his associates, and has enjoyed increasing use in market research. Its application to libraries could provide valuable insights into several areas: Should the library launch a public relations campaign to change its image? What is the present image of physical facilities, collections, and/or personnel? Do images vary between users and nonusers? Osgood's technique is called the semantic differential and involves repeated judgments by respondents of a "concept" (e.g., a collection) against a series of descriptive polar adjectival scales on a seven-point, equal-interval, ordinal scale. The pairs of adjectives can be selected from a series developed for the original test. Examples of these pairs would be: good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, ancient/modern. The scales move from left to right and are described to respondents (columns are labeled at top) as representing "extremely good," "very good," "slightly good," "neutral," "slightly bad," "very bad," and "extremely bad." Subjects are encouraged to use the scales quickly and honestly and not to ponder any particular set.

To measure the results, weights are assigned to each position, and these are converted to mean scores and presented in profile form. This simple calculation provides a relatively easy-to-interpret profile: if the means are very pronounced (i.e., if there is little standard deviation), then the image point is very consistent. Furthermore, the relative positions of the points will show the strength of the image ("extremely" versus "slightly").

Several modifications in the original technique have made results very useful for specific marketing problems, such as measuring the image of one brand against those of its competitors. Application to libraries can also be very useful. For example, what do people think about the library in general (useful, wasteful, babysitting service, active in community, behind the times, progressive, underfunded, sterile, etc.)? How does the library compare with other sources of information and entertainment (media, book clubs, in-house collections, schools,
as useful for libraries. Although experiments exist in many forms (more than twenty-five “typical” designs are used in the social sciences), some very simple applications can provide useful information for the library. Basically, an experiment involves the introduction of a controlled variable into a situation, the measurement of the change created by the variable, and then the determination of whether the variable should be incorporated into operations. An experiment is artificial in the sense that situations are created for testing purposes. A key consideration is to control the variable to make sure it is the contributor to change, rather than some other, noncontrolled external factor.

Market experiments are frequently designed to measure the impact
of changes in advertising themes, package designs, or sales techniques. In the library, experiments might show the changes created by display design, methods for getting materials returned, attendance at special programs, etc.

If a "response rate" is known—e.g., the percentage of materials returned from return requests—then a variable can be injected: a "new" reminder card is sent out to patrons with overdue materials. Time is allowed for the reaction, another measurement is taken, and the situation is analyzed to verify that no external factor has generated a change (a local newspaper campaign on the costs of "minor" crimes such as stealing books can trigger a jump in the return rate unrelated to the library's direct efforts).

A slightly more sophisticated approach to the preceding "before/after" experiment (so named because of when the measurements are taken) would involve the use of a "control" group. In this design, two groups, equal in as many characteristics as possible, are measured, but only one group is subjected to the variable, while the other is influenced only by "natural" events. Using the preceding return-rate example, the groups of delinquents would be divided in half; one subgroup would receive the "new" notice, the other would get the standard one. Comparison of the responses would show both the effect, if any, of outside variables and the impact of the new approach. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Normal response pattern</th>
<th>25%</th>
<th>25%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>New form</td>
<td>No change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot;After&quot; rate</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net effect=</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using this basic approach, several applications can be developed. The essence of the experiment is to provide quantitative measurement of the impact of proposed changes. The experiment can also be used in "reverse" sense—to measure the effect of stopping a given practice.

In summary, the preceding market research techniques appear to offer relatively simple, inexpensive means for libraries to generate useful data about their "consumers" and their operations. Librarians are urged to make further application of basic market research techniques through interpretations of their own (see Additional References for helpful sources). With improved knowledge in these areas, patrons can be better served in a true "consumer-orientation"
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...a critical need in today's cost-conscious, service-oriented world. Both the library and its community will gain.

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Additional References


User Studies and Library Planning

LOWELL A. MARTIN

STUDIES OF USE and users are becoming fairly standard in library planning, and attest to a changing concept of what constitutes effective service. At the same time, too much is often expected of use studies, as of any new planning tool, and disillusionment sets in when a library laboriously gathers extensive data and then wonders what to do with it. This article describes the several kinds of use studies, and then attempts to appraise what they contribute and do not contribute to the planning process.

There is a long history of reader studies in American librarianship—only a few highlights need be mentioned here. The long but thin line starts with nonscientific investigators like John Cotton Dana and Charles Compton. In the 1920s and 1930s the stream widened and deepened, with the efforts first of William Gray and Ruth Monroe and then of Douglas Waples, all seeking to utilize reliable samples and to reach valid conclusions. It is instructive to contrast the net results of the earlier impressionistic and the later scientific studies: one gathers from Compton that it is laboring men who read the classics and from Waples that even well educated people read what comes most conveniently to hand. The pre-1950 investigations were pulled together by Berelson in his report for the Public Library Inquiry, and he went one important step further to raise questions about what the findings meant for library policy. A recent study with a longer perspective traces the development of reader studies in an effort to gain verified knowledge as part of the basis for a library “science.”

In any case, until recently use studies were not an integral tool for library planning, but were efforts apart from it, usually conducted by academics rather than practitioners and administrators. Individual libraries were appraised and statewide library plans devised with little

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feedback from users, and once programs were instituted, little effort was made to determine whether they had the desired effects on use.

Investigations of use and users are still infrequent in day-to-day library management, but they have appeared with some regularity in statewide planning (New York, Maryland, Illinois, California) and also in commissioned surveys of individual libraries (New York City, Baltimore, Chicago, Phoenix, San Francisco, Seattle). Essentially they are an aspect of community analysis, dealing as they do with the particular form of functional behavior of people—their search for information and recorded knowledge—that relates most closely to library service.

VARIETIES OF USER STUDIES

User studies addressed themselves initially, and in increasingly large numbers, to the “who, what, when and where” of library use. A smaller number of studies have probed the way libraries are used, and with what success. Only a few have sought to penetrate why users turn to libraries, and what effects library use has.

First-level investigations of who, what, when and where are beneficial, as long as the limitations of such data are understood. If a library wanted to know the hourly and daily volume and flow of use in order to allocate staff time, it would keep a simple door count (an elementary form of user study). If a library wants to check the balance and spread of its acquisitions with the balance and spread of materials utilization, it will analyze and classify recent purchase lists against a parallel classification of titles actually used (as shown by circulation records) and a sample of items left on reading tables; some thought-provoking matches and mismatches may emerge (another form of use study). If a proposal for a new branch has been made, analysis of registration and circulation records will show the present coverage of the affected area (still another form of use study, even though no questionnaires are involved). Or, if a public library, noting declining adult circulation figures, wants to find out whether the decline is caused by an increasing number of students using their school and college libraries, a short-form questionnaire, administered on a sample basis at six-month intervals, will provide the answer.

Note that in each example what the agency wants to find out is determined before any study was undertaken. These are not scatter-shot investigations. If one sets a close and limited target, one can get clear and valid data. Note also that the data obtained apply to
concrete management problems, and therefore directly facilitate the decision-making process.

Studies of how libraries are used, and with what success, have been less frequent than the who, what, when, and where variety. This is surprising in one sense, because the alert practitioner can usually make a fairly reasonable estimate of who the library users are without a formal study, but this is much less true concerning their success or failure in getting what they seek. One factor inhibiting use studies may be the curious indifference to follow-up in professional/client relations that characterizes most librarians, whether public, school or academic. The collection is organized, the catalog created, the initial guidance given at the reference desk, and then it is taken on faith that all goes well with the user. This is analogous to the physician prescribing without checking to see if the fever subsides or the professor lecturing without determining whether anything is learned. The point could be pushed to the stage where the librarian’s claim to be a professional would be called into question, but this is not the place to do so.

What must be considered here is whether librarians really want studies that probe into adequacies and inadequacies of the library/user interface. Several years ago two investigations were conducted that raised serious questions about the accuracy and thoroughness of reference information provided by public libraries. One would think that these sober findings would prompt every library to reexamine itself, but few such reviews have occurred; and where the possibility has been raised by an occasional hard-headed administrator, professional staff members have resisted. One can only speculate about the reasons for this. One possibility is that most librarians are convinced that their reference service is accurate and thorough; but if this is the case, why not put it to the test? Another possibility is that librarians are uncertain about the success of their ministrations to users, and simply do not want to find out.

Still another factor inhibiting use studies that attempt to examine how the library is used is the technical difficulty involved. Patrons cannot just be observed, although even this, done systematically, could begin to indicate common patterns or strategies of search. Mere observation, however, would not indicate why the searcher is following a particular sequence, or whether it leads him to his goal. Individual questioning is necessary, and this is time-consuming. Even if the time is invested, users’ responses may not be revealing or even very accurate. For one thing, many library users do not want to be identified as unskilled and inept in utilizing bibliographical and information
sources. In addition, users may be uncertain or vague about what materials actually exist, and therefore have no criterion for determining whether or not they are locating what is available. Finally, most users regard library service not so much as a right to which they are entitled or as a product for which they pay directly and for which they expect value received, but more as a kind of dividend or gift; thus, their expectations from libraries are not high, they are grateful for small favors, and are not disposed to dwell on shortcomings in service.

All this is not intended to discourage efforts to determine user experience in relation to libraries, but rather to put such efforts on a realistic basis. As straightforward an activity as talking with people while they use the catalog—asking them, for example, how they would look up a pamphlet issued by the U.S. government—can be revealing both to the cataloger and to the reference librarian. Finding out whether users obtain what they seek can be reassuring (the majority usually give a favorable report) and disturbing (a distinct minority are far from satisfied). The point is to recognize that one is dealing with a fairly complex form of behavior and that responses from users have to be appraised and interpreted and cannot always be taken at face value.

User studies undertaken specifically for evaluative purposes constitute a special and neglected category. When a library manager is asked if there is value in knowing more about library users, the answer will usually be affirmative. However, the administrator, having responded to user data with new or extended services, is likely to be less enthusiastic about checking on what has and has not been achieved. Yet the criterion for innovation is not newness but effectiveness. The most important component of an experiment such as the Action Library in Philadelphia may not be the new concept involved (building service into the learning experiences of children and adolescents rather than conceiving service as an appendage following from learning experiences elsewhere), but rather the thorough follow-up on what the users proceed to do in the library, in the home, and in the classroom as a result of the alternative service concept.

Carrying use studies even further, to question why libraries are used and whether such use significantly changes or benefits either the individual or the community, takes one into psychological and sociological realms considered outside the librarian's expertise. A few such studies have been made by social scientists since the work inspired by Waples in the 1930s. In Europe there has been a modest tradition of reading research, but for the most part American librarianship lacks roots in the foundations of reading and information transfer.
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Occasional efforts by librarians to strengthen the core of librarianship with cross-fertilization from cognate fields come to mind: the Public Library Inquiry, for example, which explicitly turned to social scientists; and the joining of school librarians with a related professional group, the Association for Educational Communications and Technology, in order to produce standards for school media centers. But these are sporadic exceptions. The profession does not maintain regular and fruitful contacts either with basic disciplines or with other applied fields that could help to characterize the library as an educational and social institution. Library schools offering doctoral programs seldom encourage examination of social and psychological foundations by means of user studies, nor does such work hold any place in the limited research production of their faculties.

Thus, we have an increasing number of applied and specific studies which often prove useful in practice although limited in their long-range impact, occasional efforts to appraise library use which encounter methodological problems, and a few examples of socio-psychological studies which do not yet constitute a continuing and coordinated program of research into the morphology of library use or of information transfer. Until all three types advance in conjunction, the input into library planning from use and user studies will be marginal.

THE INCLUSIVE USER STUDY

It is when a library comes to a general or inclusive user study, as distinct from an applied investigation designed to answer explicit questions, that confusion and even disillusionment set in. The venture is usually started for the best of motives. Libraries are service enterprises, and service will be better if the nature and the needs of the clientele are known. User orientation should balance resources orientation for effective service.

But when the question is raised concerning what the library wants to know about its users, and how the information will be applied to planning, ambiguities appear. The librarian's initial reason for undertaking a user study is "to know my readers." But surely the practitioner in any daily contact with patrons has some idea of who they are. Perhaps the justification for the study is given to be: "to know my readers better"—to know more of their needs, habits and problems, and to understand them as individuals.

Paradoxically, most general reader studies elicit group rather than individual characteristics: sex, age groups, educational levels, and
occupation are sought. One can classify users with this information, but only to a limited extent can one individualize them. This was apparent in the 1930s when the combination of an empathetic librarian and a rising automation entrepreneur led to the encoding on IBM cards of the social characteristics of registrants of the Montclair (New Jersey) Public Library. With the system in operation and the sorting machines running smoothly, a meeting was convened at which the library administrators posed the question: What will we do with the data?

The same question is asked today when a library finds, for example, that more than one-half of its adult users are college graduates and that their income level is distinctly above average. One logical answer was offered by Berelson: concentrate service on this elite. Several decades of pronouncements by librarians have resisted this conclusion. The point is not whether the Berelson inference is right or wrong, but either that reading is a highly individualistic form of activity in our otherwise standardized society, or that the reading of all groups tends to coalesce in the flood of mass communications; in either case planning by a reading agency cannot proceed on the basis of group characteristics determined by the typical user study.

But what of the study designed to get at user “needs”? Surely this is a worthy aim, and if achieved would prove to be less academic than classification by census categories. But “needs” is a slippery concept to define, and even if we know what we mean by the term, they are most difficult to identify. An individual considering his own needs will sense what is involved. Many people have not stopped to reflect on needs; others cannot articulate what they want, or are ashamed or embarrassed to do so. The researcher must seek to bridge the gap by suggesting kinds of needs (on questionnaires or in interviews), projecting what he or she feels ought to be the wants and aspirations of respondents. The latter, seeing a way out, choose one or several socially approved responses even though they would not read a book on the subject if it were placed before them in technicolor and with accompanying music.

Too often the choices of “needs” are a projection of what the investigator, with all his preconceptions, believes they should be, and not what is established by hard evidence. What he has set out to catch thus slips through the net of inquiry, so the size and nature of what has escaped is reconstructed from mere glimpses in the murky water.

Interests, as distinct from needs, may be somewhat easier to determine, since most people can define to some extent what they are interested in. The pitfall here is that honest responses run the complete
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gamut, from the trivial to the noble, from the socially approved to the most self-centered.

At this point use studies become research in its most amoral form, which may be appropriate for a commercial enterprise that wants to provide whatever will sell, but not for an educational enterprise that is supposed to have some social purpose which justifies the expenditure of public funds. Quite separate from the value implications involved, market research has pragmatic limitations. A manufacturer would not become rich by asking people what they want or need, but would attempt to build a market by sensing human aspirations, creating a product considered to be consistent with these aspirations and producing it. He might produce a Volkswagen or an Edsel; in either case, the customer cannot say before the fact that this is what he does or does not need.

There are more fundamental reasons why general studies of library users have produced limited results to date. Library use as such may not be what should be studied, or it may not be the best way to get what the library planner needs to know. Libraries are not separate from other informational and educational sources in the community. People acquire recorded knowledge from a wide range of sources, starting with their daily newspaper, so that the library is one component in a system, and should be studied in this light. The user study is not equivalent to the community study, but is only a part of it, dealing with that portion of the constituency that thus far responded to the agency. The proper study of library use and nonuse starts the study of communication—the transfer of knowledge—throughout the community.

There is nothing wrong with questioning people at the library door, provided it is not assumed that this covers the entire range of people in their total search. Actually the library study reaches only a fragment of the whole; one of the first questions to be examined is what fragment that is.

The usual library use study is an examination of the agency as it exists and of responses by the community to present provision. It is not a survey of total media use and information seeking—although it is sometimes mistakenly treated as such—nor is it an analysis of what response would be given to a library differently conceived. Instead, it is a cross section of what is occurring under prevailing assumptions held both by librarians and by patrons as to what service should be, and under prevailing financial support within those assumptions. In other words, general library use studies are survey research and not
experimental research, and as such tell us what is rather than what should be. If this built-in limitation is recognized, such surveys can help us to see more clearly where we are now. A sound example of this type is a British study conducted a decade ago.  

STUDIES OF NONUSERS

It stands to reason that a degree of affinity exists between a library and its users. To some extent the agency is relevant to needs and interests, and to some extent its organization proves usable; otherwise, the users would not be there. Once there, users should be contacted by the librarian, and studied as individuals to obtain continuing feedback for appraising and replanning services.

None of this is feasible with nonusers, who constitute well over one-half the community for the public library, and sizable proportions for school and college libraries also. The case can be advanced that if any formal study is to be made, i.e., if the time and money are to be expended, it would best be directed to those who do not come to the library.

Do some people in the service area or service group lack needs and interests for which recorded knowledge is required? How many have such needs or interests but fulfill them to their satisfaction from sources other than the library? Are there some who have tried the library in the past and found it not suitable for their purpose, and if so, why? Are there others with incipient needs and interests who do not know that suitable materials exist, or that the library has them? Few librarians could give even approximate answers to such questions for the community just beyond their doors.

Going into the community at large to seek answers is a most complex and costly undertaking. Impressions can be gained by contacting individuals by chance and by talking with organized groups, but any valid study involves a random sample of a heterogeneous and dispersed population, and involves interviews in some depth. Few sizable communities can be adequately covered with a sample of fewer than 1000 respondents, and interviews by competent agencies currently cost $20 per call, so that the investment required is quite substantial. The sample size can be reduced somewhat by concentrating on one or more subgroups which the library is clearly not reaching—e.g., undereducated adults, avant-garde sophisticated, or top business executives—but even then the task is formidable.

Where studies involving nonusers have been made, the results have
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had substance and have affected library planning. An example is the Baltimore area, where the series of Deiches studies was based on data from a random sample of 1,913 households;¹¹ and more recently a survey was made by a government agency¹² of information needs of citizens. Findings and recommendations have guided policy-making in the Enoch Pratt Free Library.

In view of the potential value of data about nonusers, and of the considerable technical skill and cost involved, libraries with some similarity in population composition might well combine in commissioning and funding thorough studies. Some library schools, in conjunction with the social research centers of their universities, are competent to carry out such assignments. Another alternative is for the state library agency to commission and finance studies of nonuser groups that characterize several parts of the state. Librarians have come to hold the attitude that scientific research is desirable if carried out by others and paid for by the government. Now that federal funds are more difficult to obtain, individual libraries and state library agencies—if they are seriously concerned about user needs and responses—might well take steps to acquire their own planning data. On the statewide level, if this were to be designed not as a one-time cross-section review, but as a periodic series of studies, with some of the same type of information gathered at intervals, the result would be a running record of trends and a much clearer idea of whether efforts to improve service or to meet changed conditions have actually made a difference. The statistics which states usually acquire annually show expenditures for service provision in the form of money, materials and staff time; user data similarly acquired on a sample basis would show what is accomplished by the investment.

GUIDELINES FOR USER STUDIES

Various pitfalls and limitations of user studies have been indicated here. Essentially they involve expecting too much from the studies and inherent problems in eliciting information from people about an activity to which they attach value judgments.

Given these conditions, how can user studies be made most productive for planning policy and programs? The first and essential guideline is to determine at the outset exactly what information is needed. Any library staff contemplating a user study would do well first to define its purposes as precisely as possible. This will determine what data are to be gathered and the size and cost of the investigation.
This functional approach will also make clear that the more questions to which answers are sought, the more complex and costly the effort involved. Every question contemplated should be subjected to the rigorous test of whether the information is really needed and exactly how it will be used.

Once purposes are clear, there is little problem in obtaining responses from library users and even nonusers. Properly approached, library patrons respect an effort to learn more about them and their needs, in order to serve them better. Breaking the ice is more difficult with nonusers, but once they are convinced that a sales gimmick is not involved, most enjoy talking about their reading hopes and habits. Handled well, a use study can render public relations dividends.

This does not mean that all patrons will automatically fill out a questionnaire thrust into their hands. A study lacks reliability if one-half of the forms are found left blank within the library, and this is what occurs if there is no follow-up. What must be done is to check with visitors as they leave; if this is done politely but firmly, returns can usually be obtained from more than 90 percent of the users.

This rate of return can be achieved if the questionnaire is kept within two pages at most, and to less than ten minutes of response time. Interestingly, if interviews are used instead of questionnaires, library patrons are usually prepared to give more than ten minutes, once they are convinced that a study is designed to improve service; something in the human relationship renders respondents willing to talk for twenty minutes when they may not devote ten minutes to a question form.

In either case, questions should be concrete and immediate—not “How often do you use the library?” but “When was your last visit to the library before today?”; not “What do use the library for?” but “What are you seeking on this visit?” Such questions can be answered more accurately, and are likely to be answered more honestly because people are less disposed to embroider or misrepresent what they are currently doing when the contrary evidence is in full view. Whereas keeping questions specific and immediate may elicit data about non-typical visits on the part of a few users, this is more than counterbalanced by getting hard facts rather than vague hopes. In any case the returns will be used to establish patterns and not to minister to single individuals.

Such inquiries must clearly be done on a sampling basis, both to conserve staff time and to avoid repeated questioning of the same individuals. A week is usually adequate time or two or three different weeks during the year if there are marked variations in use in different seasons. Within the week, some morning, afternoon, evening and
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weekend hours should be included. It is more important to get as complete returns as possible from all users within the sample hours, rather than extending the study over a longer period simply to accumulate more responses.

One instrument for obtaining data is the short-form questionnaire. It has the advantages of economy and control: specific information can be obtained from a reliable sample of users without excessive time and cost. However, it is circumscribed in scope and depth, and should be used only when the purposes of the study are narrow and specific.

Another methodology is the interview—in the library for users, in the home for nonusers. This approach is as productive as the interviewer is skilled, and librarians, by definition, should be skilled in getting at individual interests and needs. Interviews are clearly time-consuming, and they pose special problems in getting representative samples. This method suits survey purposes of insight into reader motives and user strategies in acquiring knowledge. It should be used not only for one-time formal studies, but as an integral means of continuing client/professional relations.

VALUE OF USER STUDIES

Planned investigations of use and users can be a productive part of a comprehensive community study—the part that goes to the heart of community/library relations. User data strengthens the planning and decision-making processes at several levels.

Investigations should begin with mundane, day-to-day applications. An example is scrutiny of the reserve file, which is one reflection of demand and of adequacy or inadequacy of collections in meeting demand. A few of the most-wanted titles can be selected and calculations made of average reader waiting time. If this time is several weeks or even months, one does not have to talk to individuals to predict what their reactions would be. This simple example of the reserve file also illustrates limitations of user data. Any librarian who adopts a policy of adding copies as soon as three, five or ten reserves accumulate has no clear sense of purpose or standards, treating all titles as having equal weight.

Beyond such spot applications, but still on the level of operations, user data are essential to systems analysis. Libraries are far from being models of efficiency in either their organizational or their delivery systems. The work of Philip Morse indicates how objective evidence such as length of stay and waiting time at service desks can be
used to apportion resources and staff.\textsuperscript{13} Morris Hamburg interprets such data further to propose an overall measure of response to libraries in the form of "document exposure time."\textsuperscript{14}

User information is a key component in measurement and evaluation. For a long time libraries have based their requests for funds, materials and staff on standards or norms which deal only with the inputs into library service, without any indicators of outcomes or accomplishments. The recent proposal for performance measures for public libraries continues to rely primarily on inputs, but does have one unit for public response concerning sex and occupation of users, user satisfaction, and time spent in the building.\textsuperscript{15} Such measures are compared to norms, which tell how a library compares with other libraries, but not how it performs for its constituency.

Measurement data also enter the picture with program budgeting. Usually, designated programs are to be measured in terms of response (and therefore of volume of work and materials involved) on the basis of which funds will be allocated. Separate from program budgeting as such, the evidence of user satisfaction (which most studies find to be quite high) can be employed to convince funding authorities that the library is a people-oriented institution and not just a cultural depository.

User information can go deeper into the planning process. Administration so often hardens into a bureaucratic cycle of devising programs, allocating staff and materials, seeking funds to maintain the allocations, etc. User data showing gaps or limitations in the programs can break the cycle and lead to adjusted programs and different allocations. This exercise can prevent the bureaucratic joints from stiffening.

At the core of all this are questions of mission and purpose, which will press hard on the public library in particular in the period ahead. User demand alone will not determine purpose. This will come only from considerations of value interpreted by professionals and laypersons together. However, input from users constitutes one of the few tangibles in this philosophic endeavor, and keeps the planners in touch with reality.

The one underlying danger in user studies is that examination and renewal of the professional/client relationship can come to be thought of as a separate and "sometime" activity, a kind of one-time or periodic endeavor to be engaged in when the librarian can spare time from the pressing realities of day-to-day service. Formal and intensified investigations may be necessary at intervals, but eliciting user response
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should be an integral part of the ongoing practice of the librarian, providing constant rather than just occasional feedback. Any librarian on duty should at the same time be an observer of use patterns. Perhaps in the end the greatest benefit of user orientation may not be neat reports, replete with statistical tables; rather, the benefits should infuse the practice of librarianship, thus not only helping the librarian in planning but also the users themselves every time they turn to the agency.

There is a step beyond. Policy-making for libraries has been mainly in the hands of professionals; the administrator and staff determine aims and programs for the most part, with trustees furnishing the stamp of approval. This may not be the structure of the future. Our institutions are being questioned, as is the role of professionals within them. If and as libraries become more essential, people will seek a more direct and active voice in what they do. The effective administrator of these next years will reach out to this prospect, and the effective practitioner will welcome it. At that point user studies (librarians learning about their clientele) will move on to user participation (librarians and users together determining policy and program), and then the gap between the institution and the public which user studies are designed to bridge will no longer exist.

References

Community Development as a Mode of Community Analysis

MARGARET E. MONROE

Community development is a philosophy of social change expressed in ways which differ as widely as Saul Alinsky's back-of-the-yards programs and Paolo Friere's program of social change through literacy education. It is a concept in social planning that grew in the early years of the Tennessee Valley Authority, a movement in U.S. social history originating with Baker Brownell's rescue of small Dakotan communities in the late 1920s.¹ As recently as 1968, Irwin Sanders said, "Community development is still too young to justify any long-range predictions about its identity as a separate profession or its combination with some other field, such as public administration, agricultural extension, social work—to name but three."² The roots of this emerging profession are still strong in a wide range of fields, any one of which could claim community development as its own—group dynamics, learning theory, political science, social philosophy, cultural change, and adult education.

In 1943, Ralph Beals (later director of the New York Public Library) defined the public library's role in adult education as "infusing authentic information into the thinking and decision-making of the community."³ This is as concrete and librarian-like a definition of the public library's role in community development as we have been provided. It is, however, community development as a philosophy, as a method of social planning, and as an inspiring movement at local, regional and national levels that prompts public librarians to enact the strong, effective programs of "information infusion" that have impact on the thinking and decision-making of the community.

Community development is oriented toward problem-solving, and thus breathes life into community study and purpose into community analysis. The problem-solving orientation provides a focus for data

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gathering, a clear guideline to categorizing and critically analyzing the data, and an absolute measure of the right amount of data. The problem-solving orientation of community development resolves most of the difficulties which community study has posed for novice librarians, and it provides the perfect framework for public libraries to participate as strong leaders and unique contributors in the process of planned social change. A closer look at the problem-solving model for community development will demonstrate this.

The problem-solving model in the framework of community development includes an action system—the group of people who act and interact together to analyze the problem, test the alternative solutions, make the decisions, and carry out the plan for solution of the problem. The action system includes planners, change agents, experts, professional staffs, and the citizens who experience the problem, those who contribute to the problem, and those who give support to its solution. The problem-solving system, in its rich diversity of roles, prevents professional agency staff members from losing the "community problem" orientation and slipping into the sterility of an "agency problem" orientation.

The public librarian may play any of several roles in a community-wide action system: information specialist, catalyst change agent, interpreter of community need, channel to community resource, expert in planning and group process. The action system is an ad hoc task-oriented structure, created specifically to deal with a particular problem, and the versatile librarian may exercise leadership and bring library resources and services to bear in a variety of ways.

The unique role of the librarian in the problem-solving model is that of information specialist. The problem-solving model moves from analysis of the problem to devising alternative solutions, each of which must be subjected to informed scrutiny and tested for feasibility and likely outcomes. Data, information and broad knowledge are required in this step, and the librarian has special resources to share. Because the scrutinizing of alternative solutions in the light of information is a taxing and often-avoided step in problem-solving, the librarian must possess both high credibility as an information source and sensitive knowledge of the individual orientations of members of the action system in order to present the information at the moment needed, in a form usable by each individual, and oriented toward the values and purposes evolving in a community analysis/community development structure. In short, if authentic information is truly to be infused into the thinking and decision-making of the community, the librarian must
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be deeply involved in the community study process as well as skilled in timing, selection and interpretation of information. Community development accords the librarian this needed role and enables the development of the skills needed for the most effective use of information.

As Sanders points out, community development can have a variety of focuses. The choice between an emphasis on process and one on product is basic. The focus on community process of the first years of the Community Action Programs can be contrasted with the focus on product taken by the Model Cities programs. The educated, the young, and the poor communities look to community development as a process which humanizes the establishment change processes. In India, for example, community development is process oriented and is regarded as the single most important method available to the government for coordinating social and economic planning to accomplish national goals. It is a method appropriated by all levels of society, and is distinguished by its noncoercive style. For the librarian whose social influence lies in knowledge and information expertise, the noncoercive process-oriented style of community development, which is open to a wide range of participants, provides an open door.

The information component in community development may be viewed as a “source of generative power for moving a community toward a better condition,” according to Howard McClusky. “Few decisions based solely on pressure, rhetoric, or elevated blood pressures, are destined to last long unless they somehow correspond roughly to the facts of the situation as it really is.” Planning, comments William Lassey, provides the linking mechanism between knowledge and action. Information power, then, is put to work in the context of community development.

Alan Hahn reported on the MID-NY (Mid-New York) Project, initiated to explore community development as a style for the cooperative extension program’s greater effectiveness in urban areas. The Metropolitan Development Association of Syracuse, with 100 members representing 80 companies, worked with the five-county Central New York Regional Planning and Development Board to establish MID-NY. The project’s focus was on planning and coordination through “dissemination of information, concepts, ideas and timely news” by memos to professionals, radio and television communications to the general public, regional meetings and conferences, and program planning meetings with organizations and agencies. Stress was placed on “ad hoc coalitions of professional people
bringing special competencies in new combinations to new problems.” The leadership role of the convener/coordinator/communicator is based on brokerage of ideas, contacts and information, with participation in planning that allows for accentuating the growth elements of the plan. This problem-oriented planning in the context of community development has focused on information as the key component.

To what extent have public libraries in the United States moved toward awareness of community development? Heightened sensitivity to special publics and to community analysis among librarians is a major element in preparing libraries for a community development approach. The currently spreading skills in planning prepare for its effectiveness, and the widely practiced outreach styles of service developed in the urban ghetto form microcosms of community development. Community study and community analysis have meaning in outreach services only when they are pursued in the context of open, flexible, highly interactive participation of the community. Shared goals, a common view of problems and objectives, and jointly established and conducted programs of investigation and resolution are essential to outreach and to community development. In short, during the 1960s public libraries moved much closer to the use of community development models.

STUDY OF CURRENT PUBLIC LIBRARY PRACTICES IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Given the key elements in community development—community analysis and community interaction—a brief study of current practice among a group of “community-aware” public libraries was undertaken for this article. Ninety-seven libraries and thirty-nine state library agencies were invited to participate; the final group consisted of sixty-eight public libraries and public library systems representing twenty-five states with a range in size and degree of urbanization in the communities served. Selection of a group of ninety-seven public libraries was made from libraries known to be community-aware: sixteen public library systems involved in the Library Independent Study and Guidance Project (1972-75); five public libraries in the U.S.O.E. experimental Information and Referral Project (1972-75); eighteen public libraries involved in the University of Wisconsin 1969 outreach study; twenty public libraries recommended by the ALA Office of Services to the Disadvantaged; and seventy-three libraries
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represented in Library Literature, 1970-74, with descriptive or evaluative reports entered under "Public libraries—services to adults/illiterates/migrants/minorities/prisons/senior citizens," "Surveys—public libraries," or "Use studies." When duplication of libraries was removed, ninety-seven libraries had been identified for the present survey; responses were received from thirty-eight (39 percent). In addition, state library extension agencies were included in the mailing of questionnaires and were asked to circulate the forms wherever they felt they were most appropriate. Eight state agencies did this, and thirty libraries replied in response to their requests, most representing smaller communities than those in the original sample. The responses here include those from the sixty-eight community-aware libraries, 56 percent of them from the original sample and 44 percent from libraries chosen by eight state agencies as appropriate to the study.

The objective of the study was to build a profile of values, emphases, practices and understandings among a group of community-aware libraries in the area of community development, particularized as community analysis and as interaction with community groups, organizations and agencies.

A 1967 ALA publication, Minimum Standards for Public Library Systems, identified three means by which the community library becomes an integral part of the population it serves: (1) continuous or periodic study of the community, (2) participation of librarians in the life of the community, and (3) correlation of library programs with those of other community organizations. The responding public libraries were asked to indicate the degree of emphasis which they placed on each of the three approaches. Of the sixty-eight libraries returning the questionnaire, only four (5 percent) indicated little emphasis (1 or 2 on a scale of 5) on all three of these ways of library involvement in the community, while fifteen (22 percent) indicated high emphasis (4 or 5 on a scale of 5) on all three approaches. Fifty-nine libraries (87 percent) reported high emphasis on at least one of these three means of library involvement in the community, with forty-seven libraries (69 percent) reporting a high emphasis on two approaches (see Table 1). These data in no way identify norms for public libraries, but they do describe the group of libraries sensitive to community needs and responding to the questionnaire, and offer a background for interpreting other responses.
TABLE 1

DEGREE OF EMPHASIS PLACED BY LIBRARIES ON MEANS OF LIBRARY INVOLVEMENT IN THE COMMUNITY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style of Involvement</th>
<th>Low Emphasis</th>
<th>High Emphasis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Study</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in life of the community</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation of library programs with those of other organizations</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=68

One perspective emerging from the response of these sixty-eight community-aware public libraries is that greater emphasis is placed by the libraries on involvement with the community than on formal study of the community. While most libraries sustained a concern for formal community study, a few rejected it flatly as "sterile," and many indicated that studies were conducted "informally." The preference clearly is for interactive participation as a basis for understanding of and integration with the community.

STAFF TRAINING AND TRAINING NEEDS

On the whole, the reporting group of public libraries indicated an active in-service training program in areas of community involvement. For professional librarians, emphasis has been placed on skills in community contacts, community study, and human relations, with one-half or more of the libraries reporting such training programs. About one-third of the reporting libraries have provided paraprofessionals with training in human relations and community contacts (see Table 2). Sensitivity to skills needed in areas of community study and community development is clear in more than one-half of the reporting libraries, with human relations a significant area for a sizable minority.
None of these sixty-eight community-aware public libraries reported both total lack of training and total lack of need for training. The smallest public libraries, whether suburban or rural, expressed the necessity for reliance on professional conferences or other outside sources for training. Even the largest libraries with regular staff education programs identified additional training sources in the city or county government, or in nearby educational institutions.

Mary Burgarella, Massachusetts director for Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) projects, commented that LSCA projects have led librarians to establish new and productive relationships with other community agencies, and to seek new skills in community service and outreach. The Illinois State Library, in cooperation with the Illinois Library Association, has conducted a series of three annual regional workshops (1973-75) on community study, with the objective of implementing state standards to meet local needs. The theme of the 1974 workshop was “Analyzing Your Community,” and led directly into the identification of problems and the development of library services.\(^{11}\)

A year-long staff institute on “Developing Awareness of Community Resources” was sponsored by the Bridgeport (Connecticut) Public Library, June 1973-July 1974, under the direction of Elizabeth Long. It stressed understanding special publics, communication skills and video skills, and toured Bridgeport to understand governmental and other agencies. These were seen as essential elements of effective community services, and the collaboration of twenty local agencies in the training program strengthened their readiness to work with the public library in other shared services.\(^{12}\) The Monroe County (New York) Public

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**Table 2**

**In-Service Training Areas Already Provided and Needed by Reporting Libraries**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Provided</th>
<th>Needed</th>
<th>Provided</th>
<th>Needed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Community contacts</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community study</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human relations</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group process</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community development</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{11}\) None of these sixty-eight community-aware public libraries reported both total lack of training and total lack of need for training. The smallest public libraries, whether suburban or rural, expressed the necessity for reliance on professional conferences or other outside sources for training. Even the largest libraries with regular staff education programs identified additional training sources in the city or county government, or in nearby educational institutions.

Mary Burgarella, Massachusetts director for Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) projects, commented that LSCA projects have led librarians to establish new and productive relationships with other community agencies, and to seek new skills in community service and outreach. The Illinois State Library, in cooperation with the Illinois Library Association, has conducted a series of three annual regional workshops (1973-75) on community study, with the objective of implementing state standards to meet local needs. The theme of the 1974 workshop was “Analyzing Your Community,” and led directly into the identification of problems and the development of library services.\(^{11}\)

A year-long staff institute on “Developing Awareness of Community Resources” was sponsored by the Bridgeport (Connecticut) Public Library, June 1973-July 1974, under the direction of Elizabeth Long. It stressed understanding special publics, communication skills and video skills, and toured Bridgeport to understand governmental and other agencies. These were seen as essential elements of effective community services, and the collaboration of twenty local agencies in the training program strengthened their readiness to work with the public library in other shared services.\(^{12}\) The Monroe County (New York) Public
Library System reported that its staff was trained in collaboration with staffs of other agencies. The Akron (Ohio) Public Library's project of human relations training for staff of social agencies is a comparable collaborative program.

The lack of attention to community development in past training programs was not discussed in any way, but the significantly larger proportion of libraries stating needs in this area may reflect current awareness and interest.

**APPROACHES TO LIBRARY COLLABORATION WITH COMMUNITY AGENCIES AND GROUPS**

Collaboration by public librarians with community agencies, organizations, and other groups in joint activity—quite distinct from public library services to such groups—is a mark of the extent of a public library's community involvement. Responding to a range of seven types of such collaboration, the community-aware libraries in the survey showed a high degree of community involvement. Only one library reported a single form of such collaboration, while ten reported and documented involvement in all seven forms; the median number of forms for library involvement was four (see Table 3). These collaborative ventures were undertaken within the 1970-75 period, but a number of them were initiated prior to 1970 and sustained into this period (see Table 4).

**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Forms of Collaboration</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Public Libraries</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time of Initiation of Collaborative Programs with Community Groups and Agencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of Library Programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs started in 1969 or earlier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs started in 1970-1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Programs started in 1973-1975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Community Development

The fact that thirty-two programs begun in the mid- to late 1960s continued into the 1970s may be an indication of satisfaction of both the library and the collaborating groups. The large number of such programs initiated within the last three years suggests two possibilities: (1) an increasing intensity of library-community collaboration, or (2) the brief duration and regular replacement of most collaborative projects. The assumption of a task-oriented ad hoc basis for such collaboration is reasonable, and deeper study of this factor would be valuable.

There is clearly a current emphasis on collaborative planning of community programs, on joint sponsorship of services, and particularly on collaboration for information and referral services, with more than 70 percent of the reporting community-aware libraries engaged in these forms of collaboration. Model Cities, Community Action Programs, Administration on Aging, and LSCA projects were mentioned regularly enough to be considered major sources of support for the public libraries' intensive community collaboration in joint service programs. Significantly, however, fewer libraries reported collaboration in analysis of community problems (44 percent) or conference on information needs (35 percent) (see Table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning community programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint sponsorship of services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and referral services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting community surveys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library service placed in multiagency center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of community problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conference on information needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N=68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thirty public libraries (44 percent) reported additional methods of collaboration; some cooperation focused community effort toward library needs: (1) collaborative neighborhood/library surveys of library use, (2) establishment of a council of seventy-five library-interested Philadelphia community organizations (a “friends” group joining in “common cause”) to support the Free Library in its case before the city council and the citizens, and (3) collaborative planning of library
branches and services (New Orleans's Jericho Project and Philadelphia's Student Library Resource Requirements Project). Another collaborative approach focused on the librarian's function in analysis of community problems: (1) cooperation with juvenile court, (2) library service on agency boards and interagency committees, (3) work as chairperson of a neighborhood committee to secure city council action in support of services to senior citizens, to children, and in resolution of some difficult neighborhood problems.

A third collaborative approach was an intensified "joint sponsorship of services" and focused on: (1) placement of library service into other agency locations with intensive participation of the other agencies in planning, staffing, and policy-making (Dallas Public Library's early childhood development workshop for planning jointly sponsored service; library service in housing for the elderly; Chicago Public Library's reading and study centers in low-income housing projects), and (2) a comprehensive outreach program with a variety of collaborating agencies on a community-wide basis. For example, the Fairbanks, Alaska, North Star Borough Library's ARC (Alaska's Resources Challenge) program has organized five intensively interactive agencies and some twenty "associative agencies" into a "social change" unit that attacks poverty on a people-for-people basis by providing information services to special publics through carefully selected and trained paraprofessional staff. A fourth collaborative style centered on bringing people together in a community-building framework: (1) community groups and agencies have weekly public meetings in the central library and branches; (2) a People-to-People Index, developed in Hennepin County, Minnesota, channels inquirers through the library to resource persons in the community, envisioning a highly interactive involvement on a sustained basis with the expertise in the community. Groton, Connecticut, has a similar project, and Dallas Public Library's Community Information Access Tool includes people as well as organizations with the goal of high interactive flexibility in use.

It is clear, however, that the sixty-eight community-aware public libraries found planning and sponsoring joint programs for the community the standard method of collaborative effort. Information and referral services, although new, fall easily into this pattern and have relatively widespread adoption among this group of libraries. There is a clear distinction made between collaborative involvement in community surveys and analysis of community problems by this group of libraries as a whole, with 25 percent of those involved in surveys not
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reporting involvement in collaborative analysis of community problems. Further, the conference on information needs of the community is clearly a new style of collaborative program, with about one-third of these sixty-eight community-aware libraries consciously using it as a method of community study.

ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF COLLABORATIVE PROGRAMS

Each responding public library surveyed was asked to identify both its most successful and its most innovative program of collaboration with community groups and agencies, and to distinguish the initiator and the key factors in success for each. This question assumed that innovation is a rough road and not always successful, and that successful programs may be quite traditional.

Library staff were solely responsible for initiating 37 percent of the “most successful” collaborative programs, and library administrators for 27 percent. Staff and administrators, separately or together, were seen as responsible for initiating 77 percent of the successful programs. Community groups were reported as sharing the initiation of 14 percent of such programs. Library board members were involved in only 2 percent of such initiation.

Library staff were solely responsible for initiating 31 percent of the “most innovative” collaborative programs, and library administrators for only 28 percent. Staff and administrators, separately or together, were seen as responsible for initiating 65 percent of the “innovative” programs. Community groups were involved in the initiation of 29 percent of the most innovative programs, and library board members were involved in initiation of 10 percent of the innovative programs.

The fact that the lay board and community groups and agencies initiated more “most innovative” programs than “most successful” ones is not surprising but is nevertheless significant. Further study of the initiation of library and related collaborative ventures could profitably be undertaken in the context of a study of social change and institutional innovation.

Claire Lipsman’s six factors for successful service to disadvantaged publics were used as a list from which the sixty-eight community-aware libraries were asked to identify factors they judged to be key to the success of their “most successful” and “most innovative” programs (see Table 6)
TABLE 6

KEY FACTORS IN SUCCESSFUL COLLABORATIVE PROGRAMS
(BY NUMBER OF MENTIONS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lipsman's Key Factors</th>
<th>&quot;Most Successful&quot; (N=68)/&quot;Most Innovative&quot; (N=59)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good planning</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff skills</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community involvement</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project autonomy</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of materials</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project visibility in community</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no significant difference in the ordering of elements key to successful collaborative programs between "most successful" and "most innovative," with the single exception of the slight shift to give community involvement a higher rank and a more sizable percentage for the most innovative programs. Variations in judgment by individual libraries were greater than in the group judgment between the two categories of collaborative programs. Of the thirty-four who identified community involvement as a factor in a successful program, twenty-nine saw need for training in community development.

The high rank consistently given project visibility in the community seemed a composite of the more traditional public relations/publicity orientation and the current concepts of people involvement/impact measurement.

It is especially interesting that project autonomy ranked lowest in mention, possibly because it was rarely applicable to the projects. For several who responded, project autonomy clearly was an important element in success; the conditions under which autonomy is of key importance need to be studied. The most innovative outreach programs have needed freedom from control by traditional policy.

The "quality of materials," on the other hand, received not only low rank but almost no comment; the community awareness of those reporting seldom extended to the exact match between user need and information resource, at least in gauging the success of a collaborative program. Only one respondent urgently identified this area as the weakest, because the quality of materials needed was not available.

Lipsman did not develop a rank order for these factors, and rank ordering here is used only as a method of summarizing the factors.
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which were most visible to the aggregate group of the sixty-eight libraries surveyed. Only three of the libraries in this study reported that all six factors related to the success of their programs. Lipsman's concept of the six factors is that all relate to the success of any program. Further testing of these key factors in different contexts and for their interrelationships would be useful.

A final survey question asked: "What problems did you meet in developing your 'most innovative' interaction with the community?" Most responses were in terms of problems met in developing or sustaining the program: staff time, funding continuations, securing and training volunteers, lack of technical skills in survey or advocacy, planning and goal setting. A few responded in terms of difficulty in breaking the barriers of the established image of the library in community agencies and within the community generally; others mentioned problems of introducing staff and administration to new methods and new services, and in securing cooperation from those resistant to change. Some saw the chief difficulty as that of communicating the value of the new service to those for whom the service was intended, or of involving the nonuser.

Problems of the collaborative aspect of planning, coordinating and staffing programs were closely examined. Eleven of the sixty-eight respondents identified problems of developing coordination between participating agencies, community organizations, community persons and the library; of definition of responsibilities; of elimination of overlapping activities, etc. Kathlyn Adams of the Monroe County (Rochester, New York) Library System pointed to the problems of determining identity, "turf," and visibility for the library among the group of community agencies.

According to Graham Sadler of the Denver Public Library, library administrative style must change because of its lack of tight control. The meeting of deadlines is difficult when a variety of community people and agency staff control the pace of planning and carrying out the plans. Changes in representatives from some groups slows the process of decision-making and program development. One Connecticut librarian pointed out that the free and interactive human relations and group-process aspects of highly collaborative efforts with the community are departures from traditional administrative styles, and some library administrators find it difficult to build on the linkages established by special outreach staff.

Marie Davis of the Free Library of Philadelphia detailed the fundamental problem of "relating community need and action
orientation to the established procedures of a library administration which must comply with the bureaucratic controls exercised by the municipal authorities." Among the various aspects of this "highly complex and interesting issue," Davis sees the problem of the library as one of developing a working basis and a reservoir of goodwill among community groups and agencies whose motives may stem from quite different concepts and needs. Furthermore, she cites the library's problem of synchronizing political action by community groups with library administrative activities in budget hearings and "accountability exercises" for many of the same public officials. The establishment, to mutual satisfaction, of appropriate roles for library administration, board of trustees and community spokesmen is no simple matter. Davis sees this area as one worthy of a study of considerable depth.

IMPORT OF THE FINDINGS

Because the concept of community development does not convey a precise meaning, the two-page questionnaire from which these findings were structured avoided the use of the term community development except as an area in which staff training might be needed. Instead, the inquiry relied on identifying the elements of community study, interactive planning, and community involvement essential to the community development function. Those responding libraries which found it possible to relate their functions to this structure demonstrated, on the whole, a critical awareness of the elements and their function in planning library services. The public library experience of the past twenty years has built the elements of community analysis and collaborative planning to a level well beyond that identified by Helen Lyman Smith in her 1954 national survey. Community study in the early 1950s was seldom undertaken and little valued, and forms of collaborative planning and sponsorship of programs were, with rare exceptions, simple and usually limited to cooperation with a single type of agency for any one project.

While the use of community study and collaborative planning is now almost universal for the group of community-aware libraries studied, only about one-half as many libraries reported engaging in the analysis of community problems, and even fewer have conferred on information needs. Nevertheless, a substantial minority of the libraries—more than one-third—reported and documented such activities.

This brief questionnaire made no attempt to probe the complicated process of library involvement in community development beyond
these elements, but a number of the replies and attached reports made clear that some of these community-aware libraries were indeed so involved. A study similar to Lipsman's study of service to the disadvantaged might well be undertaken to analyze the structure, process and effectiveness of such public library participation in community development.

**EMERGING MODELS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT**

The purpose of community analysis and community study is the identification of community problems and of the resources to resolve them, the assignment of priorities among them, and the development of a plan of action. Community development as a mode of community analysis is distinctive in its combination of community study and community action, in its quality of community involvement at the core of its operation, and in its optimism that the model will enable sound problem identification and problem solution. Penland and Williams have a reasonably multidimensional presentation of the application of this community development model to community library services. Drawing on basic concepts in management, social change, group process and communications fields, they offer an enlightening context for library service.

Roland Warren and others studied the present structure of community decision organizations (CDOs), the key organizations by whose decisions most community problem-solving is currently attempted. They analyzed six CDOs in each of nine cities in the United States in the context of their function in the Model Cities Program, a program encompassing many of the components and goals of community development. This report sheds light on a number of problems reported by public librarians: questions of turf, methods and effectiveness of coordination, resistances to change, preferences for system-maintenance above problem-solving. The report concludes that the nonpolitical, collaborative process of community change and development is rendered ineffective by the styles of interaction among the CDOs, whose consistent pattern is to "prevent, blunt, and repel" the challenges to their system inherent in new programs, new agencies, and new structures for collaboration.

Biddle and Biddle, in their classic exposition of the community development process, drew their experiences either from the less structured rural communities where the CDOs do not form the monolithic interorganizational field so characteristic in the large cities,
or from the smaller urban neighborhoods where community development can function relatively undisturbed between the chinks of the CDO structure. In either case, Biddle and Biddle put the highest value on the process of community development as enabling people to be activated in their own behalf, and placed somewhat less emphasis on the measures of material improvements achieved by the process.17

The orientations and contexts of the classic community development model are highly congenial to many community services librarians who have evolved such structures as the basic vehicles for projecting library services into the community. Library administrators, working in the context of the major CDOs, have been somewhat less committed to this context for community development, either for analysis of community problems or for structuring the library’s collaboration with the community. Disenchantment with the CDO interorganizational function, so well analyzed by Warren, has brought some library administrative support to the community-process focused model for community development as perhaps the only alternative.

In a sense, the macrocommunity framework of the CDO structure is a necessary level on which to analyze community problems; although the benefits of the Biddle and Biddle micromodel in the area of process are clear, its limitations in achieving long-term solutions to complicated problems are obvious. As change agents, Paolo Friere and, in a final sense, even Saul Alinsky left the resolution of the problems in the hands of the people whom they had helped to empower. But the public library, as a responsible agency and as a change agent, thinks in terms of achieving results—or at least of contributing to the achievement of measurable results.

So the dilemma of restructuring the community to enable true change and problem-solving is recognized. Without such restructure, say Alinsky, Friere, Warren, and a multitude of others, problem identification and community analysis dabble in solutions and achieve only palliative results. The lack of real solutions does not diminish the need for the enfranchised individual who is the product of the classic community development model; rather, he or she becomes more essential to social change. However, community development as a process must be viewed as an important tool in the task of community problem analysis and problem-solving.

One is uneasy with the lack of resolution to the need for viable methods of dealing with the important problems identified by community study and analysis. While the provision of information plays a significant role in understanding problems and is essential to
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devices ways of dealing with the human dilemmas posed by significant social problems, and while the community development process spreads that understanding widely to encourage talented leadership to address the problems, the basic problems have remained unresolved.

John Friedmann, a specialist in urban planning, has addressed himself directly to this dilemma in a sophisticated analysis, *Retracking America: A Theory of Transactive Planning*. With international experience, Friedmann analyzes styles of solving human problems on the macro-level related to the micro-level of human experience. He offers a community development model on a large scale, recognizing the enormous complexities of linking the two levels, and outlines the changes in social orientation required for a satisfactory planning/problem-solving process in our complex society. Learning, knowledge, and information as products and as processes are essential to his model. “Transactive planning changes knowledge into action through an unbroken sequence of interpersonal relations,” and is carried out in the context of a learning society.

In a very real sense, the public library collaborative projects, with a high degree of community involvement working toward the solution of community problems, are the prototype of Friedmann's proposal at the local level. Scattered public libraries have seen the importance of projecting the information service into activated, concerned groups of problem-solving people in order to achieve the “information infusion” that is the major thrust of the public library in problem-solving and social change. Community development creates or supports those activated, concerned groups of problem-solving people, without whom information infusion cannot take place.

**References**

5. Penland and Williams, *ibid.*, pp. 68-79. The approach here is suggestive rather than definitive, but Penland and Williams have a rich-textured concept of information specialist within the community development model.


15. Penland and Williams, *op. cit.*


Analyzing Community Human Information Needs: A Case Study

ROBERT CRONEBERGER
and
CAROLYN LUCK

This article will describe the community analysis initiated at the Detroit Public Library in 1970 and continuing to the present, during most of which time the authors served respectively as deputy director and community social work consultant. Both formal and informal methods of community analysis were used, and the article will show the distinction between the two.

The most important starting point of any community analysis undertaken for a library is the establishment of the library’s goals and objectives. This provides the context and the focus for analysis, without which there can only be confusion and frustration. The purpose of community analysis should be not only to facilitate the achievement of goals and objectives, but also to provide updated information to challenge these goals and objectives as current responses by the library to changing publics. Without goals and objectives, it is difficult to know what to examine or to recognize what is significant. It is not possible to develop effective service goals without a comprehensive and up-to-date analysis of the people to be served. Goals and objectives of libraries are closely related to community analysis and should be part of an ongoing process in which one constantly affects the other.

It should be remembered that the goal of the Detroit Public Library administration was the revitalization of branch libraries after a ten-year period of declining circulation, and that the vehicle chosen to implement this revitalization was the initiation of information and referral services. How this vehicle was chosen and the steps used to implement the service are all part of the process of community analysis.

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JANUARY, 1976
The formal phase of the community analysis was begun as a method of determining the future role of the Detroit Public Library. Nelson Associates had completed a study indicating that the Detroit Public Library should be designated a statewide resource and funded by the state. The documentation was based on a user study showing that a high percentage of the use of the main library consisted of the students of the local universities and community colleges, businesses which had moved outside the city limits, and noncity residents.\(^1\) A Metropolitan Library Project had also demonstrated that the main library would benefit from providing free access to noncity residents.\(^2\) A third study, known as the Hudzik report, was conducted at the request of the Michigan Department of Education, under the auspices of the state library. It was a study of the state's existing systems arrangement. Among its conclusions, it also stated that the Detroit Public Library's main library should be designated a state resource and funded separately by the state of Michigan.\(^3\)

These three documents, together with the statistical reports of declining use of the branch libraries, led to some fairly obvious conclusions. The vast resources of the main library were not being used by city residents, and the major users of the main library and of the formerly busy branches had largely deserted the city. These conclusions brought up the basic questions of the goals and objectives of the library. Legislation was drafted (and eventually passed) naming the Detroit Public Library's main library a state resource, along with the four major universities of the state. This legislation was sponsored by the state library. Although no funding has been received under this bill, the potential exists for increased state support of the main library.

It was clear from the very beginning, however, that the new administration felt strongly that the major goal of the Detroit Public Library should be service to the residents of Detroit. In order to accomplish this goal, there was a need to know who the residents were, what were their wants and needs, and if there were any ways in which the services of the library could better meet those wants and needs.

Fortunately, there was plenty of documentation about the city of Detroit to draw upon. One of the first sources was the three-volume study of Detroit done by Constantinos Doxiadis.\(^4\) Slides were made from these volumes showing population shifts on demographic maps and charts done from the beginning of Detroit's history to the megalopolis projections for the twenty-first century. These slides were used in a series of formal presentations to the staff of the library, sharing the information about the library's problems.
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A committee representing a cross section of the library's staff was established to design a series of staff workshops on the goals and objectives of the library. At one such workshop, the City Plan Commission agreed to provide all demographic information for an area within a 1½-mile radius of each branch library, the standard service area of each branch. The library pinpointed the locations of each branch library and books were prepared for each branch showing all statistical information from the census figures for the service area of that branch. In this way a study of the ethnic characteristics of each neighborhood was begun, detailing the percentage of children and their age groupings, the educational levels, etc. These booklets proved to be invaluable tools. Other workshop participants heard the president of the Common Council, the leaders of the health and welfare agencies, etc. Gradually, information about the population became more clear. It was also clear from these workshops and other contacts with city agencies that there was no decentralized information and referral service available in the city. One of the agreements quickly reached by the staff and the administration was that the provision of information in all its forms should be a high priority task of the library. At this point, the theoretical vehicle for the revitalization of the branch libraries was attained.

The information used in this formal stage of community analysis made very clear Detroit's diversity. It was recognized that we could not expect the same methods or programs to work in every community, and we did not expect to find the same informational needs everywhere. We did conclude, however, that the demographic, historical profiles of neighborhoods that we had required expansion with more specific, human and dynamic knowledge of who the people were who were represented by census data. Without such direct exploration, the best we could do was to conjecture about the needs and problems of people of given income and age ranges, or given ethnic and educational backgrounds. Thus, a process of informal community analysis was begun in order to discover ways in which branch libraries could function as neighborhood information centers to readers and nonreaders, users and nonusers. The formal information gathered was essential, but the question "Who is out there?" remained only partially answered by the series of numbers on paper.

The concept design of the information and referral service which was being developed accented the provision of local, neighborhood information in the branch library communities. If the branch library had access to neighborhood information which could be used to
handle more human problems at that level, it was assumed that the
branch library could broaden its information service to those residents
not currently using the library in traditional ways. Thus, while the
library administrators were making formal contacts with agencies
describing the new service and gaining support at administrative levels,
steps were being taken to organize an informal approach to community
analysis at the branch library/neighborhood level.

Again using the new information and referral service as a vehicle,
branch library heads were brought together for a series of workshops
on the implementation of the service. The outreach aspects of the
service were discussed in depth, which led to the formulation of the
informal community analysis method known as the “community walk.”

The goals of the community walk were: (1) to advertise the services of
the library, describing not only the new information and referral
services, but all other services of the system; and (2) to discover in
human terms “who was out there,” what were the needs and wants of
the community, what were the existing services, and how we could best
link the resources of the library to existing agencies and groups and
transform the branch libraries into the neighborhood information
centers we wanted them to be.

Without going into a full description of the structure of the
information and referral service, the concept called for the discovery of
local resources (services and people) by means of branch library
involvement in the communities of the city. This information would be
added to the appropriate card files throughout the system. For
example, a local minister with a small discretionary fund was only
important to the one branch library which could refer people from that
neighborhood, but larger groups willing to provide transportation to
disabled people for visits to the doctor’s office would be important
citywide.

Posters and brochures were designed for each branch library. New
telephone lines were installed in each branch, and blow-up reference
maps of the service areas of each branch were used to indicate areas of
responsibility. Community walks were conducted by the professional
and clerical staff of each branch. The target areas were the businesses
and service agencies, including churches, bars, gas stations, etc., within
the service areas. No one went on a community walk alone, or went
without someone who had already been trained to do it. Each branch
was to cover its service area within six months and then start at the
beginning again. Simple rules for the walks were: (1) never walk alone,
(2) walk during “slow hours” at the branch, (3) do not go to private
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homes, (4) if a store is too busy, go back another time, (5) leave purses at the branch, and (6) schedule at least two walks each week.

The response was overwhelming. In time it was possible to draw a direct statistical relationship between the number of information and referral questions received by a branch library and the amount of community walking done by that branch. There were many legitimate fears expressed about the community walk concept, revolving mostly around fear of the neighborhood, the discomfort of being outside the library building and onto someone else's "turf," the distaste that some felt about "selling" the services of the library, and the general resistance to a change in the basic job duties of a librarian. For the most part, these fears were abated by the experience of the community walk itself. There were very few rebuffs, and the businesses and agencies in the communities expressed a great deal of interest and enthusiasm for the project.

One of the obvious issues in this process of redefining service based on community analysis is whether it is the function of a public library to provide what people want, or to provide what they need (i.e., what is good for them). This is recognized as the long-standing "quality vs. demand" debate in public libraries. With service as a goal and professional integrity as check and balance, this debate is a creative one in that it produces compromises which make the best of both theories available to the public. If this debate is not resolved to some degree, there can be no clear policy of service within which staff can function. In the case of the Detroit Public Library, it should be clearly understood that the general priorities had already been established. The service policy adopted was that the meeting of informational needs related to the problems of everyday living would take higher priority than creating new readers or catering to the interests of long-standing ones. This is not to say that either of these latter service goals were dropped; however, they were assigned lesser priorities.

With information and referral itself as the designated priority, however, there appeared no further way—nor did it seem desirable—to establish within that priority a hierarchy of information needs. For example, in some of the most depressed neighborhoods in Detroit, where the logically anticipated social needs for employment, education, legal aid, health and welfare services were found to exist to a high degree, the branches began to get many requests for guitar lessons, chess clubs, foreign-language programs, arts and crafts, practical consumer education programs, and help with adult educational needs of many types. In terms of meeting unmet needs and
ROBERT CRONEBERGER AND CAROLYN LUCK

demonstrating to previously unserved people that the library has some good things to offer, needs which are frequently discounted as "merely recreational" or "special interest" or "having nothing to do with books" could not be overlooked any more than the obviously crucial needs for services. A practical reason for not attempting to assign priorities to types of informational needs or wants is that the distinctions between the two are becoming increasingly artificial. A young person's relative need to learn sewing or guitar, or an elderly person's need for structured activity and contact with others, cannot easily be deemed less important than someone else's need for employment or counseling. It became clear through many experiences during the study that needs and wants were frequently too interrelated to be separated, and that the things people wanted often served to meet their needs. For example, a sewing class may help a young woman to stretch a limited income, to take greater pride in her appearance, to gain self-esteem from her ability to learn a skill, and to create useful and attractive things.

It could be conjectured from some of the Detroit experiences that it is sometimes necessary to give people what they want in order to create opportunities to serve their needs—and that at other times the reverse is true. For example, a storefront branch in the Latino community initially became popular with school-age children because of an energetic Latina librarian who served free coffee and cookies, talked with them, played Latino dance music, and provided popular reading materials in Spanish. The storefront developed, moved into a branch and eventually provided the community with the total range of library services, including basic information and referral service. In other places, the credibility of the library as an accepting place where help and information were available could only be established by the successful handling of information and referral questions about problems with serious consequences. As this credibility grew, it spilled over into greater use of the library's recreational and educational resources. The most useful conclusions to be drawn from these variations is that attempts to judge which informational needs are more important than others are likely to be self-defeating, and that the only way to begin to be more effective as a neighborhood information center is to provide what people indicate interests them.

Community walks were the basic informal tool used in Detroit to learn about neighborhoods and to let people know what was happening at the library. The other basic means of informal community analysis was contact with agencies, organizations and
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groups, from block clubs to community mental health centers and churches. This involved drop-in visits, scheduled interviews, and presentations about the library's services. Interviews were used to learn about the programs and activities of agencies or organizations, to begin to establish appropriate cooperative relationships, and to draw on the informal community knowledge of the people being interviewed. It might be asked if community walking and contacts with agencies and organizations are legitimate means of community analysis, since they may appear to be simplistic or unsophisticated approaches. The answer would be that these methods are of most value when used in conjunction with the more formal methods, such as study of demographic data. There are some types of valuable information about communities which cannot be learned through demographic data or through any means other than actively seeking information through direct contact with people. A few examples will help to illustrate the value of these simpler, less formal means of community analysis.

According to the census data about one branch area in Detroit, there was in that area a relatively high concentration of recently immigrated people from Iraq. This segment of the community appeared to be closely knit and self-sufficient, and it did not use the branch library. For more than one year the branch staff attempted unsuccessfully to make contact with this group. At one point, fliers were printed in Arabic and distributed throughout the neighborhood. There was negligible response to this and other efforts.

During this same period, the branch staff was encouraged to interact more directly with a multi-ethnic community organization in the area. Because this organization was somewhat controversial and had a "radical" reputation, there had been some reluctance on the part of the staff to become associated with it. As part of the third year of the federally sponsored NIC project, which in Detroit emphasized cooperation between branch libraries and community agencies and organizations, steps were taken to overcome this reluctance and to begin a more active relationship. In the process of identifying some of the ways in which the library and the community organization could work together to serve their common community more effectively, it became obvious that the organization had a sizable and active representation from the hard-to-reach Arabic population. There was a great deal of interest in this fact, and it was learned through discussion that the people in question were not Arabs, but Chaldeans who were Catholic Iraqis. Their language, religion and culture are different.
from those of the Arabs. Furthermore, the recent immigration was largely the result of Arab oppression of the Chaldean minority in Iraq. Such facts had not appeared in the census data or in any of the studies of Detroit, but they could have surfaced much earlier if active communication with the neighborhood organization had begun sooner.

Three lessons in community analysis can be drawn from this and similar experiences. First, assumptions about a community based solely on superficial appearances can be painfully inaccurate. For example, “people who look like Arabs and come from an Arab country must be Arabs,” or “they speak Spanish and look Mexican, so they must be Mexicans” (in Detroit, the Latino community is an extremely cosmopolitan one, made up of people of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Central American and South American heritages), or “they are black, so they must be militant and on welfare.” Mere knowledge of the national or ethnic origin of a segment of a population is too basic and superficial to make any decision other than one to learn more about the people you are dealing with.

The second lesson is that in the task of community analysis, it is essential to recognize groups, organizations and other agencies as part of the community. Too often the community analyzed is limited to a mass of disconnected individuals confined within some geographical limits and described by statistics. Such analysis is useless if it does not include the ways in which these individuals are connected through groups, organizations and agencies. Libraries are by no means the only service agencies which frequently fail to explore this total community to learn what efforts are already being made to meet people’s needs, what information has already been gathered and what opportunities exist to cooperate with others to achieve mutual objectives. Much isolation and duplication could be avoided by using this approach. Librarians often fear the loss of the political neutrality of the library by association with other agencies or organizations. The neutrality of a library is clearly one of its advantages and one of its ethical obligations. The credibility and service orientation of an agency or organization should be carefully scrutinized before the library becomes actively involved, but protection of neutrality does not justify the library’s isolation.

The third instructive point to be drawn from this experience is that different approaches are needed for different communities and subgroups within them. A good practical guideline is: when an approach fails to make contact, find out who in the community does
have knowledge and can be of help. Another underlying guideline is to approach communities and groups with respect and to learn about them in order to provide services they want and need. An impersonal use of statistics to solve the problems of such groups cannot be effective and unlikely to be tolerated for very long.

In some situations it may be necessary to work through other agencies in order to provide information and referral service to a particular community. In one Detroit neighborhood, there was a large proportion of first and second generation Eastern Europeans, who were Roman Catholic, working class and had lived in the neighborhood for forty or fifty years. When they were approached on community walks and told about the information and referral service available at the library, they were sometimes offended at the implication that they might have problems. Sometimes they replied politely that it sounded like a good service, but they did not need it. Given the stability, strong work ethic, and religious affiliation which became apparent through the demographic statistics and personal contacts, an alternative approach was clearly needed. The branch librarians went to the parish priests, who were relied upon to help with problems, and explained the service as a resource which the priests could use when they needed more information than they had at hand. This cooperative arrangement, based on an assessment of the cultural differences of a particular community, enabled the library to provide information and referral services indirectly to a group which would not be served directly by an "outside" agency.

We said earlier that we were able to observe a direct correlation between the amount of community walking and the number of inquiries received at a branch library. This is true as a generalization, but it is important to acknowledge that there were exceptions. The most notable exception was at a branch where the staff was enthusiastic and was doing a good deal of walking and making presentations to groups. While this staff was successful in gaining knowledge of the community, it was receiving a relatively low volume of information and referral inquiries. This branch library was located in the same service area as a neighborhood city hall which had the reputation of being the best and most effective in the city. The man in charge was a colorful and well-known local figure who did a good job of handling complaints and straightening out problems involving city departments. The little city hall had operated for a number of years before the library began its new program and was well established as the place to go with problems about city government or city services. In many other areas of Detroit,

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either there was no little city hall, it was poorly run, or it lacked credibility in the neighborhood.

This branch library was also located directly across the street from a large, highly visible community mental health agency which provided a wide range of comprehensive services, including a hotline. This agency was also well established by the time the library began community walks. Most other neighborhoods of Detroit lacked an agency of this type which was visible and easily accessible. It seemed clear that the neighborhood city hall and the community mental health center were adequately handling two large categories of information and referral questions: those related to city services and those related to mental health. Branches in neighborhoods lacking such resources received more of these types of inquiries.

The other fact we discovered was that the number of telephone reference questions the branch was receiving had increased dramatically since the community walking had begun. The staff felt that this increase was a direct result of community contact with residents who had not previously recognized the library as a reference source. There was a need for this kind of information service in the neighborhood, and that need was appropriately met by the branch library. The cooperative arrangements established among the library, the little city hall, and the community mental health agency resulted in mutual respect for each other's expertise, less duplication, and most importantly, a smoother service delivery system for the citizens of that neighborhood.

Our conclusions based on the community analysis conducted in Detroit are as follows:

1. Formal and informal methods of community analysis are essential both for developing a clear and useful picture of “who is out there” and for an understanding of what they need/want.
2. There is no substitute for direct, active information-seeking in the process of community analysis in order to avoid acting on unsubstantiated assumptions about groups of people.
3. Just as different communities will want or need different services, different approaches will have to be used in the task of community analysis. There is no single approach which will always work, but respect and flexibility are always essential.
4. The purpose of community analysis at the Detroit Public Library has been to find more and better ways to serve the residents of
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Detroit. The information and referral service emerged as one means. Others—some traditional, some experimental—continue to emerge as the process continues.

5. Goals and objectives for the library and community analysis should be interrelated processes in order to be effective, with goals and objectives providing the focus for analysis, and with analysis enhancing and updating the goals and objectives.

References


Analyzing Information Needs of Local Community Organizations: A Case Study

MURIEL C. JAVELIN

THE EXTENSIVE NEEDS of the various governmental and countywide agencies of Nassau County, New York, for additional library services were first brought to the attention of the Nassau Library System by a staff member from the county executive's office. Accordingly, in 1967 the system requested and received a small study grant under Title I of the Library Services and Construction Act. The purposes of the study were: (1) to ascertain the level of library service in governmental and nongovernmental departments, agencies, offices and organizations in Nassau County; (2) to determine what additional library services were needed; and (3) to recommend how they could best be achieved.1

Relevant background material will provide a context for the study. Nassau County encompasses a 298-square mile area with New York City on the west, Suffolk County on the east, Long Island Sound on the north and the Atlantic Ocean on the south. In 1960, the U.S. Bureau of the Census listed the population as 1,300,171; by 1970 it had grown to 1,428,080.2 The Data Systems Bureau, New York State Office of Planning Service, estimates the 1975 population to be 1,432,328.3 Formerly the home of the New York commuter, 53 percent of Nassau's resident labor force was employed within the county in 1970. However, this statistic accounts for only 38 percent of the earned income of Nassau residents.

The racial composition of the county changed markedly between 1960 and 1970, as shown in Table 1.

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In 1938 Nassau became the first county in New York state to adopt the county charter form of government. The county executive, as administrative officer, manages the budget and appoints heads of county departments with the approval of the board of supervisors, which currently serves as the legislative body of the county.

Nassau County includes three towns—Hempstead, North Hempstead and Oyster Bay—and the cities of Glen Cove and Long Beach. Within this governmental structure there are 64 incorporated villages, 81 unincorporated areas, 269 special districts and 56 school districts—each concerned about its local autonomy.

The Nassau Library System is one of twenty-two library systems in New York state. Its funds are largely received under New York's state-aid-to-libraries legislation, with additional support from the county. The County Research Library and all fifty-four autonomous public libraries in the county are members of the Nassau Library System. The system's service center provides member libraries with cooperative purchasing, cataloging, technical processing, reference and interloan services, consultant services, direct reciprocal borrowing privileges, audiovisual services, and homebound and talking book services for those with visual and physical difficulties. It is a library's library and therefore not an agency for direct public service.

In 1968, the Nassau Board of Supervisors passed a resolution creating a board of trustees charged with setting policy, hiring personnel and implementing the development of the Nassau County Reference Library. The renamed Nassau County Research Library is located in temporary quarters; construction of a permanent building has not been started due to financial difficulties.

It should be pointed out that the data for this study was collected between July 1967 and January 1968, and the analysis of the findings was completed in 1969. Since then, the county executive has changed,
new county departments have been created, and other departments have been enlarged. In some instances department heads have been replaced. Several countywide nongovernmental organizations have been reorganized. However, the major findings and recommendations of the study remain as valid as they were in 1969.

It was discovered early in the study that there existed no complete listing of county and countywide organizations. Consequently, a list of 300 county and countywide groups was compiled from twenty-five sources. In constant use by system staff with community groups, it is recognized that it should be expanded and made widely available.

From the beginning of the study, complete cooperation was received from the county executive, as is evidenced in the letter which was mailed with each of the 300 questionnaires (see Appendix). The large number of returns—156, or 52 percent—may have been due, in part at least, to the county executive's endorsement. In response to the questionnaire inquiry “Do you feel it would be to our mutual advantage to talk over ways in which your organization and the Nassau Library System might work together?” there were eighty-one affirmative answers. Each resultant interview focused on the group's own questionnaire. The objectives of the interview were: (1) to determine and define more clearly the group's need for library services; (2) to make clear the services which exist, and how to obtain these services; (3) to explore other possible and needed services which should be considered for possible future implementation; (4) to discover which groups might benefit from a visit by a service center consultant; and (5) to encourage the use of library facilities in the local community. As answers in the questionnaires and interviews were analyzed, it became increasingly clear that many groups were unaware of the scope and variety of library services and materials available to them.

The recommendations growing out of the study varied greatly in their complexity, in the time necessary for their completion, and in the cost involved. The time factor alone—apart from consideration of the financial aspect—made it essential to establish priorities. Consequently, a second follow-up questionnaire was sent to 113 of the groups, requesting that they check their priorities; seventy-seven, or 68.1 percent, of the questionnaires were returned.

Some of the simpler recommendations were implemented immediately, and many others have been effected over the years. Some are still in process, while others have not been undertaken for a variety of reasons. Without supplementary funds, the more ambitious projects are largely impossible to attain. They are all legitimate library requests
and there are still pressing needs. When the Nassau County Research Library becomes an actuality, some of the remaining unmet needs should be reexamined.

The following comments, examples of many made by various groups, revealed that too frequently library patrons do not know that a book not listed in the local library catalog can usually be obtained from another source: "A great many potential library borrowers are unaware of this wider aspect of service [interlibrary loan] and consequently bear negative attitudes toward their own community library"; "We have been using the New York Public Library and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency for our research-level materials. Nassau County needs a library information service for answers to specific questions" (the service center has such a facility); "We need a rapid search service on special journals which are unavailable through medical sources" (in this instance, through the service center's interlibrary loan system, eight out of eleven British mental health items, previously unsuccessfully sought elsewhere, were obtained). It was realized that there was at least one obvious way of increasing the knowledge of the interlibrary loan service. All reading lists prepared by service center staff since the study include a reminder that books not listed in the local card catalog can be searched through the interlibrary loan network. Member libraries are also encouraged to display prominently a reminder of the service.

The requests for particular reading lists resulted in the updating or reprinting of some lists and the preparation of new lists. It was suggested that a sample of each list be sent to relevant groups which might then request additional copies. To test this idea, the list "Lay Your Magnifying Glass Aside" and a note on the talking book service resulted in a request for 100 additional reading lists and in 200 talking book registrations. This idea was never developed to its fullest extent, but it is still valid.

Informational materials received at the service center are distributed by system trucks to member libraries. A limited number of groups had been using this service. Many others became aware for the first time of the public library as a community focal point for disseminating information to a wide variety of people. Although the questionnaires and interviews were meant to determine how libraries might better serve county and countywide groups, it was found that the service was frequently of mutual benefit to the groups and to the local libraries particularly in responding to the informational and reference needs of their patrons.
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Because groups throughout the county were emphasizing service to the disadvantaged, it is not surprising that the need for extended service to this segment of the population received a high priority rating. More than one-half of the groups were seeking ways of motivating the disadvantaged nonreader. A satisfactory solution to this problem has not yet been found.

It was easier to meet the request to display prominently in public libraries collections of books and pamphlets for the slow learner and the undereducated, with special emphasis on Black history and culture, easy-reading vocational materials, and other easy-reading books. Through a Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA) grant, collections were placed in several member libraries and other libraries ordered materials from their own funds. The books are still used by literacy volunteers and other groups teaching reading to adults.

Despite the fact that the average Nassau County adult had more than 12.2 years of schooling, in 1960 there were in the county 322,996 adults over twenty-five years of age without high school diplomas. High school equivalency classes and materials were priority needs of many groups. Through an LSCA grant, teachers were placed in three member libraries to enable them to offer high school equivalency courses with the cooperation of the county's Vocational Education and Extension Board (VEEB). A fourth teacher was assigned through VEEB to assist the full-time teacher at the Nassau County Jail. Unfortunately, the one-year grant was not renewed and the libraries did not have funds to pay the teachers. However, the project did demonstrate that some adults prefer to attend classes in a library rather than in a school situation. As a result of the successful VEEB classes, the member libraries were asked to cooperate with the high school equivalency program of the Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES) by recruiting students, supplying meeting rooms and furnishing materials. Thus the project was continued under other auspices.

Although many of the groups answering the questionnaire were already film users, a large number were unaware of the library's film service. Film catalogs were given to all groups requesting them. Several new film borrowers were registered, and several groups expressed the need for film preview opportunities. As a result of this request, organizations interested in particular film subjects have occasionally been invited to the system previews. Since preview sessions are currently planned around particular subjects, organizational people receive regular notification of those previews in which they have
expressed subject interest. They are also encouraged to suggest films for preview. In this way librarians are afforded the opportunity to discuss possible film purchases with future users, who are frequently subject experts.

As answers to the survey were analyzed, it was realized that one of the needs that could be met almost immediately was a workshop on library services for the staffs of governmental groups. Accordingly, with the assistance of the county executive's office, two half-day meetings were held at the service center. Brief talks were given by library staff to the seventy-five people attending; the morning concluded with a tour of the service center. The second session was an answer to county departments and offices seeking help with the development and maintenance of library collections. This meeting was conducted by the cataloging and reference staff.

Wherever possible, service center staff members have responded to more specific requests for help in organizing department or office collections. The Nassau County Research Library is now able to give help in weeding, reorganizing, cataloging, expanding or setting up a circulation collection in response to requests from governmental agencies.

One form of cooperation often leads to another. A suggestion which came from the Nassau County Vocational Center for Women during the study resulted in a very successful series of four meetings in several libraries for women who wished to return to work. Recently, the complete vocational and educational card file of the women's services has been made available to the service center for duplication for member libraries. This is the most complete file of its kind in the county and is used only by the women's services and the member libraries.

A request the system has been able to meet more satisfactorily this year through an LSCA grant has been the placing of books and periodicals in senior citizen housing projects too distant for easy access to the library. Even without this grant, individual libraries endeavored to supply some materials to local housing projects as the need became known.

Answers to questionnaires and interviews stressed the fact that one of the greatest gaps in library service in Nassau County was, and still is, in the institutions—particularly in the correctional centers and hospitals. These institutions minister to the needs of the entire county, and local libraries can afford to offer only a minimal service. Therefore, the Nassau Library System service center has accepted responsibility for meeting institutional library needs on a limited scale.
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However, it should be recognized that outside funding is necessary for complete library service.

The Nassau County Correctional Center has a daily population of 550-600. The inmates have terms of less than one year unless they are awaiting trial. A visit to the correctional center during the study revealed that the library consisted of books gathered from public library discards and a large gift collection of uneven quality serviced by an officer of the correctional center. Following the study, the Nassau County Library Association started volunteer library service in the correctional center. In the meantime, the Nassau Library System prepared a complete grant application for full library service based on the findings of the study. When the grant was not forthcoming, a smaller state grant to the system as an interim measure provided funds for paperback books and for a few hours of professional library service weekly. Complete library service is urgently needed, however.

It became evident from the study that library service was also needed in the Children’s Shelter even though there are less than thirty children there at any time. A county grant for library development was prepared to be presented as a package with the correctional center proposal. This too has been unsuccessful. However, the study and the preparation of the proposal have resulted in a closer working relationship with the shelter.

As a result of the study, a grant proposal was also prepared for the establishment of a patients’ library in the Nassau County Medical Center, intended to be a joint project of the Nassau Library System and the medical center. Although hospital staff members were involved in planning for this library, it remains an acknowledged but unfulfilled need. The hospital administration is not yet ready to accept the idea of a patients’ library other than one staffed by volunteers.

Closely allied to library services to hospitals are those in nursing homes and homes for the elderly. The study disclosed that although in some areas the librarian visits the nursing homes in the local community, much more needs to be done. This is a service which can be fully developed only with county or other funding.

While patients in nursing homes and hospitals are easily identified, organizations expressed concern for the large numbers of unknown homebound individuals of all ages living in private homes without library service. In 1975, the organizations and the public libraries were still seeking a way to compile a complete listing of the homebound. An important facet of service to the homebound and others is the talking book service for those with physical or visual handicaps. When this
service was initiated in Nassau County, more than 1,000 registration forms for talking books were sent to twenty-five groups and eighteen hospitals as a result of interviews during the study. This resulted in many new talking book readers. It was recommended during the study that the Nassau Library System explore the possibility of applying for designation as a regional center for talking books and that funds be sought to help with the establishment and operation of the center. The system has since become a subregional center of the New York Public Library. No outside funds have become available, but the outlook for state funding is hopeful.

This study, undertaken following a discussion with the county executive’s office, had as its primary purpose the identification of additional library services needed by organizations in the county and the determination of those services which fell within the Nassau Library System’s pattern of service. This pattern is clearly defined as the fostering of quality library service in the autonomous member community libraries. The study left no doubt of the pressing needs, many of which were beyond the possibility of fulfillment by the Nassau Library System without additional funding. The Nassau County Research Library will be able to perform those tasks which are beyond the scope of the system under its present funding.

In reviewing the methods used in this study and in considering what might have been done differently, one improvement would have been to telephone or write to those organizations which did not reply to the first questionnaire. In the interest of time this was not done, since a 52 percent return was considered to be an adequate sampling of needs.

One organization wrote: “There is no agency geared to provide a complete list of community organizations. If the Nassau Library System could set this up, it would render a central service for which I am sure all agencies would be grateful.” Because of repeated requests for such a list, it is unfortunate that plans for the compilation and updating of a list of all county and countywide departments, agencies, offices and organizations, with addresses and names of the persons in charge, were not included in the original grant. It has not been possible to expand the original list of 300 groups developed during the study without additional funds.

That many libraries are working to understand their communities in order to effect improved service is evidenced by responses to the author’s request for examples of self-study. Fifteen studies were received, of which two were surveys of high school libraries, three of college libraries, and ten of public libraries. While not all could qualify
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as community analyses, the purpose of the majority of the studies was to determine the use made of the libraries and the characteristics of the people who used them.

The Nassau Library System's study of organization needs is but one form and one purpose of community analysis, an effort of one library to focus more clearly on a sector of community needs—that of community organizations. As a case study, therefore, the successful results of Nassau's study should give encouragement to any library considering a study of any aspect of community characteristics and needs.

References

3. Ibid., p. 185.
7. Ibid., pp. 11-12.
8. Ibid., p. 2.
10. Ibid., p. 23.
Following are the questionnaire used in the study reported above and the letter which accompanied the questionnaire.

NASSAU LIBRARY SYSTEM

Questionnaire to County and County-Wide Organizations and Agencies

Will you please answer the following questions in order that the Nassau Library System may learn how it may be of service to your organization or agency? We are enclosing two copies, one of which is for your file.

Name of Organization or Agency __________________________

Address __________________________ Telephone _______

Head of Organization or Agency and Title __________________________

Address and Telephone Number if different from above ________

What are the major purposes or goals of your group?

If you have an annual report for general distribution, please enclose it together with other leaflets or sheets which describe your service.

(1) In which of the following groups would you classify your organization or agency?

(Check more than one if necessary)

( ) Business ( ) Political
( ) Cultural ( ) Professional
( ) Educational ( ) Recreational
( ) Governmental ( ) Religious
( ) Health (Mental) ( ) Service
( ) Health (Physical) ( ) Veterans
( ) Informational ( ) Vocational
( ) Inter-group ( ) Vocational Counseling
( ) Labor ( ) Welfare
( ) Other (specify below)
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(2) What age groups do you serve?
( ) Children (pre-school) ( ) Adult (20-60 years)
( ) Children (school to 13) ( ) Adult (over 60 years)
( ) Young Adult (13 to 19 years)

(3) Do you have branches or departments in the local communities?
( ) Yes ( ) No (If your answer is "yes," please enclose a list.)

(4) Do you have a library in your organization or agency? ( ) Yes.
( ) No. If your answer is "yes," please answer the following questions:
Is there a person responsible for your library? ( ) Yes ( ) No. If your answer is "yes," is this person ( ) full time ( ) part time?
How many volumes of fiction are there in the library? __________
How many volumes of non-fiction are there in the library? ______
Is the collection for use by your staff? ( ) Yes ( ) No
Is the collection for use by the public? ( ) Yes ( ) No

(5) Please check below the kinds of library service you feel your organization needs. (Check as many as you wish—star those which you feel are most important.)

( ) Help in setting up a library
( ) Advice on cataloging your collection
( ) Collection of books and pamphlets for long-term loan
( ) Materials for the disadvantaged
( ) Materials for the handicapped
( ) Reference service
( ) Reading lists for office use
( ) Reading lists for general distribution
( ) Exhibits of books and pamphlets
( ) Talking book service
( ) Film lending service
( ) Loan of 16mm projector
( ) Opportunity to preview films
( ) Loan of recordings
( ) Loan of tapes
( ) Loan of programmed texts
( ) Shut-in service (nursing homes)
( ) Shut-in service (individuals)
( ) Workshop on Audio-Visual Services
( ) Workshop on Program Planning
( ) Workshop on Discussion Leadership
( ) Workshop on Story Telling and Reading Aloud
( ) Workshop (Other) Please specify

( ) Information about materials for programs
( ) Lists of speakers for programs
( ) Meeting room
( ) List of community organizations
( ) Community calendar of county-wide activities
( ) Other (Please specify)

(6) Do you feel it would be to our mutual advantage to talk over ways in which your organization or agency and the Nassau Library System might work together?
( ) Yes ( ) No

Please add any comments you may desire.
Dear Community Leader:

The Nassau Library System and Nassau County government are embarking on a joint project to improve library services for governmental and private agencies in the County. We are anxious to determine what gaps may exist in library services to these community organizations. The work of many of our governmental and private county-wide agencies could be considerably enhanced by the provision of additional library services based upon specific needs. We, therefore, ask your cooperation in filling out the attached questionnaire as a first step.

The merit of this project has been recognized by the State of New York. The Nassau Library System has received a grant administered by the New York State Division of Library Development under the Federal Library Services and Construction Act to carry out this project.

The questionnaire is in two sections. The first requests information about your organization or agency. The second suggests ways in which the Library System might be of service to you. It is hoped that from this questionnaire we can develop more sophisticated and responsive services.

This project is important to all of us. I trust that each of you will respond as completely as possible.

Sincerely yours,

/s/ Eugene H. Nickerson
County Executive

/s/ Andrew Geddes
Director, Nassau Library System
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Community Analysis In An Academic Environment

JAMES F. GOVAN

The Modern University, like the modern city, had its origins in the middle ages, the former a community of scholars brought together by the revival of learning in the twelfth century, the latter a commercial community created by the revival of trade in roughly the same period. Both remain essentially communities, in spite of the inroads of the multiversity on academe and the many recent splintering influences on the city. Hence, it is only appropriate that any treatment of community analysis by librarians should include the academic world.

From the outset, however, it should be recognized that there are wide disparities between these two types of communities. The academic library serves a community which is much more clearly structured, more definable, and more consciously and constantly dependent on the library. These characteristics inevitably bring about much greater participation by the academic community in its library's formulation and implementation of policies, from collection development to the establishment of new services. It follows then, somewhat unexpectedly, that community analysis should properly loom larger in the academic librarian's life than in that of the public librarian.

The variety among academic libraries makes any broad discussion of them virtually impossible. The great range in size and character alone of American institutions of higher education defies generalization; indeed, there is often more similarity between large liberal arts colleges and small universities than there is among the colleges or universities themselves. The large number of community colleges have an equally wide variance. For the purpose of this brief article, it will be necessary to indulge in vulnerable generalizations and to place the emphasis on

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college and university libraries, while admittedly giving short shrift to the community colleges, despite the highly significant and expanding role they are playing in American higher education.

The comparative intimacy which the modern community of scholars still enjoys prompts all types of academic librarians to engage in certain forms of community analysis as an integral part of performing their duties. For example, extensive (if rather superficial) community analysis enters into the construction of any acquisitions budget. Past records of expenditure, special research or instructional programs, the size of enrollments in the various disciplines, and other similar considerations form a large part of the decision to budget a given amount for a subject area. In all truth, however, one is compelled to admit that inflationary factors and the base built up for the area in the past are usually the decisive criteria.

Dissatisfaction with this crude approach has led to attempts to create a more exact basis for budgeting. One of the earliest endeavors was the formula devised by Verner Clapp and Robert Jordan in 1965 and based on the number of students, degrees and faculty in each discipline represented in the library's collection. William McGrath has expanded on the basic idea of the Clapp-Jordan formula by applying a number of indices such as circulation statistics and average prices in each discipline to areas of the book collection supporting specific courses listed in the course catalog. With the alarming rise in serials prices, one recent study has addressed the matter of the optimum ratio of serials to monographs in each discipline and the necessary budget for each area. Finally, the Association of College and Research Libraries has developed a set of standards which suggests measurements of the adequacy of a collection and, by implication, its financial support.

Most of these tentative efforts at formula budgeting have come from smaller libraries, where the necessary data are more manageable and the special considerations more limited; but inevitably they have inspired similar proposals for research libraries, where it is likely they will ultimately prove most valuable. Of the formulae proposed thus far, one of the more satisfactory came first from the state of Washington and has since been adopted in a number of other states. Like the Clapp-Jordan formula, the Washington formula assigns certain unit values to disciplines according to the number of students and faculty attached to the pertinent academic departments, but it assigns much greater values to graduate study than does the Clapp-Jordan formula. It is interesting to observe that the Association of Research Libraries is
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now considering a set of standards for university libraries that also suggests quantitative standards based on academic programs.8

While no universally accepted formula has yet emerged, it is clear that academic libraries are moving in the direction of structuring budgets on more intimate knowledge of their local communities. Early attempts to use formulae, however, have revealed that the data necessary for their application were frequently unavailable, especially in the larger libraries, and have subsequently led to different modes and categories of data gathering. Thus, one of the unquestionable benefits of this experimentation with formula budgeting and related efforts has been an enhanced sensitivity among academic librarians to precise information about the community and its pertinence to library operations.

Much the same kind of result can come from formulation of policy statements on collection development. While these statements have long been with us, they now reflect more exact knowledge of the needs and future directions of the community served. Library staffs are making distinct efforts to relate collecting priorities more closely to the academic program and research activities on the local campus. One fairly widespread technique has been the examination of citations in dissertations and faculty publications and of past interlibrary loan requests to measure the collection's adequacy in certain subject areas for local purposes. Another common device is to gather through questionnaires data on collection inadequacies detected by the community.9 The responses, combined with the staff's prior knowledge of the community and its use of the collection, provide the foundation for a policy indicating the depth and breadth of collecting which the library should undertake in each area.10 While such projects are not restricted to university campuses, they take place there more frequently, for the obvious reason that the larger scope and complexity are more likely to require detailed policies on collecting.

The rapidity with which library services are changing today has necessitated another approach to community analysis in academic libraries. The library should respond as the faculty integrates audiovisually supported instruction into the curriculum, as applications of the computer to its services become available and beneficial, or as the addition of subject specialists on its staff can meet a need of its community, to cite only a few examples. A careful sampling of community opinion and an extensive preparation of the community should precede this kind of change in order for it to be successful, because inevitably the library staff will have to educate some segments
of the community about the advantages of new services. These changes, therefore, require the staff of any progressive academic library to stay in touch with both the local situation and professional advances. The dual responsibility of fitting newly available services to local needs and of preparing the community for the introduction of them can provide invaluable insights into the nature and character of the library’s clientele.

Finally, academic libraries currently are increasing interlibrary cooperation and membership in consortia, networks, and other cooperative activities. No library should make a commitment to membership in such a group without responsible consideration of the impact of the obligations involved on the local community and the resources for serving it. This consideration, in most instances, should receive more emphasis in public than in private institutions, for in all likelihood the public institutions will already have specific obligations to other institutions in the system. Even a commitment with fairly obvious benefits, like membership in some form of union catalog, carries with it exposure of the library’s holdings to interlibrary borrowing which the campus community should understand. A commitment with less obvious compensations from the user’s viewpoint is the creation of a cooperative acquisitions policy with another library, or the more extensive cooperation recently projected for the Research Library Group in New York and New England. An unfortunate resentment of these off-campus services can arise unless the librarians exercise the leadership to explain the reciprocal benefits and obligations involved. Once again, assessing responses of the community on the local campus to proposals for cooperative efforts and the necessary preparation of it for commitments of this nature require a reliable knowledge of the community and, at the same time, can add substantially to that knowledge.

The community on any campus may be a definable entity, but it is by no means undivided. What, then, are the components of this community? Although there are vast differences between the various types of institutions, they all have fundamentally the same structure concerning the populations attached to them. A small community college, as well as a large university, has students, faculty, administrators, alumni and other supporters, and a larger community—both intellectual and geographic—in which it resides. Moreover, each has an academic program which must be considered in the analysis of any academic community. This personification of an academic program may seem odd, but it is one of the qualities of an
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academic community which makes it like no other. As a distillation of
the principal intellectual activity of the community, it exerts a major, if
not decisive, influence on the library's services and collections. At one
point, William Dix of Princeton conjectured that the expansion of
academic and research programs may, in fact, have been more
responsible for the growth of academic libraries' collections in recent
years than had the increase in student bodies. In any event, it is a
unique phenomenon, resembling no imperative faced by nonacademic
librarians, and cannot be omitted here.

The primary function of any college or university library collection is
to support in some way the traditional disciplines offered in the
curriculum. However, American higher education is currently
undergoing a change with the merging and splintering of disciplines.
The principal difficulty librarians face today in responding to
academic programs is the proliferation of interdisciplinary studies.
Programs which cross disciplinary lines or specially formed curricula
impose unusual demands on both collections and services. These
demands can range from the relocation of collections—creating
potential interference with the work of scholars in traditional areas—to
the rapid provision of new staff and materials. Academic libraries,
organized largely to reflect the structure of the traditional curriculum,
are suffering serious wrenches as that curriculum begins to shift.
Academic librarians are finding themselves increasingly caught
between the traditionalist and the interdisciplinarian communities, just
as they can be caught between the campus and off-campus
communities in their efforts to serve all.

There is no question as to the value of these programs which are
providing new perspectives on learning, creating the new kinds of
specialists needed by the society, and are probably surpassing the
traditional disciplines in their advancement of knowledge. The
question here is the wave of crisis for libraries—especially the
ponderous research libraries—which is slowly gathering in their wake.
It is a wave that can be contained, in all probability, but whether it will
be depends on the academic world's recognition of this subtle
restructuring and the development of adequate plans for it. The
planning by American higher education up to this point does not offer
much hope, because the institutional implications of new approaches to
learning have not emerged dramatically from it. We may not quite be
abandoning the modern quadrivium, but we clearly face something
more serious than merely combining and dividing certain selected
areas of study. Libraries—perhaps the most unwieldy element of any
educational enterprise—too often have no representation on the committee or council monitoring the curriculum, and it is often not understood that the provision of adequate library support for new programs cannot be made overnight. It remains an abiding puzzle that faculties highly sensitive to the need for library resources so frequently make educational decisions with no regard to the library's ability to adapt to them.

These problems are most acute in the university setting, the locus of most interdisciplinary programs, although they are not absent from college campuses. More often than not, the introduction of a new interdisciplinary program into a university curriculum will involve graduate study, with the accompanying need for a research collection, reference and technical services personnel with the appropriate subject training, and pressure for special facilities. All these requirements have tremendous budgetary implications and call for long periods of preparation. Perhaps the ultimate answer is simply increased centralization in institutional decision-making and planning. It was clearly this kind of consideration that led to the recommendation in the Booz, Allen, and Hamilton report on library management at Columbia University that the university librarian be appointed vice-president of the university for information.16

The faculty of the institution most often represent to the library the information needs of the academic program, along with their own individual needs as practicing scholars. In a formal sense, these representations normally come through a faculty committee on the library, which may be either elected or appointed, administrative or advisory.17 Because of the differences in size of the institutions and the attendant problems of communication with individual faculty members, these bodies are far more valuable to university librarians than to college librarians. When functioning properly, they are one of the best sources of information on the composition and sentiment of the institutional community.18 Faculty colleagues, in theory, convey their concerns and criticisms to committee members, who in turn inform the librarian of faculty opinion and attempt to protect faculty interests in the committee's deliberations. Even when the committee is not highly active, this group can serve as an important channel of communication through their constant and close contact with the relatively small community which they represent. If appropriately representative, the committee should know of many of the special instructional and research needs in the community and should be able to discover needs unknown to them.
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One of the chief responsibilities of faculty committees is to assist in the formulation of the acquisitions budget, particularly in institutions where each teaching department receives an allocation. While the discussions preceding the final allocations involve much community analysis, no committee should limit itself to this single function. Its true role should be to serve as a liaison group between the library and the community. As a representative of the faculty to the library, it can offer useful critiques of the library from the users' viewpoint. As a representative of the library to the faculty, it can use the information gained from committee discussions to explain the library's policies and practices to its colleagues. Although commonly given lip-service, this latter function receives scant attention in reality, and its neglect is one reason faculty committees do not adequately bridge the gap between academic libraries and the campus community.

The communications gap between the library and the faculty is most harmful in the small, daily disappointments to users which never come to the staff's attention. One great difficulty every library faces is that the discontented user simply leaves the premises unserved and unprotesting, when a question to a staff member might well have provided either a solution or an explanation. In an academic community—limited in numbers and physically concentrated as it is—this kind of failure in communication can create severe problems because the misconceptions which result can spread rapidly through the community. The most dedicated faculty committee, like the library staff itself, cannot waylay all these frustrated by anonymous members of the community. The situation calls for a more comprehensive response. If feasible, it is often useful to have at least one meeting of the faculty or faculty senate to be devoted to the library. This meeting can be held in conjunction with an annual report to the faculty from the library committee, and the librarian will have the opportunity to answer questions. The combination of the report and the librarian's responses should answer most concerns, thus providing for the library a forum otherwise seldom available. Neither this arrangement nor the best efforts of the library committee will reach every unhappy library user on the faculty, but the combined result is probably the most effective solution to the problem yet offered.

Recently, Robert Haro has suggested another instrument for stronger liaison between library staffs and faculties. He has proposed the creation of research groups composed of faculty members and librarians, with student representation when appropriate, to identify problem areas, to define opportunities for needed improvements, and
to increase the relevance of the library's service programs. Beyond the obvious benefit to the library's performance and the equally obvious enhancement of the staff's knowledge of its clientele, Haro sees this arrangement as having a salutary influence on librarians, who otherwise would have to face alone the task of specifying objectives and of recognizing service deficiencies. Whatever its advantages on that score, the Haro proposal would certainly help to inform more precisely any library staff about a very significant segment of the community.20

This idea may not be as novel as it appears at first glance. Many libraries on both college and university campuses have engaged the talents and specialized training of the institution's teaching faculty, when they have been made available, to work on library problems. Some faculty committees have joint faculty-staff standing subcommittees to monitor specific areas like serials subscriptions or expensive research purchases, in order to obtain the combination of community opinion and staff expertise. Staff planning groups often enlist faculty assistance in conducting surveys of opinion or in gaining specialized competencies. In recent years, many libraries have begun to institute search committees for key staff personnel and have invited faculty members in related subject fields to serve on those committees. These collaborative efforts have proven to be substantial supports of library-faculty liaison and invaluable channels of information for librarians on faculty opinions and activities.

One interest obviously common to faculty and library staff is the library's collections. As we have seen, the faculty has essential contributions, based on special knowledge of their teaching colleagues, to make to the acquisitions budget discussions and to policy statements on collection development. But familiarity with the scholarly community—especially with their departmental subcommunities—can be very helpful in the evaluation of the collection's strengths and weaknesses. Collection evaluation takes much time, and it behooves librarians to make the necessary preparations for the most productive use of faculty time. The same strictures apply to weeding of the collection and, once again, a preliminary survey by the library staff to suggest titles and copies for storage or discard can materially expedite the project.21

Probably nothing has done so much to increase librarians' knowledge of their communities and to strengthen liaison with their faculties as the addition of subject specialists to library staffs. These new positions first appeared on university staffs as the growth of budgets and collections made some assistance to faculty selectors
necessary and as area study programs came into curricula. They had the added benefit of assisting balanced development of collections, thereby compensating for the zeal of certain specialists and changes in the faculty. They also provided a safeguard against the creation of gaps in the collection, for one other drawback to the disciplinary structure of colleges and universities is that the publishing world is not so structured and regularly publishes important titles which do not fit neatly into a departmental cubbyhole. Where bibliographers exist, they assume responsibility for collection development in one subject area and, as a natural corollary, often provide reference and bibliographic services to graduate students and faculty in that area. Some college and medium-size university libraries have met the same problem by giving every member of the staff responsibility for collection development in specific areas in addition to the primary responsibilities. Aside from the more careful monitoring of collection development that results, invaluable information is gained through these ties about new faculty, research projects, and community assessments of the library’s performance.

Informal contacts regularly supplement these formal and structured relationships. Staff members who have good rapport with the faculty frequently hear the opinions of individual faculty members about the library’s efforts to meet the community’s needs. Whether sharing a coffee break or a reference problem, the staff, from the most junior member to the head librarian, can and should continually seek faculty opinion. Any beginning academic librarian should recognize this exposure as one of the integral responsibilities of his or her job and should encourage it. The continuing, if somewhat diminished, mobility of faculties makes current knowledge of their specializations, of their publication records and research, and their instructional plans essential to any effective academic library. In a very real sense, the reputation and quality of the institution rests primarily on the performance of the faculty, and within the limits of responsibility to the institution and of fairness to others, every staff member should take the measures necessary to meet their library needs.

The largest, most diversified, and most transitory segment of the academic community is the student body. It is, consequently, the most difficult segment to analyze. Students, like faculty, normally serve on library committees, collaborate as student assistants on library operations, and make their preferences and dissatisfactions known through a variety of channels from suggestion boxes to casual conversations. These communications are helpful, but they seldom
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represent the opinion of a broad section of the student population. Both the lack of homogeneity within the student body and the rapid shifts in the prevalent mood are obstacles to analysis. Student newspapers, regularly monitored over a long period, sometimes provide insights into majority student opinion; and staffs can always resort to surveys by questionnaire, although this approach has limited usefulness in a large student body. One ingenious approach recently employed the campus best-seller lists published in the Chronicle of Higher Education as an index to shifting student interests.

The differences in student bodies, like the differences in academic programs, constitute some of the distinguishing features among the types of institutions. Community college students and more than one-half of the students of four-year institutions are underclassmen and are likely to confine their use of the library largely to the reserve book and reference collections. Upperclassmen, particularly in the better undergraduate colleges and universities, often require collections and services equal to those provided for graduate students. The sheer numbers involved on university campuses, however, impose unrealistic burdens on librarians attempting first to identify and then to meet these requirements. The staff of the college library is in a much better position, in general, to be responsive to the undergraduate's needs than are university librarians.

One of the strengths of the liberal arts college has been the individual attention which it is able to give to its students. The library, as much as any part of the college, has contributed to this strength by providing detailed instruction in the use of the library as preparation, especially, for independent study. Unquestionably, the outstanding program is at Earlham College, in Richmond, Indiana, where a large percentage of professional staff time goes into classroom instruction on the bibliography of the various disciplines. A refinement of this idea is the library-college, which presents the library staff as the principal instructors of the college and the preparation of the student for self-instruction as the primary goal of education. While the idea in its purest form has not gained much acceptance, it has certainly inspired traditional colleges to improve their orientation programs. Preparation for these efforts and the independent study which is its justification, in large part, have made staffs better informed about the needs and preferences of students in undergraduate libraries.

University librarians, recognizing the advantages of the undergraduate college's size, have tried to provide as well for their undergraduate students by creating separate undergraduate libraries.
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A study comparing this kind of library with the college library has tentatively concluded that the undergraduate library on the university campus gives far less reference service and instruction in use of the library to its students. Many university librarians would dispute that conclusion and have created imaginative methods for assisting and instructing the larger groups of students in their institutions. (A number of the more innovative of these efforts have received financial support from the Council on Library Resources.) Of course, the community colleges, often with quite large student bodies to serve, have taken the lead in the ingenious use of audiovisual materials in library use instruction and have established models which university libraries could profitably reproduce.

Similarly, university librarians have become more aware of the need for instruction and orientation among graduate students. The university library staff is in much the same relationship to this student body as the college staff is to an undergraduate student body. In spite of the more individual and sophisticated study involved, the smaller numbers and the almost daily contact with this group of users permit both in-depth analysis of and response to their needs, in part through group instruction. There is some indication, however, that university librarians have neglected the graduate student community in their concentration on faculty and undergraduates and perhaps have made some ill-founded assumptions that faculty needs and graduate student needs are identical. If true, this neglect is ironic, for the graduate student is probably the most assiduous and aware user of the university library. Indeed, it is just possible that the student community in general has had too many assumptions made about it and probably constitutes the area academic librarians should concentrate on in future community analyses, despite the inherent problems.

The service demands of the academic library's third constituency, the institution's administration, are not ordinarily very heavy, tending to be requests for specific information from the reference department. But the administration is often instrumental in creating opportunities for librarians to refine their analysis of the community. Its emphasis on or neglect of long-range planning can determine, to a significant degree, the amount of data on the community available to the library. Similarly, the administrative approach to self-studies and preparations for periodic accreditation visits can determine whether the studies provide additional information about the community and its future plans. Certainly administrative style is decisive in the revelation of the community's library needs through planning for a new library

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building. The breadth of the surveys authorized and the appointments to the operative committees can make these preparations either a community effort or a sterile ritual. All these points simply stress the compelling importance of the administration’s constant sensitivity to the library’s core position in the community and to its need for information about that community which the administration may have or can create.

The alumni of the institution, the members of the “friends of the library,” or some similar group, and the donors and supporters of the library form yet another constituency for the library. However, somewhat like the administrators of the institution, they seldom create special requirements which must be met. It is a common practice for libraries to extend borrowing privileges to these groups, but the level of demand is not normally high. There is a growing tendency, which can be expected to accelerate, for them to enroll in continuing education programs offered by the institution. As Richard Lyman, president of Stanford University, has pointed out to librarians, this new kind of student body will be far more diversified in their ability to use the library than other students are and will place an additional service burden on library staffs. Clearly, any revised program of community analysis should take into account this elusive, complex, and virtually unprecedented type of student.

Finally, the academic library, to a much greater degree than most public libraries, cannot limit its services to the local community. In the broadest sense, these libraries belong to the international community of scholarship and have the obligation to that community to make their resources and services known and available. This obligation exists for the older and larger college libraries as well as for the university libraries, although it rests much more heavily on research libraries. Whether it is by engaging in the active interlibrary lending that prevails in the United States—a matter of increasing concern to the major lending libraries today because of the labor costs involved—or by making provision for visiting scholars, academic librarians cannot omit this wider world from their analysis of the groups of people they serve. To repeat an earlier point, some of the most difficult decisions that an academic librarian confronts involve meeting the needs of off-campus users without harming the service to campus residents, and any worthwhile analysis of the library’s community should advance the reconciliation of the demands of these two subdivisions of that community.

This article has attempted to enumerate some of the many ways in
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which academic librarians have traditionally analyzed their communities. Perhaps the early library surveys can be called the first formal projects to include some community analysis; thereafter, the use of questionnaires became the prevalent method of gathering data—and it probably still is. This method has produced some interesting results, but it has also created a mass of soft data and subjective or impressionistic opinion. The problems of gathering hard data, especially on a university campus, have seriously restricted librarians' knowledge of their campus communities and have frequently undermined the validity of any survey conclusions.

The new technology is providing tools which vastly improve the library's ability, in a broad sense, to improve its responses to the community. The computer holds the possibility for the university library to free itself from the problems of data gathering and analysis mentioned earlier. Computerized circulation systems alone can yield information on the most heavily used segments of the collections, on titles which should be duplicated, on priority areas for reclassification, on appropriate loan periods, and on many other categories pertaining to the use of the library's resources. The introduction of information retrieval systems and the consequent individual profiling and the potentiality of selective dissemination of information services can provide much more intimate knowledge of the research interests in the institution. Library staffs, often with the support and collaboration of appropriate faculty members, are steadily gaining experience in operations research, and the precise measuring skills being developed afford a much more accurate picture of the demands placed on libraries in all aspects of their operations. Even older methods of investigation now impose a much lighter burden because of the computer. In the near future, libraries of all sorts should be in a much better position to analyze the communities served and their use of the libraries, as other articles in this volume make abundantly clear. Academic libraries in particular, with access to faculty trained in the necessary skills and to available computer hardware, should fare particularly well.

Academic librarians should welcome and engage these new tools and the information which they can gain with them. It is apparent that, despite all their efforts in the past, they still do not know their communities well enough, and seriously need an expansion of their knowledge of library users. Because user patterns influence so many decisions—from reclassification to collection size—it is very likely that they will become one of the chief products of the new technology, an
eventuality possibly foreshadowed by the recent founding of a center on user studies at the University of Sheffield. There is an obvious need, in both college and university communities, for more information on student use, and sophisticated investigations on the variations by discipline of faculty use may also yield surprising results. None of this analysis now seems beyond librarians’ capability. A far more serious area of obscurity seems to lie in the future structure of academic institutions and their organization of learning—both directly related to librarians’ ability to know and then to serve the academic community.

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The Use of Community Analysis in the Measurement Process

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Library decision-makers are confronted with a number of complex factors, usually all present at the same time, when asked to demonstrate the library's success vis-à-vis other public institutions competing for the same public funds. These problems may be very briefly stated as follows:

1. What measurement device can the library utilize? How much will it cost?
2. Is the existing information base available to the library adequate? If not, how can it be improved? If adequate exactly what do the library decision-makers need to do?
3. Against what other information bases (community data) should library decision-makers compare their institution?
4. To what extent, if at all, do library decision-makers have access to various market survey data, against which the performance of the library might be compared?
5. What is the level of political sophistication which the library decision-makers can bring to the process?
6. To what extent do existing library management styles recognize and/or utilize measurement and evaluation as normal operating practice?

It is, of course, beyond the purview of this paper to deal with all of these questions. Nevertheless, it is critical that the reader recognize the basic context for the question of utilizing community analysis in the measurement process.

The problems described above are compounded by the following factors. On one hand, as this Library Trends issue clearly demonstrates, there is a wealth of research and substantial literature which deals with

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"community analysis" covering a variety of approaches. For the most part, however, library decision-makers must make the inferences from community data to the library context. On the other hand, in the past five to ten years there has been a dramatic increase in the number of research studies devoted to the question of library "measurement." Again, library decision-makers have a fairly substantial literature base upon which to draw. The author has devoted considerable time in the past decade to the question of library measurement and performance. It is important to recognize that very few studies have been concerned with the management applications and data gathering devices for measurement and evaluation.

The application of viable measurable indicators which the librarian may pragmatically apply in community analysis is, of course, subject to a variety of opinions. It is not the intent here to reopen that methodological can of worms. Experience suggests that it is both unwise and counter-productive to attempt any shortcuts on the complicated path of measuring the performance of any nonprofit, public-oriented institution. And, while undoubtedly the most desirable measurement process is one which produces data on outcomes, that is, data which prove that needs are met and behavior changed as a result, we remain unable to execute such a process.

This inability to measure outcomes is not the result of any technological lag, but rather the consequence of the single, most critical condition necessary for an ongoing, viable measurement process. That condition is one in which the measurement process becomes part of the normal operating procedure for the management system of the library. In other words, it is one situation for highly trained researchers to generate a given data system; it is quite another situation for that same data system to be under the control, direction and effort of practicing librarians who must also be concerned with numerous other tasks.

Consequently, the measurable indicators listed below reflect the view just described. These indicators have been tested under the condition that practicing librarians are responsible for generating the data along with the many other requirements of their jobs. The list is not intended to be all-inclusive, but the measures do relate to a number of questions raised later in this article. Full explanation of the measures, along with the techniques for gathering the data, can be found in two volumes by the author and others.¹
Community Analysis in the Measurement Process

MEASURABLE PERFORMANCE CRITERIA

Materials availability (books, periodicals)
1. Items not owned
2. Items owned but not available
3. Items owned and available

Facilities usage
1. Description of users
2. User satisfaction
3. Time spent in the building
4. In-library circulation

Staffing patterns
1. Proportion of staff available to the public
2. Staff contact time with the public

The measurable criteria listed above, while far from complete, do suggest the kind of information base which the library needs to utilize existing community data bases effectively. A key requirement is for a measurement process which focuses heavily on “output” or services, and less on “input” or resources.

Unfortunately, there is virtually no literature discussing the ways in which these two areas—community analysis and library measurement process—can or should be brought together. The situation is further complicated by the typical problem that the library’s existing “measurement process” has generated an information base largely unsuitable for comparing results with existing community information data bases.

To clarify this latter point, one needs to view the library as encompassing the basics of an “open” system. A number of researchers have approached the task of diagnosing library performance within the systems analysis methodology framework. Figure 1 illustrates its key features.

Historically, the library’s information base has focused almost exclusively on the input or resources aspect of the system model, the one constant exception being circulation (which really is more indicative of “conversion” than “output”). As such, the library’s information base lacks the kind of performance data which the library decision-maker is being increasingly called upon to provide in placing the role and function of the library within the community context.

The horns of the dilemma, then, exist in this two-fold sense. First, the use of community analysis in the measurement process currently
requires that library decision-makers utilize two different, basically incompatible information bases. In addition, there is little in the literature to which decision-makers can refer for better understanding and direction in reducing, if not resolving, the dilemma.

The consequences of this dilemma are relatively clear. One consequence is the persistence of a simplified measurement process, primarily based on inputs (e.g., volumes, volumes added, staff, hours open) that are undergoing continuous manipulation to "prove" the efficiency of the library operation. Another, much more serious problem is the constant tendency to confuse efficiency with effectiveness and achievement of service objectives. For the nonprofit public institution, such a tendency, given the scarcity of public dollars, can have very disquieting consequences.

The measurement process is, after all, only a means to some other, more desirable end—providing quality services geared to meet the needs of information-seeking users. Consequently, the first requirement of the library's management operation is a statement of goals and objectives accompanied by performance criteria.3

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Community Analysis in the Measurement Process

One of the unfortunate responses which has also occurred, largely because of frustration and misunderstanding, is that library decision-makers have been most reluctant to develop or adopt a measurement process which would generate an information base geared to the output end—i.e., services—of the systems model. Consequently, before the library decision-makers can efficiently utilize existing community information, there is the urgent need to create an appropriate measurement/evaluation framework.

Probably the most important point which can be made is that the criteria selected for the measurement process in effect represent the public relations image for the library. In other words, since the information selected will inevitably be utilized for bargaining purposes, library decision-makers are saying to the public: "The information tells you a great deal about what the library is concerned with."

All institutions, of course, provide a similar kind of public relations stance, whether or not they recognize it as such. For many years the library's public image has been one of buying books and circulating them, which is a reflection of its "measurement process." At the more general level, the abstract image has been one of providing quality service, which has been too often reinterpreted to mean buying books and circulating them.

Library management must—and does—realize that the economic situation has produced two relatively rapid changes: (1) the amount of public dollar support to libraries is no longer viewed as inconsequential, and (2) the existing information data bases which constitute our "public relations" statements are increasingly inadequate.

Therefore, if one views the measurement process as integral to the management system of the library, it is critical to understand that what has occurred in the last five to eight years is a process in which the library management system has come under closer public scrutiny; the library is becoming, in fact, more of an open system than it has been. One result of this is that library management needs better measures than it now has to satisfy two basic conditions: (1) the need to improve the internal management of the library for generating quality services which indeed do meet the needs of users, and (2) the development, through an improved measurement process, of an information data base which will enhance the library management bargaining position in the heated competition for scarce community resources. (The direction of the Public Library Association's Committee on Goals, JANUARY, 1976 [561]
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Guidelines, and Standards for Public Libraries clearly reflects the recognition that these two conditions are indeed important.)

As indicated earlier, while there are numerous research reports on the library and the measurement process, the "state of the art/science" remains largely embryonic. Consequently, the use of community analysis in the measurement process will probably be best suited if it basically concerns itself initially with macroanalysis. It is imperative that we establish a solid foundation before we proceed to in-depth microanalysis. However, while this position may appear to pose a serious limitation, it should be noted that in the public sector generally, libraries are undoubtedly the most advanced in the measurement process "game." Furthermore, it is believed that they can make a real contribution to other public, nonprofit-oriented institutions in this area of endeavor. As Aaron Wildavsky warns us:

New information systems proliferate faster than we can keep track of them. The futurists are here; technology assessment is established by mandate of Congress; management by objectives is enshrined in the Office of Management and Budget; research on social indicators grows apace; variants on program budgeting are adopted the world over, almost as fast as old ones are abandoned; and management information systems of all kinds breed faster than rabbits. Despite apparent differences, all these devices have certain attributes in common: they are established without a single successful demonstration, they are tried everywhere, and they do not work anywhere.4

The one persistent conceptual obstacle which faces the library manager in any attempt to utilize community information for placing the library in a correct perspective for community decision-makers is: What does the library compare itself to? Articles in this issue inform us of the kinds of community data available. However, the literature is scant indeed on the question of adequate and/or appropriate comparisons. For example, library decision-makers are usually told that the nearest institutional parallel to the library is the public school; sometimes the community museum is also suggested. In fact, the profession typically does not feel very comfortable with such comparisons.

This conceptual obstacle can be overcome through the decisions made in the selection of the criteria for the measurement (evaluation) process itself. Once the library has moved in the direction of describing

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more explicitly its goals and objectives and its progress in meeting those objectives, then the library decision-maker will have a useful conceptual base for utilizing existing community data for the library's report to its community.

Probably the most exciting work now being undertaken in the area of community analysis which has great potential value and applicability to the library environment is that of the Social Science Research Council (SSRC) Center for Coordination of Research on Social Indicators. The SSRC is supporting and disseminating research efforts on a variety of social issue fronts, including the development of methodologies which may have tremendous possibilities for library management in the use of community analysis in the measurement process. One of the most useful services of SSRC is its newsletter, which reports on various studies and includes excellent coverage of books published in the general area of concern.

The Urban Institute in Washington, D.C., has conducted a series of studies in the urban field. One of the more intriguing ones is reported in a recent publication by Michael Flax, a product of an ongoing "indicators" program at the institute, whose primary objectives were:

- to develop indicators on a wide variety of issues of social concern,
- to present and analyze the best available data while encouraging improved data collection, and
- to promote more public and governmental utilization of indicators.

The basic concern of the Flax study was with the development of a methodology for quantitatively describing urban conditions. In addition, it was hoped that some benchmarks concerning the quality of life in the communities studied could be provided. The following illustrates the kind of existing data utilized in the study in comparing eighteen metropolitan areas: percent unemployed, percent low-income households, adjusted per capital income, nonwhite/white unemployment ratio, median school years for adults, cost for moderate-income family, etc. It is important that the reader note the "macro" level of analysis employed in this study, which nevertheless still provided good benchmarks against which to compare.

There is increasing confidence among social science researchers that social indicators will gain in interpretability and analytic power as they become more firmly attached to models of the relevant social processes. To examine this view, the Russell Sage Foundation sponsored a
conference on social indicator models in July 1972. In a book generated by the conference, it was noted that the social indicator models developed specific processes which determine social conditions.  

Another recent publication, a product of a committee of the SSRC, is geared to lay audiences who are neither statisticians nor social scientists. The work is a manual explaining methods of social experimentation as tools for designing and evaluating intervention programs.  

Finally, the reader's attention is addressed to an intriguing article by Arthur Louis. The methodology used by Louis is an excellent example of the kind of "macro" approach which can be utilized in community analysis. In arriving at his analysis of "the worst American city," Louis relied almost exclusively on available data bases, i.e., publications of the U.S. government, especially the U.S. Census Bureau. 

For the library decision-maker, two general but important pieces of information result from the use of the kinds of community data described above. First, the data could provide the nucleus of a very important needs assessment from which to make some judgments vis-à-vis the potential role for the library. For example, in community A, 40 percent of all households are at or below the existing poverty level. Furthermore, 25 percent of these households are within the service area of the public library's XYZ branch. Given the low mobility of these residents, no community agency exists which can meet some of the predictable information needs of these residents. The library can provide information on vocational opportunities appropriate to those residents seeking to move above the poverty level. Second, depending on the data generated by the library's measurement process, they could help to answer the question of how well the library addresses itself to some of the community needs suggested in this kind of existing community information. Following the example given above, the library could report that a certain number of people within the XYZ branch service area were provided with information on vocational opportunities. As a result, some of these people were able to receive retraining provided by the community retraining center.

Accountability, a term which increasingly evokes ire in the mind and heart of the librarian, has unfortunately been construed by many in the narrowest sense; that is, as an a priori dollar savings often detached from program consideration. The emphasis on efficiency has forced library decision-makers to justify in advance what they hope to accomplish. Seldom, though, does the community directly ask the
library decision-maker the critical question: "What is your business?" The question usually asked is: "What does your business cost to run and can you demonstrate that you plan to conduct it as efficiently as possible?" The point, as stressed throughout this article, is that in the absence of formulating the "right" questions concerning libraries, the intelligent use of community information for purposes of helping the library decision-makers to make the best case possible for the library is, in the final analysis, dependent on how the community sees and understands the library.

Unfortunately, librarians have unconsciously contributed to this dollar-accountability mentality, for they seldom provide the community with the basic information needed to enlighten it about the goals and objectives of the library. Without the staff's own assessment of progress related to predetermined goals and objectives, few library users have a real sense of the rich resources and the educational and cultural contributions that libraries make to society. It is therefore imperative in the use of community analysis in the measurement process for library decision-makers to consider what questions should be asked rather than focusing prematurely on answers to unarticulated questions. As Peter Drucker notes, the important and difficult task is never to find the right answer, it is to find the right question; there are few things as useless, if not as dangerous, as the right answer to the wrong question.10

What are some of the questions library decision-makers may want to ask? The following are illustrative only, but do suggest the appropriate kind of direction to take. Each question, of course, presumes the existence or the creation of information bases, inside and outside the library, for the use of community analysis in the measurement process.

1. How do the existing library users compare with the overall demographic profile of the community? Are there significant gaps? Are there groups in the community with special information needs being reached by the library?
2. How has the support of the library, in real dollars, changed during the past five to ten years? How does this level of support compare with other recreational, cultural and educational institutions supported by the community?
3. What has been the percentage of total yearly expenditures by the library during the past ten to fifteen years? How does this trend compare to other community institutional expenditures on recreation, culture and education?
4. How have the library's services expanded during the past five to ten years? How do these efforts compare to those of other public agencies, particularly in light of the level of support for the same time period?

5. What estimated percentage of the total population does the library serve over a given period of time (e.g., one year)? On a per capita cost basis, and given the library's goals, how does this compare to other public agencies?

6. What is the "response time" of the library to user demands—by user/mean time? How does this response time compare to other agencies, e.g., welfare, social security, etc.? Specifically, within certain categories of users—e.g., the poor, the disadvantaged—how does the library compare on the response time to their informational needs?

7. To what extent is the community satisfied with the library's performance? More specifically, how well does the library succeed in enabling the user to do such things as get a book or periodical when he wants or needs it, find a place to sit, use the microfilm reader, or find a professional librarian to talk to when the need arises? How does this level or extent of satisfaction compare to the performance of other publicly supported agencies? Can the level of satisfaction be compared on a cost/effectiveness basis?

The above questions are just some of those which might be raised within the context of the use of community data in the measurement process. This approach suggests that at least three questions must be answered in order for the library decision-makers to establish guides in this rather complicated kind of community probing: (1) What is the library all about? Measurements should reflect and describe what the library is and hopes to be, at least in large part; (2) What are the "right" questions which the community should be asked to consider, and what are some of the answers to them?; and (3) What community information exists which the first two conditions, once met, can best utilize?

Therefore, the constructive use of community analysis—that is, analysis of existing data in the community within the context of the library—is really dependent on the public image of the library, as expressed in its "measurement process." Unless we have developed, as part of the management system, a built-in measurement process with a heavy focus on outputs or services, the library decision-maker is not likely to be in a position to take advantage of the data available in the
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community. Rather, the tendency will more likely remain one of introspection while the rest of the community passes by.

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Librarians’ Continued Efforts to Understand and Adapt to Community Politics

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Librarians have a long and rich tradition of political involvement dating from the early part of the nineteenth century. Their institution was created in revolution by people who exhorted the population to higher aspirations, discussed the fine points of social contract theories, studied and advocated new religious doctrines, and cherished the writers of Greece and Rome with their ageless thoughts on mankind. In their numbers were writers of sermons, pamphleteers, publishers of magazines—all lovers of knowledge. All through the nineteenth century, there were many local unholy alliances between the cultured establishment which had leisure time and usually supported the values of the status quo, and librarians with their greater vision of the perfectibility of man and free thought for the mechanics and workmen.

Such visions were dangerous to the librarians then (and were until the last two or three decades) since they received the salary of a mechanic, and had neither tenure nor political constituency to protect themselves. They worked with and mediated between the establishment, and the working men and women of the new factory era.

Nonetheless, they expressed their views to the public. In 1875, for example, at the opening of the Free Public Library in Madison, Wisconsin, James Butler noted that free libraries tend to equality and fraternity: “As we all have equal rights at the polls and courts, so we have in the free library.” He also chastised the Wisconsin legislature for its backward step in 1872 of substituting permissive local taxation for an 1859 law that allocated part of the state school fund income for libraries. In his presidential address at the 1894 ALA conference, Joseph Larned talked strongly about the defects of democracy in the

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United States, the ineffectiveness of the “vulgarizing of the news press,” and the missionary responsibility and power of the public library—all strong observations for the time. Two years later, in 1896, the Library Journal carried an article by Mary Salome Cutler admonishing the librarian to be a careful student of his town and to have a personal acquaintance with city officers, party bosses, reporters, policemen, reformers, school teachers, clergy, and leading women in society. In 1897, Frederick Morgan Crunden spoke at the annual ALA conference, stating that: “The whole history of mankind is a continuous struggle of the weak and ignorant many to secure the rights withheld from them by the superior strength and cunning of the few.”

Earlier in his address, he had noted that “we hear of two librarians holding opposite political views, whose positions were rendered insecure by an unfortunate misadjustment of longitudes.”

Trustees of libraries spoke frequently through their associations in this period about the relationship of librarians to boards and about the responsibilities of a board to the library and the community. The underlying theme was usually greater effectiveness of the library in the existing setting and reduction of conflict. By the early 1900s, responsiveness to the community did not necessarily mean missionary work; rather, it meant securing the opportunity for all to use what was available under conditions not socially or personally disturbing to others. During periods of unrest, when there were attacks on certain materials acquired by avant-garde libraries, this attitude was probably a satisfactory compromise or accommodation.

In short, librarians have developed and protected their institution in the turmoil of the post-Civil War era, the scandal-ridden decades of the 1880s and 1890s, frontier conflict involving populism, single taxers and humane factory employment, new social thoughts of the 1920s, the labor revolution of the 1930s, the McCarthyism of the 1950s, the permissiveness of the 1960s, and the doubt of the 1970s. Librarians may be naïve about current political life, as many of them believe they are; but the institution of the library has grown steadily in political maturity. What has been viewed as a lack of political awareness in the past is more a present subconscious disagreement with some of the compromises and accommodations librarians have made.

Soon after the first quarter of the twentieth century, a fairly large body of descriptive political and social literature began to appear which reported studies of the profession. These studies dwelt on the characteristics of librarians and trustees, including their social and political activities, and the apparent ability of both librarians and
trustees to identify with various segments of their communities. It was these descriptions which pointed out most strongly the middle-class orientation of library service, but without stressing that the middle class had been identified only a few years earlier and that the rapid growth of this class was itself considered to be a major social change in the United States. Some of the authors of these research studies believed that library development should proceed at a faster pace, while others wanted to make librarians more effective in the setting of the time. (An interesting aspect about library research is that nearly all of it is conducted by authors (including this one) who have always had a strong commitment to library service. I know of no substantial study made by persons outside the field, as is the case for many of our best studies in correction, social work and mental health.) The more outstanding writers include Robert Leigh (Public Library in the United States, 1950), Oliver Garceau (The Public Library in the Political Process, 1949), Phillip Ennis (Seven Questions About the Profession of Librarianship, 1962), and Ralph Conant (The Public Library and the City, 1965). These descriptive studies have been supplemented in numerous surveys, master's theses, and doctoral dissertations, but no strong theoretical formulation has been put forth which identifies the profession's position in a broader social context of all social services and all professions. The forthcoming book on library education by Ralph Conant may do some of this.

Librarians themselves have written about the governance of libraries, usually as part of a book or text on general library service. Classic examples include Joeckel's Government of the Public Library (1935), McDiarmid and McDiarmid's Administration of the American Public Library (1943), Wheeler and Goldhor's Practical Administration of Public Libraries (1962), and the International City Manager's Association's Local Public Library Administration (1962). The dominant themes in these discourses are: (1) techniques for greater efficiency and effectiveness, (2) the need for greater openness in the library structure, (3) the necessity for trustees to be representative of the total community, (4) the responsibility of libraries to see and prepare for social change, and (5) by implication, that librarians are not as knowledgeable about the social and political power structure as they should be. However, this last characteristic has been equally true of most of the social professions. To its credit, the library profession itself perceived the changes that were occurring during the Sputnik period and later in the civil rights movement, and gradually articulated to its members and policy-makers the implications for library service, indicating that given resources, it could develop programs to open
service to all segments of the population. Many journal articles with this theme appeared during the middle and late 1960s.

However, not all segments of the profession were convinced that the new direction was desirable. Only gradually were they persuaded as a result of intensive professional retraining through demonstration projects, workshops, grants-in-aid, and in some cases statutory declarations. Library schools in particular responded to criticism about the lack of understanding of the political process. They revised their curricula to provide students with more exposure to research and the ideas of social scientists; they saw that without the tools of politics, the new public awareness of librarians could not produce changes in service.

In general, social change since the 1940s has been so rapid that the library profession has indeed lagged in its adaptation. Certainly, one has rarely heard in recent years the kind of social criticism by leaders of the profession that was fairly common in the late 1800s.

One of the interesting things about general library literature since the 1880s and 1890s is the scant critical attention given to the form of library governance. The concept of a governing board of trustees has been accepted almost without question, although the few exceptions—such as in city manager municipalities—are not challenged. Moreover, the reasons to support trustee governance have not varied significantly: insulation from politics and sudden changes in social behavior, continuity of policy, and the wisdom of collective judgment. Conversely, these are also the factors which isolate an institution from needed social change and gradually narrow the perspective of professional leaders, and these too have never been studied fully.

In the past, librarians have adapted to the political system and through it pushed for a larger fiscal base for broadened services. In so doing, the profession has slowly and inevitably become coopted by the system to the point that the public library in particular is now a true political institution which bargains and competes for support in the generic political sense, and which utilizes increasingly partisan politics to set and accomplish goals. As organizational structure becomes more complex through service systems, consortia, regional councils, and state and federal supervision, involvement becomes more marked since the balancing of opposing needs and the assignment of values to groups and jurisdictions constitute a political process. Although risky—as any public educator knows—this kind of cooptation has far
more positive than negative value. In any case, librarians do not have much choice other than to determine the parameters of the cooptation, and to do this one must understand as early as possible what is occurring in the total political system. It is with this latter point that the remainder of this article is concerned. Four major ideas can be noted briefly in an introductory statement.

It is almost trite to say that the political system today (including the administrative bureaucracy) is very complex and is therefore a difficult environment in which to operate. Since as early as the 1920s, political and academic leaders, joined by vocal members of the public, have attempted to make the political structure in the United States understandable, responsive, predictable and easily operable by a general public through elections and direct access to the bureaucracy. While this effort has been very successful, it should be recognized that the intuitive understanding of political behavior, so characteristic of the older political leader, is once more a necessity. Urban government cannot be innovative or responsive to the strong lay leadership developed in such places as the Kansas City metropolitan area unless the leaders detach themselves from the system's defined process and operate in the way in which they can best formulate a policy speedily.

Intuition for the political leader of the pre-1950s was usually required because of the absence of current descriptive data and the almost total lack of research techniques for forecasting. In contrast, the necessity for the local and state administrator in the last quarter of this century stems from the opposite—too much data based on too many different premises involving several independent and overlapping political jurisdictions. Except as noted below, neither the public administrator nor the political decision-maker can handle the data in the rational way we have assumed in collecting and preparing them. What is desirable and feasible is the best collective judgment of those economic, administrative, and political leaders who are willing to participate in a decision and its consequences, and are allowed to function in a rather broad area with a limited number of so-called fact-setting parameters. Detailed research data today have added value primarily as one descends hierarchically in a large organization or system as a way to educate, foster objectivity, control the parameters of lower-level decisions and often, paradoxically, to provide assurance of rationality. (These assertions should not lead to cynicism because, as we learn more about the behavioral process, we discover that it is dangerous to set norms with any finality on what people need in order to provide meaning for life. We are nevertheless approaching the point where our
passion for research data is impeding clear and observable decision-making.)

The dilemma facing us is that decision-making will tend to become more mechanical as the political system becomes more complex, and the mechanism will become an important source of certainty. On the other hand, these same forces of complexity will require not only more rapid but simplified decision-making based on personal judgment.

A special comment must be made of mechanistic or structured decision-making since it is so widely accepted as a qualitative factor. Despite its limitation as noted above, it is a useful tool and concept. Planning is at its center and is the key control element. Examples of situations which bring a very structured, data-based, and rational process for decision-making into play are: immediate controversy, uncertainty and ineptness by the initiator of the policy, inadvertent challenge of the prerogatives of other groups, true need to coordinate, unrealistic requests, lack of understanding that there are alternate ways to attain a goal, and lack of preparation of one's case (which is translated into doubt and lack of credibility by the receiver). Given all these factors, it is obvious that the probability is much greater that the structured decision process will be used; in most cases the initiator of a policy will not know why it is used nor doubt the need to follow it faithfully. This process is also a source of power to be used in a variety of ways by those who are knowledgeable about it.

From the broader social viewpoint, this rational planning process is not an undesired choice because it is in some instances a check and a way to get consensus and avoid the sharp conflicts which can come from a formal majority vote. The planning process is not apolitical, although it was so conceived originally. In fact, the very complexity of planning itself has made it an effective political tool in the hands of more astute political leaders. Librarians have demonstrated this on numerous occasions with surveys conducted as an educational device but with such set assumptions that the results always demonstrate a too-low level of general service, identify a still unserved population, and demonstrate how stronger public support, along with organizational change, will correct the deficiencies. It is only a short step from the present situation, with the current orientation of the major library schools, for librarians to become political leaders in their own right. Some state librarians are already there and others will soon join them.

The second major idea to be discussed is that conflict politics (and administration) is becoming an increasingly accepted way of life in the
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United States. The interested reader can find considerable literature on the subject; all that needs to be done here, then, is to indicate its general form and meaning for library development. Conflict politics is both Marxian and behavioral. In the context of the former, there is the classical view that the holders of power and wealth are interlocked and will not give up their authority or ameliorate unjust conditions without a direct challenge, and in some cases direct action. Behaviorally, conflict is a tool to be used in any situation with any kind of group—the conflict can arise between authorities, or between a power elite and the dispossessed. The persons using it may merely want policy changes for altruistic reasons, e.g., legal aid to the poor or improvement of the environment. As such, conflict becomes a way of communicating not only basic ideas but the intensity of feelings. Conflict is even considered in some circles as a prerequisite for maximum creativity.

The concept does not go so far as antagonism or irreconcilability except in unusual situations. The conflict may be symbolic, with egos the only issue at stake, as often occurs in the administrative process; or it may be highly personalized even though the initiator has no ill will toward the object person. At present, if the object person is in a position of authority, he will nearly always respond by attempting to lower tensions and avoid a direct confrontation. To do so, however, he makes concessions and thus produces part of the benefits intended by the initiation of the conflict. At this point one may see some of the overtones of the application of game theory. Consensus as the preferred way to change values no longer carries the virtue it has commanded since the 1930s, except at certain points where cohesiveness is believed to have an equal or higher value to the substantive issue itself. Conflict may produce greater competition between agencies for public resources, but the two concepts are not synonymous.

This approach in politics is not new. Mahatma Gandhi used it skillfully in the form of passive resistance to help free India; in the United States it was employed most effectively in the 1950s in the civil rights movement. In the 1970s, conflict is a common tool in large administrative organizations.

The librarian can see that in this milieu a certain personality style and training is necessary to initiate and effect policy. At the same time, the political and social milieu is quite alien to the profession, because its own internal milieu places a high value on organization and agreement. This stems largely from the fact that its goal is to organize knowledge in a useful manner and to preserve a culture for future
generations. Uncertainty is not conducive to either of these tasks. Furthermore, it does not seem that the profession can tolerate much internal dissent because it is always threatened by such outside forces as censorship.

Whether a person can function effectively under conditions of this internal personal conflict created by two milieux—one a subset of the larger one—is a basic question for the profession to answer. In private conversations, some librarians have already expressed a concern that conflict, along with a greater use of litigation to set policy, is driving away potential board members who do not want to subject themselves to personal attacks.

Related to conflict is the recent political emphasis on formal balanced representation (as opposed to tokenism) of ethnic groups, income levels, geographic areas and women on boards and commissions and in the administrative decision-making process. Typically, representation has been accomplished in administration by a consulting process wherein, if necessary, the names of individuals or groups consulted have been released as evidence of the legitimacy of the process. Typically, this technique has also satisfied those of the dominant authority. The more formalized protest groups, in contrast, have insisted on the presence of minority individuals in the organization at levels where they could reasonably be expected to exercise direct and indirect influence and be symbols of participation. Affirmative action programs have this incorporation as their goal. The concept of participatory democracy and consumer decision-making are variations of this general movement.

Although broader based representation for boards and commissions has not been studied yet, conversations with local officials, federal affirmative action personnel, representatives of specific minority groups, and personal observation on a limited basis indicate several predictable results: (1) there have been changes in policies with more openness evident; (2) there has been some discontinuity in decisions, particularly as viewed by the person who believes strongly in continuity and certainty; (3) a new manpower pool has had to be developed from which nominations could be made for board positions since nominees in the past have commonly come from personal endorsement of a small number of established persons with public experience; (4) after a period of time, the boards and commissions have tended to become as established as the previous ones, although usually with different characteristics or at a different level.

All in all, the forced new representation so far has had a salutary
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effect; but how far it can or should be carried is not clear. An extreme
demand to balance representation can actually increase the political
power of the appointing authority, increase discontinuity, reduce
cohesiveness of a board (and hence its capability to present new
programs forcefully to the public), and force segments of a program to
be identified with specific groups as an internal balancing process.

The experience with broader representation on library boards seems
to follow a general pattern with one exception. Librarians have argued
since the latter part of the nineteenth century for broad community
representation on their boards of trustees, but what has usually
happened in practice has been representation of segments of the
cultured and intellectual community as defined by the cultured and the
intellectuals.

Not much resistance was offered initially in the 1960s or 1970s to the
introduction of representatives of other groups, including the
nonusers and potential users, onto the library board. Very recently,
however, doubts have been expressed because it is felt that these two
groups—unrelated to ethnic considerations—can never have sufficient
commitment to library service to ensure that libraries can keep up with
new areas of knowledge, some so esoteric that even some academicians
do not always fully appreciate them. It has been argued that
consumerism in library service, although basically valid as a concept, is
different from consumerism in health and welfare and certain aspects
of social and economic planning, where the impact of a decision can
have an immediate, serious and deleterious personal effect. Such is not
the case with library service, which is more concerned with mental and
intellectual development in terms of a timespan of a generation. This
does not deny that library service is also a tool for solving immediate
social and political problems.

Undoubtedly the real fear is that too much emphasis on nonusers
and potential users can divert scarce funds from the basics of any
library programs and, as such, can in the long run introduce a tone of
anti-intellectualism in its more traditional form. To a certain extent,
librarians who fear this are correct because the use of a library
presupposes the possession of certain abilities or tools arising from an
earlier educational process. For many centuries, the educated were an
elite, and there is still an inherent elitism in library usage which will
continue for the foreseeable future for the simple reason that only a
small part of any population can realistically be expected to pursue
personal satisfaction and achievement in this way. Personal
achievement fortunately tends to produce better adjustment to a
complex social order and development of manipulative skills, both of which traditionally have supported exclusiveness. Notwithstanding this latter tendency, libraries still have as one of their missions to reduce the elitism on which they are based and can best develop.

Finally, brief attention must be directed to the continued confused role of urban areas in the total governmental structure. Such confusion is not recent. As early as 1900 the noted British writer, James Bryce, noted in the *American Commonwealth* that “the growth of great cities has been among the most significant and least fortunate changes in the character of the population . . . during the century that has passed since 1787.” He then notes that one of the difficulties in describing city governments in the United States is the great diversity, not only among the states, but also within each state. Still later, he notes that “there is no denying that the government of cities is the one conspicuous failure of the United States.”

It is so commonly conceded, especially in academic circles, that these difficulties still exist and that the Brycian assessment is still largely valid, that citations to prove the point are not needed. At the same time, students of the urbanization phenomenon are mystified as to how these areas can appear to be so near obsolescence, and yet have sufficient vitality to provide a stable base for a state and federal political party and governmental structure. For example, in popular literature, the differing opinions are reflected in a feature article in the *New York Times* entitled “18 Urban Experts Advise, Castigate and Console the City on Its Problems,” and in an article in the *Ladies Home Journal* under the title “15 Best U.S. Suburbs.” The theme of the latter article in effect emphasizes that at least some aspects of urban living in at least some areas have quality and are meaningful. Maybe the large cities with their satellites represent a new dimension of political life not yet fully identified.

Both the diversity in political structure and the quality of living in urban areas stem from a variety of factors which are not likely to change in the foreseeable future: different rates of growth, sources of population, levels of political development and maturity in the states in which they are located, amounts of wealth, and problems associated with specific industries. Moreover, urban areas have experienced simultaneous migrations into the central city and exoduses to suburban areas of identifiably different people and businesses. Recently, the U.S. Bureau of the Census issued a news release indicating that the population movement to urban areas still continues, but that future expansion of urban areas will probably be based on internal growth,
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and that in a few instances total metropolitan areas have lost population (albeit not enough to say there is a trend).

For a long time it was thought that a large part of the urban problem was due to the under-representation of cities in legislatures and in Congress, and although the equality of representation that came rapidly in the 1960s from a series of federal and state judicial decrees ameliorated some ills, it cured very few.

Where there is serious decay and conflict in a large urban area, the most common problem preventing corrective action is the existence of many contiguous and independent political jurisdictions (cities, counties, townships, or special districts) separated by artificial and arbitrary boundaries. The free movement of people and resources across these boundaries, which is essential to the U.S. form of economy, creates continuous dislocation to which one or more of the jurisdictions must adjust. Consequently, the more economically and socially dynamic we try to make an urban area, the more time each component of the complex must devote to responding rather than creating or leading.

Enlarging local jurisdictions by consolidating units of government so they can be more effective economically and socially has not been too successful, despite the intellectual support it has received. It is now felt by some people that the enlargement is thus more likely to come indirectly from closer ties to federal and state politics. The common assumption that a national or state policy for urban areas will result in better allocation of funds, more consistent and efficient administration, or a more uniform policy misses the point. Local differences will still be present, which for the most part will have to be balanced politically outside the immediate locality so that those differences which are personalized can be subordinated to larger issues. Even though the closeness of administration to the consumer of social services is valuable, the formulation of innovative policy is impaired if it cannot be formed in part under circumstances which alienate it from the recipients of the service. Moreover, central cities have a commonality of their own even though separated by many miles, just as suburban Westchester in New York has more in common with Leawood, Kansas, than either has with its neighboring central city. Both cities and suburbs will tend to form coalitions of political support with different sections of the country to resolve differences and establish minimum norms. There is nothing philosophically or politically wrong with this procedure, and indeed it has considerable merit in molding a national attitude and posture.
KENNETH E. BEASLEY

If this general analysis is valid, librarians should expect urban library policy to continue to be formally independent of other social service policies except that all of the services will compete for funds, and library policy will become more and more a function of partisan political activity. However, libraries will also be able to develop most rapidly through coalitions with other related social services, particularly education, which are designed to maximize political power while maintaining as much independence as possible for each member of the coalition. As noted earlier, libraries are already political—all we are discussing here is the degree. I do not believe that the new program of the National Commission on Libraries and Information Sciences can be implemented other than by political action in its classic form. The question to ask now is: Can or should there be, in the last quarter of the twentieth century, a concept of a Democratic or Republican library director?

An appropriate way to conclude this article is to note a unique feature of library service in the urban setting. It is the only major social service which has attempted so vigorously to tie suburban and rural areas directly to a central city, despite the city’s severe internal problems. Instead of following the normal pattern of combining like needs and social values, the library system attempts to mold together quite disparate types of services and values on the basis that they supplement each other. These services range from very sophisticated research services in the large city library, which draws a highly educated clientele from a wide region, to special outreach programs in a ghetto or barrio, to the mobile service of primarily recreational reading by the rural bookmobile. For the most part, the effort has been successful, although it has not expanded total library service as much as some had hoped. Further investigation of this aspect of systems would be very fruitful because of the obvious conclusions that there are apparently ties among the seemingly disparate urban interests which can be developed if approached properly; these ties need not upset the positive values of independent political jurisdictions or established political coalitions. The rural library patron has usually resisted at first a direct affiliation with a central city, but he has seemingly soon accepted and supported the arrangement as being in his best interest.

The library profession and patrons may be (or have been) politically naive but they have been politically successful. The profession is almost solely tied to urbanization now, but it has not been fully coopted by it. The form of the governing structure for its service has not been
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changed fundamentally since the last years of the nineteenth century, but it has been made functional by philosophical conversions of its members. In the last quarter of the twentieth century, the task will be to mold together politics and its philosophy in a milieu of intensified urban conflict.

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2. Ibid., p. 151.
6. Ibid., p. 455.
9. Ibid., p. 637.
The Role of the Social and Behavioral Sciences in Determining Library Operation and Impact

WILLIAM R. MONAT

Every profession worthy of the designation should possess the confidence in its own special knowledge and expertise to define professional mission, practice and performance evaluation, and to expect community acceptance of its definitions. Whether or not this can be said for the library profession, and particularly for those practitioners functioning in community public libraries, has been an issue of continuing soul-searching for some time. Only four years ago, Lowell Martin observed that:

The public library has had neither policy nor program for reacting to forces that affect and even threaten its social role. Like other established institutions, it has relied on inertia to carry it through. So ingrained has been the concept of the public library in America, so strong the faith in a people’s materials source, that it has fared relatively well through the last fifty years. The winds of change have blown hard, and in new directions, but the public library has stood unmoved. This attests at one and the same time to its ingrained tradition, its institutional inertia, and on the other side to its continuing social role, its acceptance in the order of things. The public library is an agency that is a mixture of service and custom.

Martin’s gentle implied admonition to his professional colleagues and peers is striking in light of the major role he has played in defining and seeking professional improvements in the scope and quality of library services. His observations, and those of others equally familiar with and committed to the public library as a significant community institution, provide the theme for this discussion, authored by a social scientist who is not a librarian, and has not been professionally

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socialized into librarianship, but who has on another occasion entered his own admonitions to the professional public librarian.³

It is not my purpose to substitute an "outsider's" definitions for the legitimate professional definitions of mission, practice and evaluation. It is my purpose as a social scientist and institutional administrator to suggest that in reaching those definitions, the professional librarian is compelled to acknowledge the relevance and importance of social and behavioral science methods and data. Fortunately for librarianship there are the professional voices of Wasserman, Blasingame, Martin, Chapman and others which echo the same theme.⁴

A nonprofessional is somewhat intimidated when asked to suggest to professionals the conceptual and methodological approaches to employ in determining library operations and impact. The receptivity of the library profession to this supportive kibbitzing, however, is documented by the contributions over the years to such professional journals as Library Trends, American Libraries, Library Journal and the Library Quarterly, among others. My study of Pennsylvania public libraries in the mid-1960s further persuaded me that the social science and management perspectives do have something to say to public librarians.⁵ Finally, in reviewing generous portions of the professional public library literature of the past eight years which is addressed to issues of mission, practice and impact, I have strengthened my conviction that the public librarian is acknowledging the salience of socioeconomic-political data in shaping institutional objectives and evaluating institutional performance.

BODIES OF KNOWLEDGE AND METHODOLOGIC APPROACHES

In assessing the contributions of the social and behavioral sciences to an understanding of public library operations and impact, a number of major and often overlapping categories of knowledge appear significant:

1. Social and industrial psychology provide much of the scientific basis for understanding the structure and behavior both of formal organizations and of individuals and groups within those organizations.

2. Sociology itself offers a valuable body of knowledge and methodologies that are indispensable to an understanding of the library's publics, of its consumers, of the behavior of the market
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for library services, and of the demographic and other social changes that affect the library's mission.

3. Closely related are the contributions, largely generated since World War II, of operations research and systems analysis which facilitate more precise definitions of organizational objectives, more reliable diagnoses of organizational pathologies, more effective solutions to organizational problems, and more realistic measures of organizational impacts on the environment.

4. An awareness and facility with community economics and public finance are important components in the knowledge arsenal at the disposal of public librarians who wish to plan effective library services and extract from the community the resources necessary to support those services.

5. Finally, the literature of political science, particularly that which flows from the study of local politics and political behavior, affords a basis for understanding and exploiting the political processes and governmental resources of the community, and for developing strategies of support for library services. These contributions are assessed elsewhere in this issue and will not be explored directly in this discussion.

These streams of knowledge and methodologies constitute the intellectual tools with which any professional institutional manager should at least be familiar. The librarian obviously should not and cannot be a sociologist, social or industrial psychologist, systems analyst, economist or political scientist. But for those in the profession aspiring to or occupying administrative and leadership roles in community public libraries, the information generated from these specializations and the methods used to develop the knowledge become increasingly important to effective performance. The volumes of the professional library journals of the past seven or eight years suggest that the profession hesitantly agrees.

The following is an effort to identify issues of growing professional concern as expressed in the professional literature of librarianship, to describe briefly the utility of social and behavioral science knowledge in understanding and responding to those issues, and to cite selected examples in which that knowledge has been used to achieve more effective public library service. The major issues identified are those that seem to be ones which no profession can ignore, but I quickly admit that librarians may face a different set of problems and priorities.

January, 1976
THE MISSION AND OBJECTIVES OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY

An issue of persistent and pervasive concern is the one stated by Lowell Martin as quoted above, that is, a concern over the mission or purpose of the public library. The concept of mission is critical, for it tends to shape every other facet of the organization: the kinds of service offered, the organizational structures and operating procedures required, the types and numbers of professional and other personnel needed to provide those services, the character of professional training necessary to develop that expertise, the nature of organizational planning, administrative and managerial requirements, resource needs, the definition of consumer or client market, to suggest only a few.

Libraries, like any other formal organization, exist to perform specific functions which were sufficiently valued at the time of the library's inception to justify its creation, and which presumably continue to enjoy a legitimacy and fill a need sufficient to sustain the library's survival and growth. However, the functions justifying an institution in the beginning may become less compelling as environmental conditions change over time. The professional literature recurringly addresses itself to the changing realities in the library's environment, its shifting and at times elusive clientele, its fragile and tenuous political and civic support, its uncertain economic and resource base. The voices of such knowledgeable spokesmen as Ralph Blasingame, Lowell Martin, John Frantz, Ralph Conant and John Anderson have echoed these concerns during the past several years.

The public library mission is deeply rooted in the American reform ethos. As a public agency the library was, in Philip Ennis's words, "part of a loosely connected series of social movements ranging from the struggle for women's rights to vote and enter the work force to a general reformist and evangelical belief in education and uplift." The library, which during the earlier part of the nineteenth century had been an institution created by and serving the educated and culturally engaged strata of the community, became during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries a vehicle for equalizing educational opportunities and assimilating the European immigrant. Traditionally, the community library has served as a "reservoir of culture, a storehouse of significant books," and as a very practical educational institution. Whether serving purposes of cultural uplift or adult education, the library possessed a fairly distinct clientele and
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could direct its resources accordingly. As it moved away from being essentially a creature of private philanthropy to a "public" institution with communitywide objectives, the library broadened its mission to that of serving the entire community.

But what is the "community" and what are the "publics" with which the contemporary public library must be concerned? Library-use surveys relying on social science methodologies have probed these questions for more than twenty-five years. The studies of Berelson and Asheim, Kroll, Campbell and Metzner, Monat, Guthman, Evans, and Blasingame have examined the relationship between the accepted mission or purpose of the public library as enshrined in the conventional wisdom of the profession and the realities of the library's environment. As Martin commented earlier, "The winds of change have blown hard, and in new directions, but the public library has stood unmoved." It remains, by and large, an institution committed to cultural uplift on the one hand and to being a "people's university" on the other. It has not, in most instances, examined in any sophisticated and dispassionate manner the viability or consistency of those purposes, or contemplated the environment it could serve, the publics it could cultivate or the clients it could attract.

A caveat must be entered at this point. The recent professional literature documents the perceived dimensions and magnitude of that changing environment and draws generously (but often uncritically) from the literature and knowledge of the social sciences. There tends to be a glib, broad-stroke quality to some of the diagnostic critiques of the impact which social change portends for the public library. The "problems" and "challenges" for library services, such as those concerning the urban poor, the unemployed adult, the inner-city young, the aged, the semiliterates—just to cite a few—are seized upon with almost a knee-jerk assumption that the public library should or must "do something." Although I caution against simplistic responses, I do not suggest that major, enduring social changes—such as long-term shifts and trends in the demography of cities and metropolitan areas, increasing levels of and specializations in knowledge, underlying transformations in the distribution of income and revenue-raising capacities—should not be central to the concerns of public librarians.

Five years ago Ennis observed that we tend to be obsessed at times with the phenomenon of change. He offered wise counsel which should be noted by all institutional managers, not just librarians: "The first problem is to identify what is changing or, more accurately, since everything is in some kind of change process, what particular aspect of
society should be paid attention to in describing a change.” A second problem he identified was the difficulty in “setting meaningful temporal and spatial boundaries to change,” as he pointed to the importance of asking: “How fast is fast, and how much is much?” A third problem his discussion isolated was “the misapplication of categories in such a way as to obscure simultaneous but opposite changes,” a tendency which he felt might be due to the hyperbole of political rhetoric on the one hand and the social scientists’ attempts at objective description on the other. We tend to confuse the overdramatization of the problem—which may be considered necessary at times to mobilize political support on behalf of public policy responses—with objective, value-free efforts at description and analysis. His final admonition to those involved in the human services business cannot be over-emphasized. Public policy responses all too often produce consequences not intended by those designing, enacting and implementing policy. What he advises, in short, is to know your territory and move with caution.

With this forewarning, then, the public librarian should constantly be examining and reexamining institutional purpose and mission. The methods and knowledge of market and survey research are tested approaches which can be readily marshalled in seeking to understand better the library’s environment. The conceptual and analytical underpinnings of systems theory are probably essential in assessing the results of such probings and in devising appropriate service responses for either maintaining or redirecting institutional purpose. That such outreach strategies are essential to institutional survival is a basic tenet of that field of knowledge which sociologists Katz and Kahn have termed “the social psychology of organizations.” Every public organization must be sensitive and responsive to the environment which it serves and which, in turn, provides the resources necessary for its continued survival and growth. Public librarians must learn and employ the skills required to negotiate with the institution’s environment, a task for which the knowledge and methods of social psychology and systems analysis can be of high utility.

THE MANDATE FOR ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Library mission inevitably combines organizational evolution and pragmatic strategies for institutional maintenance. Increasingly, however, public agencies such as the library, which operate within a constricting political economy of scarcity, are being pressed to identify
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with greater precision and justify with more cost-effective evidence the goals and objectives they purport to advance. The competition for limited public and private monies demands a more definitive statement of purpose, more compelling rationale for support—even to achieve demonstrably desirable public purposes—and more conclusive evidence of goal realization when resources have been allocated. The mandate for tighter budgets forces administrators to engage in more deliberate planning and realistic programming of services and to become more sensitive to and ruthless about performance.

Public administrators at all governmental levels have had to cultivate an abiding concern for cost-effectiveness and accountable management. This has perhaps been agonizing for those organizations, such as universities and libraries, where tradition defines a professional-collegial managerial process and style. Nevertheless, there is ample evidence that, at least among library educators and administrators, the effectiveness mandate has been acknowledged. Recent articles by Martin and Chapman point in different ways to the need for realism and rigor.\(^\text{13}\) Chapman in particular draws upon the conceptual and methodologic foundations of systems theory and systems analysis to describe approaches by which libraries can both cope with complexity and develop effective, performance-based management strategies. Moreover, the creation of state library networks or systems requires the deliberate application of systems theory as a means of interrelating numerous existing agencies into a statewide service. A recent analysis of these efforts and the planning, decision-making managerial and budgeting systems involved in their development provides a valuable and brief exposition of the application of systems theory to library services.\(^\text{14}\)

Large public libraries, like other large-scale public agencies, will be compelled by the constraints of revenue, if by nothing else, to fashion more rigorous management, budgeting and accounting structures and procedures. In the past two decades the separate but related impacts of the growing complexity of governmental programs and public agencies on the one hand, and the more facile application (through sophisticated computer technology) of systems theory and systems analysis to managing that complexity on the other, have produced new decision-making systems which attempt to link the significant organizational processes of planning, programming and resource allocation or budgeting. This trend, which was something of a fad for a short period, will not disappear. Although the life of PPBS (planning, programming, budgeting system) has been officially brief in the
national government, the kind of decision system that PPBS represented is probably indispensable to modern large-scale government. Whatever acronym is employed, governmental systems and public organizations will increasingly be forced to adopt more rigorous, controllable and accountable decision-making systems relying on precise statements of organizational objectives and quantitatively expressed measures of performance or impact. Even the library has been touched, as evidenced by Edward Howard’s description of the movement.\textsuperscript{15}

THE IMPACT OF LIBRARY SERVICES

The public library profession has most consciously sought out social science methods and information in its attempt to assess the impact of library services. The library impact literature, while not voluminous, has generated conclusions which are more or less redundant. The study of public libraries in five Pennsylvania communities might be viewed as typical in design and in the kinds of information it developed about library services in those communities. Earlier surveys by Berelson, Campbell and Metzner, and Kroll, for example, posed essentially the same questions about essentially the same issues of impact. More recent studies have focused on more specific impact concerns, such as those directed at the disadvantaged, the young, the aged, or the adult reader.

The issues discussed up to this point suggest, however, that impact studies may miss the mark in important ways. It may be useful for library policy-makers and administrators to determine who their clients are and to learn how those using the library assess the services they receive. It may also be valuable to obtain a reading on the ways in which the community and its significant power centers regard the library and its services, but most perceptive library administrators may not really need elaborate surveys to reach those conclusions. Many of these studies merely confirm what the knowledgeable professional already knows instinctively. Berelson’s 1949 study on “the library’s public” revealed, as one summary put it, “that the library was founded to serve a small minority of the population who are better educated and tend to be the community decision-makers. After more than twenty years, Berelson’s findings are still valid.”\textsuperscript{16} The Pennsylvania study, conducted nearly twenty years after Berelson’s report was published showed that those 1949 findings were still valid, at least for the five Pennsylvania cities surveyed.
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The Pennsylvania study, commissioned by the Pennsylvania State Library, probed five major topics of continuing interest to library administrators, library boards and students of library services: (1) identifying users of library services, the frequency with which they use the library, and for what purposes; (2) attitudes of library users and nonusers toward the public library; (3) degree and type of financial assistance received by the library, and attitudes of concerned individuals within the community about those financial arrangements; (4) how the library met the needs of its users and the community it served; and (5) where the library fits into the overall pattern of governmental services within the community. In seeking answers to these questions we employed most of the research techniques available. Statistically significant samples of library cardholders were drawn and quizzed through a mailed questionnaire. Follow-up questionnaires were sent to those not responding to the initial mailing. Professionally trained interviewers were sent into one of the communities to administer to a random sample of community residents another set of questions, in an effort to probe in greater depth the characteristics of nonusers as well as users of the library. Study directors conducted open-ended interviews with librarians, library board members, governmental and political leaders, civic leaders and newspaper editors. The managerial structures and procedures of each library were examined, as were the budgets and sources of revenue. The findings were not startling:

1. The size and composition of the library's active public—those regularly consuming its services—had not changed since the 1949 Berelson report.
2. Those using the library were generally well pleased with its services and exhibited a deep commitment to the public library role.
3. There did not appear to be any articulate sources of opposition to library services. Even those who did not use the library viewed it with respect and pride or, as the report observed, "The mantle of 'civic ornament' is, after all, infinitely preferable and strategically much more functional than the image of a 'necessary evil' or a public nuisance."17
4. Few perceived the library as "part of the local public service system," but on the other hand, there did not appear to be any attitudinal or institutional barriers to greater public support for the library.
5. There appeared to be tangible support for the concept of a library system within the state, an interesting finding since Pennsylvania had only recently moved dramatically in that direction.
6. The research directors concluded that the "driving force for change must come from the professional librarian," because the consumer of library services was not likely to generate any agenda for new or untried services.

7. Although each of the five libraries was a district center within the new state library system, none of the libraries had really explored the "full range of opportunities for expanded library services."18

I have summarized the Pennsylvania study only for the purpose of arguing that this kind of survey is of limited utility. The public library needs a rigorous and deliberate examination of library mission and purpose rather than redundancy of comforting findings from impact studies. We know that most public libraries are performing satisfactorily, given the historical mission of the library as a service institution. Any future impact studies employing the arsenal of social science research techniques should be part of the exploration of the utility and significance of the existing mission. Such an exploration may well lead to the conclusion that the traditional purpose remains legitimate and viable; but that in itself is an important conclusion and one which then can be used to strengthen those services that are at the core of that mission.

Another stream of social and behavioral science knowledge—public finance and economic analysis—has potentially great utility for assessing the impact and effectiveness of library services, once the profession determines what services appropriately are central to the library mission. The Library Quarterly has recently published a series of articles in which economists attempt to develop and apply econometric measures of library effectiveness, to formulate an economic analysis of library benefits and to isolate and define library objectives and performance measures for use in decision-making.19 However, as one of the studies observed: "The major difficulty concerning the stated public and university library objectives is that they do not yield criteria for evaluating alternative policies. They are not helpful in determining how well the library is performing nor how proposed plans and alternative decisions may affect this performance."20

MANAGERIAL REQUIREMENTS AND PROFESSIONAL MANPOWER

I have deliberately reserved a discussion of library management and manpower for the conclusion of this article because it seems to be the
most critical issue. Yet ironically, library management and manpower requirements cannot be addressed adequately unless the other issues discussed in this article are recognized as being central to the agenda of modern librarianship. For example, the importance of management and manpower to the delivery of public library services is acknowledged by some authorities in the profession. Perhaps the most persistent voice has been that of Paul Wasserman. Since management education—whether for private or public careers—rests upon social and behavioral science knowledge, librarians increasingly will find themselves turning to the experience, methods and information provided by these specializations; for example, a recent issue of *Library Quarterly* was devoted to “Management Education: Implications for Libraries and Library Schools.”

The management of public agencies calls for many skills and specialized knowledge. The manager/administrator must have an acute sense of fiduciary responsibility, a sensitivity to human needs and individual motivation, a commitment to organizational mission and policy objectives, and a capacity to view organizational problems dispassionately and to array them within a context of priorities. He must be increasingly well acquainted with management science and decision technologies, including computer applications, to know when to use those tools and how far to trust them. He must above all else be willing and able to make humane but firm judgments about people and to make informed and rational decisions about organizational objectives and requirements. He must be able to see and understand the whole while retaining a grasp of its multiple parts. He must know intimately his policy terrain as well as the art of achieving institutional ends through other people.

Can these skills and talents be learned or, for that matter, taught? Much of the relevant cognitive knowledge and specific managerial skills can and are being taught. They rest largely on the conceptual, methodological and substantive contributions of the social and behavioral sciences. Any management curriculum or executive training program encompasses instruction and research in individual, group and organizational behavior, quantitative and analytical techniques, and environmental or systemic realities. Sociology, social psychology, organizational behavior, public finance and economic analysis, political science, and financial and budgetary management are the essential core of management education.

Are these proper matters to be covered in education for librarianship? For those with administrative aspirations, some
instruction in and exposure to these bodies of knowledge certainly should be considered indispensable. But there are other dimensions of preprofessional training that are probably more central. Goode observed that the marks of a profession are: (1) prolonged specialized training in a body of abstract knowledge, and (2) a collectivity or service orientation.\textsuperscript{23} Wasserman suggests, however, that while these may be necessary, they are by no means sufficient conditions for effective leadership. The professional librarian, he asserts, must be able to "place the client on a higher pedestal than the organization," must "understand the internal aspects of the library as a social system, exploring such questions as organization, task specialization, patterns of authority relations, morale, and career expectations," and must understand and be able to exploit technology.\textsuperscript{24} In short, Wasserman seems to say, effective librarianship requires the knowledge and skills of the social and behavioral sciences. As the report of the National Advisory Commission Libraries concluded in 1968, "The Librarian of today and tomorrow must have many technical and professional skills, but above all he must have skill with people."\textsuperscript{25}

In the final analysis, then, it is the knowledge skill, sense of professionalism, and resourcefulness of the professional librarian which will make the difference. He must, after all, be part sociologist, part economist, part political scientist, part systems theorist, part social and organizational psychologist. The conclusion to the Pennsylvania study can with equal validity conclude this survey of the relevance of the social and behavioral sciences for evaluation of library operations and impact. The professional library administrator must be willing to enter the maelstrom of community decision-making by making and defending the legitimate claims of his agency. He must recognize that he is best equipped by training and purpose to define the goals, develop the role and protect the interests of the community library. He must know his community, its organization, its leadership, its processes, its opportunities as well as its constraints. He must have the professional self-confidence to do more than respond to spontaneously expressed service demands from the community; he must be willing to take risks by telling the community what his professional judgment tells him that community needs."\textsuperscript{26}
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References


Teaching the Elements of Community Analysis: Problems and Opportunities

ROSE VAINSTEIN

Although it may indeed be axiomatic that library service should be adjusted to the people served,¹ at the time of this writing, graduate library schools do not appear to stress a community analysis component among their varied curriculum requirements. We seem to have an abundance of literature—including surveys of existing libraries, whether general or specific, partial or complete, local, regional or state—on user studies and, more recently, on attempts at measurement of library effectiveness. These may be in-house studies and publications, studies prepared by consultants, management firms, or by volunteer groups such as "friends of the library"; they may be financed through local, state, or federal funds, by foundation support, or by combinations of all these. Some of the literature may be characterized as "how-to-do-it-good" studies or surveys, some as state-of-the-art summaries, but very little on precisely how to study a community as background and prelude to planning for resources and services. In library schools, the teaching of community analysis appears to be an implicit rather than explicit component of the curriculum. This article will review general trends in teaching basic elements of community analysis, highlight some of the courses in which these elements are introduced, comment on cases of in-depth treatment where they appear, and note selected problems associated with the teaching of the subject. And because of its relevance, some comments on trends in library education will also be included.²

Findings are based on a variety of sources, including a sample of graduate schools and correspondence with selected practitioners and educators. Discussions in the literature and comments from other colleagues corroborate the results of this modest survey. At four of the twenty-five schools contacted, faculty members noted, with surprise as

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well as dismay, that on investigation they were unable to identify visible or substantive units on community analysis anywhere in the curriculum, although they assumed, as did the author, that many such units existed. In one accredited program which does include a small unit, the instructor remarked that the brevity of her bibliography (in a course on materials selection) "suggests the dearth of information useful in developing a community study." In other instances, instructors noted that the two most useful references were far from current: (1) Lowell Martin's 1943 University of Chicago conference contribution cited above, and (2) ALA's 1960 Library Community Project manual, *Studying the Community.* Another library educator, in commenting on both the antiquity and paucity of the literature, speculated somewhat facetiously that Joseph Wheeler's 1924 publication, *The Library and the Community,* might really be best of all!

RELATED TRENDS IN LIBRARY EDUCATION

An overview of selected aspects of contemporary library education is introduced here as reminders, as much to practitioners as to educators. While generalizations have their limitations, they also have their uses, especially in reference to that age-old dispute on the "core." With the decrease in importance of the core curriculum, and with the attendant increase in the choice, number, and diversity of library school electives, today's library science graduates may receive less than did their predecessors in what can be termed required curriculum elements. For example, in its thirty credit-hour AMLS program, the University of Michigan now requires only ten hours from master's degree students: collection building (three hours), general reference (three hours), and cataloging/classification (four hours). For the remaining twenty hours, students elect from a wide range of more than fifty courses in library science, approximately one-half of which are usually available in any single term. Furthermore, of the elective course options, students at Michigan may choose, if they wish, up to six hours of graduate level work outside of library science. Given this increasingly common pattern of electives, students today are less likely to receive the basic elements of librarianship, however defined, than were students even as recently as one decade ago. Given the present library job market, student course preferences include what can best be described as an eclectic cafeteria mix, opting for surface diversity in order to increase job flexibility. Those who hire today's graduates may not be aware of this trend and its attendant implications for service,
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staffing and promotion. To be sure, the trend toward fewer core courses is not unique to librarianship. It is a pervasive one in undergraduate education and increasingly in other graduate and professional fields. Perhaps library literature has not stressed it, nor has the matter come forward at conferences, workshops and institutes.

When combined with several other aspects of recruitment to librarianship and the nature of continuing professional education, the impact becomes more significant. Consider the matter of the undergraduate liberal arts degree, a typical requirement among library schools. It is assumed that today's applicants to library school have a broad base of knowledge. In reality, as library school student profiles show, very few have a liberal education—if one assumes this to mean a solid mix of all three areas assigned to the liberal arts: humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences. Library school students are preponderantly humanities majors, strongest in literature and fine arts; much smaller percentages come equipped with social science backgrounds—mainly history and education, rarely economics, political science, sociology, or business; and rarely do students come with solid course work in any of the natural sciences. As a result, although often service oriented, new library school graduates have had limited exposure to the broad spectrum of liberal arts and particularly to the social sciences and research methodology. It often seems that students have little inclination for or sympathy toward planning, logic, and scientific investigation. This, along with certain patterns of graduate school electives and the already noted reduced core, suggests that a significant number of MLS degree students can, and indeed do, graduate without a wide variety of course work, of which community analysis is only one field.

AN OVERVIEW OF COURSES WITH COMMUNITY ANALYSIS COMPONENTS

As limiting as this sounds, the reality of education in the area may be somewhat more encouraging than it initially appears to be. Elements, admittedly modest, do surface in different courses, some required, other elective. Frequent and early appearances are apt to come in the general and introductory survey courses, usually called "Libraries and Society" or some variation of that title. In the context of learning about the overall library environment, material is included on contemporary and future impact factors characterized as demographic, technological, social, political, cultural and economic. Course
requirements can include, in addition to general lectures, a term paper or special project of choice which allows the student to explore a type-of-library or type-of-service aspect within a total or specified environment. Although typically an introductory and first-term subject, in a few instances the survey course is a terminal one, as at Wayne State University, where the "Issues in Librarianship" course comes at the end of the MLS program. As instructor of this course, Genevieve Casey stresses an overview of librarianship, including synthesis, issues and relationships. As a course requirement, students work in small teams, using an existing "real" library and all available survey and community data as their basis for further analysis and long-range planning. Emphasis is on identifying information gaps and weaknesses so that student analysis and recommendations can benefit from and build upon earlier studies. It should be remembered, however, that many schools no longer require an overview survey course, introductory or terminal; the University of Michigan dropped that requirement three years ago. A three-credit course, there, originally called "The Library as a Public Service Institution," has been made into a two-hour elective with a narrower focus, entitled "Libraries in American Society."

Within schools which stress a foundations approach to the core curriculum—notably Case Western Reserve University, Drexel University, and the Universities of Illinois and South Carolina—one can discern certain aspects of community analysis, although individual elements may not be so identified. Given the overall nature of a fundamental requirement, all students receive an introduction to concepts such as community diversity and the varied needs of clients, communications processes and patterns, research methodology, management tools such as sources of information and statistics, and approaches to problem-solving and evaluation. Because of the compact and lock-step structure of most foundation courses, the needs of interests of individual students cannot be met as easily as in separate courses when taught by a single instructor. However, this lack of flexibility may be offset by a reasonable assurance in the elective courses which follow that certain curricular aspects have been covered or stressed or, for that matter, completely omitted. In addition, the team-teaching approach may facilitate and encourage subject-matter teaching by those faculty who are most interested and expert in particular units or modules.

Traditionally, elements of community analysis are introduced and particularly stressed in collection building courses. The latest edition of [600]
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the volume by Carter and others continues an earlier practice of including a small unit on "The Community Survey." As in the Martin article, Carter stresses the importance of knowing the community, although the various purposes are not developed in any great detail. An attempt is made to differentiate between formal and informal surveys (this section is brief, however), to note common sources of community information, and finally to include generalizations as to what the collected survey data may or may not reveal. The bibliographic citations on surveying the community include the two major ones already noted, plus three others, none of which carries a date more recent than 1960.

In the material selection courses, instructors attempt, through special assignments, to link aspects of the community and special clientele with the selection process. Library selection policies are examined to determine the relationships, if any, between criteria for subject matter selection and particular community characteristics and needs, however expressed or known. Circulation records may be studied in an attempt to correlate library usage with materials actually available in both fiction and nonfiction. Area librarians and staff may be interviewed for insights into how community knowledge is obtained, how community change is monitored, and how this information is subsequently used in the selection, collection building and weeding processes. Special studies may be undertaken, using community profiles and attempting to match these with actual media expenditures. User studies may also be undertaken, in which circulation trends are studied and user groups compared.

This writer has often wondered whether the notion of community uniqueness, in its myriad aspects, does in fact register with students and carry over into other aspects of library service such as program and service planning, staff selection, and the setting of library goals, objectives and priorities. This transfer does not appear to be readily made. It seems that studying the community for selection purposes is divorced from studying service needs in other areas. Perhaps, as John Boll has noted, what students need before admission to graduate school is undergraduate work in the field of logic: "What is lacking is general, preparatory overall background that makes the student conscious of the role of clues, of the weighing of clues, of cause and effect, of establishing patterns out of scattered evidence, of synthesizing, summarizing, generalizing, and projecting." If all students were to have this required background, perhaps course work in library schools could indeed be of graduate caliber, building on...
required introductory elements presented at the undergraduate level. Logic can be used to good advantage not only in research methods and administration courses, but in almost all aspects of library science, because of the climate of inquiry and the questioning attitude it engenders.

A logical extension of the use of community study in selection courses is that which is introduced in subject bibliographies and courses called “sources of information.” By their very nature and specificity, such courses suggest not only a specialized literature, but specialized and knowledgeable clients who will use the materials. Depending on the faculty member, methods of instruction used, and the diversity and appropriateness of assignments, these courses should engender an understanding of library users—actual and potential—and how such users differ in their needs and approaches to their literature. If students learn something of the uniqueness of subject fields and specialized approaches of different occupations/professions, they may come up with a sensitivity to search strategy that both transcends and complements the knowledge of individual fields. By learning to differentiate between and among users and their subject specialities, students may learn to understand the diverse professional and occupational groups which are part of any library community. One cannot select, for example, for business, commerce, and industry without an understanding of the economic climate of the geographic area and the country, major trends in specialized business or technical fields, and the specific literature of those fields. In some bibliography courses, mini-studies are made of local or state business enterprises, using census data, governmental surveys, technical reports, etc., in an attempt to design specific subject guides to the literature for targeted audiences. These may be for the local chamber of commerce, small business enterprises, research staffs of area corporations, and governmental agencies as an indication of types of information in library collections or to which libraries can provide ready access through network affiliation.

It takes some ingenuity on the part of faculty to devise new and different exercises which, by their very nature, instruct the specifics of community analysis in what will appear to be natural learning environments. As one example of a topical concern, students can prepare selected and annotated reading lists for businesses which are required to meet federal affirmative action standards. This might first entail identifying government agencies which can provide such regulatory materials and, through market research techniques,
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determining which businesses and agencies are most likely to be
affected by the regulations. Students can develop appropriately useful
guides to the literature, sources of information, and method of referral
to meet client needs. In other instances, exercises can be reversed; that
is, simulated library clients become those who may be discriminated
against—women, minorities, the disadvantaged, the handicapped.
Guides are addressed to them, not to the institution, on how to press a
grievance, how to prepare supporting documentary evidence, how to
obtain legal aid, etc. If effectively devised, such exercises can lead
students to examine a community, its neighborhoods, or particular
ethnic groups for special as well as common characteristics. This can
lead to library service with a more active or anticipatory stance, as in
information and referral work, than the more traditional one in which
librarians respond only if and when asked.

One example of the continuum approach, of the wide range of library
planning with as contrasted with planning for the community, can be
found in some of the adult independent learner materials prepared by
the members of the College Entrance Examination Board project for
the experimental public libraries involved. Margaret Monroe of the
University of Wisconsin has developed a "four-model" approach to the
library as a community learning center, with models ranging from the
provision of requested materials and subjects to the information
clearinghouse model, to that of the library as a community learning
center, to a model in which the public library utilizes the community
task force approach, working with other agencies, groups, and
individuals in the identification and solution of community problems.
By the use of the four-model approach (or any other series of models),
students can begin to see alternate library response styles and degrees
of responsiveness. Class exercises and projects using real or simulated
library communities can contribute to an understanding of both this
process and the variety of its content. It can, of course, have
applications for other than information and referral course work.

Courses in library administration frequently include components of
community analysis, whether general administration or type-of-library
administration. Knowledge of particular community characteristics is
usually introduced as a basis for understanding clientele, resources,
services, standards and priorities. Attempts are made at using the case
method and other simulations so that specific community
characteristics can be examined whenever particular problems or
issues are examined. Martha Zachert, at Florida State University, has
pioneered in the special library field, although her new book makes it
clear that these techniques have wide application. Another example of simulation material was devised by Robert Brown through his Joetta Community Library, a public library case study devised for use in an administration course at the University of Illinois. Brown is also preparing an academic case study for use in the same course. Simulations, if well presented and used, provide students with one kind of bridge between theory and practice. Assuming a problem-solving approach, the dynamics of a community—its special characteristics, economics and politics—can be shown to make a difference in the setting of goals, objectives and priorities and the decision-making which follows. Case studies do not always present extensive community background, emphasizing situational and generic problems with simplified descriptive information. In the writer's view, these are more properly called exercises, valid as an instructional device but not correctly called case studies. Nor do they all deliberately set out to teach or even to illustrate elements of community analysis.

Advanced seminars in administration, where they exist, provide rich opportunities for community study, especially if students are required to read, analyze and critique existing surveys and reports. In preparation of her course on library buildings, the writer has noted a surprising number of planning documents that lack adequate presentation of substantive community information—current and trend—that the administration and board surely must need before architectural space can be considered.

Given the interest in and need for viable library cooperative efforts, an example of community and library study is the recently published A Library Facilities and Services Plan for Southeastern Wisconsin. This study could be used to extend students' vision, going beyond a single type of library and its geographic place/community to that of the larger area through which user needs might be more effectively and efficiently met by cooperation. Blasingame and Lynch, in a paper entitled "Design for Diversity: Alternatives to Standards for Public Libraries," remind readers of the difficulty of defining the term community and caution librarians to recognize not only what they term the place community, but also interest community. For purposes of this issue of Library Trends, both elements are equally important. And for emerging new professionals, not to overlook practitioners, library educators must not be guilty of stressing geography, institutions and their jurisdictional boundaries over people and their community, diversity and levels of interests. All elements are crucial in the context of studying and analyzing the community or the neighborhood.
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Using a "problems in modern librarianship" approach, Syracuse University now provides an advanced seminar in which students actually study and evaluate an existing public library. This is a "hands-on" course, with the instructor as resource person, facilitator and coordinator, directing students working in small teams in their compilation of an actual library study. In one instance, the study was that of a small public library; in another, the class project was a study of a community served by a public library branch. Many educators have espoused the need for selected experience in real work situations—not simulated ones—in which students can begin to see and test the application of theory, principles and practice, and in which faculty can do likewise, constructing, extending, and modifying accepted theory. Not only can this ensure the vitality of the profession, but it can also extend knowledge and scholarship.

This approach, as is the case for a field-work practicum to be discussed below, is a demanding but rewarding one. Time and schedule requirements are burdensome for students, faculty and the staff of the practicum library, becoming increasingly demanding as projects progress. Without exception, every respondent has commented on this particular aspect. At Syracuse University, Roger Greer is now trying a two-term sequence: in the first term, background reading is done, a study is formally undertaken, survey questionnaires are designed and distributed, and data are collected and analyzed; during the second period, actual report assessment, writing and refining are completed. In his case, Greer conducts the course as a research seminar, with all students participating equally. Rotating student members act as recorder so that minutes are kept of actions taken, decisions made, and assignment allocated. Not only do students prepare all written material and drafts, but they are also responsible for questionnaires, findings, recommendations and calendars. Oral reporting to the library in question is also part of the course requirement; a presentation is given to the practicum library before a final draft is completed. "Needless to say, it's an enormous amount of work for the students and for me," says Greer, "but everyone has agreed, so far, that it is the most valuable experience in library school."

Given the rather small number of students involved in such advanced work (usually eight to twelve), and the extensive staff-hour expenditure of students, faculty and library staff, one begins to recognize the limitations of problem-focused seminars as a regular option in all library schools. It raises questions about the purpose and appropriate length of the MLS program, the possibility of a two-year
approach (the present Canadian pattern), and even the alternative of formal internships after the completion of course work and as a condition or prerequisite for awarding the final degree.

An interesting curriculum development, one which began in the 1960s and had continued, is that of identifying and reaching special clientele. Initially, emphasis was on inner-city minority groups including Blacks and Latinos. Today, the range appears wider, more diverse: Appalachian poor, American Indian, inmates in prisons and other correctional institutions, migrants, ethnics who may be indigenous to particular geographic areas such as Cubans in Miami and Puerto Ricans in New York City, and older more established ethnic groups now seeking visibility, understanding and pride in heritage. In many courses, both required and elective, students use the study of special clientele as a means of linking project requirements with those of community analysis. And while they do not complete a total community study, students find it profitable to investigate special-client characteristics, needs, and interests—looking particularly at needs assessment. In addition to its popular appeal, one of relevance and human dimension, the special-client approach makes it possible for the instructor to illustrate the important concept of community diversity and plurality. Application of the special-client approach can be made in the selection of materials, provision of reference and information services, selection of staff where language and culture are important, and in planning community outreach programs for almost any age group. Sensitivity to changes in the composition of the population in cities and suburbs has had interesting effects. The writer has noticed, for example, a carryover into the public library field with a reexamination of the public library’s main audience, stereotyped from earlier surveys as the so-called WASP (white Anglo-Saxon Protestant) middle class. Special clientele studies are beginning to include investigations of reading interests and information needs of blue-collar workers and their families, senior citizens, single parents, and the varying professions. In connection with the latter, a new (or renewed) interest has arisen concerning workers in health sciences and health education fields, as differentiated, for example, from knowledge industry workers or those in the computer field, or in information science and its related technology. What may have started initially as an examination of certain peoples in the inner city has resulted in greater sensitivity to population diversity everywhere, with implications for collection development, service priorities, and programming. To the library school, multiculturalism and special-client interests can and
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should become an integral part of the curriculum, especially in its community analysis aspects, as libraries attempt to meet the needs of an ever-changing population.

Certainly, the ALA 1970 policy statement on library education and manpower noted this, perhaps with different phrasing and emphasis, as in Item 28 on the objectives of the master's program. The MLS degree program should "prepare librarians capable of anticipating and engineering the change and improvement required to move the profession constantly forward." What more appropriate way is there than emphasizing community study?

Service to community groups, organizations and agencies has taken on a new dimension and emphasis, particularly due to interest in information/referral programs and the neighborhood information center concept. For libraries going into this area of service, a frequently used approach is that of "community walks." Staff members are encouraged (required?) to study their own branch neighborhood in a regular and organized fashioned. They are being asked to do minisurveys in order to relate branch programs and resources to the special needs to the unique population in their area of service. A critical dimension of the neighborhood community walk is the fact that practitioners claim they feel ill-equipped for this responsibility and require on-the-job training for it. This suggests a special kind of attention in library schools—and not merely as an elective or optional element somewhere in the curriculum. Just as public libraries are developing information and referral programs and are becoming aware of meeting diverse neighborhood needs, so are school media centers, community college libraries, and academic libraries. Increasingly, such libraries are becoming sensitive to the diversity of their students, whether in terms of community background, educational objectives, learning capabilities, or age distribution. Knowing the territory, to use Professor Hill's favorite slogan from The Music Man, may become as important an emphasis in library schools and libraries as it was in River City, where the market was for trombones, music and big brass bands.

An especially ingenious use of the community walk approach, although not in a library school, is one reported by the public library in Bridgeport, Connecticut. Under a 1973/74 proposal, a Higher Education Title II-B institute grant was received from the U.S. Office of Education. During the year-long institute, the library used a variety of technology, including videotape, to develop awareness of community resources among selected staff members. Visits to community agencies
were organized and planned in order to understand their mission, objectives, services, and problems. Interviews were held, tapes made, information recorded and in-service training classes held—all in a demanding but vital “hands-on” approach. As stated in the institute report, the overall goal was “to have each participant gain a working awareness of community resources and to become a better, more communicative information contact in order to give more effective, relevant library service to the community.” As the project director noted, all the staff had been trained in an earlier pattern of service, before Bridgeport’s large influx of minorities. Few of the staff, they found, participated in or were even knowledgeable about current local community organizations; they “lacked a good first-hand understanding of the city—its agencies, institutions, organizations, people, neighborhoods, its failings and its good points.” Participants felt that use of group visits, and videotapes to supplement, complement or even substitute for printed materials on individual agencies and resources was an effective information and learning device. There were limitations too, including the need for extended time to make an in-depth record of each agency’s physical plant, staff and services, doing justice to the city’s diversity, complexity and changing profile.

Type-of-library courses, especially those stressing service as opposed to management, frequently show examples of the community analysis approach. More typically these seemed to be in the school and public library fields, rather than in special or academic library courses. This may be a matter of chance or the result of the author’s own choice of library school contacts, many in the public library field. One minisurvey example, that of block surveys, has been used at Columbia University in a course on library work for children and youth. Using the Morningside Heights area in which the university is located, student teams surveyed that community by blocks in order to prepare a community/access profile of agencies and libraries serving children and youth. Brief guidelines, maps and special forms assist students in their neighborhood walks and observation visits to various agencies. As noted by Greer’s students at Syracuse, those at Columbia are also enthusiastic about the community emphasis. One of their suggestions—that of studying a community of their own choice—was tried as a variation of the Morningside Heights block project.

As part of the requirements in the public library service course at Drexel University, Dorothy Bendix includes a community study unit. Special attention is given to three types of communities—urban, lower middle class, and suburban. Students working in two- or three-person
teams chose geographic areas in and around Philadelphia for their focused community walks, studies, and class reports.

Somewhat different in focus is David Kaser’s academic library administration course at Indiana University which includes a substantial segment on the library in its several “environments”: campus (relation with students, faculty, administration), intellectual (teaching, research, and service), external (alumni, government, press, foundations), and professional (other libraries, professional associations). Special and governmental library courses frequently stress this same environmental approach, emphasizing staff specialities, company product, research and service as a focus for attention on particular communities being serviced and priorities which must be met.

Where services and collection building courses are combined, as they are at Indiana, succinct information is prepared to highlight for students those elements of community study which are unique to each major type of library: academic, school, public and special. Lowell Martin’s article has been reproduced for student use at Indiana, with selected emendations in an attempt to update the material. A simulated county library case study is used for illustrative and exercise purposes, somewhat similar to (but in considerably less detail than) the Joetta community library simulation used at the University of Illinois. Here too, according to faculty, students comment on the value of being able to use an applied library situation, albeit a simulated one, instead of discussing generalities.

COMMUNITY ANALYSIS, THE PRACTICUM, AND FIELD EXPERIENCE

Selected aspects have already been treated, although not as a deliberately designed and total practicum or organized field work, internship or clinical experience. Because this topic came up so frequently—in the literature, through correspondence, and at meetings of the American Association of Library Schools—it seems useful to treat the matter separately. Student interest in field work is well documented, highlighting a genuine desire for contact with what students consider the “real” library world as distinguished from the classroom lecture experience. Faculty also express a sustained interest in trying to relate theory and principle to the practice of the profession. Historically a required component in most schools, field work has become not only less practical from an organizational and management
point of view, but also less rewarding from a learning point of view. Library schools in this decade are not engaged in any wholesale support of the field work concept. For sustained effectiveness, it requires an adequate supply of good “teaching libraries” (in the medical sense of a licensed “teaching hospital”)—places where students are welcome and receive, year in and year out, appropriate guidance and supervision in a dynamic learning environment. It also requires administrative and financial support to make field work possible on a regular basis. Faculty need time to work, on a one-to-one basis, with students and library staff members alike, in a sustained manner similar to field experience in social work or practice teaching in education. The practicum idea has certainly surfaced again in a variety of forms. Some of these will be discussed, particularly because they relate to the mainstream of this article—that of teaching elements of community analysis.

As noted earlier, faculty members recognize the purpose, value and appeal of the field experience. If faculty react negatively, it is because they recognize the enormous burden field work places on all parties—library staff members, teaching faculty, and students. The burden is personal, professional, financial and organizational. The University of Michigan, for example, graduates between 275 and 300 master’s degree students each year. The logistics of placing that many individuals in field work or practicum situations of their choice is mind-boggling, even if not all students opt for such an opportunity. In a one-year master’s degree program, which is what most U.S. schools offer, a field work component can complicate what is probably already one of the shortest graduate professional degree programs. Alternate proposals include lengthening the program or offering an internship after all course work is completed. There are other proposals as well, although this is not the forum for such a full discussion. What is germane is a review of selected schools that already include such a component, how these work, what they include, and what they may possibly portend, whether short- or long-range.

Faculty involved in such experiences note the tightrope they walk. They must make community study projects meaningful to students, useful to the host library, and appropriate as a graduate course in a professional school. An especially felicitous arrangement, it seems, is the one used at the University of Toronto. There, in the public library field, John Marshall has devised an approach whereby cooperating area libraries first propose and outline a specific community service or outreach project in which they are interested. These projects must be
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self-contained, completable within a 13-week period or about eighteen
hours per week, represent some special study, analysis or work effort
which the library needs and plans to use, and take the student out into
the community. Although proposed projects are described by
cooperating libraries, they are developed in close consultation with the
instructor. The matching of student and project is the instructor's
responsibility, as are other course requirements which include a
substantive final report, regular seminar discussions, observation
meetings, process records, and appropriate requirements to be
designed on a case-by-case basis. In this writer's contacts with Toronto's
Community Services Practicum, she has seen two reports, one entitled
"Information Needs of Native Peoples in the City of Toronto," and
another entitled "A Study of the Francophone Population of North
York in Order to Determine its Library-Information Needs." As is
obvious from their titles, the reports are in fact extensive studies of
narrowly focused aspects of community analysis, the first for the
Toronto Public Library and the second for the public library in North
York. Authors seem positive in their evaluation of the professional and
personal value of the practicum experience. They are also
overwhelmed concerning the actual time involved, far in excess of 200
hours. One assumes that host libraries feel these experiences are
positive and that they found the reports useful. The Toronto approach
is presented as a special development, one that might suggest other,
perhaps smaller models or adaptations, especially for library schools in
areas less culturally endowed than Toronto.

Columbia has also tried the community services field work approach
on a more limited basis of one day each week for a twelve-week period.
This is more akin to the observation/participation experiences in the
library, than to the single and terminal community projects at Toronto.
But even within the observation/participation structure, field work
varies simply because of the uniqueness of each local situation as a
teaching library. Understandably, because of present budget problems
and staff shortages, most libraries tend to find field work students an
added burden at a particularly stressful period.

Other urban experimentation can be noted in Columbia's specially
funded U.S.O.E. Community Media Librarian Program (COMLIP)
described in a recent issue of American Libraries.\textsuperscript{17} Central to the
COMLIP project was a practical and reality-based understanding of
the inner city, its residents and their information for survival needs.
Because of his unique experience with New York City's Community
Development Agency under former Mayor Lindsay, COMLIP's
curriculum coordinator, Major Owens, brought special expertise and community focus to the Columbia program.

Whatever the limitations to practicum experiences, they do add a vital dimension to the learning experience of recent graduates. It would be wise to pool and share these experiences for further refinement and possible extension to others in ways that would be mutually beneficial to student, practitioner, faculty and host library. With library, schools collectively graduating close to 10,000 persons annually, the matter of the practicum, clinical experience, or field work option is not to be taken at all lightly, whether in terms of long-range recommendations or immediate response to increased need. Since this matter relates to aspects of community analysis, inclusion seems germane and educationally appropriate.

AN OVERVIEW OF AND SOME COMMENTS ON THE LITERATURE

Because of the dearth of community analysis study materials and the age of the most frequently cited items, this writer would like to include several items which seem to have particular promise. Although there is substantive scholarly and technical literature on community study and development, referred to in other chapters in this issue, what most library schools are seeking are items which can be easily read, used and understood in a variety of library school courses. This is not to suggest that students should not be referred to, and urged to read, for example, Warren's landmark publications The Community in America18 or Studying Your Community.19 These are basic in their field. Students should become familiar with them and with other major writers in community study.

One of the best of the newer items to be cited is the February 1975 issue of Illinois Libraries,20 which reports on PASS 2, the second in a series of statewide programs designed to improve the quality of public library service in Illinois. The theme for PASS 2 was “Analyzing Your Community: Basis for Building Library Service.” The Illinois State Library deserves special commendation for its continuing effort—a cooperative one with the Illinois Library Association—to foster an understanding of the planning process necessary to achieve quality library service. This continuing education effort culminated in eight regional meetings held during April and May 1974, the highlights of which were published in Illinois Libraries. Included in the February issue is consultant Ruth Warncke’s step-by-step discussion on analyzing
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a community and Muriel Fuller's keynote address. Much of the workshop effort was devoted to small groups in an attempt to demonstrate to trustees and librarians just how to go about a local community analysis, using PASS 1 and PASS 2 data which, collectively, covered library standards, goals, objectives, and community study.

As part of the Library Service Guide series, the Appalachian Adult Education Center at Morehead State University has prepared *Assessing Community Information and Service Needs* by Priscilla Gotsick. This guide focuses on identifying library service needs of disadvantaged adults. The 24-page guide discusses the planning process, collection and interpretation of community information, and development of an action plan based on community needs, priorities, and cooperative efforts with other agencies.

The League of Women Voters has a useful national publication entitled “Know Your Community.” Made possible by Carnegie Corporation funds, the 46-page pamphlet outlines how to make a local government survey. Perhaps more than the others cited above this publication concerns itself with governmental structure, organization, and the various agencies connected with government. The first part is general, focusing on “Your Community—Its Background.” Other sections include the financing of local government and descriptive approaches to collection information on services such as public protection, transportation, education, housing, recreation and libraries. In all, it is a handy and succinct guide, suggesting local league members as potential community resource personnel for how-to-do-it methodology and skills.

In the same category as the league publication is *Obtaining Citizen Feedback: The Application of Citizen Surveys to Local Governments*, by Kenneth Webb and Harry Hatry. Citizen feedback through questionnaire and interviews is one method whereby libraries can discover how well their own services are received when compared with those of other governmental units, including police, schools, parks, sanitation, etc. Webb and Hatry provide useful and practical information on such items as dangers and pitfalls in citizen surveys, survey procedures and costs and funding sources. Also included in the volume are sample questionnaires, procedural instructions and form letters. From the National Board of YWCA comes an informal, short, yet practical publication entitled *Look Beneath the Surface of the Community*. Although prepared with the mission of the YWCA in mind, this pamphlet has sound, easy-to-follow community guidelines and study suggestions for the collection and interpretation of data.
Moving closer to the library field itself are two recent American Library Association publications. One, a modest pamphlet published in 1974, carries the title *Libraries: Centers for Children’s Needs; A Practical Guide for Developing a Community Information File.* Prepared by the Children’s Services Division Committee on Library Service to the Disadvantaged Child, this brief how-to-do-it guide emphasizes community agencies and resources which may have special relevance for service to children. Somewhat similar in general purpose, although more detailed and addressed to the needs of young adults, is *Look, Listen, Explain: Developing Community Library Services for Young Adults.* Prepared by an ad hoc committee of ALA’s Young Adults Services Division, this outline guide can be used in considering services to other age groups as well. It is applicable, in spirit as well as in content, to the concept of the community library as a first, catalytic and dynamic port-of-call. The guide is especially resourceful in its analysis of how to discover traditional and nontraditional youth culture groups and community agencies which relate to them. Taking an activist and positive stance in studying the community, *Look, Listen, Explain* suggests a variety of creative methods, resources and contacts.

An interesting and provocative study which should be reexamined for possible replication is reported in *Public Opinion Quarterly.* Written by Edwin Parker and William Paisley, the study is entitled “Predicting Library Circulation from Community Characteristics.” The authors conclude, with various caveats and a statement of concern, that “further research should be devoted to the problem of the extent to which the book stocks of libraries are shaping (rather than being shaped by) the demand structure in the communities.”

For information in the special clientele category of blue-collar workers, volume 3—*Decentralization*—of a series entitled *Citizen Participation in Urban Development* has a useful article entitled “Who’s Left on the Block? New York City’s Working Class Neighborhoods.” To be sure, there are a number of full-length volumes on ethnic and minority groups and on blue-collar workers. Several that come to mind include Shostak’s *Blue-Collar Life,* Sexton and Sexton’s *Blue Collars and Hard-Hats,* Binzen’s *Whitetown, U.S.A.,* and Wattenberg’s very readable *This U.S.A.; An Unexpected Family Portrait of 194,067,296 Americans Drawn from the Census.* For purposes of course assignments, however, it is often not possible to assign such extensive readings, as valuable as the background would be, except perhaps in reading courses.

For a short and succinct article on the suburban phenomenon, *Time*
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magazine's March 15, 1971, issue, entitled "Suburbia: A Myth Challenged," contains the article "Suburbia: The New American Plurality," which differentiates among four types of suburbs. Today's reader might challenge Time's categories: affluent bedroom, affluent settled, low-income growing, and low-income stagnant. However, there is also the possibility that students will be disabused of considering all suburbs as being homogeneous. For more extensive and substantive readings on suburbia there are the following: Suburbia in Transition, The Radical Suburb, and The Levittowners. In connection with the libraries of suburbia, Gilda Nimer's article "The Suburban Reality and Its Implications for the Role of the Public Library" is still very germane. For students without a frame of reference to suburbia, some combination of these references is necessary if they are to relate to its unique community characteristics.

The above citations are not meant in any way to be either representative or definitive. Rather, they are illustrative only and are included as a means of demonstrating how resourceful and adaptive library educators must become in order to locate appropriate sources of information for community analysis projects, whether large or small. That in itself, in discussion with students, can prove to be a salutary reference and research experience. Certainly, this issue of Library Trends will become a major tool for the pool of new and integrated information it makes conveniently available.

Various professional documents have been consulted for final comments on the importance of careful and regular community assessment if the nation's libraries are to meet the needs of an ever-changing population. Library school students, as the new practitioners, must surely be sensitized to and prepared for this prime and ongoing responsibility. There is no greater charge than that of making institutions responsive to and congruent with the special needs of their constituencies. The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, in an attempt to develop a truly national program, has focused on the complexity of devising an appropriate framework to meet all the library needs of a country as diverse as the United States. In its recently completed "Goals and Guidelines for Community Library Services," the Public Library Association may perhaps speak for all librarians when it states that changing societal patterns are to be "studied and evaluated regularly in order to plan and implement new services, or to modify existing services as needs are identified or to identify users and potential users" (emphasis added).

Throughout the document, stress is placed on study, analysis, and
responsiveness to meet the human needs of people within their individual but diverse communities, making libraries outer-directed and user oriented. With this as a specific charge, it would seem appropriate to conclude that teaching the elements, process and methodology of community analysis should be mandated in all library science programs, whether general or specialized. Further, it might also be urged that other states follow the lead of Illinois and present statewide training sessions in community analysis for practitioners, trustees and others who have leadership responsibilities for library development. If library schools consistently include units in appropriate components of their curriculum, if state agencies and state associations cooperate with in-service training, and if national organizations simultaneously stress community analysis (through preconference institutes, programs, and publications), we will then have personnel who do know how to study their library's particular territory and who can make their institutions catalytic, assertive, and responsive in helping to meet societal needs. As Samuel Johnson has noted, "The future is purchased by the present."41 By working only on the present, we blur and obscure the requirements of the future. What can provide a vision of tomorrow and a bridge to today is the teaching of community and neighborhood analysis and their symbiotic relationship to library services, resources and personnel.

References

2. Information in this article is based on an examination of the literature, contacts with selected practitioners, the writer's experience in the library field, and a brief 1975 inquiry sent to library educators at 25 graduate library schools, with responses from 15. Summaries of programs are the author's; she takes full responsibility for their selection and application—but with grateful recognition to those who responded to her inquiry.
7. Martin, op. cit.
9. Paper presented at the Adult Services Educators' Interest Group,
Teaching the Elements of Community Analysis


28. American Library Association. Young Adult Services Division. Ad Hoc
Committee on Outreach Programs for Young Adults. Look, Listen, Explain: Developing Community Library Services for Young Adults. Chicago, ALA, 1975.


A Bibliography of Community Analyses for Libraries

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Community analysis for libraries is as large and varied a subject as the public served and the services offered. A large part of the thought, research and planning in library and information science involves some form of community analysis. This bibliography is meant to be representative of the interesting variety of purposes, publics studied and approaches used. It is neither comprehensive nor selective, since both terms imply complete control of a literature as broad as library science itself. The projects described range from massive to slight, major studies to obscure reports, and national to local in scope. Most are user/nonuser surveys, but a number of experimental studies and examples of theoretical applications are included.

Since this issue deals with community analysis, the single special requirement for inclusion in this list is that a study consider the entire community or population of potential users, not just the community segment already using the library or service. This bibliography is limited to English-language materials (although considerable work in the area appears in German and Russian), and to publication since 1970, in order to supplement the more comprehensive bibliography by Atkin, cited below.

References were compiled from several sources. The largest number of citations came from a systematic search under several headings in Library Literature. Narrower searches were conducted in Library and Information Science Abstracts, Research in Education and Index to Current Urban Documents. The nearly annual sections on “Information Needs and Uses” of the Annual Review of Information Science and Technology were scanned, as well as the library science listings in Dissertation Abstracts International, several areas of the shelf list of the University of Illinois library science library, and recent issues of major journals

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productive in this area. Additional leads came from footnotes, references, personal suggestions and, of course, serendipity. Various appearances of similar or identical material are noted when known, but no systematic effort has been made to identify such occurrences. Annotations are brief and descriptive; nearly all material has been examined, except for some theses which have been annotated from abstracts.

RECENT REVIEWS AND BIBLIOGRAPHIES


BIBLIOGRAPHY OF COMMUNITY ANALYSES

Adams, Golden V., Jr. “A Study: Library Attitudes, Usage, Skill and Knowledge of Junior High School Age Students Enrolled at Lincoln Junior High School and Burns Union High School, Burns, Harney County, Oregon 1971-72.” Research report submitted to the Graduate Department of Library and Information Sciences, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah, 1972. 114p. (ED 077 538) Grade levels, sex, grade-point averages, formal library science classes, and reading achievement levels of junior high school students were studied in relation to library attitudes, usage, skills, and knowledge.


A study (from a dissertation) to identify student and faculty attitudes
Bibliography

toward, and determine faculty and student utilization of, the community college library. Questionnaires were administered to randomly selected classes, all full-time faculty, and to all library users during a selected week at three Illinois community colleges. Statistical data on library use and attitudes are presented and several research hypotheses considered.


A random sample of 49 of 317 freshmen in a communication course was surveyed by questionnaire and interview about information gathering procedures in preparing a required 2,500-word term paper. Information gathering data were based on reported use of eleven sources and nine agencies during three defined phases of the term-paper process. Data on prior library instruction were taken but no related differences were found in library skills or approaches. It was found that students took little advantage of librarians and official library resources.


Regression techniques were used to derive a prediction equation for the number of technical reports which should be collected by college or university libraries. The data used came from published sources and from questionnaires sent to 94 libraries. Four variables were found to be significant: volume size, number of full-time engineering faculty, number of doctoral candidates in engineering, and number of engineering researchers.


Two approaches were used in this project. Interviews were conducted with officers of agencies serving the disadvantaged. A survey was made of the disadvantaged to determine their needs and desires for library services and their preferences concerning delivery systems. Extension of library service was found to be feasible and desired by the target group, 82.1 percent of whom do not use public libraries. Sixty percent of the nonusers did express interest in library service.
The objectives of the project were: (1) to determine the actual requirements for library resources of elementary and secondary students and evaluate existing library resources in terms of both student needs and national standards; and (2) on the basis of this information, to outline the respective roles of the school libraries and the public libraries in providing needed resources and developing joint planning. The students themselves provided most of the data on library resource requirements through questionnaires and checklists administered to sample groups of students in even-numbered grades, two through twelve in public, parochial and independent schools.

Benjamin, Aleta S. *The Relationship Between Selected Personal Factors and Knowledge of the Public Library of Selected Adults in Ventura County, California.* 1974. 55p. (ED 090 943)

Ten percent of the registered voters of Camarillo, California, were surveyed by questionnaire to determine what personal factors were correlated with knowledge of library services and facilities. Returns were tabulated from 357 citizens and indicated that knowledge about the library was highly correlated with library use, and that both occupation and distance from the library were related to knowledge about the library. No relation of library knowledge to age, sex, marital status, duration of residence, income, or level of education was found.


A test of the relationship of teacher encouragement to exploit library resources to actual student use. It was hypothesized that the relationship will vary directly because of the student’s wish to emulate the teacher as a subject matter authority and/or to seek to please him. An experimental group/control group design was followed with the experimental group receiving “a great deal of attention from the teacher in its course-related bibliographic pursuits.” Student use of the library was determined from circulation records. A significant increase in library use was found during the test period; however, reversion to previous patterns was noted in the post-test period.

Bibliography

Use and Identification of the User. "In Ruth H. Rockwood, ed. Urban Change and Public Library Development; Selected Papers. Tallahassee, Florida State University, School of Library Science, 1972, pp. 41-55.

As part of an international study of leisure activities sponsored by UNESCO, the Center for the Study of Leisure at the University of South Florida is studying the effects of the development of Disney World on surrounding communities in west-central Florida. Libraries are included as an "intellectual" leisure activity. The purpose of the Florida Library Survey was to study the leisure use of libraries and to identify the users. Descriptive statistical analysis of use is presented and the implications for nonuse is considered as well.


Twenty recommendations for a five-year plan are developed from an analysis of the Vancouver area, its rapid growth, political structure, and structure of library services. The plan is designed to mesh with a province-wide program for British Columbia.


An attempt "to discover patterns of use as well as attitudes toward and level of awareness that faculty and students demonstrate toward services offered them by the library." A sixteen-item questionnaire was administered by teaching faculty in the classroom. There was particular interest in the activities of the science reference desk. A demographic cross-section of users/nonusers is presented showing "habits, preferences, likes and dislikes as they relate to the library."


A survey by questionnaire of students at the annual Open University Summer School at the University of Stirling (England) in 1972. The importance of libraries, kinds of libraries used, materials utilized, and methods of identification and retrieval were queried. A high percentage expressed satisfaction with available library resources.


A class at the Simmons College School of Library Science surveyed
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information use patterns and communication practices of 500 academic physicists and chemists in the greater Boston area. Questions were included on library use, as well as an opportunity for open-ended comments on libraries and librarians.

Childers, Thomas. “Information Needs of Blue-Collar Adults.” (In press.)

Under a grant from the Division of Library Programs, U.S. Office of Education, Childers and his associates at Drexel University’s Graduate School of Library Science have reviewed and synthesized existing studies relating to the blue-collar adult’s information needs, information-seeking behavior, and information use. The final product will be a review essay with recommendations and a comprehensive bibliography. Source: Information: News and Sources 6:291, Dec. 1974.


The final report of a study begun in 1972 entitled “Knowledge/Information Needs of the Disadvantaged.” The method was to consolidate and synthesize what had already been published on the information needs of adults with various disadvantages: age, poverty, physical handicap, racial or cultural discrimination, unemployment, and undereducation. An extensive bibliography is appended.


A geographical survey of Bath Municipal Library users was conducted for both adult and junior members. Socioeconomic factors were studied for their influence on library membership. The library membership density maps prepared should be useful in extending library service to new areas. A related survey of public library use by students in higher education is also described.

Coleman, Pat, and Yorke, David. “A Public Library Experiments with Market Research,” Library Association Record 77:107-09, May 1975. In an effort to discover the kind of library services desired from a new branch, the Manchester (England) Public Library conducted two surveys. The first was in the form of a short interview using a quota sample of individuals in the district. The second survey was directed toward representatives of local organizations.


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Personal interviews were conducted with a cross-section of the state's population according to an area probability sample of 1,006 individuals to determine: (1) the information needs of the people of Colorado, (2) the use and nonuse of library services in the state, (3) the availability and evaluations of public libraries and particular library services, either currently existing or proposed, and (4) the general attitudes toward libraries and the purposes Coloradans feel they should serve.


This research was prompted by the common problems of urban libraries—a general decline in circulation and a great disparity in use from branch to branch. The hypothesis behind the study was that policies and programs successful in some branches but not in others are not responsive to the needs of each community being served. The purpose was to determine what unique combination of services, activities and facilities would motivate greater use in each neighborhood. Four branch library neighborhoods representing Black, Mexican-American, and middle-income suburbs in general were studied. Three approaches were used: observation of use in each branch, a questionnaire survey of library staff, and 500 extensive interviews with a random sample of area residents, both library users and nonusers. These interviews covered library use, awareness of the library and its services, convenience of facilities, problems and recommendations, leisure activities, other sources of information, and demographics. Recommendations of the report range from “community liaison” to “the design of book shelves.” A one-year test of a prototype branch library in one of the branches studied is suggested as a further study.


An investigation of document delivery systems as an alternative to dispersion of university library collections in departmental libraries. Faculty attitudes toward library effectiveness were surveyed on one campus with a delivery system and one without. Faculty attitudes in both situations were also correlated with distance from needed materials and collection dispersion factors affecting accessibility.
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To obtain feedback about user satisfaction with the library, the Market Research Centre at Massey University (New Zealand) surveyed a quasi-random sample of 643 students obtaining 493 usable responses on usage, attitudinal patterns toward the library, and students' pre- and extrauniversity library experience. Follow-up surveys and an extension to include extramural students and academic staff were recommended.

Growth and development patterns, population analyses and projections, and other educational agencies in the Pueblo, Colorado, area were studied, yielding five objectives as twenty-year guidelines for regional library development.

This study was directed at the problem of nonresident use of several metropolitan area libraries in Broome County, New York. Nonresident use was shown to be a substantial cost. Regression analysis of demographic data indicated that nonresident use of core area facilities is likely to increase as the ability of the cities to support these facilities diminishes. Several possible solutions were discussed, and county reimbursement for nonresident use was recommended.

Twenty-one hypotheses were tested in an attempt to determine the characteristics of fifth-grade users and nonusers of school and public library services, and the reasons for their use or nonuse. A thirty-three-item questionnaire was utilized.

Over 8,000 nonrandom responses to questionnaires administered in branch libraries and public schools, and interviews in various locations in the city were analyzed. Opinions were solicited from user
and nonuser adults, parents of preschoolers, teens, and students.


"This study was designed to identify and describe the prevailing communication practices of a sample of residents of the urban, black ghetto community of Bedford Stuyvesant in Brooklyn, New York, and to determine the relationship, if any, between communication practices and use of the public library. In addition, age, sex, marital status, income, education, and occupation variables were analyzed independently to discover their relationship, if any, to communication practices and use/non-use of the public library."


A questionnaire was distributed to a random sample of 250 residents of the Central City area of Salt Lake City. Data were analyzed and compared with other similar surveys to provide insight into social factors, reading patterns, and library use.


This study was conceived as a kind of "market analysis" for library services to meet the information needs of Denver households, business firms, and the city government and its agencies. Specific objectives were: (1) to determine current use and nonuse by the three groups, (2) to assess their awareness of and attitudes toward the Denver Public Library system, (3) to identify their information needs and problems, and (4) to formulate actions to improve library service to them. Each segment of the population was surveyed with these goals in mind. Personal interviews were conducted with a random block-sample of 475 Denver households. A questionnaire mailed to a random, stratified sample of commercial firms yielded 142 responses to 165 questionnaires. Ninety-five percent of the government agencies and quasi-public institutions returned their mail surveys. Recommendations dealt mainly with raising the low...
library awareness in the community and with the possible introduction of new services.


A questionnaire using the critical-incident technique was sent to 615 physicians on the faculty of the School of Medicine at Case Western Reserve University. Each respondent was asked to recall the last time he needed an item of information and the way he satisfied this need. The use made of the information, the formal or informal channels used, and the type of work involved were analyzed. The results yield several recommendations for improved library service to this university community.


Separate questionnaires were directed to users and nonusers. A user was defined as a resident holding a library card. User questionnaires focused on materials read and knowledge of various library services. A random, proportional cluster sample of blocks was combined with a random sample of people on the blocks to select nonusers to be interviewed. Demographic data were included on both questionnaires for correlation with the library-related information.


To complement a study of library resources, Arthur D. Little, Inc., conducted a survey of public library users and nonusers in order to determine what people think of their libraries. The study showed that many people who use the library have very little idea of what it offers and are not particularly interested in it, and that libraries are becoming less relevant to the evolving interests and needs of users. "Alienation from the library is not only a fact, but also a trend."


"The purpose of this study was to collect and analyze data concerning library utilization by students enrolled in non-residential degree programs." Students enrolled at the SUNY Empire State College, in the New York State Regents External Degree Program, and in the Adult Degree Program of Goddard College (Plainfield, Vermont) were selected for the population of this study. Usable

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mailed and personally administered questionnaires were obtained from 254 students. Heavy reliance on public libraries—61 percent reported using public libraries “almost always” or “frequently”—suggests the need for greater cooperation between nonresidential degree programs and public libraries.


Subscribers to various INSPEC services were polled as to method of dissemination within their organizations, reasons for choosing to subscribe, the relative value to their organizations of each service, and other services received.

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An experiment with control group was conducted to see the effect of an SDI service on the current awareness activities of scientists and technologists. A questionnaire was sent to groups of subscribers and nonsubscribers before and two years after the introduction of the SDI service. The results showed improved confidence in literature coverage, less scanning of journals, and time freed for in-depth study of useful articles.


“The purposes of this exploratory study were to identify the kinds of information, and to test the relationship of selected variables of information systems and channels teachers use to find information, and to determine the relationship of selected variables and the use of information systems by the teachers.” Personal interviews were conducted with thirty-five social studies teachers in Indiana and Illinois, and school and media center data checklists were completed during the visits. It was found that social studies
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teachers use a variety of information from a variety of sources, but none of the variables tested showed a significant relationship to the use of information systems.


An effort to investigate the nature and extent of foreign languages as a barrier to the use of research material at the University of Sheffield. Structured interviews, library use records, and citation analyses of published materials were used to establish researchers' usage of foreign-language materials. In addition, the foreign-language materials available were surveyed, and associated costs of acquisition and maintenance estimated. Finally, a broad mail survey of journal editors was made on language problems, and of librarians on translation policy and for further suggestions. Serious underutilization of potentially important foreign-language materials was found and several recommendations were made to improve the situation. See also "University Research and the Language Barrier," *Journal of Librarianship* 3:1-25, Jan. 1971.


A survey conducted in 1970 in a suburban junior high school in order to determine the reading, listening and leisure habits of students. A series of charts depict student leisure activities, reading habits, and library use. Suggestions for improving the school library were also solicited.


A comprehensive survey of this depressed city was conducted to provide insight needed to extend library service to a larger portion of the community. Much social data was gathered and other recent surveys were consulted. A survey was made of users and of the more general population at shopping centers. In-depth interviews were conducted with a small group of citizens as well as with the usual business, library, school and church leaders. Recommendations for action were made in several areas.


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A multiple regression and path analysis of survey data from a clustered area probability sample of 2,031 adults in Illinois revealed three principal clusters as factors predicting library use: education, family life cycle, and environment. Education was by far the most powerful predictor. Traditional determinants such as age, sex, race and economic level had no direct influence. Most significantly, all the usual factors acting together account for only approximately one-fifth of the variance. The conclusion is that “the question of the causes behind library use is, therefore, wide open for study.”


A nationwide study by the Institute of Library Research at the University of California at Berkeley of “the library needs of inmate populations and staff in federal and state correctional institutions, the resources available to them, and the problems of providing service in correctional institutions.” The study included a seminar on legal reference materials for prisoners, the production of a handbook of statistical data and current practice, and an in-depth exploration of problems in ten representative states through interviews with both prison officials and inmate library users and nonusers. See also “The Institute of Library Research Study of Library and Information Problems in Correctional Institutions,” Illinois Libraries 56:543-55, Sept. 1974.


A twenty-two-item questionnaire was administered to three graduate business classes at a large accredited southeastern business school. The intent was to study the graduate business student’s knowledge of the library, his attitude toward the library, and his use of the library. A dismal performance was registered on an elementary library knowledge and skills test. Fifty-three percent of those interviewed never used the library for other than class assignments, although most agreed the library played an important role in graduate business education. High usage correlated with high self-rating on library skills. A thorough review of the role of the library in graduate business education is suggested.


A major project covering the “information needs of social science
researchers, teachers in social science departments of universities, social scientists in government departments, colleges of education lecturers and school teachers, and of social workers." INFROSS was designed to provide an aerial view of the social sciences and to see how well existing information systems and services meet the empirically determined requirements which future information systems should satisfy.

A study of several programs of library services to the disadvantaged funded under Title I, LSCA. The purpose was to "illuminate the problems of library service in urban low-income areas by examining a cross-section of program approaches, target groups, and scopes of effort." Interviews and observation were used in fifteen cities to collect data on the needs and interests of community residents, library services in relation to other community services, the nature and scope of the neighborhood library program and its relation to the rest of the library system, and available measures of impact or effectiveness of the system. Oral questionnaires at the library were supplemented by the "user-at-home" portion of a sample of residents living in the neighborhood surveyed. Demographic data, purposes of users, and attitudes and interests of users and nonusers were obtained.

A survey was conducted concerning professional and amateur musicians to find out what use they make of libraries, to discover weaknesses in provision of library service to them, and to see if existing services are fully exploited. Another survey investigated the music services offered by libraries of all kinds, compared what is provided with what is required, and made recommendations for the future development of this field. The first survey consisted of four questionnaires circulated to the following groups: individual users—professional and amateur, education authorities, professional orchestras and opera companies, and amateur choirs and orchestras. The second survey used a questionnaire sent to all public library authorities, all universities and colleges of education offering music courses, all colleges of music, cathedrals with music archives, and all other libraries either known or expected to provide
Bibliography

music. Personal staff visits to a number of libraries supplemented these questionnaires.

The author visited several college, university and public libraries to study and analyze their programs of library instruction. In addition, a three-page questionnaire was distributed at the University of Colorado student union to discover the student user/nonuser's history of library use instruction, his attitudes toward libraries and librarians, a self-appraisal of his library skills and knowledge, his awareness and use of the library, and his view of faculty attitudes toward library use.

“Computer programs were written to produce a variety of outputs including listings for survey purposes of non-users/users; books most frequently used; use of the library by department or major of the user; and, the use of books by their classification code by academic level of user.”

“Computer programs were written to produce a variety of outputs including listings for survey purposes of non-users/users; books most frequently used; use of the library by department or major of the user; and, the use of books by their classification code by academic level of user.”

The final report of a major investigation, begun in 1964 by the Public Libraries and Adult Education Committee of the North West (England), examines the characteristics of library users, the image held by the public of the library, and the extent to which public libraries serve as centers for adult education and other cultural activities. The main survey consisted of brief interviews with nearly 2,000 users at four libraries in Chester and Eccles, and in-depth
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interviews with 839, of whom 745 were members. This was supplemented by home interviews of 220 members and 495 nonmembers. Extensive analysis and discussion of the data are presented in the context of other related research.

As part of a larger study to establish criteria for the evaluation of library materials for the adult new reader, a population study was conducted in six metropolitan areas. A specially constructed questionnaire was administered in personal interviews to approximately 500 adult new readers on their reading behavior and attitudes, use of communication media, and interests and needs for which reading materials are used. The project provides "basic information about the adult new reader, criteria for analysis of reading materials, and a bibliography of materials."

A survey was conducted by questionnaire of 103 faculty members at Case Western Reserve University on their use of the U.S. government document depository collection. Fewer than 50 percent used the collection, although 65 percent did report using government documents. One-fourth of the respondents were not aware that there was a separate documents department. The usual faculty approach to documents is through citations in other literature, rather than through the card catalog. The purpose of the survey was to obtain information for decisions on treatments of the documents collection in future planning.

A 1971 New Zealand library school class used the questionnaire developed for the U.K. Catalogue Use Study (see Maltby) to survey catalog use, nonuse, and instructional experience of patrons in a selected group of large and small libraries and libraries in educational institutions.

The report of a nationwide survey carried out in 1971 by the library schools of the United Kingdom on behalf of the Cataloguing and Indexing Group of the Library Association, with the principal investigation taking place early in 1971. A structured interview
questionnaire was developed in two pilot studies and administered in thirty-nine libraries of all types throughout the country. Usable reports from 3,252 library users resulted. Data on library use, catalog use and nonuse, and reasons for nonuse are presented according to type of library. Readers' comments are solicited, and several recommendations for future cataloging policy are made. (Article also found in *Journal of Librarianship* 4:188-204, July 1972).


The last of four studies for the Enoch Pratt Free Library. The first three deal with students' use of the library, space, and library service to the disadvantaged. This fourth report draws on 1961 data from interviews with a sample of Baltimore families, a user questionnaire administered at the central library and ten branches, records of telephone interviews and user questionnaires in 1965, additional user questionnaires in 1968, and a survey of community leaders in 1972. The reading habits of Baltimore adults were analyzed and the role of the library reviewed. A future adult service program is also outlined.


"In 1972/73, loans from public libraries were approximately 5 percent below the level in 1971/72. A survey of the libraries in the London Boroughs attempts to assess the possible causes of the decline. From the survey it appears that increased television transmission hours and changes in the annual additions to stock may be the two prime causes."


Among twelve types of surveys used to measure and evaluate users, services, and materials at Columbia University Libraries in 1968/69 were a user survey to identify and measure major user groups and services, and a special user survey of a sample of faculty, graduate students and research staff. This latter questionnaire solicited information on services used, purpose, and frequency of library use, and was specifically aimed at information on noninstructional use.

Naylor, Alice P. "Survey of Faculty Expectations: Student Homework."

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Final Report.” Toledo, Ohio, Toledo University, Community and Technical College, 1974. 16p. (ED 097 027)
A survey conducted to provide an analysis of faculty homework expectations on which to base a viable pattern of library service. Students at the Community and Technical College were questioned about life patterns, homework assignments and library use. Little use of library service or materials was indicated in relation to class work. Faculty surveyed expected heavy reliance on textbooks and ranked the library last as a source of information.

“A survey of the faculties of six colleges was undertaken to measure the degree to which the libraries of these institutions were communicating with the faculty concerning the availability of various reference services. The results demonstrated that the average faculty member was aware of barely half the services actually available. Variables of academic rank, length of teaching, and amount of library and reference use were some of the factors shown to affect faculty awareness of library service.”

As part of an economic analysis by the Rand Corporation of library service in the city of Beverly Hills, two surveys were conducted. Patrons were polled in the library, and a 10 percent sample of registered voters was surveyed by a mail questionnaire. The dominant factor influencing cardholding and library use was found to be the presence of a child in the household. Economic status appeared to be insignificant in determining library use in Beverly Hills, and educational level was only a minor factor.

As part of a general survey of the Ridgefield Library’s resources and services, a telephone opinion and attitude survey was conducted of a sample of residents over age twelve with the help of the League of Women Voters. Separate tabulations were kept for users and nonusers. The results reinforced the findings of other committees involved in the study.


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A questionnaire was sent to continuing and discontinued subscribers to a formerly free current awareness service to determine factors which influenced the decision to drop the service. It was found that cost alone had not been a determining factor, but that the introduction of a charge had forced a critical evaluation of the worth of the service.


Prior to a 1971 South Carolina Library Association workshop, a survey was conducted to evaluate the needs of business and industry and the library services already provided them. Members of the business community were mailed a questionnaire to determine the main activities of their companies and to find out what special libraries they had and what use they made of library materials. Future library needs of business and industry were solicited, as well as plans for libraries to meet these future needs. Several recommendations from the workshop on improving library services to business and industry are also listed.


A consultant group was hired to determine what services not already provided would be of value to local businessmen, lawyers and government officials. Face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, brief follow-up mailed questionnaires, and group interviews were used. Little interest was found in new services or information sources. Cautious advance planning, pilot studies, and involvement of the target clientele were recommended.


Preliminary findings of the Hillingdon Libraries Research Project, which was designed to measure the effectiveness of public library services in a community and to develop a methodology for so doing. To do this, an attempt was made to ascertain the extent of unexpressed need, to study the reasons why nonusers do not see the library as relevant to or capable of satisfying their needs, to look at the extent to which use or nonuse is affected by action on the part of the library and, finally, to examine how far the library succeeds in meeting the expressed needs of users. Leisure patterns and standard demographic information were obtained for correlation with
attitudes toward libraries, librarians and reading established by a sixteen-item Likert scale test. Tape recorded in-depth interviews were conducted with a ten percent subsample.


As one part of a larger program investigating the possibilities for cooperation among public libraries in the northwest counties of Ohio, random sample survey interviews were conducted in each of the towns with library service. Information was contributed by 349 persons on attitudes toward the library, opinions of programs or services now offered, library use, and basic demographic data.


An experiment to "test the feasibility of using tape recorders to collect detailed data on scientists' work patterns and information handling activities over a long period of time, and to examine the usefulness of the data so collected in shedding light on the sources of new information and new ideas, the interaction of sources, and the role of the formal documentary source."


"The purpose of this study was to investigate the use which transfer students made of the library in a four-year university, and to compare their use with that of native students." No difference was predicted within groups with similar personal and academic characteristics on the variables of numbers and percentages of borrowers vs. nonborrowers, number of books borrowed, and extent of library use. The junior class of the University of Missouri in 1968 was used as the study group. Personal data was gleaned from official computer records, borrowing records from computer circulation records, and additional library use information obtained by questionnaire from a sample of the 660 students still enrolled in 1970.

Bibliography

An attempt to compare the results of several user studies in scientific fields with the Investigation into Information Requirements of the Social Sciences (see Line et al.). Scientists and social scientists were found to use similar sources of information and retrieval methods, and to have similar information problems. The problems of such a comparative study are discussed and more uniform and compatible research methods are urged.

As background for planning future data services, interviews were conducted with chemists and nongraduate assistants to discover what they would include under the term data and what services they might expect from a data bank. In addition to this subjective information the chemists were asked to record in some detail any data search and use during the next day.

“The purpose of this study was to supply the Burnaby Public Library with information about the demand for library services by Burnaby residents.” The District Municipality of Burnaby covers about forty square miles between Vancouver and New Westminster, British Columbia. Structured interviews were conducted with 500 randomly selected residents ten years of age or older. Careful monitoring of the survey in process was maintained. Detailed analysis and presentation of the data obtained cover such areas as: knowledge of the library, effectiveness of promotional activities, reading habits, source of reading materials, interest in additional services and facilities, reasons for use/nonuse, attitudes toward the library, and problems encountered in library use.

Stafford, Robert M., and Scoles, Clyde S. A Study of the Business Community for the Business and Technology Division Columbus Public Library. Columbus, Ohio, Columbus Public Library, 1974. 62 p. (ED 098 920)
A one-page questionnaire was sent to manufacturing, service, professional, trade, and retail firms in the central Ohio area to elicit data on sources of information and opinion about the public library. The chamber of commerce membership directory provided the mailing list. Recommendations were made for better publicity for services provided and improved services and facilities.

A summary of remarkably frank and revealing responses to a survey of library attitudes among the engineering staff of the MITRE Corporation. The technical staff wanted its material immediately and for extended personal use without interference by the needs of others. The usual ignorance of library operations and services was displayed.


"Fifty administrators at the upper level of management in hospitals, public school systems, and county and local government were interviewed. The interviews dealt with the content and characteristics of particular decisions, and with the content and characteristics of the information used in connection with these decisions. The importance, frequency of occurrence, impact, and outcome of the decisions were examined together with the source, form, and content of the information used in connection with the decisions." Such information should be useful in the design or selection of information systems to serve this public.


A survey to obtain information on user background, origin and destination, method of transportation, and opinions about the convenience of the library was conducted as part of an over-all survey of library services. A questionnaire was distributed to all patrons visiting the library during one week. Rather than attempt to survey the community, implications about the nonuser population were drawn from the user data, and compared to the findings of three recent studies which did examine nonusers in other communities.


Not examined.

Ware, Glenn O. "A General Statistical Model for Estimating Future Demand Levels of Data Base Utilization within an Information Retrieval Organization," *Journal of the American Society for Information Science* 24:261-64, July-Aug. 1973. "When it is not practical to measure demand through knowledge, attitude and practice, or marketing surveys, an estimate of future demand can be determined [640]"
Bibliography

from growth pattern of present utilization. This investigation is concerned with the development of a general model for estimating the future utilization levels for current awareness search requests against bibliographic data bases within an information retrieval organization. The model developed is \( y = \alpha (1 - e^{-\beta t}) \), where \( y \) is the number of users of a data base at time \( t \), and \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are parameters to be estimated.

A detailed report on a careful study of the information needs of the urban community, how these needs are presently satisfied, and whether institutional forms could be devised to satisfy these needs better. A conceptual framework was drawn, a survey questionnaire developed, and tested and then administered to a cross-sectional random sample of adults in the Baltimore urban area. The data were analyzed in terms of information needs, information seeking strategies, and search outcomes. Libraries were found to play a very small role in the general information seeking of urban residents.

A detailed analysis of the University of Sydney computerized circulation records for all classes of users, broken down to correlate with fairly detailed personal information. Book borrowing data are presented by department and class year. An unusual feature is the analysis of the academic records of heavy borrowers, which shows a higher pass rate (on annual examinations) than the average for class groups.

"The problem was to determine if public library service had had any input into presumably important community activities designed to facilitate social change. Voluntary associations of the social-influence type were selected for study. Groups representing four change issues were included: racism, peace, women's rights, and environmental problems." Personal interviews and a self-administered questionnaire were used to obtain data for a critical incident analysis
of information seeking related to the last activity completed. The information system relied on by these change-leaders was entirely informal and interpersonal. The library played no role in supplying information for any of the activities studied.


A telephone survey on library use and opinions about public libraries was made of a random sample throughout Delaware. Information was solicited on current and past use, reasons for use, location, and ideas for library service. The relationships of library use to occupation, education, and distance from home to the library were investigated.


This study sought to compare the information gathering habits of Toronto area physicians with those of residents, interns, and medical clerks (fourth-year medical students). A questionnaire on journal reading habits, information retrieval habits, and the use of hospital libraries was distributed. Use of hospital libraries decreased as post-graduate programs progressed, while personal library use increased. A low awareness of major indexing tools was found, and the number of physicians having received formal instruction in their use, the use of medical libraries, and the setting up of personal files was small.


"The purpose of this study was to examine the role of the public library in the life of the general adult population. The public library was seen as one element in the information environment surrounding each adult." A library use index was constructed by factor analysis from frequency of attendance at the library, frequency of telephoning for information, and the intensity of use in the library. Library use was correlated with six dimensions of the adult's life: individual information processing and problem-solving styles, demographic variables, information needs and seeking, social
network, mass media use, and relationship to the library. Library users were found to be information users generally. A distinguishing typology is described for three groups of library users: frequent, moderate, and nonuser.
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Forthcoming numbers are as follows:

April, 1976, Commercial Library Supply Houses. Editor: Harold L. Roth, Director, County of Nassau Reference Library, Garden City, New York.


October 1976, Collective Bargaining in Libraries. Editor: Margaret Chaplan, Librarian, Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois.

January, 1977, International Trends in Catalogs and Cataloging. Editors: Mary Ellen Soper, Assistant Professor, and Benjamin F. Page, Associate Professor, School of Librarianship, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.