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Emerging Patterns of Community Service

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CONTENTS

Kathleen M. Heim 123 INTRODUCTION
Margaret E. Monroe 129 EMERGING PATTERNS OF COMMUNITY SERVICE
Thomas W. Shaughnessy 139 LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION IN SUPPORT OF EMERGING SERVICE PATTERNS
Leigh Estabrook 151 EMERGING TRENDS IN COMMUNITY LIBRARY SERVICES
Suzanne Boles 165 THE LEARNER’S ADVISORY SERVICE
Barbara D. Smith
Ernest R. DeProspo, Jr. 179 LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION’S RESPONSIBILITIES OUTSIDE THE LIBRARY: THE CONSORTIUM FOR PUBLIC LIBRARY INNOVATION
Helen Huguenor Lyman 193 LITERACY EDUCATION AS LIBRARY COMMUNITY SERVICE
Joan C. Durrance 219 EMERGING PATTERNS OF SERVICE FOR CITIZEN GROUPS
Rhea J. Rubin 239 USES OF BIBLIOTHERAPY IN RESPONSE TO THE 1970s
Agnes A. Roach 253 THE HEALTH SCIENCE LIBRARIAN: A MEMBER OF THE HEALTH CARE TEAM RESPONSIVE TO EMERGING TRENDS
CONTENTS — Continued

Margaret Hayes Grazier  263  THE CURRICULUM CONSULTANT
ROLE OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY
MEDIA SPECIALIST

Alan E. Guskin  281  THE ACADEMIC LIBRARY AS A
Carla J. Stoffle  TEACHING LIBRARY: A ROLE FOR
Joseph A. Boissé  THE 1980s

B.K.L. Genova  297  VIDEO AND CABLE: EMERGING FORMS
Robin D. Crickman  OF LIBRARY SERVICE

Alice E. Wilcox  329  LIBRARY COOPERATIVE
RELATIONSHIPS IN CONNECTION
WITH EMERGING SERVICE
PATTERNS
Introduction

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This issue of Library Trends presents an array of articles selected to demonstrate how patterns of library service emerge. New models of service may be viewed as consisting of three components: the activities involved, the functions performed, and the publics served. This collection covers a variety of emerging patterns. Some of the papers discuss intensified service to a cross section of special publics: adult new readers, citizens' groups, the academic community (at levels of both elementary and higher education), adult learners, and health care workers. Other papers consider emerging patterns which demonstrate response to such stimuli as new technology (video and cable, information brokerage), reevaluation of the library's mission (Consortium for Public Library Innovation), and shifting societal norms (bibliotherapy).

The first part of this issue is composed of three conceptual pieces that examine the idea of emergent services from different points of view. Margaret Monroe provides the ideational synthesis that undergirds the entire issue; Thomas Shaughnessy looks critically at administrative response to emerging patterns; and Leigh Estabrook offers an iconoclastic, sociological explanation for the dysfunction of some types of emergent services.

Monroe's formative model, which illustrates the concept of emergent services, frames the other contributions to this issue and provides a fluid set of constructs from which to identify the components of an emergent service. Monroe characterizes emerging patterns as highly innovative responses emanating from creative intellectual theory, extensions of ex-
tant services, or a honing of specific techniques that enable refinement of currently useful service. She contends that both recognition of a new pattern of service as it emerges in the single instance and sensitivity to adaptations of service are important professional responsibilities.

Shaughnessy notes that the development of new services is directly related to organizational survival since services and programs are the primary means by which nonprofit institutions deal with their environments. His observations on the integrative devices within large organizations, the means to change structure, and staff development are pragmatic comments on the many internal and external forces which impinge on the library when it is viewed as an open system responsive to new services.

Surveying community library services since the 1964 Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA), Estabrook contends that little systemic change has taken place. She identifies occupational and organizational factors that shape the direction of library services. Her stark central question, "why have community library services failed to become integrated with traditional public library services?" probes the larger social milieu from which new services emerge. Her analysis of the reasons for staff and administrative resistance to the implementation of nontraditional service technologies rests on an examination of organizational factors affecting the ways programs and services contribute to the goals and operation of professionals within libraries and of the organization itself. Her hard conclusion is that while the development of techniques to extend services to the disadvantaged may have been consistent with the philosophical goals of the library profession, they were inimical to the instrumental goals of the profession itself. Estabrook identifies those processes whereby intentions to provide total library service are subverted.

With the societal, organizational and professional context of the emerging service pattern established in the first part, the remainder of this issue is devoted to particular instances of emerging service. Suzanne Boles and Barbara Smith detail the history of the Learner's Advisory Service, an especially appropriate example of a new service in that it clearly demonstrates many of the components of Monroe's emergent service model. The service is the result of a 4-year experiment which enabled ten libraries to develop services to aid adults learning on their own. The individual experiences of the participating libraries were used to develop service aspects. The Learner's Advisory Service, as developed through the experiment, was in fact founded on a long tradition of library commitment to the educational role of the library, and illustrates how research


**Introduction**

and experimentation can refine existing service commitments into a new service.

Ernest DeProspo’s comprehensive discussion of the Consortium for Public Library Innovation (CPLI) first considers the response of library administrators to the demands of fiscal accountability, and then chides some contemporary writers who feed the lack of a theoretical framework for library administration by muddled articles reflecting the fear and uncertainty generated by this time of economic stringency. DeProspo calls for library administrators to establish outside organizational alliances as a means to overcome such reactionary impulses. His article outlines the response of selected libraries to the stimuli of the “Guidelines for Public Library Service” issued by the Public Library Association. These libraries formed CPLI (an outgrowth of the organizational structure established to implement the project for adult learners discussed by Boles and Smith) to develop useful, innovative and improved library services by means of an organization committed to experimentation, research and evaluation. This consortium is a vivid example of Monroe’s pronouncement that it is a professional responsibility to provide the environment for the emergence of new service models. The commitment of CPLI members to experimentation and innovation is a bulwark against the panic mentality produced by economic constraints. DeProspo states that “resistance to change is the norm, for innovation requires fundamental and conscious choice to alter behavioral patterns.” Thus, DeProspo joins Estabrook and Boles and Smith in underscoring the belief that in order to activate response to philosophical change, professional resistance to emergent patterns must be overcome.

The emergence of the library's role in literacy education from 1955 to 1980 is the topic of Helen Lyman’s article. Her detailed descriptions of a constellation of projects and programs developed during this past quarter-century, having grown from a definition of the public library as an agent for social change, show how the marshalling of a wide variety of resources can culminate in a new service. Literacy education as outlined by Lyman manifests the most positive aspects of professionalism. Perhaps because libraries have long been viewed by some as adjunct to the educational community, the environmental constraints detailed by Estabrook have not been so influential in this instance. Lyman meticulously describes the many bridges between the library community and the educational community for a mutual goal of literacy.

Joan Durrance provides an overview of library service which supports citizen groups, which she defines as nonprofit, citizen-initiated,
KATHLEEN HEIM

voluntary and attempting to influence decision-makers. The citizen group as described by Durrance is an outgrowth of the political and social upheaval of the 1960s. Of all the emergent services described in this issue, library service to these groups is in its most formative stages. Durrance's model, "The Role of Citizen Groups in Information Transfer," the studies she cites, and her own ongoing research provide a foundation for further analysis of this special public.

Broadest in its response to the societal stimuli which produce new library services, according to Rhea Rubin's characterization, is bibliotherapy as a library program which helps to satisfy the public interest in self-actualization. Viewing this service as an extension of the development of the institutional library, Rubin sees bibliotherapy as a response not only to self-actualization needs, but to preoccupation with psychological causation, mainstreaming and deinstitutionalization as well. Rather than keying its service to a demographically identifiable public, bibliotherapy is considered by Rubin as appealing to three broad groups which might include individuals of all types: patients and prisoners, individuals with behavioral or emotional problems, and the normal person in time of crisis.

The most specialized emergent service discussed here is that to health care workers. Agnes Roach provides a clear picture of the technological complexities and sharp judgments that must be made by health science librarians as they operate as members of health care teams. The librarian in a medical environment is the recipient of the most advanced information and retrieval systems, operates often in a crisis situation, and must respond coolly and correctly with vital information for members of the health care team. Roach documents many instances of the health science librarian's response to the changing demands of medical technology. Perhaps it is a result of the mission orientation characteristic of the medical field, yet the integration of the librarian in the health care team has emerged more quickly than any other service under consideration in this issue.

Margaret Grazier narrates the long-term integration of the school library media specialist as curriculum consultant. Intellectually and philosophically, the librarian's involvement in curriculum development is solid. Grazier gives an overview of the major concepts of curriculum theory in order to provide insights into the concerns of some media specialists with a library science orientation about the limitations of the educational technologist's viewpoint. Important for its precise account of the history of the curriculum development concept for the school
Introduction

library media specialist, Grazier's paper offers also a cogent portrayal of
the internecine struggles which prevent a service's full emergence.

Alan Guskin, Carla Stoffle and Joseph Boissé write about the aca-
demic library as a teaching library from the dual perspective of univer-
sity and library administrations. As outlined in the papers by Shaughnessy
and DeProspo, the administration's response to external stimuli is a
fundamental influence shaping the new pattern of library service. Guskin,
Stoffle and Boissé begin with the premise that the 1980s will be a period
of fiscal restraint for higher education and that libraries committed to
collecting, storing and retrieving information and materials will be forced
to accept a deteriorating situation. To respond to present challenges, the
university library must become a teaching library, actively and directly
involved in supporting the mission of higher education: teaching, re-
search and community service. The core of the teaching library is biblio-
graphic instruction and the development of a teaching library and its
implementation require a realignment of staff from the traditional,
passive mode of academic librarianship to the political and administrative
processes of university life. The totality of the academic library's response
to the external stimuli of the new mood in higher education is reflected
in the emergence of a new pattern of service not only within the library,
but within the entire institution of higher education as well.

B.K.L. Genova discusses video and cable technologies to demon-
strate how integration of new technologies into society can affect the
delivery of library services. She provides a history of video and cable use
in libraries and offers an overview of emerging services. Factors affecting
these services include the efforts of public libraries to respond to com-
munity needs, the effects of fiscal restraints, and the problems of rapidly
evolving technology. Genova's description of current video and cable
services and her projection of video and cable's potential illustrate that
new technologies themselves can generate new services — but that these
services must be implemented with a constant monitoring of the tech-
nology's integration with traditional library services.

Robin Crickman looks at the information professional as the indi-
vidual who will emerge as a link between the public and the wide spec-
trum of information services and products available today. Unlike the
traditional librarian, who often regards education in the use of resources
as a service, the information professional will render service in direct
response to user need without demonstrating how or where the informa-
tion is obtained. The emergence of the information professional is, as
Crickman documents, a response to society's valuation of information.
KATHLEEN HEIM

Alice Wilcox provides a view of library cooperation among systems which shows how library networks facilitate the exchange of materials and information and thus foster new service patterns. Without the stimuli of cooperative agencies, many programs such as cooperative cataloging and wide-scale interlibrary loan would not have developed so rapidly. The presence of the cooperative agency is a stimulus to new patterns of service at the regional and national levels.

Finally, a word needs to be said about the editorial responsibility for this issue. Margaret Monroe was invited by the Graduate School of Library Science Publications Committee to serve as guest editor of this issue on emerging services and she submitted an outline of topics and suggested authors. However, illness prevented her from continuing with the editorial responsibilities, and I was invited to coedit this issue. I have worked with the authors but have consulted with Dr. Monroe frequently. I hope that the final result is an appropriate collection which clearly demonstrates her dynamic model of service. Dr. Monroe is celebrating her twenty-fifth year as a library educator, and many of her former students have participated in an ongoing celebration of her influence on their careers. Since several of the contributors here are her former students, I hope that this issue, too, stands as testimony to her vital contributions to librarianship. Special thanks are due to the editorial staff at the Publications Office—Linda Hoffman, Holly Wagner, David Mason and Catherine Donovan.
LIKE ALL PROFESSIONS, librarianship has made itself up as it has gone along, a product of its unique functions, its clientele, the social context, the available technology and resources, and the creative imagination of its leadership. The historical growth of patterns of library services document well the introduction of new, evolutionary service concepts. Samuel Swett Green's famous paper of a hundred years ago on the desirableness of "personal intercourse between librarians and readers" is the classic monument to the evolutionary style, where the simple, camel's-nose insight opened the way to forms of librarianship that have taken over the tent.

Samuel Rothstein's record of the development of reference services (1955) and this author's similar tracing of the evolution of adult services (1963) document scores of instances of emerging patterns of service. These historical reviews provided a perspective that allowed the service functions to emerge into clear view. Rothstein identified information, guidance and instruction as the basic functions of reference service, and this author added stimulation as the fourth function of adult services. These broad functions provide the basic palette from which the library practitioner draws the colors that structure each unique pattern of community service.

Rothstein traced a basic continuity in the evolution of reference services from reference as a collection of materials available to users, to reference as the librarian's provision of authenticated information reviewed and selected to meet the user's specific need. Within the long

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evolution of this reference function, Rothstein identified the emergence of a multitude of patterns, including provision of subject collections, staffing with subject bibliographers, development of legislative reference service, and other forms of special librarianship.

Such new patterns of service might spring full-blown from a new intellectual construct, or might evolve as an elaboration of service patterns already in use. The creative leadership of Charles McCarthy and the Wisconsin Free Library Commission in 1900 led to the innovation of a completely new service: the Wisconsin Legislative Reference Service, an instant information service based on telegraph inquiries to an informal national network, and a bill-drafting service available to legislators at their explicit request. This service became the prototype for state and municipal library service to government over the years. On the other hand, the introduction of subject bibliographers to serve the already-organized subject collections of the Library of Congress and other major public and academic libraries was an innovation derived from daily experience of the need for expertise in servicing the collections, and was an elaboration on basic reference service. Within this area, the development of selective dissemination of information (SDI) built directly on the availability of computer technology to make current awareness services economical and effective. Emerging patterns of reference service, thus, are seen to range from highly innovative responses within creative intellectual constructs, to major extensions of existing services, to specific techniques that enable better performance of currently useful services.

In the area of adult services, emerging patterns of community service illustrate the same range. The highly individualized service of the reader's advisor in the 1920s was a completely innovative application of an intellectual construct from the adult education movement. The evolution of program planning assistance to community organizations, on the other hand, included a variety of services already available: reading lists, group film-preview sessions, and interpretation of film utilization. As 16mm film collections expanded in public libraries, the program planning assistance model was elaborated in this area of service, since selection of films for the general public required the help of knowledgeable librarians in choosing and utilizing the then-novel format. The organization of annual program planning institutes, involving community cosponsorship, developed in Baltimore and Detroit in the 1940s. These were highly innovative patterns composed of familiar elements.
EMERGENCE OF NEW PATTERNS OF SERVICE

The fluid nature of library services to the community must be recognized as an inevitable characteristic of the library's responsiveness to the unique need which each instance of service represents. Librarians have generated relatively stable, sometimes rigid, structures for the delivery of this flexible, adaptable commodity. A glass or pottery container will enable easier management of wine or water than a thin plastic bag, yet jars, bottles, pitchers and flasks of different sizes and designs are needed for specific uses. The geyser and spigot are each useful in quite different circumstances. Community-service librarians, sensitive to the requirements of specific occasions for service, automatically adjust the flow of guidance, information, stimulation and instruction through the media of special collections, exhibits, booklists, film showings, information and referral services, discussion programs, and so forth.

Recognition of a new pattern of service as the need for it emerges—for example, when the children's librarian sets aside time to confer with a social agency head about an identified need for a specific day-care service—is an important aspect of professional responsibility. By the ninth time the children's librarian has found the need for this kind of advocacy on behalf of children, the moment has come to ask, "If we do this, how do we best do this?"; and the emergence of a new pattern of community service is on its way. When conversations among children's librarians and articles in current journals show the emergence of this particular service to be frequent or widespread, then discussion of forms of such service begins the critical, refining process that leads to the establishment of a new pattern of service.

Because society is fluid, because needs of special publics regularly change, sensitivity to these natural adaptations of service is important. It is equally important that these emerging patterns of service receive widespread discussion and refinement, just as the eyedropper was developed as a far better system for delivery of fluid to the eye than a garden hose. Such discussion and critical review best take place in an atmosphere of careful consideration of needs, objectives, concern for alternative forms, and evaluation of results—in short, in an atmosphere both critical and appreciative.

At the same time, it is essential to review standard forms of service delivery for their adaptability to specific needs, and to review methods of administration for their tolerance of variation and their sustained sensi-
tivity to the need for adaptation. Only in such circumstances can librarians feel secure about the long-term benefits of established patterns of community service. Community analysis has become recognized as a way of resensitizing library staff to the need for responsive, flexible service patterns. Equally important is continued awareness of the small adaptations which community-sensitive librarians make in daily service responses to users.

ELEMENTS OF A SERVICE PATTERN

New patterns of community service are frequently the response to the identification of unique needs of a special public. John Cotton Dana's introduction of the Business Library as a downtown branch of the Newark (New Jersey) Free Public Library provided the full range of reference collection and services tailored (in location, hours, collection, staff expertise, publications, and reference assistance) to the special needs of business in 1906. The adaptation of library service to trade unions in the late 1940s, under the leadership of Dorothy K. Oko of the New York Public Library, followed closely the changing structure and needs of union leadership and membership. Better educated, the trade union membership in the late 1940s no longer needed the book deposit collections initiated for labor in the 1920s, but came directly to public libraries for materials and service; however, the union officials had increasing need for well-researched information documented from labor's perspective, and the union education director relied heavily on the public library's special services for resources and advice in selecting and using labor training program materials (films, books, manuals and journal articles).

Each model of service, as it emerged in the context of a special public and a special situation, was composed of a cluster of activities (whether collection building, current awareness service, information service, state-of-the-art searches or training workshops) that typically combined several of the service functions (information, guidance, instruction and stimulation). For example, the program planning institutes emerging in the 1940s from the need for guidance in modern program techniques, as well as in the selection and use of materials by community organizations, included such activities as lectures, panel discussions on important aspects of socially significant topics (war and peace, avoiding obsolescence), screenings of films and exhibits of books and journals relevant to the topics, reading lists, and oral "book talk" interpretations of these...
Emerging Patterns of Community Service

materials and suggestions for their use in organizational programs. Such activities involved all the major functions of community services: information (about the topics and sources of materials), instruction (in program presentation techniques), guidance (in selection of resources for programs and in program planning with committees), and stimulation (of attention to socially significant topics and to the idea of using library resources as the basis for organization programs).

Library-sponsored discussions of Great Books, on the other hand, emerging in the late 1940s through the influence of the University of Chicago's extension program of adult education, and from such adult education leadership as that of Ralph A. Beals of the New York Public Library, combined in the single activity of series of group book discussion sessions the multiple functions of guidance (to the rich, classic resources of the "great ideas" of Western culture), stimulation (to in-depth exploration of these ideas and their application to modern issues and human situations), and instruction (in the art of analytical, critical reading; logical thinking; and discussion for clarification of personal values).

The models of community service, then, may be profitably viewed in terms of the activities involved, the publics served, and the functions performed. A "pattern of community service" may be said to have evolved when each of these elements is closely interrelated in the service model. As the need of special clientele groups for library services gains priority within the community, the library's responsiveness may show in the acquisition and organization of new phases of the collection. This may mean the expansion of gardening resources from the flower-gardening focus of the community garden club to include vegetable gardening for those seeking wholesome food and balanced budgets. Collection expansion might mean introduction of a wholly new area, such as current adult literature needed for the follow-up phase of an adult school program. Such collection expansion, it would seem, misses the mark of a "pattern of community service" unless it is closely integrated with the personal services of staff, and unless identifiable activities put the collection to use to fulfill specific functions for an identified clientele. The discussion of service to adult new literates by Helen Lyman (1976) illustrates well the multidimensional texture of a "pattern of community service" in which the needs of the special public are clearly identified, the collection and activities are tailored to those particular needs, and a diversity of library functions are related to this particular area of service.
STIMULI TO GROWTH OF NEW PATTERNS OF COMMUNITY SERVICE

New clientele, new technology, broad social change, and the findings of research all serve to stimulate the development of new patterns of community service.

The new clientele in the inner city of the 1960s—a rural population fresh to urban living, possessing limited education, low income and often minority, ethnic backgrounds—forced the public libraries not only to modify their collections, but to develop new kinds of staff (paraprofessionals sharing the ethnic minority perceptions of the new clientele), new activities directly relevant to the lifestyle and needs of the new clientele (street conferences, fiestas, ethnic music, local survival and crisis information services, and literacy programs), new functions that met the clientele “where they were” (building reading-readiness), and new administrative styles (sharing policy-making with representatives of the local community). Thus, a multidimensional change created a successful pattern of service to the inner city that, in its skeletal structure, has equal validity for service to any special public.

New technology is a major force for development of new patterns of community service. The availability of computer-controlled data bases is converting library information services into a pattern of brokerage, with the library offering a vast array of rental information services. The new patterns of community service related to satellite communication systems and closed-circuit television still await development.

Broad social change was a significant element in the two cases just cited—urban outreach and data base information service. However, a third illustration seems appropriate: the Learner’s Advisory Service. The great shifts in the role of women, in the lifespan of the average citizen, in work mobility, and in the pace of information production and technological change, all have created an environment for the “learning society.” In its close links to independent study programs, to the College Entrance Examination Board, and to focused educational counseling as a library function, the Learner’s Advisory Service offers a new pattern of community service responsive to basic changes in lifestyle for midlife career women; leisured, retired adults; and people shifting careers in their middle years; and to the frantic need of most members of society to “keep up.” Rising educational levels in society, the rapid pace of social change, and the dominance of information-oriented occupations are social forces that add support to this new pattern of service.
Emerging Patterns of Community Service

The role of research in stimulating the growth of new patterns of community service has only just begun. Within the past ten years research in information-seeking behavior has begun to affect patterns of service in public libraries in the same way it affected special library services twenty-five years ago. The work of Childers, Dervin and Zweizig set patterns of inquiry followed by Duran and a number of other investigators, whose findings confirm several insights about users' approaches to information: that information users are active participants in many aspects of society (voters, organization members, etc.); that information seekers typically turn first to people and then to printed resources for the information they need; and that library resources are the point of first resort for very few inquirers and are the last resort (or no resort at all) for many. There are further refinements of these findings that point with equal strength to the need to develop the credibility of community-service librarians as sources of information, and to the need for new patterns of service that involve librarians in the major social projects of the community so that information delivery may be timely, relevant to the purpose, and acceptable in format. Revolutionary as these changes are, they represent the barest beginnings of the contributions of research to the redesigning of patterns of community service.

The findings of research concerning reading, education, the social change process, the utilization of knowledge, communication theory, and community development await the attention of designers of community services. Equally important, librarians' cooperation in the various areas of research, their readiness to ask questions of particular relevance to the assumptions, values and problems of library community service, is needed. The door has just begun to open on a major source of power for the redesign of services, in which the librarian need not be just reactive to social forces and new clientele, to public demand or to the opportunity of new technology, but will be in the position to be pro-active, generating new forms and new technologies, and educating the public demand by the strength of insights gained from research.

CHOICES TO BE MADE

Approaching the design of the community services program from this position — open to needs and possibilities and reflective of new insights and organizing principles — puts the community-service librarian in the position of zero-based planning. Fundamental restructuring is essential from time to time, and any planned restructuring ought (within a
5-year period, perhaps) to solve both the problems that forced the change and the problems of staff and community adjustment to new patterns of community service. Continuity in service patterns supports the public’s expectations of library service and permits staff energies to flow freely into well-developed channels of service. A balance, then, between innovation and continuity must be maintained for effective service.

Weighing the factors that promote innovation in patterns of community service is essential. The size, urgency or social significance of the need for new service models by specific groups may be the prime considerations in a case for such innovation. A second cluster of factors to be weighed in setting priorities for change is the relevance of meeting the needs (1) to the library’s goals and objectives, and (2) to goals of other community agencies, organizations or population groups dealing with the same area of need. Collaborative planning can be highly efficient and effective in the institution of new service models. A third cluster to be considered is that of available resources (funds, staff talents, facilities and materials); although these are essential factors, often, if the first two clusters are strongly positive for change, resources can be recruited at least for the period of innovation. On the other hand, if the innovation has high importance, the deployment of resources to the new model and away from a displaced model becomes a meaningful alternative to new resources.

The role of resources in the innovation of service models is an interesting one. When resources are available (in categorical grants from federal or state programs, or from foundations or publicly funded institutes), the goals of those programs are more easily espoused and the program models fit more readily into the library’s program of services. The leadership of government has been exercised in this style so extensively in the past fifty years that innovation from other channels, such as staff evaluation of services or community planning, has been in danger of dropping from sight. On the other hand, the lack of resources for any “additional” effort has consistently negated moves toward even essential innovation. The philosophy of zero-based budgeting, however, has broken through the wall of custom to release librarians from bondage to “the way it has always been done.”

Innovation, traditionally, has been a process of accretion of new service models to established service patterns. Even the thorough restructuring of inner-city service in the 1960s in most public libraries paralleled the traditional styles of service, with gradual displacement of the less effective traditional services as the successful new models devel-
Emerging Patterns of Community Service

Logical, planned restructuring is only beginning to emerge as a way of introducing new patterns of community service. This may, however, be the breath of eternal life to an aging library system.

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MARGARET MONROE

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Library Administration in Support of Emerging Service Patterns

THOMAS W. SHAUGHNESSY

The title of this article raises at least one interesting question, that is, how any pattern of service could emerge without administrative support. Yet there is a fair amount of evidence in the literature of specific cases where innovative services were introduced and even flourished (for a time), thanks to the dynamism of a committed, energetic librarian and the benign indifference of the library administration. On the other hand, there are undoubtedly some instances where new services were short-lived despite an enthusiastic library administration.

In order to appreciate some of the factors underlying administrative responsiveness (or lack thereof) to emerging services, it is necessary to understand that services and programs are the primary mechanisms by which nonprofit institutions deal with their environments. In other words, services are an essential means by which libraries, for example, cope with or adapt to a rapidly changing, turbulent environment. Indeed, it might be argued that the development of new services keyed to perceived environmental needs is directly related to organizational survival. The same conclusion would apply to profit-making organizations. However, in these instances, the development and marketing of new products are frequently predictive of organizational growth.

The interrelationship of service utility and organizational environment is much more complicated than it would at first appear. A large part of the complexity lies in the fact that organizations exist in multiple

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environments — social, political, economic, cultural and technological — which would be difficult to define and analyze even if they were static (which they aren’t). In fact, there are a number of studies which suggest that organizational environments are becoming increasingly complex, diverse and unpredictable.² One writer has suggested that the environment surrounding higher education is highly “turbulent, tumultuous, chaotic; a blooming, buzzing confusion that often seems unmanageable.”8 Yet all living things, even organizations, must adapt to their environments, even when these environments are overwhelmingly imprecise⁴ and difficult to define.

At any given point in time there are a number of new services which might be offered. The task of the administrator is to support those which best “fit” the environment at that time. Performance of this task is perhaps the key test of successful administration because it encompasses all the traditional functions of the administrator, from POSDCORB on. Yet the person responsible for performing is extremely vulnerable, because of the task’s innate complexity and because it is so palpably difficult to measure the effectiveness of a given service. Finally, there is a philosophical difficulty implied, because the task asks the administrator to accept the fact that institutional effectiveness depends far less on allegiance to traditional goals of library service than on pragmatic programs which are contingent upon environmental realities. As Lowell Martin stated in the preface to his survey of the Chicago Public Library: “The urban condition calls for something more than ‘business as usual’.... A program of service is presented that calls for the... Library to adjust to the people of the city in all their diversity.... to the multifarious interests of a society.”⁹

As libraries have attempted to respond to their changing environments, they have usually diversified and differentiated their structures and functions.⁶ Differentiation in this context includes changes in staff attitudes and behavior, not just the simple fact of organizational segmentation and specialized knowledge. The decentralization of decision-making loci (in response to demands for participation by both staff and users), the trend toward increased staff specialization and departmentalization, and the significant impact of new technologies on organizational work systems are but a few examples of the centrifugal forces affecting library organizations.

Several studies have found that the differentiation of organizational units, when based upon task analysis and environmental conditions, has contributed to improved performance.⁷ There is a very real risk, however,
Administrative Support of Emerging Services

that an overemphasis on specialization (differentiation) can lead to organizational conflict and systemwide failure to achieve organizational goals. The problem of coordinating specialized subunits is amplified when such groups grow in importance, and when their members experience internal conflict between identification with the group and with the larger organization. In other words, specialized knowledge or function typically calls for greater autonomy and discretion. The administrators' task in this instance is to maintain a balance between the organization's need for differentiation (to cope with its environment) and its need for integration (to achieve its purpose or goals).

In many libraries, one of the most overworked mechanisms for preventing organizational fragmentation is the committee. Committees are frequently composed of a cross section of the diverse interests present in most libraries. To the extent that this mechanism facilitates interdepartmental communication and fosters joint effort to achieve goals, it contributes to organizational integration and unity. This function of the committee is significant, because the coordination of effort is an inseparable corollary to the division of labor. Coordination means here the continual adjustment of the various parts of the organization to each other so that all operations, procedures and activities make maximum contribution to the entire organization. According to Metcalf, "Coordination rather than supervision and direct management is...the great task of the librarian."  

Early management theorists recognized the importance of coordination and emphasized rules, procedures and the organizational hierarchy as means of achieving it. This emphasis was prompted in part by the predictable nature of the tasks which early organizations sought to accomplish, and the relative stability of the environment or situation. This approach has been described as "coordination by plan," whereby intraorganizational linkages are established through standardization, schedules, procedures and policies. In other words, organizational integration is attained through preestablished programs which specify what activities are to be performed and when.

In more transitive situations, on the other hand, where the environment is turbulent rather than placid and where much decision-making is nonroutine, coordination through feedback may be more appropriate. To the extent that contingencies arise, coordination requires the communication of information (feedback) concerning deviation from anticipated conditions, and the mutual adjustment of affected units or departments.
In practice, most organizations use a mixture of the two types of coordination; both approaches appear to be necessary for the articulation of organizational units into a coherent whole. However, as organizations become more diversified, specialized and differentiated, they will have to rely less on a system of programmed or planned interactions to achieve the necessary linkages among units, and more on a system of reciprocal information flow. Coordination is necessary, then, not only to provide a 2-way flow of technical information, but also to develop mutual trust and confidence between the members of units which are required to collaborate.

In addition to using the interdepartmental committee as an integrative device, library systems have attempted to increase the volume of feedback and horizontal communication through the appointment of coordinators. Many libraries have such positions—for example, coordinator of library instruction, of special collections, of branch libraries, of minority services, of public services, of technical services, etc.—and the individuals holding these positions function as both line and staff officers in many cases. The growth of these types of positions is obviously a function of organizational size, but it is also related to the greater autonomy and specialization of operating units and departments, and is directly related to rapidly changing technologies and emerging services. Dyson, in a survey of twenty-four undergraduate libraries, found that almost half of the library instruction programs are administered by coordinators, and ten of eleven coordinators have been assigned their responsibilities within the past five years.

Another example of integrative effort is the employment of coordinators in library systems and networks composed of independent libraries. Individuals holding these positions frequently have only a staff relationship to network members, yet often are responsible for the difficult task of achieving a measure of standardization and cooperation among the participating libraries.

The complexity of the task of achieving organizational integration on one hand, and the coordinator's frequent lack of commensurate authority and role definition on the other, have resulted in feelings of frustration, ineffectiveness and positional anxiety. The difficulty is compounded by the fact that in the past the term “coordinator” has too often conjured up images of a passive, responsive individual who transmitted information back and forth between more powerful managers. However, coordinators increasingly will need to have influence in decision-making; they will need to be leaders who have the interpersonal skills to achieve
resolution of difficult conflicts and become the integrators within the organization. Indeed, it appears that in some situations, the success or failure of a new service very heavily rests on the responsible coordinator.

The effective library administrator needs to be cognizant of the environmental forces which affect all "open systems," one of which is the library. But as libraries segment themselves in an attempt to be more responsive to change, attention must also be given to the design of coordinative devices to maintain organizational integrity. According to Lawrence and Lorsch, "the viable organizations [of the future] will be the ones that master the science and art of organization design to achieve both high differentiation and high integration."16

CHANGES IN STRUCTURE

The process of adaptation described earlier will inevitably produce change in organizational structures. However, it is interesting to note that a recent survey of state library agencies covering the period 1973-78 revealed few such changes.17 Correspondence received from large public libraries reveals that modest changes have occurred recently in their organizational structure and that additional changes are anticipated.18 In many cases, these changes are a direct result of differentiation in response to changing external environments. Attempts by libraries to provide services to minority groups are typical examples.

In an increasing number of instances, organizational change seems to be more a result of new technologies than anything else. Technology encompasses far more than just hardware or machines. It is defined in this paper as the combination of skills, equipment, facilities, tools and relevant specialized knowledge needed to bring about transformations in materials, information and people.19 Under this broad definition, the skills, tools and conceptual knowledge required to provide information and referral services, bibliographic instruction, or computerized data base searching—to name just a few innovations—would constitute new technologies. In other words, the new or emerging services offered by libraries more often than not are based on technological developments.

Technology is a difficult variable to analyze, for while it constitutes part of an organization's environment, it is simultaneously being assimilated as part of its functions and processes. Perhaps for this reason a number of studies have indicated that technology leads to changes in structure.20 However, there is an obvious time lag in this process, and the structures of libraries (at least as they are described in organization
charts) are usually not synchronized with technological developments. An administrator of a large public library system remarked that technological developments such as the closing of the card catalog will require a great deal of staff development, reassignment and continuing education, but so far none of this has happened. The recommendations of Booz, Allen and Hamilton concerning the organization of Columbia University Libraries are possibly indicative of the degree to which academic libraries are structurally out of step with their environments and technologies. Parenthetically, the rapid pace of organizational change lends some validity to the idea that library organization charts should be written on the backs of old envelopes and frequently discarded.

Perhaps the most significant consequence of the library's traditional structure—the bifurcated, pyramidal design of technical services and public services, and the usual departments within each of these divisions—is that the library user may be at a real disadvantage because the "products" of the technical services division are supposed to be retrieved and interpreted by staff who have had little if anything to do with the procedures which produced them.

There is, of course, no one best structure or design. However, there is a growing body of evidence which suggests that a structure which is open, adaptive and organic would offer more advantages than one which is closed, stable and mechanistic. Indeed, the more sophisticated the technology variable, the greater is the need for flexible, responsive structures. In the closed-structure situation, more autonomy is needed by lower-level personnel, more interactions among various levels and co-ordinative mechanisms are required, and greater flexibility is called for.

Generally speaking, electronic technology tends to centralize decision-making and fosters standardization. Computer-based management information systems are frequently centralized, and the present costs of these systems and peripheral equipment do not often permit duplication. However, the utilization of skilled analysts and computer scientists suggests at least some consultation on the part of top management, and as the role of these specialists expands, decision-making processes will be decentralized. One respondent from a large public library indicated that in certain high-technology areas, a management team approach is being used.

The task of the administrator in this area is particularly difficult. There has been little conclusive research in librarianship on the relationship between organizational structure and technology, or between structure and environment. Textbooks on library administration typically...
describe traditional patterns or old models. Consequently, questions concerning structural change are not easily answered. Occasionally, decisions on where to locate a new service seem to be based on the personalities and interests of middle managers rather than on organizational analysis. Similarly, it is not unheard of for a library's organizational structure to be significantly reconfigured simply to isolate an ineffective middle manager.

In the academic library, the problem of restructuring the organization is further complicated by the collegiate model of the teaching faculty. In the public library, civil service regulations may inhibit organizational redesign. However, despite the complexity of the matter, all organizations must change, and sooner or later the changes will be reflected in their structures.

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT

The emergence of new services holds extraordinary significance for all aspects of personnel management—recruitment, staff development and training, utilization and job design, and performance evaluation. In regard to recruitment, school, public and academic libraries located in urban centers frequently require staff with facility in foreign languages (such as Spanish). All types of libraries often require specialized technical knowledge on the part of employees, from systems analysis or computer science to instructional technology, graduate degrees in certain subject areas, or certain types of experiential background. These requirements are typically rooted in library programs, actual as well as anticipated.

Education and knowledge will probably continue to be the dominant criteria in the job candidate selection process because of their importance to a society dependent on intellectual achievement. The higher academic requirements for many university library positions are but one indication of this trend. The key question for library administrators in this regard is whether the library is merely taking advantage of a labor supply with higher than average educational backgrounds or just keeping up with comparable libraries (e.g., if other libraries require a second master's degree, why shouldn't we?), or whether library jobs have evolved which really do require higher levels of education.

To the extent that new technologies have been introduced into most library organizations, library jobs have changed. One indication of the extent of this change is the fairly widespread interest in formal and informal continuing education programs. Another aspect is the adminis-
THOMAS SHAUGHNESSY

trator's reliance on the technical knowledge of support staff. As Dowlin said in a recent article, "They (administrators) can rely no longer on one set of skills to last a career." As noted earlier, the technical expertise of these staff frequently elicits a greater delegation of responsibility and authority, and possibly a significant voice in library decision-making.

Another impact of technology on organizations is the absorption of routine tasks. For over two decades, libraries have capitalized on various types of hardware and innovations in systems design to improve their housekeeping functions. One writer suggests that public libraries may not have made much progress beyond this point, as there is little evidence that technology has improved their public services. To the extent that new technology has the capacity in many instances to absorb routine, monotonous work, it can contribute to the design of more meaningful jobs. For example, a study by Peter Spyers-Duran found that automated cataloging systems resulted in an increased level of responsibility for clerical and paraprofessional staff, with a higher percentage of books being processed by nonprofessional staff. System Development Corporation's study of computer technology in libraries found that on-line services are having a profound impact on library/information reference service, not only in terms of speed and comprehensiveness of services, but also in the improved self-image and morale of the information professionals involved.

Although library jobs have undergone modification in response to environmental and technological changes, the changing values and expectations of staff have also contributed to the redesign of jobs. Increasingly, jobs are seen not as mere economic activities or adjuncts to the individual's "real" life, but as central to one's psychological and social well-being. This concern with the quality of working life led to the appointment of a government task force to study and report on the matter.

From an administrative point of view, the easiest course of action would be to let the incumbent employee define the job and set its parameters. This approach might well be justified if there were any conclusive evidence that employee job satisfaction results in improved performance and productivity. It also has a certain appeal in that it is worker-centered and emphasizes the human relations school of management — and the employee's need for self-actualization.

Unfortunately for the library manager, the most difficult course of action is probably the correct one. Library jobs should be redesigned to support those processes and services which best relate to the organization's...
Administrative Support of Emerging Services

environment, to capitalize on existing technology, and at the same time, to attend to the psychosocial needs of employees. The redesign process quite naturally begins with articulation of library goals; a clear statement of goals will frequently lead to a better understanding of which programs or services are likely to achieve them. While jobs are the components which support an organization's programs, specific tasks are the units which make up individual jobs. However, the process is a very difficult one and demands considerable concentration and effort. Furthermore, the administrator cannot help being anxious over the possibility that the library profession truly lacks people "who comprehend the hardware, understand the applications, ... have the requisite design ability to bring the total package together." 

Difficult as these burdens are, the trends toward increased accountability and productivity require that library operations and procedures be analyzed, and that staff be deployed and utilized to its full potential. As one administrator of a large public library remarked to this writer, "New forms have to be developed, new criteria for performance ... and goal-setting by rank and file staff is a new concept but is gaining in acceptance and proficiency all the time." There are two issues involved here: one is the proper allocation of budget monies, the other the proper utilization of personnel resources. With regard to the first, Haas has stated that library administrators have often failed to support service programs at appropriate levels because they do not fully comprehend the entire range of service obligations that libraries really have. "As a result, available dollars have gone where they are most easily (though not always most effectively) spent, that is, to technical service activities." With regard to personnel resources, Drucker says that in libraries, as in many other service organizations, the best of one's human resources are misallocated. They are frequently invested in the defense of yesterday's programs rather than in the design of new services in response to changing needs. 

For many librarians, the entire question of emerging services may be rather academic. In this era of taxpayer revolt and the resulting fiscal crises for a number of libraries, retrenchment rather than expansion of services seems to be the catchword. But as Lillian Bradshaw wisely pointed out, the question of administrative support of emerging services is just as important in times of financial cutbacks as in times of financial well-being. According to Bradshaw: "Administrators have the responsibility to continually evaluate the service which they are rendering, being honest about their successes or failures and being ready to propose alternatives.
Anything less would be failing to respond to the rapidly changing patterns of twentieth century society."

References

7. See Lawrence, Paul R., and Lorsch, Jay W. Organization and Environment: Managing Differentiation and Integration. Boston, Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1967, p. 67.
15. Lawrence and Lorsch, Organization and Environment, op. cit., p. 244.
16. Ibid., p. 238.
18. These five libraries were the Dallas Public Library, Detroit Public Library, District of Columbia Public Library, Los Angeles Public Library and Minneapolis Public Library.
Administrative Support of Emerging Services


27. Ibid.


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Emerging Trends in Community Library Services

LEIGH ESTABROOK

It is not easy to be a professional, to lay claim to professional authority and esteem and side with ordinary folks, especially poor folks. It is not easy to be a bureaucrat, intent on rising within the bureaucracy, and side with the clients and victims of that bureaucracy.

If one reviews the developments of community library services since the passage of the Library Services and Construction Act in 1964, one can only conclude that there has been little systemic change. A variety of programs labeled "outreach" or "information and referral" have been introduced in public libraries to create an external link with individuals or organizations in the communities they serve. With few exceptions, support for these services has not been incorporated into regular budgets, nor has it lasted for more than a few years in any one library. Why have community library services failed to become integrated with traditional public library services? How can such services be expected to develop in the future?

Any examination of these issues exposes a notable lack of (1) sufficient reporting, (2) program evaluation, and (3) established criteria for success. First, although the library press regularly notes new programs, there has been no systematic evaluative survey of community library programs. Becker conducted in 1974 one of the most carefully designed studies to date, but even it was incomplete and there was no follow-up. Most recently, Seymour and Layne conducted an extensive review of programs and services in public libraries, but the published results are essentially a public relations piece; they do not document failure nor

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provide more than brief descriptions of success. In terms of program evaluation, one finds that even the most liberally funded and ambitious project— the Neighborhood Information Centers in Cleveland, Detroit, Atlanta, Houston and Queens— was not critically evaluated by its outside monitors. One team admitted that their report was in large part "impressionistic"; another, "descriptive." The third problem is that the criteria for success for community library services have not been specified. Thus, one can continue to debate the success of a program like TIP, the information and referral service at the Detroit Public Library which has been in operation with library funds for a number of years.

Given these problems, if one wishes to answer the questions raised above regarding trends in community library services, it is necessary to do more than review the available evidence in this area. In addition to summarizing patterns of service, it is necessary to identify those occupational and organizational factors that shape the direction of library services and to examine trends in the other human services with which libraries interact. In this way it may be possible to understand trends in library services designed for communities, as well as to suggest ways in which they may be expected to develop in the future.

PATTERNS OF COMMUNITY LIBRARY SERVICE

The library profession's philosophical commitment to provide library service to all citizens has existed for over a century. Branch libraries, bookmobiles and special collections for immigrant populations are evidence of this long-standing commitment. The Public Library Inquiry conducted in 1949 presented evidence that only a minority of the population actually used public libraries and that users tended to be from a relatively advantaged, educationally elite group. In 1963, a study entitled Access to Public Libraries examined more closely the factors that limited free and equal access to public libraries. Specific attention was given to usage restrictions on students, blacks and non-English speakers. Findings of this study, coupled with increased political pressure by groups that had experienced discrimination (not only in libraries but from a variety of social institutions), clearly influenced the development of community library services beginning in the mid-1960s. As Weibel so clearly pointed out in her review of library outreach services, the change that occurred at this time was not one of philosophy but rather one of technique. The means for extending services to the community changed.

According to Weibel, four styles of community library services
emerged, the support for which came primarily from federal "war on poverty" funds. The first, which might be termed "relevant traditional," included the development of special collections either in the language of or related to the history and traditions of special groups within the community. In large part, this type of service closely paralleled services to ethnic groups which had been developed a number of years earlier in large urban communities. The second type related to library involvement in the life of the community. These services included the active participation of the library staff in community events, programming in the community directed toward specific target groups (e.g., Puerto Rican festivals), and the involvement of citizen groups in library decision-making. The third form of service was the establishment of storefront communication centers. These centers were designed to serve smaller areas than branch libraries, to avoid what was seen as the stigma of the label "library," and to provide services uniquely tailored to the needs of a target area. The fourth style included services designed to coordinate the library with other human service agencies to facilitate communication and cooperation between these agencies, as well as to satisfy the information needs perceived to be most important to those groups not responsive to traditional library services.

Numerous examples exist of the application of these four techniques to community library services, such as the North Manhattan Project of New York Public Library, outreach programs in Brooklyn and Los Angeles public libraries, the New Haven Library Neighborhood Center, and the CAP program at Enoch Pratt Free Library. Throughout the country, public libraries have applied one or more of these techniques to a variety of services to reach previously unserved clients. Most programs were begun in optimism and hope — and most were eviscerated within a few years.

A review of new services reported in Library Journal for the period 1965-78 reveals the pattern of change. From 1965 through the early 1970s, many programs were initiated under the headings "service to the disadvantaged," "outreach" or "community programs." Examples of each of the four techniques of service could be found. In 1972, however, there was a marked shift. Programs of community participation and storefront communication centers disappeared and were replaced by an emphasis on information and referral services. Specialized services to target groups, such as the aged, the handicapped, the business community, and citizen groups, replaced the earlier, more general programs. At present there are
LEIGH ESTABROOK

few indications that experiments with new service technologies have had any lasting impact on traditional patterns of library service.\textsuperscript{12} In light of current statements by the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science and the American Library Association regarding the continued philosophical commitment to total community library service,\textsuperscript{13} it is important to examine the apparent rationale for the abandonment of more innovative technologies. Three reasons emerge from the scattered literature analyzing the failure of recent attempts to extend community services. Foremost is the assumption that curtailment of these services is a function of financial hardship. Childers argues that "economic exigencies may cause the profession to maintain traditional limitations on the form (print documents) and whereabouts (very local) of the resources made available to the client and the process (professional person consulting local printed documents) that leads to reference and information service."\textsuperscript{14} A second reason, somewhat less directly articulated, is that the intended users of community information services have been unresponsive to library offerings. In another analysis, Childers states: "Disadvantaged groups...are often locked into their own subculture....In effect they live in an information ghetto. Their information universe is a closed system, harboring an inordinate amount of unawareness and misinformation (myth, rumor, folk lore)."\textsuperscript{15} Finally, one also finds instances of staff resistance to the institution of new types of services, and lack of administrative support for nontraditional community services.

Each of these explanations for failure contains a measure of truth, and yet none seems adequate to answer the question of why community library services appear to be returning to the mold of the last century. Some consideration has been given to the effect of various public policies on resource allocation and priorities of service in libraries.\textsuperscript{16} Generally undeveloped, however, have been the investigations into the internal library dynamics that affect the acceptance or rejection of certain technologies in community library services. Yes, there has been staff and administrative resistance to the implementation of nontraditional service technologies, but the question of why this occurs has not been fully addressed. To answer this it is necessary to do other than blame individual malfeasance. It is necessary to investigate the occupational and organizational factors that affect the ways in which various programs or services are seen to contribute to the goals and operation of both the professionals within libraries and the organization itself.
Trends in Community Library Services

SERVICES

The decision to initiate a new form of service within a library cannot be understood in simple stimulus/response terms. One cannot argue that librarians need only recognize that a group of individuals has an information need in order to develop services to satisfy it. A variety of forces determine not only whether a library will want to or be able to develop a specific service, but also whether the information needs as expressed by a client group are even deemed legitimate. Two dimensions of this phenomenon will be examined: (1) the personal and professional goals of librarians as members of an occupational group, and (2) the dynamics of organizational and interorganizational behavior.

Professionalism

As members of a professional group, librarians are affected by the goals and values of that group. The formal goals of the profession, as stated in the Code of Ethics for librarians, commit its members to conduct which is nondiscriminatory and consistent with the goals of total community library service. The behavior of professionals is directed, however, by more than the philosophical goals of its group. The process of professionalization also influences members' conduct because the dynamics of occupational development involve striving to achieve autonomy, assertion of professional expertise, and maintenance of status vis-à-vis other occupational groups. The results of this process are often inimical to the formal, professional goals of total community library service. This fact can be understood more clearly if one examines the technologies for community library service in light of the effect on library professionals.

The need to establish autonomy is one of the driving forces of professional groups,17 and the extent to which an occupational group has autonomy is usually considered the major determinant of how professional that group is. Prescinding from the question of whether librarianship can ever achieve the goal of independently defining its role in society and how it should be performed, it must be recognized that the techniques for delivering community library services developed in the 1960s were antithetical to professional autonomy. The involvement of community members on library advisory boards establishes a situation in which the desires of the community are set against the professional judgment of librarians. While the two groups may not always be in conflict, community advisory boards by their very existence diminish professional autonomy;
it is not surprising that one finds such a low level of professional commitment to such boards.\textsuperscript{18}

The autonomy of professional librarians is similarly threatened when nonprofessional community members are hired as community service workers or when social workers are hired in information and referral centers.\textsuperscript{19} Decision-making is extended to members outside the established professional group. Again, this is not a situation in which conflict must necessarily persist; but if one realizes that community and social workers have normative reference points of their own, one can recognize the inherent problems in trying to achieve the goals of total community library service. Librarians in these situations can find themselves pushed from a number of directions. They may feel the loss of autonomy when giving to nonprofessionals what they see to be professional tasks. They may similarly be threatened when social workers challenge the librarian’s authority to become involved in information and referral—a task social workers may believe is their domain.\textsuperscript{20}

Examples of reactions to the use of nonlibrarians to perform community library services can be extended to illuminate the problems attendant with professionals desiring to assert their expertise. The hiring of nonlibrarians to provide community library services is an admission that librarians lack the expertise to perform these services themselves. There were formal attempts to prepare librarians in the special skills necessary to perform community work. The Community Information Specialist Program at the University of Toledo and the COMLIP Program at Columbia University School of Library Service are two examples of structured attempts to train librarians to perform competently in the community.\textsuperscript{21} The facts that the Toledo program was never able to achieve ALA accreditation and was recently dissolved, and that there was no support for the Columbia experiment after federal money ran out, are evidence that the profession never accepted this type of program as legitimate. Thus, if librarians are uncomfortable with the idea of nonlibrarians becoming involved with community library services, but are uncertain about whether the technologies involved in performing such services are appropriate to the profession, it is understandable that services employing these technologies may be discarded.

There is another aspect of community library services in the 1960s and 1970s that challenged the expertise of library professionals: the services were designed to reach clients who were not traditional library users. In urban areas, these individuals were often poor and uneducated, with multiple problems resulting from the social, economic and political cir-
circumstances of their lives. Librarians involved in service to emerging community groups were brought into contact with individuals who were unfamiliar with library use, who did not know what questions to ask, and whose information needs could not be handled easily. In circumstances like these, professional expertise is continually challenged.

The librarian can restructure his or her work in several ways in order to assert professional competence. Responsibility for the problems can be transferred from the professional to the client with the argument that it is not the professional who is inexpert, but rather the client who does not know how to use the services. The professional can also claim that the client has turned to the wrong place for information and can refer him or her to other agencies outside the library.22

The changing clientele brought into libraries through different technologies of community service has also created problems with regard to professional concern for status. There is a large body of literature indicating that the status of a professional group is very much bound to the status of that group’s clients.23 Thus, it may be argued that while the development of techniques to extend service to the “disadvantaged” was consistent with the philosophical goals of the library profession, it was inimical to the instrumental goals of the professional group.

It is important to note that the effects of professionalization on the direction of community library services should not be regarded as the result of individual malevolence. It is not because librarians dislike lower-class persons or hate being out in the community (although in some individual cases this may be true) that the extension of community library services has failed. Instead, one must understand these events in terms of the social and economic forces that shape the behavior of all occupational groups. Society rewards such groups with higher status and greater autonomy based on the way each group directs resources toward the areas in which it is involved. As members of a profession, librarians become caught up in a movement to establish a place within society where what they do will be recognized as valuable, and where they will be given the authority to carry out their duties effectively.

Organizations

The arguments regarding the effects of organizational factors on developments in community library services are similar to those made about the effects of professionalization on such services. They are not, however, the same. The organizational processes that affect the direction of community library services include the maintenance and development
of interorganizational relationships, the competition for resources to support the institution, the assertion of authority and control within the organization, and the increased importance of the evaluation of services provided by the organization.

The interrelationship of the library and other human service organizations is important to the development of community library services in a number of ways. With the technologies of service developed in the 1960s, one of the major issues to arise was that of domain. In many communities the functions of information centers were seen to be the province of community-organizing groups or "specialists" (e.g., draft counselors). Information and referral has very clearly been within the domain of the United Way. It is instructive to note that one of the most successful information and referral centers in a library— that of Memphis-Shelby County, Tennessee—obtained its major funding at a time when the United Way in that community was in some difficulty. Moreover, libraries appear to have difficulty conceptualizing the types of information desired by the human service community and in establishing strong linkages with these organizations.

Competition for resources to support libraries also has a major impact on the types of services offered, particularly when resources are scarce. Traditional library users, because of their power and status in society, can be much more influential in garnering support for library services than clients to whom community services are directed. As such, even if a library were willing to curtail certain of its cultural activities or the development of a respected research collection in order to maintain community information services or storefront libraries, it could not afford to do so. Except in extreme circumstances in which broadly based popular support for community library services exists, the library is forced to place first priority on its services valued by those with the greatest influence within its community.

The problem faced by library administrators of establishing authority and control within their organizations is related to the issue of professional autonomy and expertise raised earlier. While for the professional the question is one of asserting his or her expertise in a particular area of service, for the administrator the problem is to assert his or her official authority over those subordinate in the hierarchy. The employment of nonprofessionals creates a problem of control in that these individuals do not have the same stake in the success of the institution as do members of the library profession. Moreover, even the librarians involved in
community services may present problems to the administrator in that those who voluntarily choose to work with lower-class clients in nontraditional services may be seen as not fully imbued with the professional norms. The fact that many of these librarians are young and that many see community library service as a means to help achieve social change also is a challenge to administrative control of the organization.

Finally, the increased importance of evaluation of library services creates problems in the acceptance of new technologies. As noted above, there are barriers to the success of these new community services irrespective of how they were evaluated. The added fact that most programs were funded by relatively short-term grants meant that there was little time to prove the utility of a program. Perhaps the central problem of evaluation is that success within any of the human services has not really been defined. At a time when librarians seek to break the tie with circulation statistics or program attendance as a means of demonstrating usefulness, other organizations find themselves increasingly evaluated in terms of the number of people processed. Community services may have a profound impact on the quality of life for the individuals served, but except for information and referral, few can be expected to achieve a high number of transactions. The extent of their success is problematic.

The evidence suggests that both occupational and organizational factors affect the direction of community library service, and that the types of service developed in the past fifteen years were in many respects incompatible with those forces. The processes that have been identified are not unique to librarianship. They are in fact a function of political and economic forces that affect all professional service organizations. To understand the trends in community library services, it is therefore necessary also to examine briefly the way human services in general are responding to these forces.

TRENDS IN HUMAN SERVICES

Several years ago Owens and Braverman argued that the library must be viewed as a “subsystem within a larger overall service delivery system.” While the question of whether libraries can ever be integrated into the service delivery system will be discussed later, it seems important to consider briefly the current trends in human services before discussing how community library services may be expected to develop. The four trends important to the analysis of community library services are: (1) decentralization, (2) population parity, (3) universalism, and (4) service integration.
Since 1970, when the Nixon administration changed the formulae on which distribution of federal funds are based, there has been a move from centralization to decentralization within the human services. Money is allocated to community groups to be spent according to their local priorities. On the surface, decentralization would seem to lead to greater power for community groups. In fact, the result is often decreased power for members of minority groups. Nationwide, an ethnic or racial minority might be able to amass enough power to affect public policy. When funds are dispersed to communities, however, minority group members are less able to influence the decision-making process.

The trend toward population parity means that funds are being allocated based on the number of people within a community rather than the conditions of those residents. Thus, an affluent suburb of 50,000 would receive the same amount in funds as a very poor, urban community of the same size. The effect of this policy is that those communities in which there are lower levels of service do not receive a greater share of resources to compensate for their “disadvantage.”

Related to the trend toward population parity is the move toward universalism in the human services. Instead of being restricted on the basis of age, economic circumstances, or problem, services are now more likely to be offered without limitation. This does not preclude a sliding scale for fees, but it does signal the opening of services to middle-class individuals, many of whom were excluded previously. Again, this means that resources are not targeted to groups in greatest need.

The push toward service integration has been spurred by action at all levels of government. It involves the coordination of political officials, professionals and human service administrators to effect decision-making for the human services. It also relates to the development of a general systems concept: “The systems perspective emphasizes the need to remove the bastion-like domain boundaries surrounding organizations and professional disciplines, so that clients and services can move more easily across them.” Whether such service integration can be accomplished given the various organizational factors discussed above remains questionable, but federal funding patterns continue to reward programs that foster greater coordination.

EMERGING TRENDS IN COMMUNITY LIBRARY SERVICES

On the basis of the preceding analysis, it is possible to identify two major trends emerging in community library services. The first is a move
Trends in Community Library Services

away from services directed toward “disadvantaged” client groups. Second, there is a change from direct to indirect services. The trend toward universalism in library services parallels trends in other human services. Storefront libraries and street work are techniques of the 1960s. More recently, bookmobile and branch services are also being curtailed in communities experiencing economic problems. Philadelphia Free Library has curtailed all extension services to individuals who do not or cannot use branch libraries. The sacrifice of these services directed toward special groups, it may be argued, is the most equitable policy when choices between services must be made; but the effect of universalism in public library policy is similar to that in other human service organizations: certain categories of people are systematically denied service because of barriers of language, financial resources, or other conditions of life.

The major trend in community information services appears to be a move from direct to indirect service. Seymour and Layne have stated that fully 50 percent of the requests to information and referral centers come from agencies rather than individual clients. This trend can be seen in a number of current services. The Urban Information Center of Monroe County, New York, has as its primary function to supply information to social service agencies about the services offered in other agencies. The Mt. Auburn Hospital library is linked with several public libraries in the Boston area to develop a health information network. In a federally funded project, Marta Dosa at Syracuse University developed the Health Information Sharing Project — again, a system which links agencies to one another. LINC at Memphis-Shelby County Public Library has as one of its main functions to provide information to other agencies.

The development of information services linking community agencies to one another contributes to the goals of total community library service insofar as other human service agencies reach all individuals who need service. The difficulty with that assumption is that other agencies are subject to the same pressures as libraries with regard to distribution of services.

This type of service has the advantage of encountering less resistance from the forces of occupational and organizational development. Professional librarians can deal with professional social workers on a relatively equal basis. They gain visibility in the community through work with other public agencies and thus are in a stronger position to assert their
utility. In their work with other agencies, librarians are able to use their expertise in manipulating informational resources without being forced into the position of counselor.

Questions remain, however, of whether this type of information and referral will become incorporated into traditional library services. Its success depends in some measure on the acceptance by other agencies of the library’s assuming this function. As noted above, such acceptance is not always forthcoming. Moreover, even though this type of service is consistent with many of the organizational and occupational concerns discussed above, it is at odds with others.

Finally, it is important to state that this analysis of community library services is not intended to be deterministic, but to identify the ways in which such services are shaped. It is intended to identify those processes whereby the intentions to provide total library services are subverted.

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LEIGH ESTABROOK


35. Luck to Estabrook, April 27, 1979.
ADULT LEARNING IS a very pervasive activity. "Most of the American population, whatever their age, class, ethnicity, or background, learn outside the educational establishment of this country."1 The research and surveys conducted by Johnstone and Rivera, by Carp and others for the Educational Testing Service, and by Tough document the astonishing dimensions of self-planned, self-initiated and self-directed adult learning.2

Consider these findings:

1. 80 percent of the population over age eighteen consider themselves learners.
2. Two-thirds of all adult learning efforts are self-planned.
3. Most learning activities are motivated by practical reasons related to job, home, family or recreation, rather than by desire for educational credit or degrees.
4. 55 percent of the adult population prefers to learn at home.

According to Tough:

A learning project is simply a major, highly deliberate effort to gain certain knowledge and skill (or to change in some other way).... Almost everyone undertakes at least one or two major learning efforts a year, and some individuals undertake as many as 15 or 20. The median is eight learning projects a year.... It is common for a man or woman to spend 700 hours a year at
learning projects. . . About 70% of all learning projects are planned by the learner himself, who seeks help and subject matter from a variety of acquaintances, experts, and printed resources.³

The concepts of lifelong learning offer many challenges and opportunities to public librarians. The reports of several national and international commissions, including Learning to Be, Education on the Move, Diversity by Design, Lifelong Learning in the Nation’s Third Century and Lifelong Learning and Public Policy, set forth these concepts.⁴ The Commission on Non-Traditional Study recommended:

student guidance and counseling services [to] provide expert advice relevant to both individual need and available resources. . . . Many adults who embark on higher learning do not know how to proceed; they feel insecure and inadequate about the process, and they need advice and assistance on aspects of it. . . . These efforts should be made with the basic and ultimate purpose of building independence, not continuing dependence. . . . [In conclusion,] the public library . . . is probably the best community agency to house, staff, and maintain a full guidance and counseling center.⁵

Tough further points out that:

Many persons would welcome more and better help with their self-planned learning. . . . Few men and women have special training in planning a learning project. In addition, if the learner is operating in a subject matter area that is quite new to him, he will be unfamiliar with the structure of the subject, the best sequence for learning it, and the resources available.⁶

In discussing who might best provide help, Tough also sees a role for libraries: “Libraries of all types—public, university, school and special—are certainly logical centers for such help if they improve the variety and quality of their human and nonhuman help. Some new sort of learning consultant, helper, counselor, guide or tutor might be trained.”⁷

The Learner’s Advisory Service is emerging as one of the appropriate models which public librarians may examine to determine the renewed educational role they can play in society. It is at the heart of the library as a community learning center to organize its resources (staff, materials, information and facilities) to support effectively the adult self-directed learner.
DEVELOPMENT OF THE LEARNER'S ADVISORY SERVICE

The Learner's Advisory Service developed through a unique 4-year experiment (1972-76), the Adult Independent Learning Project, sponsored by the Office of Library Independent Study and Guidance Projects within the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB). The national office, headed by Jose Orlando Toro, encouraged nine individual library systems across the country—Atlanta, Denver, Enoch Pratt Free Library (Baltimore), Miami-Dade (Florida), Portland (Maine), Salt Lake City, St. Louis, Tulsa City-County, and the Free Public Library of Woodbridge (New Jersey)—and one statewide library network (New York’s) to invest their own resources in the planning and testing of services for self-directed learners in their communities. The national office, through joint funding of the Council on Library Resources (CLR), the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH), the U.S. Office of Education and the CEEB, provided training to the individual participating libraries by a national faculty drawn from the library, education and social science professions. In New York, a transfer training concept was used: the national faculty conducted seminars for a team of librarians representing each library system within the network; the teams in turn trained librarians in their respective systems.

The training included program planning and evaluation, adult-learning psychology, educational planning and decision-making, interviewing, needs assessment, and the selection and use of study materials. The national office assisted the librarians with the testing and evaluation of the services and provided initial publicity materials.

Each library, within the context of its own strengths and community resources, planned and pilot-tested services to help adults learn on their own. From this diversity of approaches and experience, specific service elements common to all the libraries became apparent. Together the project librarians developed a system to gather and share information which would describe and monitor the development of the Learner’s Advisory Service.

The publication The Role of the Public Libraries in Adult Independent Learning is a detailed analysis of the project which presents characteristics of the adults the Learner’s Advisory Service attracted. "Public Libraries and the Adult Independent Learner" describes the New York State program. The Independent Learning Project reports the findings of two British librarians who investigated the effects of the planning and evaluation component of the project on the attitudes of librarians.
The national Adult Independent Learning Project resulted from prior library service experimentation and owes its development to the creative and energetic leadership of Jose Orlando Toro. Toro, a librarian and teacher working with the CEEB's College Level Examination Program (CLEP), had become interested in the learning processes of adults trying to prepare for the CLEP tests on their own. In 1968-69, he began testing an information service for adults interested in CLEP in three public library systems—St. Louis, Miami-Dade, and San Diego and Serra Regional Library System. The public turned to the libraries for information about the CLEP tests, but sought something more: assistance in studying for them.

To develop a program of study assistance, CEEB, CLR and NEH funded the Independent Study Project at the Dallas Public Library (1970-72). The library administration contracted with the faculty of Southern Methodist University (SMU) to prepare study guides for specific CLEP tests, thereby overlooking the opportunity to discover what the librarians could actually do for themselves. Although librarians made the study guides available, SMU faculty conducted study workshops for adults at the libraries. A major finding of the Dallas project was the diversity of goals for learning (often not related to CLEP tests) and the recognition by librarians that adults' "needs for help in the actual process of studying...were not being completely met in the Project."12

In 1972 officials of the funding agencies, the American Library Association (ALA) and the Educational Testing Service, reviewed what had been learned from experimentation with four libraries, and agreed that a formal project, national in scope and under a single sponsor, could stimulate many librarians to develop services in support of the independent learner. Although it had been hoped that ALA would administer the project, that organization declined and CEEB continued its sponsoring role with Toro directing the national office.

It seemed to Toro that the public library was not keeping up with changes in the people's need for independent learning opportunities, although he saw no other institution better prepared to meet the growing demand. The public library offers few constraints in terms of cost, time, distance, curriculum or entrance requirements. He envisioned a consortium of public libraries, different in their service patterns but bound by a common philosophy of the role of public libraries in adult education, which could indeed become a people's university— even to the extent of granting degrees. His goal for the Adult Independent Learning Project was to identify the public library as a place where adults who wished to
Learner's Advisory Service

design their own learning program would have direct access to a librarian who could help them.13

A DESCRIPTION

The Learner's Advisory Service, designed by the project libraries, is congruent with Toro's goals. Major aspects of the service include:

1. personal assistance to a learner in clarifying goals;
2. assistance in planning the learning program and defining its boundaries;
3. help in organizing resources and their uses;
4. information about educational opportunities, in addition to the library's, which exist in the community;
5. referral to community agencies and individuals who are willing and able to aid the learner in the content area;
6. encouragement and moral support to self-directed learners; and
7. continual assistance throughout the process in evaluating progress toward the learner's goals.

Two components of the Learner's Advisory Service emerge from this brief description: advisory support and information support services. The librarian provides these support services through personal consultations with the learner throughout the duration of the learner's program, which may range from a few days to many months.

The advisory support service has three functions: diagnosis of learning need, development of a learning plan, and assessment of progress toward the learner's goal. In diagnosing the learning need, the learner and librarian establish a mutual understanding of what the learner wants to achieve and why (learning goal), the dimensions of the subject or content area, the extent of the learner's background and experience in this content area, as well as the learner's preferences in material formats, learning methods and location.

The development of the learning plan is a method of describing, selecting and organizing activities which will guide the learner from where he is to the goal he wants to achieve. The librarian and learner examine the latter's strengths and constraints in carrying out the learning program, including such factors as abilities, prior experience, education, occupational responsibilities, family commitments, time available and specific deadlines, money, health, extent of support of family and friends, and ability to travel. The librarian, drawing on personal knowl-
edge of and experience with available resources and educational opportunities in the community, helps the learner to consider the variety of approaches or options available for learning what he wants to know. The range of choices may include independent reading/study, correspondence or television courses, being tutored, exchanging services for instruction, obtaining academic credit or a high school diploma by examination, participating in an informal discussion group, enrolling in a college course, and finding a local expert to demonstrate a skill or technique. Together, the librarian and learner specify those approaches which most closely match the learner's needs, styles and preferences, and lay out a sequence of specific activities within a definite time frame to enable the learner to structure and carry out the learning program at his own pace.

An important part of the advisory support service is helping the learner to monitor and assess his own progress, to find ways to demonstrate to himself and others new skills and knowledge. Learner and librarian review and clarify the goals, content, scope and methods of the learning plan at various points along the way, and make modifications necessary to ensure that the learner's needs are met.

The librarian is in familiar, traditional territory when providing information support services to link the learner with selected resources to implement the learning plan. The librarian provides print, audio and visual materials from the library collection or through interlibrary loan; selects or specially prepares bibliographies, reading lists or study guides; provides information about library or community services; makes referrals to human resources within the library or the community; and recommends learning events, such as field trips, discussion groups and exhibits. As he uses them, the learner evaluates the usefulness of the materials, study aids and referrals to his learning program. This evaluation is an integral part of the information support services, providing direction to both learner and librarian in selecting additional resources and subsequent steps for the learning program.

The Learner's Advisory Service has two fundamental concepts which must be made explicit to the learner as well as to public librarians considering the development of similar library services. First, learning is a matter of individual growth and change for which the learner is responsible; the librarian serves as an expert assistant. Second, the one-to-one relationship between the learner and the librarian forms the basis for systematic communication and evaluation of the learner's progress, the effectiveness of the librarian's help, and the library's service objectives.
Learner's Advisory Service

The Learner's Advisory Service follows closely Malcolm Knowles's description of the dynamic process for helping adults learn. The librarian must be aware of the risks and responsibilities inherent in the advisory role. He should facilitate the learner's decision-making, not make choices for the learner. He should help the learner form realistic goals, without molding the learner to fit his own expectations. He should enable the learner to be independent, to take responsibility for his own learning, and not keep the learner dependent on him to fulfill his own needs. He should be aware of personal biases and values, and recognize those of the learner, without being judgmental or forcing a structure on the learner which he perceives as "right."

From the risks of the advisory role come unusual opportunities for librarians to share the full range of their knowledge, skill and expertise to provide truly creative, humanistic library services for adults— for learners.

David Carr has shared with the authors some of his dissertation research concerning the interaction of the librarian and the learner. He suggests several critical requirements for assisting adult learners which determine the effectiveness of the alliance:

1. support and encouragement;
2. mutuality and empathic communication;
3. appropriate expectations, mutually acknowledged;
4. clarification and reclarification of objectives;
5. motivation to learn;
6. monitoring of progress and assessment of growth; and
7. learning from experience.

Carr advises caution to those who would offer Learner's Advisory Services, and, as with Knowles, his emphasis is on the process, not necessarily the outcome. He says that:

[Learning or] change occurs through the agency of the librarian by small, incremental insights. Learners — and agents — have to work hard for these moments, attending to subtle, even tacit perceptions of task, structure, and interaction. It is extremely difficult work, for both partners. It is difficult to begin, difficult to clarify, difficult to act, difficult to deal with interruptions, and difficult to close the assistance relationship. But the learning is immense, and it is not necessarily the product which configurates the learning, but the process.
THE ADVISORY ROLE

The emergence and effectiveness of library advisory services to adult learners will depend on two crucial elements: (1) the commitment of the profession to the advisory function as a legitimate role for public librarians, and (2) librarians' capacity to perform that role.

The Learner's Advisory Service certainly is not the first example of the profession's attempt to merge the skills of librarians with their potential for meeting the educational needs of individuals. In the drive to be professional, librarians have exerted an advisory role through such efforts as the Library War Service Program (World War I) and the Reader's Advisory Service and its extension, the "Reading with a Purpose" pamphlet courses. Information and referral service has an advisory component when performed to its fullest extent. Reference service certainly contains personal guidance, though its primary objective is to locate information without regard to its use.

The Learner's Advisory Service makes explicit the advisory or counseling role of the librarian and "how he or she might become more effective in introducing change at an individual and personal level." If librarians are to accept this role, they must once again examine their professional commitment as members of an educational agency. Public libraries were founded to encourage self-development, but self-development of an individual does not happen in a vacuum. There are times in learning when one must have assistance. Only after consensus is reached on the importance and need for public librarians to provide "the skilled personal advice and counseling necessary to effective self-study" should librarians concern themselves with discussion of various models of service, particular methods, or comparisons between Learner's Advisory Services and other library services. Otherwise, their pragmatism tends to hide the real, ever-present conflict between their roles as archivists and educators.

Controversy over methodology, financial resources to support the service, and staff to offer the service is inevitable; the "how" of any action is grasped more easily than the "why" and is less threatening to discuss. Arguments against advisory services which attempt, professionally, to exert influence upon the outcome of the process show how quickly whispers about an uncomfortable role can be drowned out by discussion of the problems caused by procedures and methods.

If an educational advisory role is to acquire legitimacy within the profession, three facts must be responsibly recognized: (1) that librarians need acute awareness, acceptance and understanding of their function
Learner's Advisory Service

as part of today's society; (2) that librarians have an educational role; and (3) that they need to be professionally competent, therefore, confident in their advisory function.

Society Factors

Roles change because of changes in society and its institutions. Librarians' professional behavior depends to a large degree on their understanding of those changes and acceptance of their unique contribution in response to change. Librarians' knowledge, solidly grounded in the literature that describes the changes taking place within the institution of education, must be matched by their own awareness of the effects of those changes on them personally, and on their immediate environment. They must test their concept of the appropriate educational role for librarians against the needs of the community they serve. The springboard for this examination is a firm knowledge of the changes in motivation for learning, and in styles, interests and degree of participation of adults who are in a continuing process of learning.

Independent learners have always used public libraries, but librarians cannot take for granted that the content or process of learning has remained the same. For one thing, the trends in nontraditional education brought about by shifts in age groups in the population cannot be escaped. Neither can the current emphasis on equal opportunity and the individual be ignored.

Itemization of the vast changes taking place in society and the problems reflecting these changes is unnecessary here. What is necessary is to remember constantly that these societal forces affect one's life by requiring adjustment, and adjustment is a learning process. More adults than ever are consciously choosing to learn to adjust, either directly by learning new job skills and changing careers, or indirectly by increasing their skills and knowledge for personal and community effectiveness. Public librarians have a unique stake in the increasing concern of individuals for "significant leisure time." This near-cliché must not blind librarians to the fact that, in a time when skills for technology and machine operations are becoming less important, and higher productivity requires fewer hours, what remains is the development of skills to provide a future for the mind. The charge to fill an intellectual void will not decline; librarians must listen and respond. The quantitative carrot-and-stick economic motivation for learning will lose to the desire to improve the quality of life — no gimmick will do.
An Honest Definition

The Learner’s Advisory Service mandates a helping role which requires sensitivity to human beings; to their subtle calls for help, their need for individually appropriate courses of action, their intrinsic respectability, and their need to be educated. Such sensitivity must be combined, of course, with special expertise in the selection of resources to promote an individual’s learning. “Helping” is defined in many similar ways, all dealing with man’s learning the use of his own resources, learning to help himself. The individual “not only selects the goals of his own growth but . . . determines whether he wants help at all.”10 He “defines his desired help on his own terms.”20 The model of the helping process devised by Brammer might also describe an educational process. The personality of the helper (traits, attitudes, values) joined with particular skills (of understanding, of comforting, and of action) produce the conditions necessary for growth (trust, respect and freedom) which can result in specific outcomes “important to the person and society in general.”21

One problem, however, with infusing this role into librarianship is that despite its clear context for the advisory function, the image many librarians have of the helping relationship is related to its origin in psychology—a superordinate/subordinate relationship, centered on a problem. Thus, the role of the helper appears to be a condescending one, in which the person being helped is inadequate, dependent or inferior. As such, the process has arrogant overtones, because the helper is acting for, or changing, the one being helped.22 Consider the terms worker-client, therapist-patient, teacher-pupil—all helping relationships; now try librarian-learner.

The learner may lack certain skills or information, but he is not the librarian; the librarian may lack certain skills or information, but, after all, he is not the learner. In this kind of helping relationship, the librarian is creating “an invisible behavioral pattern . . . a generative structure which lasts beyond the moments of interaction.”23 There need be no loss of self-esteem or sense of incompetence in any helping relationship, including that between librarian and learner, especially when it is thought of as the participation of two people in a common task—a matter of mutual discovery and learning.

Professional Confidence

Librarians’ professional competence in assessing the needs of adult learners in the community must be accompanied by confidence in their
Learner's Advisory Service

ability to provide the service implicit in the advisory role. It may be that beneath the procedural and semantic arguments against such library services is a lack of professional self-reliance rather than a denial of the appropriateness of the role. The criticism that the cost of the service per person is too great, for example, may reflect more than concern over the amount of time required by the librarian to help a learner. Librarians may, in fact, be saying that they question their own skills and abilities to provide the service. Fear about inconsistent levels of service by different librarians clearly acknowledges the profession's lack of confidence in the advisory role. The challenge, "But we're already doing that!" may actually mean, "I'm not sure I can do that."

In the Adult Independent Learning Project, the perspectives revealed by arguments over the appropriateness of the role may have been rooted in a need for greater professional confidence. Those who opposed the concept of the librarian as an advisor or counselor were not persuaded by those who believed that not to "recommend or suggest" courses of action or particular resources was to shirk one's professional responsibilities. Doctors "recommend," lawyers "advise," teachers "suggest"; yet the decision to accept their opinions remains with the individual requesting help. Librarians must feel as qualified in their professionalism as they perceive other professionals to be.

The process of working in an extended one-to-one relationship, with its explicit "interview and follow-up" procedures, smacked condescendingly of a social work role to some librarians. Their opinion could not be changed by those whose philosophy of service entailed knowing that a person was served and confidence that the objective was reached by the best use of skills, resources and methods.

Some complained that librarians are not teachers. They ignored those who believed that education need not be limited to one aspect of the teaching function — the imparting of information — but also encompasses those who facilitate learning. Perhaps because education fosters change (making it a slightly "subversive" activity), librarians prefer noninvolvement. Yet, providing materials and resources for learning inevitably means selection and direction, however noble the intention to remain objective. It is much safer to avoid involvement — a synonym for "objectivity." Any further penetration into the learning process requires a blend of personal involvement and traditional professional functions. It also places the librarian midstream in the age-old process shared by all who learn from each other and, therefore, it is culturally legitimate.
The Capacity to Perform the Role

Decisions are made on a daily basis, yet many are not enacted. If professionals agree that public libraries are major educational agencies in today's society, and that their primary purpose is the dissemination of ideas, not books, then they must implement the decisions which such agreement implies. No one part—library schools, associations, management or the individual librarian—is any less responsible than another.

There are probably few who would claim that public libraries are unsuited to assume an educational advisory role. Libraries were established on an educational premise and continue to proclaim an educational mission. In most states they even have a legal basis as an educational agency. This allows librarians a rightful place as educators.

The emergence of advisory services for adult learners will be a question of professional self-assessment, of adaptability, of professional confidence, but most of all, of priorities. The decision of public libraries to perform these services is a policy matter which cannot be left up to the voluntary actions of a few committed librarians. As Lloyd Jones stated in The Changing Environment of Libraries:

There are limits. There are budgets. There are policies. There are attitudes. But budgets can be raised. Policies can be revised. Attitudes can be changed. Not without effort. Not without time. Not without more frequent, more regular, and more mutual communication than an occasional colloquium. Not, in short, without commitment.\(^{24}\)

When a profession blazes a new trail, the responsibility is usually shouldered by one group, as it was by library administrators in the Adult Independent Learning Project. The library directors had the difficult assignment of transmitting to their staffs the service philosophy expressed by the advisory role.\(^{25}\) Furthermore, they had to be willing to risk the difficult changes on the management process designed into the project (program planning and evaluation) without knowing what shape those changes would take. They had to commit the resources of staff, time and money to the experiment. Not many are willing to make such commitment to an untested philosophy.

The remaining questions are: Can this commitment be shared by enough professional librarians to assure the incorporation of new elements into the service philosophy of public librarians? Can librarians accept the new role as consistent with their philosophy? Finally, and crucially, are
Learner's Advisory Service

librarians flexible enough to adapt to new responsibilities and methods and open enough to turn anxieties into opportunities for achievement? The emergence and effectiveness of Learner's Advisory Services will depend upon the answers.

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Library Administration's Responsibilities Outside the Library: The Consortium for Public Library Innovation

ERNEST R. DEPROSPO, JR.

AN INTERESTING PHENOMENON has evolved over the past few years, one which is both complex and contradictory. The profession, caught up in the general societal reaction to government spending at all levels, is finding it increasingly difficult to determine the best course of action to take in response to these pressures. As one reaction to the demands of fiscal accountability and constraint, library administrators appear anxious to try various "innovative" practices, be they so-called "modern management styles" or new library services.

At the same time, even a casual perusal of the literature reveals an increasing skepticism on the part of various authors, who suggest that these responses may be dangerous or counterproductive. Many of these articles are ego-centered and/or lack an empirical basis. They reflect a growing frustration which the fears and uncertainties that abound under existing economic conditions inevitably produce.

During an arbitrarily selected period of September 1978 through February 1979, the popular library periodicals American Libraries and Library Journal contained such articles as: "AACR 2 Advice"; "Managing Technological Change"; "Strategies for Change"; "A National Periodicals Center: Articulating the Dream"; "User Fees I: The Economic Argument"; "User Fees II: The Library Response"; "For Public Libraries the Poor Pay More"; "Federal Aid and Local Spending: Stim-

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ulation vs. Substitution”; and “Casualty Reports.” These titles were selected for two reasons: (1) they indicate the scope of problems facing library administrators, most of which originate outside the library or involve external library decisions; and (2) these articles reflect the complexity of problems and the contradictions and/or disagreements which exist within each problem or issue.

As a student in one of this author’s doctoral seminars observed, the recent literature on library administration confirms that the gap between theoretician and practitioner continues to widen. He was particularly struck by Noël Savage’s “News Report 1978.” While Savage discusses the economy, illiteracy, Proposition 13, networks, new technology, copyright, and so on, there is no discussion of management issues per se. It is difficult to believe that in 1978 there was no development in administrative areas which would concern librarians. Michael Grunberger concludes that the Savage report “is an outline of the crises facing the library manager; the fragmented presentation of the issues in the Library Journal article mirrors the lack of a theoretical framework and the fragmented approach of today's library administrators.”

In light of the omissions in Savage’s report, the article by Richard De Gennaro in Library Journal is indicative of the confusion which exists. De Gennaro observes: “After a while, I began to suspect that the reality of what we managers were experiencing in our day-to-day activities had more validity than the theoretical world of management that was being described in books and articles written by management professors and social scientists.” Yet, as the relatively inexperienced but perceptive doctoral student counters: “De Gennaro's approach is a mixed bag of ideas from different management schools. . . . [and] leaves the practitioner with the sense that management theory has nothing to offer; De Gennaro's article contains ample evidence of the contributions made to his management style from the very management theories he rejects.”

How does the library administration reasonably function and respond in such a delicate and confused environment? What factors are central to an understanding of these circumstances? Are the issues really so “either-or,” as they are too often presented? No rational professional would argue that the line between outside and inside responsibility is all that clear. To whom — people, groups, organizations, boards — does the library administration turn for helpful assistance?
Administration's Responsibilities Outside Libraries

THE LIBRARY BOARD ROLE

Assuming that the library administration has decided to seek outside organizational alliances in anticipation of or in response to unmet needs, how does it manage to secure the legitimacy needed to persist in such an arrangement? The library board may provide both an important legal and political role. At the 1978 ALA conference in Chicago, Martin D. Phelan, library trustee, stated in his keynote address:

The Board, in its role of representing the using public to the library has a prime position [in determining library objectives]. The administrator, knowing the practical strengths and weaknesses of the library, has the power to balance imaginative flights with good horse sense. To guide both, a community survey will point to those potentials in local librarydom which have the potential for revision, expansion, innovation or whatever.⁵

It is unwise for the library administration to exclude the board as it ventures into new service areas, particularly if these areas include external arrangements, such as membership in a network or consortium. In a 1977 Illinois Libraries issue devoted to trustees, the argument is offered that professional librarians alone cannot generate the support required to elevate public libraries into a priority position for increased budgetary support from all levels of government. In this same issue, Jean Baron, former trustee, expresses her conviction that active and informed library board members have the clout to solve the financial problems which plague so many libraries.⁶

The justification for such optimism is very debatable. What is more interesting, though, is the push by the American Library Trustees Association (ALTA) for an active involvement of trustees with library administration far beyond present levels. Trustees are being urged by their leaders to evaluate administrators in terms of clearly established measurable service objectives, rather than narrowly worded job descriptions. They are being told that they should push their administrations to look outside the library, to initiate community surveys, service evaluations, better management reporting systems, and so on. Whether and where trustees will find the time and expertise to take such an active role in a productive and positive manner remains to be seen. There is little doubt in this writer's mind that library administrations will feel increased pressure from their boards to do more with less resources.
ERNEST DEPROSPO

Library administrations must move positively and quickly to encourage their boards to reinforce and to support carefully considered outside alliances, especially in light of the ostensible role which trustees are asking of themselves. By their very nature, the library administration's responsibility and actions outside the library are tentative compared to the more routine and well-established internal operations. Success more often than not hinges on the policy-makers' overt approval and understanding of the administration's actions, be they the decision to buy a million-dollar computer, charge user fees, abide by AACR II, or pay fees to join a consortium. Moreover, until and unless new service styles become integrated into the library's overall policy, the odds are that the library will retreat to business as usual.

GOALS, GUIDELINES, STANDARDS

As most readers are aware, the Public Library Association charged its Goals, Guidelines and Standards Committee to revise library standards in 1970. The committee decided to turn these standards around, basing them on the needs of communities and individuals rather than on those of an institution, thus giving the standards an "outside" orientation. In 1977 the U.S. Office of Education funded a 2-year study entitled "The Process of Standards Development for Community Library Service." The principal investigator is Vernon E. Palmour, senior vice-president of King Research, Inc. Phase II of the project is to be completed by June 1979. The last and most critical phase is not likely to be funded in the near future.7

The significance of the standards development, even if never fully realized, is the explicit obligation placed on library administrations to orient outside their respective institutions. As stated in the December 1978 final draft issued by the Goals, Guidelines and Standards Committee:

The single most important recommendation of these guidelines is that future standards for public libraries must flow from the needs of users, rather than from the needs of the institution. This means that specific, quantifiable, measurable objectives must be determined by each public library and public library system in terms of local needs. The obligation of all local public libraries and library systems to conduct a continuous assessment of community needs and continuous evaluation of the degree to which the library meets these needs, is the basic imperative of this document.8
Administration's Responsibilities Outside Libraries

The report of the Subcommittee on Implications for Service and Programs for the Mission Statement, as written in the committee's final report, was forwarded to the chair of the PLA Goals, Guidelines and Standards Committee on April 10, 1978. The subcommittee was headed by Marie Davis, associate director of the Free Library of Philadelphia, who also prepared the report. The document is excellent and should be read in full by every interested professional, for it deals directly with the problems inherent in library administration's responsibilities outside the library. Furthermore, the subcommittee document cuts through the contradictory rhetoric and conclusions on major problems by succinctly pointing out some of the realities which the library community faces. Some of the more penetrating observations of the Davis subcommittee are:

Fiscal realities have shown that we have moved beyond an expansionist philosophy of public libraries. It will be necessary to define types of library service which can be considered viable in different settings under different financial conditions. The disparity among large, medium and small, rural, suburban and urban libraries must be recognized in this connection. Suitable options for quality service will need to be developed, and more effective means devised to interrelate types of public libraries. . . .

A stronger justification is needed for the public library to take leadership within the total library community for delivery of information services. The cooperation of the past has become in fact competition for funding and recognition. Full collaboration cannot be achieved until public, university, school and special libraries work together at the administrative and management level to share funds and objectives for programs as well as responsibilities for various clienteles. . . .

The Mission Statement calls for a national library policy for services and programs. To implement the goals of the Mission Statement it will be necessary to review the roles of the Office of Libraries and Learning Resources in the Office of Education, the National Commission on Libraries, and the Library of Congress to determine if they are indeed effective instruments to carry forward the mission, collectively or individually. The statement suggests the possibility of a national library "ministry" or regional library "authority" to undertake the strong leadership required. Coincidentally, the roles of the American Library
ERNEST DEPROSPÓ

Association and its Washington office as well as all state library associations should be considered.

On the local level an education program for librarians, trustees and community leaders alike is essential so that they may learn to work together to develop viable program objectives for their libraries in accordance with the principle of assessment, library outputs and subsequent evaluation. Care must be taken to avoid shifting emphases based on whims of vocal elements of the community which may not be truly representative of the cross section. Sane and reasonable guarantees of continuity of service and programs must be assured despite the possibilities for disruption of an orderly review and accountability procedure.

Davis also asked nonlibrarians to present their views on the "Mission Statement." Five of the responses received were published in Public Libraries and provide extraordinary insights on some of the realities confronting library administration. Thomas F. Deahl, proprietor and principal consultant ASIS chairman, observed: "In short, I doubt that the public library can survive in anything resembling its present form. Shifting its focus to nonprint media and couching its justification in terms of the vehicle for preserving continuity with the past and thus the cultural bridge to the future are tactics that merely delay the inevitable." Dennis Clark, a historian, concluded: "The active role assumed by libraries also requires a higher code of ethics for personnel. It should be tough and acute and make librarians who share it proud and vigilant."

An educator and public library trustee made the following observation: "The statement presages an expanded role for library trustees, as representatives of the total community served by the institution. It argues persuasively against the traditionally elitist trustee population now serving many public libraries and may suggest different modes of selection in some instances." The observations made by Henry C. Messinger, Majority Leader, State of Pennsylvania, are especially interesting. He questioned how useful the "Mission Statement" is from a "realistic commonsense approach" and detected an elitist slant to some of the responsibilities placed on the public library, e.g., as the principal agency in determining what information should be retained for future generations and what removed. He then remarked:

The mission statement sets out an ambitious, far-reaching proposal for public libraries in the future — too ambitious and far-reaching in some respects. Those who direct the future course of
Administration's Responsibilities Outside Libraries

libraries would be well advised that whatever role they seek to fill, they should count on doing that through their own financial resources and devices. It takes no great foresight to suggest that government will be unable in the foreseeable future to offer much in the way of financial aid.\textsuperscript{13}

CONSORTIUM FOR PUBLIC LIBRARY INNOVATION

The pressures on library administrators to orient outside their institutions have increased greatly. The attendant problems are many. Few, if any, strategic and tactical procedures exist to assist these administrators in their interaction with the changing community infrastructure, whether on an individual or organizational basis.

That the PLA Subcommittee report called for a fundamental assessment of existing library leadership ought to be seen as a critical issue. The response from nonlibrarians to the PLA "Mission Statement" is important in that the recurring theme is a plea for imaginative, informed approaches by the public library. A fundamental assessment of the library and information community is not likely to occur, at least in the near future.

Is the library administration caught in a vicious cycle? On one hand, they are surrounded by conflicting opinions on major issues. On the other hand they are urged, if not ordered, by policy-makers and community and professional leaders to engage actively in new service styles oriented away from traditional service patterns. Do any viable alternatives exist for library administrations, given these factors?

At least one of many possible approaches was selected by a small group of public libraries which formally established the Consortium for Public Library Innovation (CPLI)\textsuperscript{*} in July 1976. Its formation was the direct consequence of an experience shared by ten public library systems, scattered throughout the continental United States, in a 3-year experimental program conducted under the auspices of the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB).\textsuperscript{14} The CEEB national project was established to determine if public libraries could or should offer specialized services to self-motivated adult learners who had decided to bypass and/or supplement traditional educational institutions. That effort has been well-documented in the literature and is covered in the article by Boles and Smith in this issue.

\textsuperscript{*}The author has been actively involved with CPLI from its inception. No claim is made for complete objectivity, although most of the CPLI account here is primarily descriptive.
The experience with the CEEB project led almost naturally, although not easily, to the formation of CPLI. In fact, through the impetus of CEEB, discussions were started in early 1975 in which the library representatives considered what actions to take once the project ended. CEEB Project Director Jose Orlando Toro felt deeply that public libraries needed to assume greater responsibility for their collective decision-making. It was believed that the existing library community could not or would not fill the vacuum once the national project was concluded in June 1976.

The analysis of the CEEB project proved very important in the conceptualization and planning of CPLI. Of particular significance was the following conclusion:

First, the present allocation of funds to the various interests and departments within a public library often conflicts with the alternative uses of these existing resources for a new general service that goes across all these interests and departments. Second, the Learner's Advisory Service has generated additional threats to the morale of professionals who are comfortable with existing practices and a segmented departmentalized approach to service and clients. Third, the manner in which planning and evaluation is presently carried out typically does not provide an avenue for introducing innovations. Current library practices focus on acquiring, organizing and preserving collections of materials, practices that are rarely appropriately evaluated. Models to effect changes in the delivery of a responsive service to the individual are frequently hampered by a preoccupation with this function of warehousing and the provision of a mass service through brief reference interviews characteristic of the main or central library of large systems. Fourth, organizational problems in the public library identify communications difficulties and role conflicts at points of exchange. The question of who talks to whom in disseminating the innovation and the roles that are assumed in the exchange demand a more direct approach that goes beyond merely providing information on the achievements of a given project.

The structuring of the CEEB project helped determine the organizational format for CPLI. Specifically, two key groups were established: the Policy Study Group, made up of the directors of each participating library; and the Research Study Group, composed primarily of second-
line managers who were responsible for overseeing the service, particularly in the areas of data collection, training and management evaluation.

The authors of the CEEB Final Report concluded that four essential conditions were necessary if an innovative service was to succeed in any given library:

1. The top administration must be actively in support of the service;
2. The central facility (in the case of a multi-unit library) must be deeply involved in providing the service;
3. The key library policy makers must establish a personnel system which recognizes and rewards outstanding performance and does not reward "non-professional" attitudes and behavior.
4. The service planners must continually monitor service provision procedures to insure that advisors continue to offer the service as planned. In any situation where innovative programs are being tested, there is a propensity for new procedures to be rejected or ignored due to uncertainty, unfamiliarity and lack of understanding.

In late 1975, Toro and DeProspo sent a memo to the participating libraries in which they observed: "It was recognized that, in the final analysis, the burden of responsibility for a determination of the critical issues or questions rests with the primary decision-makers in each library." Thus, the directors formed the Policy Study Group and met in Tulsa, Oklahoma, on February 2-3, 1976, to discuss continuation after the conclusion of the national project.

At that meeting the directors unanimously agreed to form CPLI. It was decided that a transition period was needed and that, at least for the first year, the primary focus should remain with the Learner's Advisory Service. The group elected Pat Woodrum, then acting director of the Tulsa City-County Library System, to chair CPLI. CPLI leaders submitted a proposal to the Council on Library Resources (CLR) for a small "developmental" grant. CLR agreed to assist CPLI for its first year of operation by accepting the $10,000 proposal.

A national coordinator was selected from the Research Study Group, Thomas C. Phelps of the Salt Lake City Public Library, and Ernest DeProspo was asked to serve as consultant for technical assistance and evaluative research. CPLI estimated that through membership fees and
ERNEST DEPROSPO

other support services, not including indirect costs, their contribution to consortium activities would total $30,000 for the first year.

At the time CPLI formed, the libraries involved were: Atlanta Public Library, Denver Public Library, Enoch Pratt Free Library (Baltimore), Miami-Dade Public Library, Minneapolis Public Library, Portland (Maine) Public Library, Salt Lake City Public Library, St. Louis Public Library, Tulsa City-County Library, and the Free Public Library of Woodbridge (New Jersey). At the end of CPLI's first year (July 1977), the Atlanta, Denver, Miami-Dade and St. Louis libraries discontinued membership. During the second year of operation, the Washington State Library, Houston Public Library and East Brunswick (New Jersey) Public Library joined, while Enoch Pratt Free Library decided to withdraw. For the third and current year, the Tacoma (Washington) and Ocean County (New Jersey) libraries joined CPLI.18

Given the mission of CPLI (see below), shifting membership is not only understandable but expected. There are many factors responsible, be they change of directors, new building projects, drastic budget cuts, or, most important of all, the readiness of a library to carry out the objectives of CPLI. Various levels of leadership and ability exist within the libraries. Many librarians became disillusioned quickly, even though CPLI stressed that patience is needed whenever efforts toward basic change are tried. Many libraries have joined for the wrong reasons.

The most significant meeting for CPLI took place during the 1977 ALA meeting in Detroit. By that time a number of pivotal decisions had been made. The most important were: (1) CPLI would not depend on outside monies for its existence, (2) CPLI activities would focus more directly on management practices, (3) dues would be increased from $200 to $1000 a year to ensure that all member libraries take their commitment to CPLI seriously,19 and (4) all members would be required to adhere to CPLI policy through the signing of a Letter of Agreement.

At the Detroit meeting, those libraries continuing with CPLI elected Joseph Kimbrough, director of the Minneapolis Public Library, as chair for 1977-78, and approved a set of policies, procedures and operating guidelines. The policy statement followed the planning and evaluation framework developed by DeProspo as part of the CEEB project which had been tested and utilized by the participating libraries.20

The most important features of the policy statement are:

I. Goal statement: overall improvement of public library services that are clearly user-centered, through systematic research and experimentation
Administration's Responsibilities Outside Libraries

II. Purpose: to develop useful, innovative and improved library services by means of an organization of selected public libraries committed to experimentation, research and evaluation

III. Objectives:
A. To adopt Program Planning and Evaluation as a key tool for:
   1. Identification of areas where innovative and/or additional library service and management changes are needed
   2. Decision-making
   3. Program design
   4. Evaluation of all library services and operations
B. To formulate policy based on research in library service and management.21

The Letter of Agreement reflects the essential components and spirit of the policy statement. Each library director and board chair is asked to sign the letter. The criteria for membership are spelled out in the agreement:

(1) To promote the adoption of Program Planning and Evaluation by the administrators of the ________ as a key tool for decision-making, program or project design, and evaluation of all library services and operations;
(2) To conduct research into library services and into the management of library services as a basis for formulating policy;
(3) To improve, through the planning and evaluating process, information support and advisory services for adult independent learners;
(4) To identify areas where innovative and/or additional library services and management or policy changes are needed;
(5) To disseminate the research findings of the Consortium's members to policy-makers in the library profession as well as to policy-makers in local, state and federal government;
(6) To accept and agree to the Policies, Procedures and Operating Guidelines of the Consortium for Public Library Innovation as adopted on June 20, 1977 by the Consortium Policy Group.22
BRIEF REVIEW OF CPLI ACTIVITIES, 1977-79

On November 14, 1977, the CPLI chairman sent a memorandum to the Policy Study Group outlining activities for CPLI. In that memorandum, Kimbrough informed the directors that "the focus for the Consortium's activities for the next year should be on the creation of a solid management information system for the measurement and evaluation of Adult Services, especially reference service, of which the Learner's Advisory Service is a component part."23

During the June 1978 ALA meeting in Chicago, CPLI elected Edwin Beckerman, director of the Woodbridge Public Library, as chair and appointed Christine Murchio, projects coordinator at Woodbridge, as national coordinator. The Policy Study Group decided to continue testing the performance of adult reference service and also to begin considering ways to determine accurately the costs of that service. It was decided that both the Policy Study Group and the Research Study Group needed additional training, especially in certain research techniques. A 3-day workshop was scheduled for October 1978.

The workshop, held at the East Brunswick Public Library on October 26-27, and at the Woodbridge Public Library on October 28, focused on various topics. During the first day, Salt Lake City Public Library reported on "CPLI Methodology — PP&E as a Management Approach"; Tulsa City-County Library presented a case report on PP&E; and all libraries reported on "Policy Implications of Phase I Reports." On the second day, the group was involved in discussions centered on sampling, SPSS and interpretation of selected statistical tests. The final day was devoted to CPLI policy questions as they affect the future direction of the group.

The Policy Study Group reaffirmed its commitment to improving management practices through research and experimentation. The chair called for and received approval of additional support by member libraries, primarily through increased staff involvement, for CPLI activities. The directors were particularly in favor of increased efforts to establish better ways of determining cost-effective management systems. They recognized that such a capability, if possible, would take at least three to five years to implement. CPLI has entered the first year of testing that feasibility.
Administration's Responsibilities Outside Libraries

CONCLUSION

It is impossible to know at this time whether or not CPLI will be successful in achieving its objectives. The effort required to maintain the impetus for such an organization is great; the immediate payoffs highly problematic. Resistance to change is the norm, for innovation requires fundamental and conscious choice to alter behavioral patterns. Whether it is possible, or even realistic, for the library to make such fundamental adjustments is certainly open to legitimate disagreement.

The latest *American Library Directory* lists some 342 "networks, consortia and other cooperating library organizations" in the United States alone. These range from the well-known OCLC to the perhaps lesser-known Fox River Valley Area Library Cooperative. What most of these cooperative groups do is obviously not revealed in a directory. Their number does suggest that, for a variety of reasons, libraries are seeking outside organizational ties to help them better meet their responsibilities. It is most likely that library administrations will continue to search for alternate ways of meeting their perceived needs. However, unless more attention is given to the necessity of experimentation and research as guides for assisting library administrators in meeting their responsibilities and/or adjusting their perceptions, this writer is not overly optimistic about the results such alternate organizational modes will produce.

References

ERNEST DEPROSPRO

11. Ibid.
12. Ibid., p. 3.
13. Ibid.
14. The author served as consultant to CEEB for Program Planning and Evaluation from Feb. 1973 through the duration of the project, which ended in June 1976.
16. Ibid., p. 76.
17. Memorandum to CEEB project library directors from Jose Orlando Toro and Ernest R. DeProspo, Jan. 12, 1976.
19. Membership dues are currently $700.
20. DeProspo has identified his work in measurement, planning and evaluation as "PP&E" and plans to disseminate the findings over the next two years.
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

HELEN HUGUENOR LYMAN

Libraries literacy learning — the rallying cry of the American Library Association's poster with its logo of book and film reel — describes the focus of many library literacy programs at the end of the 1970s. The poster further states: "21 million Americans are functionally illiterate. Libraries across the country are doing something about it."

What is the meaning of "functionally illiterate"? What are libraries doing? What have they done? How has library community service developed to meet the evolution of literacy education and the emerging emphasis on a literate nation? The purpose of this article is to examine the library's role in the literacy education effort as it has emerged during the period from 1955 to 1980. What patterns of service, what research and training in librarianship have developed in response to this perceived clientele, whose needs and interests are defined in terms of personal, social, educational, economic and political conditions and movements? The effects of these influences can only be touched upon within the limitations of this paper, but they are interrelated and most relevant. Public library service will be emphasized here, though the important roles and activities of school and academic libraries should be kept in mind.

Traditionally, the nation has responded to the problem of literacy when a crisis situation has arisen. World wars and waves of immigrants stimulated literacy programs, which in turn enabled broader conscription of men into the armed services, assisted new immigrant groups in Americanization programs, and aided the black minority. In the 1960s, the

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HELEN LYMAN

antipoverty and Great Society programs which stimulated attention included: Manpower Development and Training, Opportunities Industrialization Centers, vocational education, Project Upward Bound, Adult Basic Education (ABE), Concentrated Employment, Job Corps, Work Incentive Program, Project Head Start, the Library Services and Construction Act, Reading is Fundamental, and the Laubach Literacy programs. In one way or another, these efforts became involved with literacy. A problem quickly became evident: in order for program participants to benefit from program goals, they needed basic literacy skills. Ultimately, it seems that children and adults need to know how to learn. In addition, many other literacy programs in the private sector were sponsored by church groups and organizations.

Library service in the United States has been influenced by the changing concepts of literacy, the recognition of distinctive educational and informational needs of large segments of the population hitherto neglected, and the proliferation of public and private programs to serve the disadvantaged and functionally illiterate or undereducated child or adult. A new emphasis on client-centered service and on community involvement and assessment has emerged in response to these new publics. Adult new readers, who are developing basic skills in literacy and gaining life skills and subject knowledge, more often than not require individualized service and differentiated resources. As a result, new demands on the librarian's understanding, competencies and skills have necessitated education and training in special areas of adult education and program development, especially reading instruction and understanding of the client and the nature of his/her service needs. Lack of knowledge of and experience with the clientele, and the services and resources to fit their needs, have stimulated important research.

LITERACY

There are a multitude of definitions of literacy or functional literacy. Clarification of the meaning of these terms is prerequisite to discussion here.

Literacy is not a term with precise meaning. New emphases have emerged to accommodate new meanings. A definite shift is apparent in the use of terms — literacy rather than illiteracy, literate rather than illiterate — to provide a more positive connotation. New measurements have been developed to meet new definitions.

Literacy is dynamic; it is part of lifelong learning. Inseparable from reading, it also encompasses speaking, listening and writing. It differs
among cultures and is influenced by the expectations and values of the
dominant group in society. The requirements of the society and environ-
ment in which an individual functions determine the level of literacy
necessary.

In defining literacy, three factors have traditionally been considered:
basic age, level of achievement in relation to grade completion, and
function in relation to social and economic conditions. The contradic-
tions and complexity of the problem as well as the variety and levels of
needs among various clientele compound the factors librarians must
consider in providing literacy services.

Recent studies in adult education document functional needs of
adults in the United States as survival needs, coping and life skills needs,
functional competency, and credential or degree requirements. Recently,
voices have been heard emphasizing the need to pay attention to pleasure
reading and to the humanities and arts, as well as to the informational
and practical subjects.

David Harman has defined literacy—that "necessary commodity"
—as encompassing three stages: "The first is the conceptualization of
literacy as a tool. The second is literacy attainment, the learning of read-
ing and writing skills. The third is the practical application of these skills
in activities meaningful to the learner." Freire sees literacy as an "act
of knowing," as "cultural action for freedom"; i.e., reading is thinking.

The Adult Performance Level (APL) study at the University of
Texas at Austin identified five general content areas judged to be critical
to the daily life of successful adults: community resources, occupational
knowledge, consumer economics, health, and government and law. The
five skill areas necessary for APL proficiency were: identification of facts
and terms, reading, writing, computation, and problem-solving. These
content areas and skills provide both librarians and teachers with direc-
tions and indices to appropriate services and materials.

That literacy means "coping skills" is commonly noted. Coping skills
are defined as "the abilities to (1) recognize an everyday survival prob-
lem as an information need; (2) locate information in the problem area;
(3) process that information; and (4) apply the information to help
solve the problem."

Developmental stages of reading may be used in defining literacy.
Total illiteracy applies to few people, but their need is greatest. Func-
tional illiteracy is the stage at which competency is not sufficient for inde-
pendent functioning in society. Limited literacy, the stage at which some
learners stop, implies the ability to deal with materials for immediate
HELEN LYMAN

functional needs, but an inability to continue learning. Literacy, then, is the ability to understand materials, read critically, use complex material, and learn for oneself.⁹

Over the years, it has been recognized that common needs for basic literacy skills exist. The literacy skill has changed from that of simply being able to read and write one's name, or to read at the fourth- or sixth-grade level, to that of reading ability at the twelfth- or thirteenth-grade level. Measurement of literacy depends on the fundamental requirements of the particular environment in which one lives. A recent ALA statement rejects grades and tests as measurements. It further states:

Any definition of literacy must include the following: the reading and comprehension of a variety of printed materials for work and leisure as well as the comprehension of a variety of materials through the electronic media, the ability to communicate in oral and written language, and the ability to use various technological hardware and the accompanying software. Given these dimensions, levels of literacy vary from person to person and from group to group.¹⁰

CLIENTELE

Who are the users or potential users and service groups that would be served by library literacy and learning programs? The clienteles served by libraries include a range of learners of all ages. Specific programs reach out to black and Latino populations, preschool and elementary children and their parents, the foreign-born, those in prison, the elderly, and the undereducated American-born. Not all persons who need and want to develop literacy skills are disadvantaged and poor; some are highly successful and economically independent.¹¹ Lyman identified six ethnic groups that have high literacy needs: American Indians, blacks, the Scotch-Irish Appalachian mountaineers, Mexican Americans, Puerto Rican Americans, and those for whom English is a second language.¹²

The librarian's first step in designing library literacy programs is to identify demographic characteristics, particularly education and income levels, and problems and concerns of the community or the individual. The librarian's concepts about user groups, as well as the factual data about them, determine to a large extent the design and methodology of service.

One of the many significant findings from the Appalachian Adult Education Center (AAEC) demonstration-research project of library
and adult basic education coordinated service was the identification of four groups among adults with less than a high school education and, in most instances, with low income. These four user groups are identified by roman numerals to avoid the misconceptions caused by use of the somewhat debatable terms disadvantaged or illiterate. Individuals can move back and forth in these groups and different groups are represented within one family. The concept of four user groups influences each aspect of a program, such as community analysis, staff, materials, public relations, budget and evaluation.

Group I includes those individuals who are disadvantaged in terms of education but are economically and personally secure. They desire completion of high school and beyond, and they are close to mastery in critical reading, computational and other high school skills. They have high self-expectations, take advantage of existing opportunities and institutional services, and frequently are library users or look favorably on the institution. These people are easily recruited to adult basic education and library programs. They are relatively easy to reach, to teach, and to serve.

Group II includes those individuals who are underemployed, but continuously employed. They are undereducated and may feel the stigma of illiteracy. Usually they can be recruited to adult basic education and literacy programs if those programs serve a need. They show dramatic progress in academic skills and employment status with educational intervention. However, due to the busy lives these people lead, time is a problem; library service must accommodate these people’s schedules.

Group III includes individuals who are extremely deprived. They have only sporadic employment, if any. They see little value in literacy. They are easily discouraged. They need door-to-door recruitment, outreach and support services (such as transportation and child care), and service on a one-to-one basis. They do not define problems as information needs. They look for immediate results. They respond quickly and positively to individualized instruction.

Group IV includes those who are poor, sometimes called the “stationary poor.” They are fatalistic, unemployed, unemployable. They have a decreasing belief in themselves. They need what energy they have for survival; they become invisible. They need help in solving personal problems. This group, although smallest in number, has the greatest needs, is the most difficult to reach, and the most costly. They do respond to friendly paraprofessional workers, indigenous tutors, and empathetic librarians. Like Group III, they are far from mastery of skills and do
not interpret problems as information needs. They need home services and individual attention.

User groups may be identified in various ways. Potential clientele for library literacy education, broadly conceived, include: the independent learner, the adult basic education program participant, the early childhood group, the student in higher education, the bilingual or bicultural client, and the imprisoned. Population groups may be classified by age, schooling, place of residence, ethnic or cultural background, language, and/or disadvantage/handicap. They may be participants in formal or informal programs, such as adult basic education, high school equivalency or college-level education programs, or tutorial or volunteer programs. Librarians are called upon to provide services not only to the program's clientele, but also to its teachers, tutors, administrators and community volunteers.

It has been estimated that 57 million adults are educationally and economically disadvantaged. Despite a high literacy rate in the population, the size of the problem is tremendous: "While the bulk of the U.S. population lives in urban areas, the majority of those functionally illiterate or with few years of schooling live in the rural farm or nonfarm areas." The characteristics of this "geographically remote" clientele indicate significant differences in lifestyles, attitudes and values, and in the services and delivery systems required. Drennan and Shelby have described these differences in a way useful to literacy program design.

A growing sensitivity to individual needs and interests, ethnicity, lifestyles, language differences, and skill levels has resulted in more accurate diagnosis of needs and problems. For example, attention given to strengths as well as weaknesses can be noted. People with learning problems are quite likely to be extremely resourceful in compensatory ways. They may have keen memories, acute powers of observation, and many life experiences. This variety of client needs and skills is met by differentiation of resources in services, staff, materials and facilities.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

Although the major development of library literacy programs occurred in the 1960s and 1970s, some concern was evident in the 1950s. A few librarians indicated the need at that time for library programs in reading improvement, and directed their attention to remedial and speed-reading. The importance of selecting books of high interest and low reading level for children with reading problems was noted by a Cincinnati librarian in 1951. In 1955 the Brooklyn Public Library initiated its
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

reading improvement program. The first of its kind, this program has an unusual 25-year history. It began as a Brooklyn Public Library and Brooklyn College joint experimental research program which included one-to-one tutoring sessions as well as reading guidance for nonreaders and the functionally illiterate. The library's reader's advisor participated by giving book guidance to students, and took charge of the program after its third year.19

In 1957 the Yakima Valley (Washington) Regional Library assisted adults in acquiring literacy through a cooperative program with the LARK (Literacy for Adults and Related Knowledges) Foundation. The library provided space, instruction in the use of the library, leadership and materials.20

At this time and into the 1960s, reader's advisors in the metropolitan libraries of Brooklyn, New York and Philadelphia found that native-born functional illiterates, many from Puerto Rican and black communities, were replacing immigrants in the English classes sponsored by boards of education. In 1958-60 the Cumberland County (North Carolina) Public Library, as part of the Library-Community Project, made a study of the community. A major finding identified the need for literacy education by 45 percent of the population. Although a small library with limited resources, it helped to initiate and coordinate a literacy program with the Fayetteville Technical Institute and a sorority. The library provided leadership, staff assistance, space and materials.21

These early programs contained basic components—community analysis, planning, initiation and interagency cooperation—that have been increasingly stressed as the problem of literacy has gained nationwide recognition. Coleman observed that "the desire to create a reading public among adults and young people for whom literacy was not a functional skill created programs in local public libraries throughout the U.S."22

The first coordinated effort of librarians was the Institute on Reading Improvement for Adults in 1963, jointly sponsored by the ALA-National Education Association Joint Committee and ALA's Adult Services Division. During the institute, the problems of adult illiteracy were set forth. The social climate of concern for poverty and minorities influenced the thinking of librarians. Some felt a strong commitment to serve this population. They considered the illiterate and the functionally illiterate person, who lacked the necessary tools for daily life, to be at the center of the problem. Such a person was "virtually unknown to the educational world of the librarian, publisher, and teacher, but becoming increasingly visible to each of them as a large factor in their library
HELEN LYMAN

communities, selling markets, and school classrooms.\textsuperscript{23} New insights gave impetus to research, service programs, attitudinal changes, training programs, and new patterns of service and material collections—a force which continues to the present.

A small active group of librarians recognized that changes occurring in society were relevant to the library's function as an educational and information agency in society. "We're part of a social revolution," was the opinion of Evelyn Levy, a committed and experienced librarian who directed Baltimore's Enoch Pratt Free Library's Community Action Program.\textsuperscript{24} The "problem clinic," of which Levy was a member, discussed the recurring issues of the role of the library in literacy, the clientele's needs, and funding. The status of library service and the changing role of the librarian in serving an until-recently "unnoticed audience" was summarized. They concluded that:

Efforts to make information, reading, and library services meaningful to the culturally-disadvantaged and especially to the new adult literate have resulted in many new and fascinating library activities. At the same time traditional materials and programs have been re-examined and improved.\textsuperscript{25}

The published report of the panel discussion contains an itemized summary of current efforts which indicate the areas of activity: services for groups, personnel, cooperation with other agencies, community librarians, library programs in the community, participation on other agency boards, provision of specialized materials, and facilities.\textsuperscript{26}

Reading specialist H. Alan Robinson set forth a challenge to librarians in a statement at the 1963 Institute on Reading Improvement for Adults:

Libraries are not only obliged to participate in adult reading improvement programs, they are obliged to activate them. The question of whether to have or not have adult reading programs is purely academic and rather meaningless today. In this changed and changing society, adults must be sought, aggressively, for participation in programs which will increase their levels of literacy.\textsuperscript{27}

Speaking at the 1977 ALA conference, Daniel Fader, author of \textit{Hooked on Books}, challenged young adult librarians to become leaders in the effort to achieve a literate reading population:
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

Librarians must interfere and intervene in homes, classrooms, and communities. They must help people to understand the importance of library resources. They must demonstrate how essential the knowledge of the past and the skills to acquire that knowledge are to the present and the future. Librarians must actively combat illiteracy among children and adults.28

Such concepts go far beyond supplying space and a few materials along with the blessing of sponsorship. These more complex objectives, frequently urged on librarians by those outside the profession, bring creative vision to service.

Following her field survey of library activities in 1964-65, MacDonald noted that the many agencies newly concerned with adult literacy included welfare departments, television studios, private foundations, the federal government, boards of education, university extension programs, churches, and the YMCA/YWCA.29 Libraries responded to the activities of these organizations, and to such social concerns as civil rights and the antipoverty movement. Librarians and teachers interviewed by MacDonald considered the major problems hampering development of service to illiterates to be the lack of trained personnel, appropriate materials, skills, knowledge and ideas. MacDonald stated:

The underlying problem is that many librarians continue to develop central reference services and highly specialized subject collections because this is the kind of librarianship they know well, even while they recognize the urgency and deeper responsibility for the needs at the other end of the spectrum.30

Questions regarding the library's role arose. Should it teach? Should it serve only skilled readers? Although "overly-cautious," "vigorous library leadership had produced an impressive range of activities; joint planning, and programming between libraries and literacy agencies in all fifteen cities visited."31

Clearly, if library staffs were to meet the responsibilities demanded or envisioned for adequate and efficient service to this new clientele, knowledge gained from experimental or demonstration projects and based on research as well as continuing education and training for library staffs were necessary. The need for new information services appropriate to daily life tasks and lifestyles of the functionally illiterate caused stress and tension among staffs unequipped with the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and language ability.
HELEN LYMAN

Programs continued to develop. In 1969 the Right to Read concept focused new attention on the pervasiveness of the literacy problem. In the early 1970s, programs based from school and public libraries were developed to serve students. Further extension of adult basic education programs in school systems stimulated renewed efforts on the part of librarians in Oakland (California), Chicago, Monmouth County (New Jersey), cities and counties of Appalachia, Wellsville (Kansas), Baltimore, Twin Falls (Idaho), Santa Clara Valley (California), Jacksonville (Florida), Denver, and elsewhere. Many program participants sought accreditation for high school diplomas; materials were needed for subject courses as well as for communication skills development. In 1971 the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) began its support of the Right to Read effort. By 1974 enough programs had developed to warrant a report under the joint auspices of Right to Read committees of AASL, the Children’s Services Division, and the Public Library Association.32

RESEARCH

The growing demand for relevant materials for adult learners, Mac-Donald’s survey findings, and the librarian’s need for new knowledge and exemplary practice stimulated several important research projects. Like many library literacy programs, they were made possible by financial support from the U.S. Office of Education.

A 5-year (1967-72) study, the Library Materials Research Project at University of Wisconsin–Madison helped define for librarians the materials needed by the adult new reader (reading at eighth-grade level or above), the problem of adult illiteracy, and the responses of adult education and the library to the problem. Criteria for analysis of reading materials were developed along with extensive information on the characteristics of adult new readers and their reading interests, activities and behaviors. The published report, Library Materials in Service to the Adult New Reader, provided a comprehensive framework for practitioner insights. The study emphasized the human capacities of adults and the potential of service to improve and expand the skills and interests of readers. Investigator and director Helen Lyman stated:

Libraries have the professional skill and resources that should make it possible to: coordinate services with adult education agencies, provide advisory services both for students and teachers, search for material that fits class and individual needs, and
support reading guidance services which assist the student to
find materials for continuing reading and becoming an inde-
pendent reader.  

The Appalachian Adult Education Center's project interrelating
library and adult basic education services developed a model for achiev-
ing new patterns of service through community involvement and inter-
agency cooperation. The project developed a theoretical base and meth-
odology to assist the librarian and adult educator in developing literacy
programs to achieve client-centered objectives as well as institutional
goals. The project findings have made a major contribution to the knowl-
edge, practice and training for library service. Specific findings relate to
the nature of the disadvantaged learner, and to the education and train-
ing of professional and paraprofessional staff. Although the program and
its informal learning institutes focused on Appalachia, they have had
broad national and international influence. The reports and library service
guides produced by the project are valuable aids. AAEC's innovative
practices set a model for others who see their function as serving the
undereducated through the initiation and continuation of innovative and
effective adult education programs.  

The Rural Appalachian Progress skills (RAPskills) research project
has contributed knowledge to the scanty literature on the problems, frus-
trations, conflicts and barriers to interagency service which arise when
goal perceptions among agency staff and between the learner and the
staff differ. The project had as its major objective the improvement of
basic reading, writing and computational skills, and the resultant personal
growth of youthful dropouts and adults in the impoverished rural Appa-
lachian counties of northwestern North Carolina. Educational opportuni-
ties in learning centers and through home visits by paraprofessionals were
offered under the cooperative sponsorship of the Maryland Technical
Institute and the Avery-Mitchell-Yancey Regional Library with the assis-
tance of Appalachian State University. In some instances the objective
was achieved and personal lives were influenced positively. The failure
to generate commitment among the agencies pointed up the problems
of imposing programs designed for social change where they have not
been requested. Insights gained from this research may assist others in
anticipating and solving similar problems.  

Two major contributions to the literature on the information-seeking
habits of the urban poor contain comprehensive data specifically related
to library service. Hardy Franklin's doctoral dissertation considered adult
communication practices and public library use in a northern black
HELEN LYMAN

ghetto. Duran and Monroe examined the communication patterns of a Latino community of Chicago. Their extensive findings have grave implications for libraries serving Latino communities.

PATTERNS OF SERVICE

Libraries have responded to the changing concepts of literacy, to the social and educational environments, and to the individual needs of learners that have created new demands. Traditional basic services and materials collections have been extended and adapted, and new resources found. A new concept of reference service has emerged — the information and referral service. Learning centers and learner's counseling and advisory services have extended the library's educational role. Tutorial programs have evolved in which the library and librarian take an active, sustained part. Integral components of all such services have been the involvement of the community in planning, and interagency collaboration in such aspects as management, staffing and public relations.

Literacy programs with one or more types of service are widespread. In 1964 fifteen libraries were identified as active in the literacy effort. In 1978-79 more than seventy-one library systems in twenty-three states and the District of Columbia reported their activities to the Office for Library Service to the Disadvantaged.

The primary objective of these programs has been to develop the knowledge and learning skills necessary for achieving the learner's goals. The programs were characterized as individualistic, one-to-one, confidential, free, advisory, tutorial and informational. The range of services included: provision and development of materials and bibliographies in print and audiovisual formats; educational advice on decision-making and goal-setting; assistance to the self-motivated student who has command of the language and to the beginner who needs basic skills; assistance to program tutors; referrals to other agencies; informational resources; training for staff and community volunteers in special techniques and information resources; consultation and cooperation with other programs; organization and support of tutorial literacy programs for various levels and knowledge areas (e.g., beginning basic skills, adult basic education, high school equivalency, English as a second language, and college-level study); and recruitment of tutors, students and volunteers. Significant programs for children were being conducted in Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Oklahoma and Washington. In Greensboro, North Carolina, an extensive, well-established tutorial program was Children's Improvement Reading Program (CHIRP).
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

Literacy and learning programs in public libraries employ a variety of approaches and encompass a range of cooperative efforts with agencies working toward a common goal. For example, the Gay County Public Library in Panama City, Florida, cooperated with thirty other agencies and organizations in establishing a literacy program. The Mountain View (California) Public Library in the R.E.A.D. program provided a range of services, including counseling, referral, tutoring, diagnosis, public relations, production of materials, and training workshops.

Adult education programs in metropolitan cities such as New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Dallas, Tulsa, Denver and Chicago, where public libraries have a tradition of educational service, have reached out to both children and adults. Examples are Brooklyn’s 25-year-old reading development program, New York’s Literacy Volunteer Project, and Chicago’s Study Unlimited Program. The Enoch Pratt Free Library in Baltimore sponsors six major programs: Adult Basic Education, Community Literacy and Learning, College Learner’s Advisory Service, Reading Resource Centers, Mini-Media Center for Undereducated Adults, and Literacy and Skills Center. Ten components of the Adult Learning Program at the Free Library of Philadelphia provide a full range of educational opportunities: the unique Reader Development Program, the Adult Learning Center, Lifelong Learning Centers, the Consumer Information Program, the Center for Literacy, the Adult Basic Education and General Educational Development (GED) classes (in branches with life-coping skills collections), English as a second language, Adult Education for the Deaf, a staff awareness program, and active participation in professional associations. This library has provided national leadership and contributed new knowledge based on its experience and practices. The variety and distinctive quality of various programs throughout the country suggest the individualization and differentiation necessary due to differing characteristics of each community.

In many instances, libraries focus on preschool and elementary school children and their parents. Librarians and teachers as well as reading specialists have become increasingly aware of the influential role of the parent and family in children’s reading achievement and reading readiness. The Thorndike study, conducted in fifteen countries, concluded that home and environmental background are important factors behind differing reading levels of students among and within countries. This concept, i.e., of parenting as a vital force in preparing children for reading, is being extended to include all individuals and organizations concerned with the child’s development.
Tutorial programs and learning centers have emerged as significant services in libraries. The paraprofessional, indigenous home tutors were a vital link with the AAEc Library-ABE project. Small libraries and large regional library systems have been able to administer the entire spectrum of service. The library's responsibilities include: training tutors; tutoring students; recruiting tutors, students, assistants and administrators for the program; coordinating the program; public relations; and counseling and advisory services. Many such programs are made possible by the technical assistance of the two major literacy organizations: Literacy Volunteers of America, Inc. (LVA), and the National Affiliation for Literacy Advance (NALA). "Libraries Open Doors to Literacy Councils" reads one NALA headline; "One of the brightest and best LVA affiliate involvements is with libraries" expresses LVA's view of its ever-increasing cooperation and closer involvement with libraries. During 1977 approximately twenty libraries sponsored LVA programs and assisted nearly 800 readers; each year the number grows. From Carruthersville, Missouri, to Waterbury, Connecticut, and Chester County, Pennsylvania, active, cooperative programs have emerged.

Learning centers in libraries or as separate units present a new model for service in response to literacy education needs. The centers provide alternatives for learners and create informal, nonthreatening environments at times and places convenient to the learners and close to resources.

During 1965-76 librarians and reading specialists continued to discuss the part librarians could play in the learning-to-read movement. Various reading programs were initiated that reached a wide range of learners — preschool, older teens and adults. New teaching methods, such as Operation Alphabet, Words in Color and Unifon, were reported. Emphases on what librarians need to know about the reading process, terms, methods, concepts and developments gradually evolved into the concepts of the literacy librarian and individualized, library learning centers.

MATERIALS SERVICE

The development of collections to include all communications media resources has been, and continues to be, a unique and basic service of libraries of all types — school, special, academic and public. In 1965 the Public Library Association Board of Directors set forth this responsibility in a strong statement:

This responsibility for service to undereducated persons grows from recognition of the public library's major social role as
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

change-agent; to select, organize, provide, and stimulate the use of materials for communication and learning.  

A basic assumption underlying the Lyman Library Materials Research Project was: "the progress of the adult new reader from minimal literacy to an increasingly mature use of print is aided by the relevance of materials to his basic motivations, strong interests, value system, lifestyle, roles and tasks." It has become clear to the profession that if library collections are to meet current definitions of literacy and needs of the learner-user or adult new readers, they must be developed in a variety of formats, from various sources, and at different skill levels, with content, information, interest and appeal most useful and meaningful to the user.

Evaluation and selection of appropriate materials has been a problem because of the diversity among individuals and publics of potential users. The complexity of the selection problem has been magnified by the complexity of demands; the needs of individuals; various literacy curricula, either skill- or content-oriented, or both; and the variety of formal and informal adult basic education programs for social, welfare and vocational program participants in need of basic skills. This selection is further complicated by differing cultural backgrounds and language factors. New emphases have been centered on grade levels (a controversial measurement); on adult material that is truly adult; on diversity in content and formats; on high interest/low reading level materials; and on flexibility in terms of quality.

For the first time, criteria for analysis of materials as an aid to evaluation, selection and use has been identified and categorized into checklists. Developed for librarians and teachers, these models have provided an instrumental tool for staff and students of education and librarianship.

The Material Analysis Criteria (MAC) checklist provides a detailed, systematic approach based on research and tested in use. It includes analysis of bibliographic data, content analysis, measurement of readability/appeal, and quantitative measurement, along with a guide which explains how to use the MAC checklist. Howard Ball's model for selection focuses on adult basic education materials and is detailed and oriented toward educational use. A shorter, 2-page checklist for analysis of adult basic education reading materials has been developed by a committee of the International Reading Association.

To meet the librarians' and library school students' need for study and training in collection development, Lyman has contributed several detailed discussions.
tion, types of collections, and problems, and McCallan reviewed the most recent thinking on organization of literacy collections in *Drexel Library Quarterly*’s issue on “The Public Library and Adult Basic Education.”

The Free Library of Philadelphia has pioneered in special collections development through its Reader Development and Life Coping (Survival) Skills collection, and its adult basic education and learning collections. Through its newsletter *Pivot*, the library serves not only Philadelphia programs, but librarians across the nation with critical evaluations of materials and news. Laubach Literacy’s New Readers Press publishes the library’s *Reader Development Bibliography* with annotations, and LVA provides equally important lists. Both lists cover material for beginning readers. Individual libraries continue to develop and publish lists appropriate to the communities they serve.

The acquisition and selection of core materials at basic skill levels, and of practical immediate usefulness, has been a persistent, frustrating problem. New and alternative sources from small and ethnic publishers, paperback publishing, the growth of relevant materials among trade publishers, and new media resources in the audiovisual field have helped to alleviate the lack of choices in this area. Individual libraries have produced their own lists, and fairly extensive bibliographies published by New Readers Press and LVA attest to the change that has taken place. Broader content coverage is evident in the development of collections on job information, coping skills, and adult basic education that support services in libraries and other agencies. To some degree, materials are now being rewritten at needed levels.

For the first time, a bibliography of materials exclusively concerned with the humanities and at zero- to eighth-grade reading levels has been compiled. This bibliography, supported by a grant from the National Endowment for the Humanities, has been a project of LVA and five libraries with established literacy programs.

**EDUCATION AND TRAINING**

A direct and influential interrelationship has existed among researchers, practicing librarians and teachers in education agencies. The relationship has been stimulated by the need to develop community services to meet emerging literacy education demands, the knowledge gained from research and demonstration projects, and the desire to improve librarians’ competencies and skills in this area. Such mutual assistance has been a positive force. In addition, surveys and research studies by
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

Librarians, library science educators, and graduate students have been carried on with the assistance of practitioners. The dissemination of findings and products of research have been made available through traditional reports and articles, but research findings take on new meaning when incorporated in staff development programs.

Continuing education opportunities at local, state and national levels have been offered by professional associations, library schools, state libraries and regional library systems. The impetus for learning has been continuous, and over the years hundreds of librarians have participated. In 1955 the Brooklyn Public Library Reader Improvement Program was initiated through a training program with Brooklyn College and a manual for staff development. In 1966 three workshops were offered and were attended by librarians from across the country: (1) the ALA/ASD Committee on Reading Improvement workshop on selection and evaluation of materials; (2) the institute on “Library Services for New Literates” at University of Wisconsin–Madison; and (3) the Reading Center’s conference, “The Library and the Functionally Illiterate Adult” at the Cleveland Public Library. In 1972 students at Wayne State University’s Office of Urban Library Research planned and conducted a 3-day seminar, “Public Library Service to the Illiterate Adult.” Participants included students, alumni and practicing librarians.

As a direct and indirect result of the Library Materials Research Project research, two workshops on “The Adult New Reader and His Reading” were held in 1973 at the University of Wisconsin–Madison Library School. These workshops centered around evaluation and selection of materials for adult new readers. One was attended by librarians from various parts of the country; the other was conducted expressly for Library-ABE project personnel involved in the AAEC project. In 1974 an important state conference on adult basic education and public library service assisted Florida librarians in gaining awareness and new skills. “Adult Literacy” was the theme of the Missouri Library Association Outreach Round Table spring workshop at Jefferson County in 1978.

The stimulus that has come from the activities of professional state and national associations is impossible to assess. Certainly, during these years membership activities on numerous committees, continuing education opportunities at conference programs and workshops, and the leadership of ALA have been important factors in bringing information and help to the library profession. Equally important, it seems, have been the relationships with other literacy programs in promoting such activities as Right to Read and Reading is Fundamental.
Regional workshops have assisted practitioners at the local level. In 1974 a staff development program was undertaken as part of the San Jose, California, R.E.A.D. Project. In 1975 the Free Library of Philadelphia and NALA cosponsored a workshop at which librarian participants discussed problems of literacy and reviewed materials.

Since 1974 special programs and workshops have been sponsored at ALA's annual conference by Reference and Adult Services Division (RASD), the American Library Trustee Association (ALTA), Public Library Association (PLA), Association of Library Service to Children (ALSC), Young Adult Services Division (YASD), and Office of Library Services for the Disadvantaged (OLSD). The range of services is demonstrated in such current committees as: PLA Alternative Education Program Section, ALTA Task Force on Literacy Programs, PLA Information and Referral Services, and YASD High Interest/Low Level Literacy Materials Evaluation. The OLSD Advisory Board and staff have provided leadership within the association and the profession through active formation of literacy projects. ALA's support has been evident in nationwide promotion, publication of materials, and development of continuing education opportunities. Several recent efforts of national impact made under the direction of OLSD have included: the initiation, publication and promotion of a manual for librarians, Literacy and the Nation's Libraries; a Directory of Literacy and Adult Programs; and a Literacy Training Project.

During 1979, OLSD with foundation funds conducted three Literacy Training Workshops at Bloomington (Indiana), Denver, and Syracuse (New York). At these 4-day workshops, 122 librarians from 35 states were trained in the techniques of establishing programs to teach basic literacy skills to disadvantaged adults. This training model can be adapted to different situations and serves as a guide for library science educators and continuing education programs. Components of the model include content essential to develop competencies in community and library assessment, planning, interagency cooperation, public relations and public awareness, the teaching of reading, management of literacy programs, services, counseling, learner's advisory service, information and referral, collection development and tutorial programs. They illustrate the progress that has been made and the range of alternative services and competencies librarians have recognized as essential to literacy program development.
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

PRESENT AND FUTURE

Significant advances have been made in the development of patterns of library service in response to the literacy education movement. This growth has continued over a period of twenty-five years, with a flurry of activity in the 1970s. This sustained but fragmented effort continues a long tradition of educational service in libraries and of leadership from the library associations. Events of 1979 seem to predict continuing development and a more intensive and widespread effort in the future.

By the most conservative estimate, it can be said that several hundred librarians have a shared pool of experience, training and practice on which to build. How alive and dynamic is the interest among community representatives of lay people and librarians has been demonstrated in the governors’ conferences on libraries held in each state preliminary to the White House Conference on Libraries and Information Services. An unexpected emphasis on literacy as a part of lifelong learning has evolved. For example, the New York conference resolved:

that public libraries and public library systems support and supplement the efforts of literacy volunteers, Right to Read programs, and adult basic education centers to raise the reading levels of functionally illiterate adults and to provide appropriate materials for them; and that, in coordination with other community and educational organizations and other types of libraries, public libraries establish community information and referral centers.61

Preconference activities seem to have stimulated the Theme Conference on Libraries and Literacy at Reston, Virginia, in spring 1979. At that time, national leaders, specialists, librarians and teachers in intensive discussions hammered out strong recommendations on the role of the libraries in the national literacy effort.62

A distinctive trend is discernible in use of terms and the broadened concept of literacy—a trend indicating change in attitude and awareness. Adult roles are distinguished more clearly from those of children; adult materials with adult concepts and content have replaced children’s materials. The importance of well-trained staff to work with clientele of varied backgrounds and education levels has been uppermost in developing quality service. The need for appropriate materials has been partially met, and knowledge of what is appropriate has been clarified. Librarians
HELEN LYMAN

and publishers predict a continuing effort to produce acceptable quality materials. Greater investments and use must be made possible.

Although constraints of funding have terminated or restricted some services, others have been initiated and new sources or reallocation of funds made. In spite of restrictions, new and formerly untapped sources of funds are often available from local foundations and private interest groups, as well as federal and state programs for which libraries are eligible. Librarians with informed, well-documented proposals and political skills in competing for funds will be able to tap these resources.

The role of libraries and librarians in teaching, particularly the teaching of reading, has been a recurring issue. This issue begins to seem less relevant and even nonexistent. Libraries are active partners with schools, literacy organizations, and private and public groups that take on the primary role of teaching, while libraries assume coordinating, administrative and resource functions. Both LVA and NALA plan extensive cooperative efforts with libraries. Such programs are directed more toward the groups most in need of basic skills and often least served. More attention needs to be directed to evaluation and impact of programs. Enrollment statistics and subjective opinion predominate. The Appalachian Adult Education Center Project stands out as a model. Librarians in general are able to meet the needs of adult basic education students who are close to mastery. Like the Adult Basic Education program, which reaches little more than 5 percent of potential students, library programs appear to reach a minimal number, chiefly from Groups I and II. The Group III and Group IV clienteles, those with the greatest need, require the greatest resources. It is in this area of service that librarians and library trustees must make choices and set priorities.

Nevertheless, despite the advances, the urgency of the literacy problem in the United States is very real. More relevant scientific information about adult literacy, and more active collaboration among researchers, practitioners, policy-makers and community representatives are needed. There is also need for research to examine: "the critical assumptions underlying current literacy objectives, definitions of adult literacy, or methods of measuring it. Too often, explanations of ways to promote literacy fail to consider its complex relationships with other social, cultural and economic conditions." [7]

What research exists needs wider dissemination to directors of libraries, library trustees and practitioners. Literacy and library school educators need information derived from the professional experience of practitioners. Librarians need to incorporate research findings into their
Literacy Education as Library Community Service

services and practice. They can learn from scholarly contributions from the fields of history, anthropology, linguistics, economics, psychology and reading. (The papers presented at the Theme Conference on Libraries and Literacy offer this kind of valuable information.) Librarians must be receptive to experiments and open to new services to achieve the literacy goal.

Librarians particularly need to work closely with teachers and adult educators to exchange information about learners and their needs. They also need to work closely with counselors and learners themselves to clarify learners' goals and expectations. This latter knowledge is essential to achievement of realistic objectives.

It appears that the study of reading, of approaches to the teaching of basic skills, and of methods and research in this area should be part of the librarian's preparation for work. Reading specialists, in turn, should study librarianship to become vital resource personnel.

For the future, significant signs point to continuing developments in the library world's involvement in literacy education. With sustained support and increasing knowledge gained from practice and research, it should be possible to initiate and maintain an ever-growing number of quality programs based on commitment; informed, competent staff; and a wide range of resources. All concerned should be in a better position than ever before to achieve, through well-planned literacy programs, the objectives that will result in literate communities throughout the nation.

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HELEN LYMAN


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Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

JOAN C. DURRANCE

This article focuses on the role that citizen groups, both grass roots and nationally affiliated, play in local communities. It will examine the history of these groups, describe their activities (which are the basis for an emerging public service), present research findings, and sketch emerging library service patterns in several communities.

THE PHENOMENON

The activities of citizen groups in the political arena have undergone a quantum increase in recent years at the state and national level, as well as in communities across America. This increase in political action, usually associated with problems and issues which affect citizens, has been well covered by the media. The national media of the late 1970s have covered the activities of government watchdog groups such as Common Cause, Nader public interest research groups, environmental groups like Sierra Club and Friends of the Earth, and consumer and civil rights groups, to name a few. Local newspapers note the impact of local groups as they take on such community problems and issues as battered wives, preservation of Victorian neighborhoods, redlining by banks and insurance companies, placement of nuclear power plants, or conditions in nursing homes. The results of citizen group concern include passage of the Sunshine Act, freedom of information acts and anti-redlining legisla-
tion, as well as environmental and consumer protection action by federal, state and local governments.

THE CONDITIONS

The political and social upheavals of the 1960s helped set the stage for the increased citizen group activities of the 1970s. The movements in the 1960s raised fundamental questions and forced large segments of the population to reconsider basic values. It is important to note, however, that the predominant styles of activists in the 1960s and 1970s are different. Observers of the New Left point out that confrontation, the style of the 1960s, did not include the development of grass roots organizations.2 Citizen group activity of the 1970s, on the other hand, has been characterized by citizen involvement at all levels, from neighborhood to national, and "by an increasing scope ... [and] intensity of ... activity."

The conditions of government as well have set the stage for current citizen group activity. David Cohen of Common Cause describes the conditions which had developed by the late 1960s:

As government programs and machinery grew in complexity, the regulated industries and their regulators were able to manipulate the results, while citizens with consumer, environmental, and minority concerns, were left largely on the outside. Governmental institutions, particularly the Congress, were incapable of handling or were unwilling to deal with the major issues, as politicians ducked the controversial questions.4

Corruption in government, as evidenced by Watergate, Koreagate, and the congressional scandals of the late 1970s, has increased citizen group activity. In fact, groups like Common Cause and Ralph Nader's consumer groups were developed to deal with prevailing conditions of government. Paradoxically, these same governmental conditions also produced the anomalous political climate of the 1970s: a widespread distrust of government and politicians, and an apathetic citizenry.

CITIZEN GROUPS DEFINED

There is a need to clarify the terminology used to describe community groups and organizations. At present, several terms are in common usage among librarians. When Muriel Javelin surveyed the library (as opposed to information) service needs of community organizations in 1967, she was looking primarily at community agencies and institu-
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

However, when Pauline Wilson surveyed community groups "working to bring about social change," she was looking at voluntary associations — and was careful to make that distinction. The term community groups, then, has a wide variety of meanings; it is a general term which may refer to voluntary associations, ethnic populations or social agencies.

For purposes of clarification, a distinction is made here between community groups or organizations and citizen groups, since the term citizen group is more specific in its meaning. Citizen group, as used in the late 1970s, is often a synonym for a specific type of voluntary association. Most commonly, a citizen group is a nonprofit, citizen-initiated, voluntary association which attempts to influence decision-makers. This definition includes such groups as "formal civic associations of a nonpartisan nature. . . [including] taxpayers' associations, civic improvement associations, Leagues of Women Voters, and a host of organizations whose emphasis is on civic improvement."

Governments have added another type of citizen group which functions differently from those described above because it is government-rather than citizen-initiated. This type of citizen group, the citizen advisory group, is found increasingly at federal, state and local levels of government and often is required by statute. The citizen advisory group is designed to broaden participation of citizens in public policy decision-making. Often the citizen advisory group is composed of representatives from selected citizen groups.

CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

Stuart Langton of the Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs at Tufts University has identified four categories of citizen participation: (1) obligatory participation, (2) electoral participation, (3) citizen action, and (4) citizen involvement. The first two categories, which include voting, paying taxes, jury duty and military service, are outside the scope of this paper, but the latter two categories include activities of citizen groups — and provide a strong rationale for the provision of library service.

Developed by Langton, Table 1 clearly distinguishes the characteristic features of these two major types of citizen participation. Activities initiated and controlled by citizen groups like the League of Women Voters, National Organization for Women, or local grass roots organizations, are included under the heading Citizen Action, while the govern-
ment-initiated activities of groups, such as advisory committees to area councils of government, community development agencies, or mayors' or governors' councils, appear under *Citizen Involvement*.

**TABLE 1. CATEGORIES OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Citizen Action</th>
<th>Citizen Involvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Major distinguishing feature</td>
<td>Refers to activities initiated and controlled by citizens for some purpose</td>
<td>Refers to activities initiated and controlled by government for administrative purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major purpose</td>
<td>To influence decisions of government officials or voters</td>
<td>To improve decision-making and services and to develop consensus and support for decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples of activities</td>
<td>Lobbying, public education, protest, public advocacy, civil disobedience, class-action suits</td>
<td>Advisory committees, public hearings, goals programs, surveys, hot lines, volunteer programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant concerns</td>
<td>Organizing effectively, obtaining appropriate information, developing support, raising funds, making maximum political and public impact</td>
<td>Involving more citizens, informing citizens better, broadening the range of citizen representation, maintaining citizen interest, effective utilization of citizen involvement in decision-making, obtaining necessary funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typically interested groups</td>
<td>Neighborhood and community action groups, public interest and consumer groups, community agencies, individual citizens</td>
<td>Legislative committees, administrative agencies, regulatory agencies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


In recent years, government at all levels has become increasingly committed to planning for citizen participation in public policy decision-making. The federal government requires citizen participation in "virtually all programs in which Federally appropriated funds are used."10 State and local government agencies and service delivery systems increasingly include citizen participation mechanisms.11 This participation takes the form of acceptance of direct citizen input through hearings, surveys, etc., or of creation of advisory committees. In spite of a great expenditure of effort, the success of citizen advisory committees has been fairly
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

limited. A recent study of mandated school advisory councils revealed that the most serious problems associated with the implementation of these committees were related to: (1) lack of significant power and authority, (2) isolation of the committees within the administrative structure, and (3) absence of "adequate information, training and other support services to enable citizens to carry out their responsibilities."\(^{12}\)

Whereas the major purpose of government-initiated citizen participation is to improve government decision-making and service, the major purpose of citizen group activity is to influence public policy decision-making. An extensive bibliography on the functioning of both types of groups has been prepared by Hutcheson and Shevin; the bulk of the bibliography is devoted to the roles both types of groups play in various service delivery systems, including education, criminal justice, environment/natural resources, health and housing.\(^{13}\) Whether government- or citizen-initiated, access to adequate information is one key to the viable functioning of these groups in their communities. Emphasis in this paper is given to the functioning of the most frequently occurring group, the citizen-initiated and controlled group.

CITIZEN GROUP FUNCTIONING: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Is citizen group involvement in the solving of community and public policy problems a pattern of American democracy? Americans have been noted for their disposition to unite to accomplish something at least since the 1830s, when Alexis de Tocqueville observed that Americans were a "'nation of joiners' and wrote that 'Americans of all ages, all conditions and all dispositions constantly form associations.'"\(^{14}\) Around the turn of the century, the British observer James Bryce wrote of Americans:

Associations are created, extended, and worked in the United States more quickly and effectively than in any other country. In nothing does the executive talent of the people better shine than in the promptitude wherewith the idea of an organization for common object is taken up, in the instinctive discipline that makes everyone who joins in starting it fall into his place, in the practical, business-like turn which the discussions forthwith take.\(^{15}\)

In the nineteenth century, groups were formed with interests "as diverse as freedom for the slaves, ... child labor, public baths, juvenile court
systems, removal of billboards, playground facilities, public schools, and beautification."16

Citizen group activity has tended toward stable growth with periodic increases such as those observed in the 1960s and 1970s, as well as in the period 1911-20. Table 2 below is adapted from a national survey conducted in 1975 by Andrew Bavas. It shows that citizen groups may remain viable for many decades.

TABLE 2. DATES OF ESTABLISHMENT OF GOVERNMENT WATCHDOG GROUPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Establishment</th>
<th>Percentage of All Groups Surveyed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1875 or before</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1876-1900</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901-10</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-20</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-30</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-40</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941-50</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951-60</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-70</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971-74</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Of the citizen groups included in the Bavas survey, 13.4 percent have survived since their founding in the decade 1911-20. The League of Women Voters and the American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU) had their beginnings in that decade. Both the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the Sierra Club predate 1910. There is considerable evidence that Americans will continue to form organizations to help solve problems and to influence public policy decision-making.

NUMBER OF CITIZEN GROUPS NATIONWIDE

As libraries prepare to develop information services designed to meet needs, they must know the numbers and types of groups which exist in their communities. There are a few national figures, but they have been
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

prepared only within the past three or four years. The first comparative figures were compiled for the National Conference on Citizen Participation held in September 1978 in Washington, D.C. The compiler notes that:

While it is not possible to estimate accurately the number of citizen action organizations that have arisen in the past several decades, there are a few estimates that indicate the scope of this movement. For example . . . the National Commission on Neighborhoods has identified more than 8000 grass root neighborhood organizations in the United States; . . . in New York alone there are more than 10,000 block associations. In his 1972-73 study, Jeffrey Berry noted that he had identified more than 100 national public interest groups with offices in Washington, D.C. The Office of Consumer Affairs of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare has estimated that there are more than 450 consumer groups in the nation. . . . It has been estimated that there are approximately 350 environmental-action organizations and 650 cases of citizen-initiated environmental litigation. The Office of Neighborhoods, Voluntary Associations and Consumer Affairs of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development has identified nearly 15,000 consumer and citizen groups.17

National statistics give an indication of the scope and number of groups, but information about local citizen group activity must be generated by a local agency; the most appropriate agency in most communities is the public library. Today many libraries are developing community information files which include local citizen group information.

DEVELOPING A FRAME OF REFERENCE FOR EXAMINATION OF CITIZEN GROUPS

FOCUS ON NEEDS

In recent years a research literature has emerged within the library field focusing on and delineating the characteristics of particular types of library users and potential users.18 Indeed, for some time public libraries have developed special services for various clientele with identified characteristics: the elderly, businessmen, the blind, etc. Edward Warner has recently expressed the necessity of building services based on studies of
needs: "To the extent possible, the demonstrated needs of a library's constituency—inferred from the measurement of scientifically-observed objective data—must constitute the primary basis upon which to establish, develop, and discontinue library collections and services."¹⁹

The National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, "charged with primary responsibility for developing and recommending overall plans for library and information services adequate to meet the needs of the people of the United States,"²⁰ in late 1973 sponsored a conference which produced a series of papers focusing on the information needs of sixteen distinct client groups. In the preface to the conference papers, Carlos A. Cuadra noted that the papers are the "first steps toward defining the needs of many special constituencies."²¹ Citizen groups were not among the client groups discussed at that conference, yet their importance to communities as a tool of democracy is widely recognized. Citizen groups are among the most important potential user groups of public library information services not only because they are consumers of information, but also because they are disseminators of information to a wide spectrum of the community on a broad range of public policy issues.

CITIZEN GROUP ROLE IN INFORMATION TRANSFER

Citizen group members seek information, throughout the community and beyond, on public policy issues of concern to them; they translate the collected information into messages which conform to organizational patterns of action; and finally, they disseminate information to members of their own group and to other citizen group members, to the general public, to media sources and to decision-makers, both within and outside the community. The model represented in Figure 1 demonstrates the role citizen groups play in information transfer. The activities shown in the model vary from study of an issue or problem to some form of public advocacy. The process is repeated many times a year in any medium-sized community.

Citizen groups seek to reach a variety of individuals in their communities. Three general targets of disseminated information are shown in the model: citizen group members, decision-makers (both elected officials and bureaucrats), and the general public. Citizen group leaders use a variety of channels or methods of disseminating information, such as personal and telephone contacts, meetings, letters and telegrams. In addition, groups may prepare informative materials ranging from newsletters and reports to press releases and flyers. Use of the media may
Sources of information on an issue:

Primary and Secondary: National, State & Local Government, Research, Industry

Channels through which information is obtained:

Two way

Hearings, Interviews, Meetings, Forums

One way

TV, Radio, Newspapers, Books, Regulations, Hearing Transcripts

Translation Phase: Production of information products

Channels through which information is disseminated:

Two way

Conversations, Group Discussions, Workshops, Meetings

One way

Newsletters, Posters, Newspapers, TV, Radio

Targets:

CGM: Citizen group member
DM: Decision-maker
G: General public

FIGURE 1. ROLE OF CITIZEN GROUPS IN INFORMATION TRANSFER
greatly increase the group's audience. Examination of citizen group activities from an information perspective provides the basis for the development of a frame of reference for library service.

The citizen group activities sketched below illustrate types of information seeking suggested by the model. Examination of a group's activities provides knowledge of the issues of concern to that group. Some of the particular information needs may be met by library resources; others may not. The library is only one source of public policy information in a community; however, it is seen increasingly by some citizen groups as an agency which has the potential to serve as an information link.

ACTIVITIES AS BASIS FOR INFORMATION NEEDS

Since the activities and projects of a citizen group serve as the basis for much of its information needs, several case studies are sketched below, along with a brief description of typical information needs associated with each activity. Case studies are drawn from interviews with citizen group leaders in Madison, Wisconsin; Ann Arbor, Michigan; and Toledo, Ohio.22

1. Domestic Violence Project: A local chapter of a national women's organization developed this extensive project which included several components. The group sought to determine the extent of spouse assault and the types of assistance available to battered women, as well as to develop service to meet perceived needs. The information required included the number of assault cases reported involving spouse abuse (statistics were not kept in that form by local police departments), policies of affected agencies, the extent of agency assistance, legal definitions, descriptions of action taken in other communities, etc.

2. Alternatives for a State Agency Transportation Plan: A grass roots group sought to provide alternatives to a long-range transportation plan designed by a state transportation agency. The group needed information on the criteria used by the planners; knowledge of viable alternatives to highways; and economic, social and environmental information relevant to each alternative. At the local level, the group needed information about planned and proposed highways, as well as knowledge of land sales associated with highway development.

3. Neighborhood Historic Ordinance Project: A neighborhood association located in a well-defined area containing homes built between 1850 and 1920 fought for passage of a local historic preservation ordinance which would halt further deterioration of their neighborhood. Information needed included knowledge of the homes in the area (e.g., age, styles of
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

architecture, neighboring land use, etc.); information about ordinances in other historic places; political and general information about the city government; and knowledge about period architecture.

4. Financing State Government Services: The League of Women Voters of one state is currently examining and revising its position statements concerning the financing of government services and has formed a committee of members from several chapters throughout the state. This committee needs to examine and distill a great deal of information about the nature of taxation in this state; constitutional requirements regarding taxation, the tax base and tax rates; tax proposals submitted as initiatives; and the roles of the legislative and executive branches in the taxation and budgeting process.

5. Billboard Control Ordinance: A grassroots group proposed a local billboard control ordinance. This group needed knowledge about state guidelines and local zoning ordinances, ordinances of surrounding cities, model ordinances prepared in other areas, as well as information on successful efforts in other cities.

Public libraries preparing to meet the information needs of citizen groups in their own communities may want to conduct interviews with selected group members, focusing on current activities relating to public policy issues. In addition, library staff may obtain information about current activities by reading local newspapers; attending group meetings; obtaining copies of citizen group newsletters, flyers, brochures and reports; and maintaining community information files.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The library profession has begun to describe the role citizen groups play in information transfer. Pauline Wilson studied community groups “seeking social change” almost ten years ago.\(^{30}\) Wilson’s study provided the library field with its earliest knowledge of the information needs of citizen groups, as well as the first statistics on their library use. She chose to exclude certain groups such as American Civil Liberties Union, Common Cause and the League of Women Voters, which may have been active in local community decision-making but whose \textit{modus operandi} did not meet the criteria of the study. Groups included were those which focused on one of four issues: racism, peace, women’s rights and the environment. Organization names were omitted from the study in the interest of confidentiality. Wilson determined that “the most active members of groups seeking social change are a ‘communications elite’”; she also found that “interpersonal communication with friends and associates
constitutes an important part in the information seeking activity" of these group members. Wilson determined that libraries were not used as information sources for the citizen group activities included in the survey.

A pilot study of citizen group information-related behavior conducted by this writer included both grass roots and nationally affiliated groups in five issue-cluster areas: the environment, civil rights, women's issues, specialized consumer interests and public affairs. A more extensive study of the information-related behavior of citizen groups, including neighborhood groups, is currently being conducted in Toledo, Ohio, by this writer; however, complete data are not yet available. The 1979 survey seeks to describe the role of citizen groups in information transfer in communities through examination of their information seeking and disseminating activities. It will develop a typology of issues and problems which generate citizen group activity in a single community during a specified period of time. In addition, the study will develop a citizen group typology appropriate for public library use. Both the Wilson and Durrance studies are designed to collect data about information needs that are a result of a selected citizen group activity.

One element of both studies that deserves comment is library use. Wilson found that although the public library was not used in conjunction with organization activities, fully 82 percent of those surveyed had used the public library within the past year, while 41 percent had used it within the past month. This is in sharp contrast to the findings of a recent Gallup Poll, which determined that only 51 percent of the general public had visited the library within the past year, and only 9 percent used it once or twice a month. It appears from this data, and from preliminary findings of the 1979 Durrance survey, that many citizen group information seekers may have developed a pattern of library use, although this pattern may not normally include organization-related information seeking. Evidence of limited use of libraries for information is seen frequently in library use studies. The 1978 Gallup Poll determined that only 25 percent of those surveyed had telephoned or visited the library to obtain an answer to a question; 59 percent of those considered to be library users did not use a library to answer questions. Moreover, the figures from a study of information needs of urban residents in Baltimore showed that only 3 percent of the respondents used libraries to obtain information on their most important problems.

These initial research findings suggest that citizen group members, unlike the general public, already use libraries for some purposes. Wilson
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

called them a "communications elite." Nonuse of libraries for organization-related research may result from: (1) failure to identify the library as an information source, (2) general lack of knowledge of library information services and potential, (3) lack of appropriate information services for these groups, or (4) poor or nonexistent communication between libraries and citizen group leadership.

EMERGING LIBRARY SERVICES

PRELUDES TO SERVICE

Services designed to meet the information needs of community groups have begun to develop in public libraries. The models of development vary, but some common elements may be seen. Before information services per se are developed, current information about citizen groups is provided in library-developed community information files. Potential users of information services in the public policy area are among the most readily identifiable in the community. The library which maintains community information files at both the main library and its branches has already identified many leaders of community organizations like the ACLU, League of Women Voters, NAACP, Sierra Club, neighborhood organizations and block clubs. Methods used by several libraries to identify community groups include: (1) interviews with citizen group leaders, (2) development of community information files, (3) use of data compiled by other community agencies, (4) monitoring news media coverage of citizen group activity, and — most often — (5) staff involvement in community organization activity.

Citizen group files generated by libraries are products of the 1970s. The information collected by the Toledo-Lucas County (Ohio) Public Library for its Community Information Project is illustrative: each citizen group identified fills out an information sheet which includes names, addresses and telephone numbers of contact person and officers; purpose of the group; date, place and time of meetings; dues; membership requirements; dates of elections of officers; and term of office. Developing and maintaining contacts with citizen groups is the first phase of information service development.

THREE SERVICE MODELS

Jerry Kidd noted in 1976 that public libraries have shown a "historical indifference" to organized groups. He pointed out that one problem
associated with this indifference is that no service models had been developed to meet the information needs of community groups, and as a result, none could be recommended to public librarianship. Only since that was written have a few models been developed which seek to meet the information needs of citizen groups. These experimental models may be the first steps in erasing indifference to this potentially strong client group.

Comparison of three recently developed (1977-78) citizen group information services shows both divergent and common features. The divergent features are seen in varying service delivery patterns, which may reflect the differences of each community and the circumstances of development. Services provided by the Public Interest Information Network (PIIN) at Dallas Public Library center around its three computerized files: (1) a file of "papers which examine the historical, ethical or sociocultural implications inherent in public policy issues"; (2) a community information source file; and (3) a national information retrieval service which provides citations, abstracts and, as needed, copies of "journal articles on a wide variety of topics related to public policy."

Tulsa's Citizen Information Service (CIS) draws from the same types of information sources as the Dallas Public Library; a major difference is that CIS is not a computerized information service. CIS combines information and referral functions with public policy information services. In addition, Junior League members play an important role in some aspects of the service, such as presentation of "skills" workshops. The role which the library has developed for CIS is twofold: (1) as a "conveyor, [it] takes information from expert sources and passes it on to users," and (2) as a "consultant [or] facilitator...[it provides expertise] on how to diagnose information needs, identify resources, and retrieve from expert sources."

Seattle's Neighborhood Resource Centers (NRCs) reflect the selection of another service model. NRCs are located in each of the twenty-two branches of Seattle Public Library and in its Mobile-Outreach. Clients of NRCs have access to the Community Resource Center (CRC) at Seattle University's Institute of Public Service. The CRC maintains a library of public policy information; it also provides technical assistance to community groups through consulting services, and graduate students who assist groups in their research of local problems and issues. NRCs maintain files for the local community councils ("voluntary organizations of citizens concerned about the quality of life in the neighborhood") on topics of interest, such as land use, transportation, housing rehabilitation,
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

city government and crime prevention. In addition, NRCs provide maps of the neighborhoods they serve which indicate locations of interest to the community. Local documents of particular concern to community groups are available at each NRC; specifically included are city government hearings and notices of hearings, news releases from the city council and the mayor's office, and a list of applicable rulings.

The CRC/NRC functions are similar to those of the Urbanarium in Rochester, New York. The Urbanarium is "an independent, not-for-profit corporation, sponsored by several local, educational, research and communications institutions, including several area colleges and universities, the Center for Governmental Research, a local radio-television station, the Rochester Public Library and the Rochester Museum and Science Center." The mission of the Urbanarium is similar to that of the three library public policy services sketched above: "to assist in the development of a greater Rochester community by improving the competence of its citizens to make well-informed policy choices in selected priority issues."

The common features of these three service models are far more striking than their divergences; they include markedly similar goals and objectives, and a distinctive name which reflects the service objectives and provides a recognition factor for its clientele. Dallas Public Library's PIIN "has been specifically designed to meet the informational needs of governmental agencies and citizens' advocacy groups faced with local public policy decisions." Seattle's NRCs, which grew out of a project of Seattle University's Institute of Public Service, are designed:

to help community groups solve community problems; to aid communications between community groups; to collect and make available information on community projects, problems and solutions, here and across the country; to bring human skills and monetary resources to bear on community problems, . . . to help community groups understand and deal with issues more effectively, and to increase . . . the ability [of community groups] to affect government policy.

The objectives of the Tulsa City-County Library's CIS are to provide "the information people need to make decisions on issues that affect their personal lives and/or their community [and to provide] a reference file on persons with knowledge and/or skills related to the issues," as well as "to communicate to the public the functions and resources of existing groups, coalitions and boards throughout the community."
These objectives suggest another area of commonality: a focus on topics of a public policy nature, thus linking these services to municipal reference services which have existed in some libraries since the turn of the century. Although public policy issues may be similar from one community to the next, they are likely to be approached differently in various regions, states and local areas. Common public policy issues include: the criminal justice system, energy, land use, transportation, employment, the aging, housing, and delivery of health and other public services. Citizen group projects, as noted earlier, are concerned with particular aspects of these issues, such as housing abandonment, stopping or encouraging the development of particular roads or highways, provision of specific services or benefits for the aging, etc.

Although not expressly stated by each new public policy information service, the targets for these emerging services include community leadership and those who seek to influence community leaders and public policy decision-making. Dallas Public Library limits the use of PIIN to “groups and agencies who are involved with public policy”; PIIN suggests that its potential users might include “members of the following bodies: city councils, city departments, regional planning bodies, commissioners courts, citizen advocacy groups, school boards, and neighborhood groups.” Seattle’s NRCs are designed to increase the ability of neighborhood improvement groups to affect government policy.

The several libraries contacted in conjunction with research for this article use various methods to communicate with the potential users of community information services. Brochures, articles in local newspapers and direct mailings have been used to explain particular services and aspects of the services. Presentations at group meetings and workshops designed for citizen groups are ways to develop and maintain contact with public policy decision-makers. Workshops and demonstrations are considered important elements of these new services.

The users of this type of community information are quite different from the users of the most widely developed community information service — information and referral services. Demographic analysis of the users of the Neighborhood Information Center project showed that the average user belonged to 1.1 organizations. Citizen group information seekers interviewed by Wilson belonged to an average of seven organizations. Almond and Verba have noted the importance of voluntary association membership to the adequate functioning of a citizen in society:

The organization member, compared with the nonmember, is likely to consider himself more competent as a citizen, to be a
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

more active participant in politics, and to know and care more about politics. He is, therefore, more likely to be close to the model of the democratic citizen. . . . Membership in some association, even if the individual does not consider the membership politically relevant and even if it does not involve his active participation, does lead to a more competent citizenry.50

Funding for emerging services in the late 1970s and presumably in the 1980s must be developed within the context of austerity budgets. In spite of the cutbacks they have suffered, libraries today are developing needed community information services—first, information and referral services, and, quite recently, public policy information services designed to meet the information needs of citizen groups. Each of the three service models outlined in this article has used outside funding sources—both federal and local—in its developmental stages.

Since each of these services is collaborative in nature, it is likely that the libraries will continue to seek joint funding. The Seattle information service combined funding from Seattle University (which initiated the project), Seattle Public Library and a federal demonstration grant, and employed the expertise of area college and university faculty. Tulsa combined federal funding with grant funds obtained through the Junior League of Tulsa, which also provided the time and expertise of its members. Dallas's PIIN utilizes the expertise of scholars from local colleges and universities to develop single-issue papers "which examine the historical, ethical, or sociocultural implications inherent in public policy issues [such as] urban growth, the role of local government in child care, [and] neighborhood revitalization."51

The collaboration shown in the emergence of these services in the area of public policy is particularly appropriate; the library is but one source of information in a community and can bring only certain strengths to such a service. A collaborative effort may not only link the library to other sources in a community, but can also bring together skills which have not been associated with the library profession, such as those provided by researchers in public policy. Such collaboration will utilize well the skills of the information professional in finding and organizing information in the community.

It is too soon to make evaluative statements about these services. Only one of these experimental models—Tulsa's—has been in operation for more than six months. Each of the services has an internal evaluation built into the project, but they have not been evaluated compara-
Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

13. Hutcheson and Shevin, op. cit.


15. Bryce, James. Quoted in ibid., p. 35.


21. Ibid.

22. Interviews were conducted in Madison, Wis., in June-July 1975; in Ann Arbor, Mich., in Oct.-Nov. 1978; and in Toledo, Ohio, in Feb.-March 1979. A series of sketches of activities of groups seeking social change is included in Wilson, op. cit., pp. 123-35.

23. Wilson, op. cit., p. 58.

24. Ibid., p. 145.

25. Ibid., p. 146.


27. Wilson, op. cit., p. 113.


29. Ibid., p. 29.


32. Information on methods was gathered in Dec. 1978 via questionnaire and personal correspondence with directors and other appropriate staff of Dallas Public Library's Public Affairs Information Service; Tulsa City-County Library; Baltimore County Public Library's Interorganizational Development Service; Atlanta Public Library; Vigo County (Indiana) Public Library; Toledo-Lucas County (Ohio) Public Library's Community Information Project; and Institute of Public Service, Seattle University.

33. Ibid.


Emerging Patterns of Service for Citizen Groups

13. Hutcheson and Shevin, op. cit.
15. Bryce, James. Quoted in ibid., p. 35.
21. Ibid.
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33. Ibid.
40. Ibid.
42. "Community Resource Center," op. cit.
46. Ibid.
49. Wilson, op. cit., p. 87.
Uses of Bibliotherapy in Response to the 1970s

RHEA J. RUBIN

It has been noted that Americans are becoming increasingly introspective. The 1970s have been called the "Me decade" because of the popularity of self-analysis and self-actualization. "The new alchemical dream is: changing one's personality—remaking, remodeling, elevating, and polishing one's very self... and observing, studying, and doting on it. (Me!)" The human potential movement of the 1960s did not dissolve as some social critics prophesied. In fact, many of the concepts and techniques from Esalen, Synanon and other "growth centers" have been incorporated into Americans' daily lives. New growth methods have been conceived and are extremely popular. For those who do not wish to join a group experience, self-help (popular psychology) books have proliferated; many have become unexpected bestsellers.

Perhaps one of the best indicators of the growing interest in self-fulfillment is a radically new attitude toward work. Since 1950, the United States has witnessed an increase in the number of men (250 percent) and women (20 percent) who are neither in poor health nor in the labor force. This is a total of 83 million people who are not employed, not seeking employment, and not unable to work. An unspecified proportion of these people have decided that they would rather do something else than work purely for work's sake. Many more workers are retiring early with anticipation of a state of leisure; many more new workers are refusing boring and menial labor: "Young and old are willing to invest more effort in their work but are demanding a bigger payoff in satisfac-

The trouble is that this new humanistic, holistic outlook on life is at odds with the content of many jobs today.3

Society is also more preoccupied with psychological causes of behavior than it has been in any other period. The "therapeutic society," an expression derived from the concept of a therapeutic community,4 is increasingly aware of the role of causality in all facets of daily life. The field of psychology is only 100 years old, but many other disciplines are already imbued with psychological concepts—witness psychohistory, a field created in the late 1940s5 which gained popularity during the Watergate era. Another field is broadcasting, which has provided a dramatic example of the growing concern with psychological causation. In a 1977 murder trial, the defense attorney contended that his client was "suffering from and acted under the influence of prolonged, intense, involuntary, subliminal television intoxication."6 Although this was not the first time such a defense was used, the case created a public uproar which was only enhanced by the fact that the trial was televised. The defendant was found guilty; the network was not held liable:

To establish that a particular program suggested or even inspired a malicious act is quite a long way from proving that it caused a crime to be committed. If an impressionable or deranged person acts out a scene of violence he has experienced through television or a book, the author cannot be held responsible. The chain of causation is too weak to sustain liability.7

In another much-publicized case, this one in 1978, the prosecution rather than the defense alleged that the crime had been inspired by television.8 However, the courts upheld the network's First Amendment rights, assuming that the movie did not intend to incite violence.

A third social trend, the introduction of previously institutionalized patients, students and offenders into the community, also has raised the public awareness of psychological causation. During the past decade many states, notably California, have been transferring patients from mental hospitals into community-based programs. In corrections, too, the trend has been toward deinstitutionalization. All of Massachusetts's juvenile correctional institutions were abruptly closed in 1971 by their director, Jerome Miller. He stated: "We must realize that no amount of reform funneled into our present institutional system will basically change it. To insure fundamental and lasting reform, therefore, our institutions must be closed."9 Although many corrections and mental health professionals disagree with this approach, mainstreaming seems to be the wave of the
Uses of Bibliotherapy in Response to the 1970s

future as community programs become better accepted. This is a slow process, because the public is not prepared to deal with these people in their communities. Individuals who find themselves living near a halfway house, as well as professionals in private and public agencies, are being confronted with problems they may never have faced before. On one hand, they must learn to cope with their own reactions to their new neighbors; on the other, they must—directly or indirectly—help the newcomers adjust to society.

Due to this climate in America today, public and private agencies are being forced to examine the training necessary for provision of their services. American workers, from police employees to clerks in large corporations, are being offered sensitivity training. Library continuing education has responded with workshops such as “coping with stress” or “how to deal with the problem client” ; some public libraries are contracting with local mental health agencies for staff training. Library schools, as well, are offering more courses in interpersonal communication and preventive mental health in order to graduate librarians who are better equipped to deal with their clients’ (and perhaps their own) problems.

One method of training librarians and other professionals is bibliotherapy, which can also be used as a library program to satisfy the public interest in self-actualization. Bibliotherapy encompasses a variety of activities which promote self-growth based on the shared experience and discussion of literature. It can be used with “normal” citizens who want to learn more about themselves and others, as well as with mentally or socially maladjusted people who need to change their behavior. Bibliotherapy is seen as a library approach because of its basis in the concepts of library service as well as in the principles of psychology and adult education.

BIBLIOThERAPY DEFINED

Bibliotherapy has been described by Monroe as part of a continuum of library services. Reference, reading guidance and bibliotherapy are closely related in function. All three serve informational, instructional and/or guidance needs. Reference services are objective, informational and of short duration, while reading guidance is subjective and more broadly educational. Bibliotherapy is a long-term approach to library services for therapeutic purposes. This concept of bibliotherapy as an outgrowth of reader’s services is accepted also by Hannigan: “This skill [bibliotherapy] is a refined application of his normal library’s function as readers’ advisor.” Note that the reader’s advisor came to the forefront
of librarianship in the 1920s and 1930s. In 1939 bibliotherapy received official library recognition when the Hospital Division of the American Library Association (ALA) appointed its first bibliotherapy committee.

In its current state, bibliotherapy is usually practiced with a group. It can therefore be considered as an outgrowth of the field of group psychology, which also made large strides during 1920-40. The term "group therapy" was coined in 1931. Psychodrama was introduced in 1925 and dance therapy in 1942. By the 1950s, and the advent of art therapy and music therapy, the idea of creative, adjunctive, group therapies was well accepted. Adult education, which flourished in the 1930s and 1940s, also claims to be a precursor to bibliotherapy. The book-based discussion groups exemplified by the Great Books program of 1945 paralleled the more therapy-oriented service called bibliotherapy. The interdisciplinary background of bibliotherapy can be clearly illustrated by an analysis of its recent literature. Of the 131 articles published from 1970 to 1975, 35 percent appeared in library journals and 65 percent in periodicals of other fields, such as psychology, education, nursing and occupational therapy.

The term bibliotherapy is derived from the Greek biblion (book) and therapeia (healing). Samuel McChord Crothers coined the word in a 1916 Atlantic Monthly article, and there has been confusion about it ever since. In 1961, Webster's Third New International Dictionary published the definition which was officially accepted in 1966 by ALA: "the use of selected reading materials as therapeutic adjuvants in medicine and in psychiatry; also: guidance in the solution of personal problems through directed reading." This author prefers to define bibliotherapy as: "a program of activity based on the interactive processes of media and the people who experience it. Print or non-print material, either imaginative or informational, is experienced and discussed with the aid of a facilitator." This concept includes the application of bibliotherapy in institutional or community settings, via print as well as other media, using didactic or imaginative literature in programs under the direction of one or more professionals. Its goal is either insight into normal development or changes in disturbed behavior. Since the definition — and the field — is so broad, a 3-pronged approach to bibliotherapy through classification according to participants, goals, settings and leaders has been adopted.

The three types of bibliotherapy are institutional, clinical and developmental (see Table 1).
### Uses of Bibliotherapy in Response to the 1970s

**TABLE 1. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE THREE TYPES OF BIBLIOTherAPY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Institutional</th>
<th>Clinical</th>
<th>Developmental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Format</strong></td>
<td>individual or group; usually passive</td>
<td>group — active; voluntary or involuntary</td>
<td>group — active; voluntary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Client</strong></td>
<td>medical or psychiatric patient, prisoner or client in private practice</td>
<td>person with an emotional or behavioral problem</td>
<td>“normal” person, often in a crisis situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Contractor</strong></td>
<td>society</td>
<td>society or individual</td>
<td>individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Therapist</strong></td>
<td>physician and librarian team</td>
<td>physician, mental health worker or librarian, often in consultation</td>
<td>librarian, teacher or other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Material used</strong></td>
<td>traditionally didactic</td>
<td>imaginative literature</td>
<td>imaginative literature and/or didactic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Technique</strong></td>
<td>discussion of material</td>
<td>discussion of material, with emphasis on client’s reactions and insights</td>
<td>discussion of material, with emphasis on client’s reactions and insights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Setting</strong></td>
<td>institution or private practice</td>
<td>institution, private practice or community</td>
<td>community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Goal</strong></td>
<td>usually informational, with some insight</td>
<td>insight and/or behavior change</td>
<td>normal development and self-actualization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Institutional bibliotherapy is the direct descendant of bibliotherapy as practiced in the 1930s by psychiatrists (notably William Menninger). It refers to the reading of literature (usually didactic), by individual, institutionalized patients who then discuss it with the doctor. The phrase “prescription of books for specific ills” applies to this approach. The goal is primarily informational, although some insight materials may be offered; the setting is an institution; and the facilitator is a physician or a medical team which may include a librarian. This type of bibliotherapy is not popular today, although some doctors still use media with individual patients in their private practice.

Clinical bibliotherapy refers to the use of imaginative literature with groups of clients with emotional or behavioral problems. The goals...
range from insight to change in behavior; the setting is either an institution or the community; and the facilitator is either a librarian or a doctor, usually in consultation with the other. Exemplary clinical bibliotherapy programs are ongoing at St. Elizabeths Hospital in Washington, D.C., and at the Santa Clara County Free Library in San Jose, California.¹⁴

Developmental bibliotherapy refers to the use of both imaginative and didactic materials with groups of "normal" individuals. The goal is to promote normal development and self-actualization or to maintain mental health. This type of bibliotherapy is often provided in schools, libraries and other community settings. The program discussion is designed and led by a librarian, teacher or other member of the "helping professions," such as a social worker or psychologist. Developmental bibliotherapy is the approach most often used by public librarians and the one that can most readily be used in response to the three societal trends discussed earlier; that is, it can be utilized as part of consciousness-raising or sensitivity training programs for professionals, or offered as a public program to satisfy the demand for self-actualization activities.

CURRENT USES AND CONCERNS

The history of bibliotherapy is often seen as an extension of the development of institutional library service. Indeed, current uses of bibliotherapy can be traced to origins in medical and mental hospitals. The first known example of a qualified librarian using books in the treatment of mental patients was E. Kathleen Jones at the McLean Hospital in Waverly, Massachusetts, in 1904. In 1923 Sadie P. Delaney introduced bibliotherapy at the Veterans Administration Hospital in Tuskegee, Alabama. The VA hospitals, as well as mental hospitals, have done much of the groundwork in the field as a result of the constant supply of patients, the relatively large number of staff, and the philosophy of patient care. Today, however, most bibliotherapy has moved out of hospitals and into schools and the community.

Educational settings for bibliotherapy have been popular since the 1940s, with bibliotherapy groups led most frequently by the classroom teacher. Since 1947, when the American Council on Education first published its classic Reading Ladders for Human Relations, the literature of education has included many articles on bibliotherapy. Education magazine devoted its April 1964 issue to bibliotherapy, and in 1968 an excellent book on bibliotherapy in education appeared.¹⁵ Schools have been
Uses of Bibliotherapy in Response to the 1970s

obvious sites for bibliotherapy because it is compatible with the goals of contemporary education, which include fostering development of a whole, adjusted personality able to deal with today's world. Students are already in an atmosphere conducive to reading and discussion, a library is usually available, the students are gathered five days a week, and curriculums are often varied and flexible—all of these factors have contributed to the current use of bibliotherapy in schools.

Community use of bibliotherapy is the trend for the future. Small local institutions, such as halfway houses, addiction centers, outpatient services, nursing homes and group homes, are obvious locations for bibliotherapy programs which have been developed in larger institutions. In many communities, the public library is already involved in book delivery to neighboring institutions. In San Jose, California, the Santa Clara County Free Library brings bibliotherapy programs to numerous local sites; unfortunately, this is the only example of such a program offered by a public library. Other agencies are, however, beginning to use bibliotherapy in their community activities. For example, the National Council on the Aging, Inc. has an exemplary reading and discussion program to foster the self-esteem and personal potential of participants, which it offers to senior residences and centers and nursing homes.

Due to the proliferation of settings for bibliotherapy, as well as the growing use of media other than books, new methods of practice and preparation are always being developed. Unfortunately, articles on methodology are rare, although an informal network of communication among practitioners indicates great diversity in technique. Most common is discussion of literature read previously or read together in the group. Bruce Bettencourt, of the Santa Clara County Bibliotherapy Project, described the method he and Clara Lack use in an initial presentation to a group:

I... read a short story out loud to the group. Usually it is ten to fifteen minutes in length. Then we spend the rest of the time talking about the story, the characters, the situations they have gotten themselves into, and their problems. We might discuss what the people in the story did to extricate themselves from their situation or problem. Or we might speculate as to why the characters acted or felt as they did. We try [to] get below the surface of the plot and discover what the characters' motivations are—what makes them tick. Sometimes we talk about experiences or feelings that we have had that are similar to those of the people in the story. Or we might talk about ways in which our experiences have been different or opposite. We often dis-
cuss whether or not we agree with the course of action taken by the character in the story.

I do want to emphasize that this is not like an English or literature class in school. We are not interested in analyzing symbolism, or discussing the author's life, or his reason for writing the story. We can speculate as to what we think happened after the story ended. We can try to fill in details that the author leaves to the imagination. In general, our discussions are at a feeling level, rather than at an intellectual level.

Whether the participants read material prior to the group discussion or experience the literature in the group; whether stories, poetry, or plays are used; and whether the leader or the participants choose the selection, are decisions to be made in this mode. More striking decisions concern whether to use nonprint media such as film or music (both of which are becoming more popular in bibliotherapy) and whether to integrate creative writing with the experience. Poetry therapists in particular feel strongly that the creation of literature by the participants is an important part of the therapy process. Franklin Berry, a psychologist involved in bibliotherapy research, has suggested a systematization of literature-based therapies to delineate four different modes (see Figure 1):

[These modes] are all variants of bibliotherapy; each . . . represents a uniquely different literary experience for the participant. The nature of the literature presented to the participant whether existing in written or oral form, or the type of literature created by the participant whether written or spoken, affect how the literature is experienced by the participant.

It can be assumed that further analysis of the use of different modes of bibliotherapy is forthcoming.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the Literature</th>
<th>Nature of Participant's Linguistic Response</th>
<th>Receptive Language (Input)</th>
<th>Expressive Language (Output)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Written</td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

246
Uses of Bibliotherapy in Response to the 1970s

A — Traditional Bibliotherapy (Participant reads literature himself/herself; written literature is read to participant.)

B — Literatherapy as defined by Shiryon (1972). (Oral literature is communicated to the participant.)

C — Creative Writing Therapy (Participant creates literary products, poems, short stories, diary entries, life history recollections, etc.; they are written works.)

D — “Creative Orating Therapy” (Participant creates literary products orally, e.g., a poem or short story or an oral diary or an oral life history, etc.; they are oral works.)


FIGURE 1. SYSTEMATIZATION OF LITERATURE-BASED THERAPIES

From the 1930s through the 1950s, selection criteria based on the patient’s diagnostic category were in vogue; since then no specific selection scheme has been advanced. Recently, however, there has been an attempt to analyze the materials selection process for bibliotherapy. Monroe has developed a matrix for the analysis of literature for bibliotherapy. Materials are analyzed in terms of the type of reader (e.g., children of aging grandparents, young adults, retired adults, middle-aged children of aging parents, actively aging, declining aging, and aging near death), and the level of use or need (e.g., consciousness-raising, understanding, planning, coping, etc.). In it, she includes the following evaluative steps: first, bibliographic evaluation, including physical format and type of literature. Content analysis includes consideration of life tasks (based on the concept of developmental tasks), attitudes and values, summary of topics or experience, and expected benefit to reader. Next, Monroe analyzes the reader appeal, taking into account such factors as user interest group and readability level. Once the material is analyzed, the utilization plan can be developed. The scientific approach to materials selection will certainly also be continued in the future.

BIBLIOThERAPY EDUCATION AND CERTIFICATION

By necessity, the further use of bibliotherapy in the next decade depends on the training and education developed for bibliotherapy practitioners. Although bibliotherapy is an outgrowth of many professions, each of which has contributed to the techniques now used, none of these
disciplines has provided specific training for bibliotherapy. In the past, most discussions of training have revolved around the personal characteristics deemed necessary for bibliotherapy, rather than the skills needed. In the October 1962 issue of *Library Trends*, which was devoted to bibliotherapy, Margaret Kinney described a model training program at the graduate level which included library science courses, experience working in a library, a broad knowledge of literature, a study of psychology, and field service in bibliotherapy. Yet the first course in bibliotherapy for college credit was not offered until 1970 (by the Villanova University Graduate School of Library Science); that same year the first college course in poetry therapy was offered (by the New School for Social Research). During the summers of 1972-74, an intensive 3-week interdisciplinary course in poetry therapy was offered at Indiana University (Pennsylvania), based on a training proposal for poetry therapists. Unfortunately, the entire proposal was never implemented. The first attempt at a comprehensive training program was begun by Arleen Hynes in 1973. Her 2-year training program includes a minimum of 448 training hours; the student spends the first year as a trainee and the second as an intern. Her graduates receive a certified poetry therapist (C.P.T.) diploma from the Association for Poetry Therapy (which has been certifying poetry therapists since 1974), because there is currently no bibliotherapy certification.

The question of certification is a controversial one which deserves further attention. Most librarians balk at the discussion of standards until training programs are offered, yet practitioners do not want to establish courses without knowing what certification requirements might be. It seems that the solution is to offer courses of study and develop standards simultaneously to break the inertia of the situation. Because of the growing interest in the field and the number of people calling themselves bibliotherapists (although only three people have job descriptions with that classification), it is important that registration requirements be established.

In 1977, this author developed a bibliotherapy certification proposal based on a review of current job descriptions and a study of other creative therapy standards. It seemed reasonable to suggest a multilevel certification program requiring educational and experiential components and distinguishing among the three types of bibliotherapy.

For an institutional bibliotherapist working alone, rather than as part of a team, these requirements are suggested:

1. Ph.D. in behavioral science, library science, counseling or nursing, and
Uses of Bibliotherapy in Response to the 1970s

a set number of required clinical psychology, literature and library science courses;

2. one year of experience working part-time in a clinical bibliotherapy situation, and one year of part-time institutional bibliotherapy under supervision; and

3. one year of experience working full-time in another aspect of mental health, library science or nursing.

For an institutional bibliotherapist working as a member of a team (an associate institutional bibliotherapist), the following requirements are recommended:

1. MLS or master's degree in behavioral sciences or nursing, and a set number of required interdisciplinary courses;

2. one year of experience working part-time as a bibliotherapist in a clinical or developmental situation; and

3. one year of experience working full-time in another area of library science, mental health or nursing.

The second type of bibliotherapy discussed earlier was termed “clinical” and applies to bibliotherapy as most practitioners think of it—in groups with clients who have emotional and/or behavioral problems and who are being treated in either an institutional or community setting. Arleen Hynes's program is the best training for this sort of work, but because there are currently few opportunities for such training, an alternative set of standards is offered:

1. MLS or master's degree in behavioral sciences, nursing, counseling or education, and a set number of required courses in the other fields; or a bachelor's degree in one of these fields plus equivalent experience;

2. one year of experience working part-time as a bibliotherapist under supervision; and

3. one year of experience working full-time in another area of library science, mental health, education or nursing.

The third type of bibliotherapy, “developmental,” is referred to as group bibliotherapy with “normal” adults or children desiring improved understanding of themselves or their problems. These requirements are proposed:

1. MLS or bachelor’s degree in education, counseling or behavioral science, and a required set of courses in library science, psychology and literature;
2. one year of part-time experience as a bibliotherapist under supervision; and
3. one year of full-time experience as a teacher, counselor or librarian.23

In order to implement such a proposal, a curriculum available at various universities, teachers, supervisors, and a certifying agency are needed. An interdisciplinary organization could serve in the last capacity, as could a federation of relevant organizations.24 Whatever decisions are made on these specifics, it is important that training and certification be further discussed if bibliotherapy is to realize its potential and be accepted as a viable field.

BIBLIOThERAPY IN THE 1980s

In the 1980s, the three current trends discussed here—interest in self-actualization, preoccupation with psychological causation, and mainstreaming and deinstitutionalization—will continue. So, too, will the assertion of minority groups to gain recognition and power, and the movement of citizen groups to protest government activities and call for consumer rights. All of these issues are emotion-laden and demand public acceptance of something or someone new—adjustment to whatever the situation requires. For some lucky people, this flexibility is simple; for most, such developments are difficult to understand and accept.

Bibliotherapy can be used by community agencies, especially the public library, to give people a chance to discuss their reactions to issues in a personalized manner. Through identifying with a character in a book or reacting to a situation in a film, people can discuss themselves in a nonthreatening atmosphere due to the objectivity which literature provides. As Caroline Shrodes explains it: “Literature, being at once a fantasy and yet a realistic portrayal of human behavior, permits the reader, paradoxically, both an illusion of psychic distance and immediacy of experience.”25 Therefore, bibliotherapy can be a group-awareness method both for people able to talk about themselves and for people who need the distance afforded by literature. For libraries dedicated to responding to their community’s needs, bibliotherapy may be the key.

References

Uses of Bibliotherapy in Response to the 1970s

22. The three persons with the official job classification "bibliotherapist" are Clara Lack, Bibliotherapist II, Bruce Bettencourt, Bibliotherapist I (both at Santa Clara County Free Library, San Jose, Calif.), and Rosalie Brown (St. Elizabeths Hospital, Washington, D.C.).

FALL 1979 251
AGNES A. ROACH

The trends in health science libraries mirror many of the trends in the field of health care. Certain organizations, such as the Medical Library Association (MLA) and the National Library of Medicine (NLM), have also pursued programs which affect the kinds of services being offered and their delivery. Not all trends discussed in this paper are unique to health science libraries, but one of the most innovative new methods of information delivery is a clever response to the special needs of health care workers. All forces affect the current as well as future patterns of health science library service, and may also influence other types of libraries.

In the mid-1960s, the health care team emerged as a new concept in the practice of medicine. All those who contributed to the care of the patient were members of the health care team, whose efforts were coordinated by the team leader (the physician); however, each member provides specialized knowledge and skills.

Index Medicus first introduced the subject heading "patient care team" in 1968. The inclusion of the pharmacist as a member of the team was already accepted by that time. By 1971 librarians had also joined the health care team. Dr. Gertrude Lamb began a clinical librarian program at the University of Missouri–Kansas City Medical School aided by a grant from the National Library of Medicine. She was to move later to Hartford Hospital (Connecticut) where she continued her work estab-

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lishing the concept of the clinical librarian.4 Except for brief mentions of this new concept,5 clinical librarianship did not come to the attention of most medical librarians until the annual meeting of MLA in 1973. The new concept was enthusiastically received and has been adapted in many ways since.6

A clinical librarian becomes a member of a patient care team, attends educational conferences, patient rounds, grand rounds, etc. in order to identify needs for information, to find that information, and to deliver it within a very short time (ranging from minutes to hours). The program enhances patient care by providing current literature quickly. It also enhances the educational process for all team members by keeping them aware of new techniques and therapies. Clinical librarians spend some time instructing team members in the use of the library tools and facilities. Since health care personnel are very busy and often confined to certain locations (such as the operating room, hospital wards or clinics), this program makes resources somewhat removed from them easily accessible. Often questions not posed immediately are never asked, or if they are only mentioned in passing, nothing is done about them. By being present, the clinical librarian can anticipate questions as well as answer those that might otherwise never have been asked.

Although it is possible to handle a clinical librarian program without computer search facilities (as this author's experiences have indicated), it is much quicker and easier to have access to Medline, a computerized on-line system with more than 600,000 references to biomedical journal articles and selected monographs.7 (Since Medline was introduced in 1971, access to its facilities has been extended. By 1977 more than 600 institutions were part of this network.8) Another program for delivering information related to patient care is LATCH (literature attached to charts). Physicians order searches very much as they would any test or treatment for the patient. The result is a few articles relevant to the patient's problem attached directly to his or her chart.9

In both the fields of medical care and information science, technology is playing an increasingly large role. This technology often has cost implications, but may mean greater accuracy. Both cost containment and the use of technology are forces affecting the role of the health science librarian.

In 1970 Michael Crichton published Five Patients,10 which gave a good picture of the scope of activities and problems of a large, metropolitan teaching hospital. It also depicted some of the human elements in the practice of medicine. He covered such points as emergency care,
new technology and high costs, as well as the coordination of various health care personnel in acting as a team to handle the problems at hand. His book presents the context within which the health science librarian acts as a member of the health care team, all of whom are subject to the same pressures.

One of the biggest effects on library service of trends in the health care field could come with cost containment for hospitals. "Changes in the mix of resources within hospitals and in the frequency of their use are the first-order effects of cost containment"; other effects, such as those on research and development of new technology, are second-order consequences.\textsuperscript{11} Responses to the need to control costs can already be seen in health care libraries where fees for on-line searches, interlibrary loans and photocopying are being newly implemented.

The concern with costs is also illustrated in articles published in the medical library literature. During 1976-78, there were four articles on budget considerations in \textit{Bulletin of the Medical Library Association}, while \textit{MLA News} had twenty-nine different items on costs, fees, grants and other budget-related subjects in a 19-month period (July 1977-January 1979). Many services developed in health science libraries in the past nine years are labor-intensive, especially those involving the librarian as an active member of the health care team. This intensive use of highly skilled personnel is typical of hospital care and is also a factor in increasing costs. Costs for materials (books, journals and audiovisuals) are rising along with the costs of services (personnel, computer services, etc.). While costs are rising, the need and demand for more services in health science libraries are also increasing as programs like clinical librarianship and LATCH create attractive new services. Cost containment by hospitals will have an effect in both hospital libraries and medical school libraries.

Assuring access to care, as well as quality and geographical distribution of care, are additional problems facing the health care field. Federal funding to increase the number of medical schools and students resulted in the building of several new schools which accepted their first students in the late 1960s.

The problem of continuing education for physicians and other health care personnel has resulted in the development of certification and recertification programs for each specialty. This requires continuing education programs and puts a demand on health science libraries for more materials as well as new formats such as audiovisuals (another aspect of developing technology). It also increases the need for library services in
rural areas. The new schools helped fill the geographical gap, that is, they were located in areas that did not previously have medical schools. Since physicians often stay in the area where they receive their training, it was expected that the availability of a medical school would draw students (later to become doctors) to an area and keep them there. The expansion of medical schools resulted in new medical school libraries and greatly increased the total health science library resources of the country. More resources and more medical librarians were needed to staff and furnish these new schools. There was a noticeable increase in the number of library schools offering courses on biomedical librarianship, and in the number of courses offered.12

Concurrently, most medical schools also offered residency programs for the new doctors to provide training in specialty areas. Because surveys of physician manpower had identified shortages of physicians in primary care specialties, government funds were made available to set up these types of training programs, particularly in the specialty of family practice. A recent study done by the Graduate Medical Education National Advisory Committee found that the number of residents in primary care specialties increased 174 percent from 1960 to 1976. By 1990 primary care physicians are expected to increase 75 percent over the 1974 figure, representing 40 percent of all physicians.13 This increase in the number of physicians alone (without the growing numbers of other health professionals) will continue to affect the demand for medical library services, both for information related to patient care and for continuing education purposes.

To help small hospital libraries in remote, rural areas develop their libraries and services, the role of the extension or circuit-rider librarian was conceived. This position originated at the Cleveland Health Sciences Library: one of its librarians visits a group of hospitals (for a fee) to provide the library services needed.14 In a similar project, state coordinators travel to various small hospital libraries to provide advice, assistance and information, and serve as a communication link to the Midwest Health Science Library Network.15

As certification/recertification became established for health care personnel, steps were taken by MLA to strengthen its certification code. Through the work of its Director of Education (Dr. Julie A. Virgo during 1971-77, and then Dr. Robert A. Berk, 1977-79), new procedures to certify medical librarians were developed. Over the 4-year period 1975-78, the efforts of several committees were coordinated in developing a new certification examination. This exam was given twice in 1978 and from 1979
The Health Science Librarian

on will be administered once each year. Although most health science librarians were already certified under the previous MLA code, all are faced with recertification.

The first MLA continuing education (CE) courses, courses 1-5, were offered in 1966 at the MLA annual meeting in Boston. The number of the CE courses developed has increased rapidly, from twenty in 1974 to fifty-seven in 1979. Ten new courses were presented at the annual meeting in June 1979, while nine new courses had been presented at the previous year's meeting in Chicago. The MLA CE courses have served as an example for other library associations. They can be offered anywhere. Although they are usually presented in the United States or Canada, there are plans to offer certain MLA CE courses at the next two International Federation of Library Associations meetings in 1979 and 1980. The MLA Continuing Education Committee is exploring alternate means to make CE courses generally available. In 1979, as a pilot project, one CE course was given via Telenet under the auspices of the University of Wisconsin.

In addition to certification for librarians, hospital libraries are also included in the accreditation program for each hospital. The Joint Commission for Accreditation of Hospitals (JCAH) develops and publishes standards for use by the site visit teams in evaluating each institution. The JCAH Standards for Hospital Libraries were revised and published in 1978. Eloise Foster (American Hospital Association Library) reviewed the new standards and noted: "elements of management are obvious: organizing, staffing, planning, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting."

The emphasis on management techniques for health science librarians is also obvious in other areas. Fourteen (20.8 percent) of the CE courses offered by MLA in June 1978 covered administrative topics. The next largest subject group of CE courses was reference with twelve (or 17.9 percent). Three of the nine new courses to be offered in 1979 are on management topics. An analysis of articles published in the Bulletin of the Medical Library Association during 1966-75 found that 2.2 percent covered library management. This author's analysis of articles published during 1976-78 found 7.2 percent on management, an increase of more than 300 percent over the number offered in previous years.

The National Library of Medicine, as part of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, is a true national library in the field of medical sciences. Its activities have had great effects on medical libraries and have shaped many services offered to health care professionals. All health science libraries in a given area are coordinated by a regional
medical library funded by NLM. Services such as interlibrary loans within regional networks are subsidized in part by funds from NLM. NLM gave impetus to the growth of area consortia at the local level. Each region also has its own programs for upgrading medical library services, some of which have served as prototypes for other regions.

The Midwest Health Science Library Network (MHSLN, which is composed of medical libraries in Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota and Wisconsin) has been conducting some very interesting projects, the results of which could have great influence on library services in all regions. Using a model that emphasizes an orderly and logical progression from one step of planning to the next, it has established committees to make proposals which can be implemented to meet the information needs of health care personnel. Needs were discovered via survey techniques and outlined in an MHSLN report in 1977. Goals were developed which include: (1) increasing use (by defining high-quality services, communicating a sense of service, developing feedback mechanisms, etc.); (2) understanding needs (using interviewing techniques and periodic needs assessments, and training librarians to teach users); and (3) identifying gaps in the collection (by surveys, inventories and collection development planning). Seven committees are working on separate aspects of these goals. Committee projects include a directory of alternate information sources, a proposal to enhance communication, a quality assurance process, a booklet and media package on a sense of service, a regional guide to libraries, and a reference-interview educational package. Most of these should be easily transferable for use in other regions and types of libraries, or for use as prototypes.

One area in which NLM has been a major force is that of technology development. There are now fifteen separate data bases available on-line for information retrieval. These include Medline, four toxicology data bases, two cancer data bases, Catline (Catalog on-line), Serline (Serials on-line), Avline (Audiovisual on-line), Histline (History of medicine on-line), Bioethicsline, and Epilepsyline. Obviously NLM is fulfilling a role for the efficient management of technical services (Serline, Catline), as well as providing many data bases for clinicians, educators and researchers. In addition to offering these MEDLARS data bases in this country, NLM has eleven international partners (Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Iran, Japan, Mexico, South Africa, Sweden, United Kingdom and the Pan-American Health Organization) with which it cooperates. Not all centers can search all data bases, but they do consti-
The Health Science Librarian

tuate an international network recognizing the value of biomedical information for medical research, education and health improvement.26

The Lister Hill Center is the division of NLM which develops new communications systems. Using satellite-based programs, it has provided video communication for biomedical researchers in Alaska and the Pacific Northwest. The Lister Hill Center is currently experimenting with a national broad-band interactive communications network for health education programs to promote dissemination of information, increased access to continuing education programs, and the sharing of faculty and curriculum among health professionals. A prototype, computerized information-transfer system using the disease "viral hepatitis" as the initial test model has been constructed. This data bank contains "substantive answers to questions posed by practitioners (rather than bibliographic citations)" to give immediate data as well as literature citations for further study.27 This system could make health care information (not just citations) immediately available anywhere there was a terminal, thus substantially decreasing the importance of geographic location. The Lister Hill Center is also working to develop a minicomputer system that would integrate all library functions in one file; a computer terminal to integrate currently incompatible computer-assisted instruction systems; and a videodisk that could extend large bibliographic data bases to include texts, color images and audiovisual sequences.28

The National Library of Medicine also supports the development and utilization of quality learning materials through the National Medical Audiovisual Center (a division of NLM). It holds workshops periodically to train faculty to use audiovisuals, which would imply an increased demand for these materials in health science libraries. This interest in media by health science faculty is shared by health science librarians. In 1973 the MLA board of directors approved a petition to form the new Health Sciences Audiovisual Section, with Dorothy Spencer as the first chairperson.29 Since 1974 nine articles on audiovisuals have appeared in the Bulletin of the Medical Library Association. The MLA News has a regular monthly column entitled "Media Notes."

As the health science librarian has become increasingly involved in the work of the health care team, he/she has become interested in providing information to patients about personal care. There is a growing trend in hospital and medical school libraries to develop collections of information on health care for patients and to disseminate this information via health care workers and through cooperation with local public
AGNES ROACH

libraries. The concept of health care as a right has come to be commonly held at the same time that consumerism has become a popular national trend. People are indicating some tendencies to care for themselves and to maintain the quality of their health through physical fitness and proper nutrition. All of these trends appear to be sources of influence on the emerging trend for providing patient information. During 1977-78 eight articles on patient information have appeared in the Bulletin of the Medical Library Association, while none appeared during 1974-76. From July 1977 to January 1979 the MLA News included six items on patient education, of which two described MLA regional group programs on this topic. The two emerging trends of patient education and clinical librarianship are commonly combined, as in the program at McMaster University originated by Joanne G. Marshall.30 The hospital librarian is in the unique position of combining professional training in providing information with that of acquiring it. As Cheryl Harris noted, the hospital library: "exists to provide information in support of the hospital's major functions, which are patient care, education, and research. Involvement in programs of planned patient education demonstrates the library's vital role in all three functions."

As health science librarians continue to function as part of the health care team, the skills and techniques needed to continue to respond successfully to information needs are becoming increasingly sophisticated. Rapid changes in technology (computers, microforms and communication) coupled with budget constraints are forces combining to require more and better administrative skills. The health science librarian must deal with people, both library staff and other institutional members. Extension and clinical librarians also need good interpersonal skills. Today's health science librarian must be adaptable — ready and willing to accept innovations and to implement them. F. Wilfrid Lancaster has expressed concern generally about the future of libraries in the new electronic age.32 It seems that health science librarians are accepting the new technological challenges, are responding with innovative personal delivery systems (clinical librarianship) and are anticipating and planning for the future (as the MHSLN planning process evolves). With the great expansion of personnel and educational facilities in the health care field, health science librarians can enjoy being vital, contributing members of the health care team, as well as cooperating and sharing resources with other health care teams through the biomedical communications network.
References

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12. Information provided by Karol Weigelt, MLA Division of Education, based on MLA surveys conducted in 1978 and 1979.


20. Based on information obtained from Karol Weigelt, MLA Division of Education.


27. Bernstein, Lionel M. “Lister Hill National Center for Biomedical Communications.” In ibid., pp. 39-42.

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29. Based on information obtained from Bruce Ardis, Chairman of the Health Sciences Audiovisual Section, 1978-79.


The Curriculum Consultant Role of the School Library Media Specialist

MARGARET HAYES GRAZIER

School librarianship has described a role for the librarian in curriculum in its literature for almost half a century. The national standards of the profession reflect the evolution of that role. Theoreticians within and outside the profession offer conflicting notions about desirable directions for that role in curriculum development. Research literature, although thin, relates librarians' involvement in curriculum to their qualifications and to the perceptions of administrators and teachers about their role.

EARLY VIEWPOINTS IN TEXTS AND NATIONAL STANDARDS

The texts of the American Library Association (ALA) in the 1930s and 1940s stressed that school librarians work with teachers and students in selecting and using all types of materials which would contribute to the instructional program. Its "Experimenting Together" series, with volumes on the librarian and teachers of English, science, music and home economics, emphasized such concerns. Cooperation between teacher and librarian in planning and using the learning resources of library and community was the message. The authors of one work reached out to suggest that the librarian might do missionary work among teachers by demonstrating in small ways how their instruction could be made more fruitful.

ALA standards for school libraries specified more clearly the role of the librarian as curriculum consultant. In the 30-year period 1945-75, four such statements appeared. The standards of 1945 and 1960 cited

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two major purposes of the school library: (1) to cooperate with teachers in selecting and using library materials which would contribute to the teaching program, and (2) to participate with teachers and administrators in programs for continuing professional and cultural growth of the school staff. The 1960 standards expanded the responsibility of the school library to include films, recordings and new media. The librarian may have full or partial responsibility for the audiovisual program, which might include producing instructional materials as well as planning the use of radio and television. The 1960 document elaborated the activities in which the librarian participates — with students, teachers and administrators — as part of the instructional program of the school. The unifying element in all the activities was their connection with media — finding them, using them, making them. To carry out these services, the library staff member should serve on all school committees for curriculum development, textbook selection and policy-making.

The 1969 standards, prepared jointly by the American Association of School Librarians (AASL) and the Department of Audiovisual Instruction (DAVI) of the National Education Association (since 1970 known as the Association for Educational Communications and Technology or AECT), were noteworthy not only as a cooperative venture but also for their urging of a unified library/audiovisual effort, newly labeled "the media program." The librarian and audiovisual specialist became media specialists. Specific responsibilities of the media specialist working with teachers matched those of the 1960 standards, with the addition of designing learning activities and instructional materials. These charges reflected DAVI's growing concern with instructional development, which was noted in the introduction to a position paper prepared for its board of directors in 1967: "The role of the media professional in education is changing from that of a keeper and dispenser of teaching aids to that of an analyst and designer of instructional systems who must be centrally involved in the planning of learning environments, and in providing for related support functions and evaluative procedures." The 1969 standards recognized new emphases on individualization, inquiry and independent learning, and described the media center and its staff as supporting, complementing and expanding the work of the classroom.

The title of the 1975 revision of the 1969 standards, Media Programs: District and School, indicated their expanded scope. They differed from preceding standards most markedly, however, in the function claimed for the media program. The term service and the concept of a
media program as supplementary and supportive were eliminated. Instead, a program was described in which "curriculum design and media utilization are inextricably interwoven." The activities of the media program were grouped into four categories — design, consultation, information and administration — and included in each were some operations which could be labeled "curriculum consultation." These activities appeared in no special order and repeated many listed in the 1960 and 1969 standards, but added was the responsibility of the media specialist to initiate instructional design and development. Although the 1975 guidelines used the concepts of the technologist — design, system, process, product, interface — and frequently reiterated the need to apply instructional technology to the curriculum, they could be used to support other curriculum orientations.

Thus, in thirty years the profession had enlarged the responsibilities of school librarians from those of service personnel supporting the work of teachers to those of curriculum developers. It is noteworthy that the major role changes came from the jointly prepared standards and parallel the shift of the profession of educational technology from a narrow concept of audiovisual instruction to a broad framework with subprofessions of instructional program development, media product design and media management.

CONCEPTS OF CURRICULUM THEORY

The educational technologists are not the only professionals concerned with curriculum. A brief overview of major concepts of curriculum theory can provide insight into the concerns of some media specialists from a library science orientation about the limitations of the educational technologists' view.

Eisner and Vallance studied contemporary writings about curriculum and classified them into five concepts which they believed exemplified major orientations. The first of these, curriculum as the development of cognitive processes, emphasizes the "how" rather than the "what" of education. Learning how to learn is viewed as the central problem of curriculum. This process-oriented approach focuses on the student, aiming to help him develop cognitive skills which presumably will apply to a variety of situations outside of school. They suggest that this concept has been greatly elaborated in recent years in the developmental psychology of Jerome Bruner and Robert Gagné.

Curriculum as technology identifies a concept which, like cognitive processes, centers on the "how" of education. This concept states that the
function of curriculum is finding efficient means to predefined ends. It deals with the technology by which knowledge is communicated and with packaging material efficiently for students’ learning. The curriculum-as-technology approach uses the vocabulary of production—input, output, entry behavior, stimulus, and systems to “produce” learning. The learner is neither a problem nor a dynamic element in the system; the key job of the curriculum developer is organizing the instructional package.

The self-actualization concept is child-centered and focuses on content. Education liberates and integrates. It enriches the child’s present life and offers the tools for self-discovery. Proponents of this doctrine, such as Abraham Maslow, Philip Phenix and Maxine Greene, believe strongly in the potential value of education for growth and personal integrity.

The social reconstruction-relevance orientation, as its label implies, emphasizes the role of curriculum and education in reforming society and responding to its future needs. It advocates that schools bridge the gap between what is and what might be. One approach holds that curriculum should provide the tools for individual survival in an unstable world. A second, reformist approach advocates that education intervene to bring about change.

Most traditional of the five concepts is academic rationalism, which holds that the primary concern of education is to transmit culture. According to this theory, the curriculum should stress the classic disciplines so that students will be able to understand the writing and thinking of Western culture. This concept has changed in recent years to emphasize the structure of knowledge, or more precisely, the structure of a discipline, its basic concepts and methods of inquiry.

Some school library media specialists fret about being locked into a single approach to curriculum development. They reject labeling the library media program “instructional technology.” Symptomatic of their unrest was the AASL board of directors’ decision in February 1977 to restore the term library to all references to the school’s media center and professional staff. Approved terminology became library media specialist, library media center, and library media program. Although AECT leaders decried this decision as a backward step, many AASL members welcomed it as a more accurate designation of major components in the unified media program. Shapiro, under the rubric “Overkill in Instructional Technology,” argued for a more humane use of media in the schools and, by implication, a flexible management of them in the school library. Hug, a member of the AASL/AECT Joint Committee on Standards Revision,
The Curriculum Consultant Role

believes the 1975 guidelines are sufficiently flexible to support a humanistic curriculum as well as an instructional technological approach. He warns, moreover, against inexperienced personnel attempting a systems approach to curriculum development, believing they may discredit a process which is useful only in competent hands.

Some educational leaders from outside the media field suggest the 1975 guidelines overestimate the knowledge of the media specialist. For example, at a national conference of media directors Brickell commented: "Without exactly saying it the '74 [1975] Guidelines come close to suggesting that you know more about learning than [the faculty] do, and you know how to put together that combination of methods and materials and time, in a sequence to match a kid to learn a thing that he doesn't know. . . . Do you have the superknowledge about instruction so that you could listen to the various proposals and dejudicate among them?"

To what extent library media specialists fulfill their role as outlined in the national guidelines is a key question. Theoreticians from AASL and AECT may advocate for them more power and more resources; yet school personnel outside the media field may be skeptical about their qualifications for curriculum development. The potential impact of media programs upon curriculum, and hence upon students' learning, will not be tested until practicing library media specialists are involved in curriculum work. Researchers have, over a period of time, examined the library media specialists' involvement in curriculum and the factors related to it.

RESEARCH STUDIES

A convenient model for analyzing the role of the library media specialist in curriculum, proposed by this author in an earlier paper, consists of three parts: competencies the media specialist brings to the task; perception of the role of the media specialist by the teacher, the administrator and the media specialist; and the points of entry and exit of the media specialist in the curriculum process.

Competencies of the Library Media Specialist

Four studies in the past decade have attempted to clarify and categorize the varied responsibilities of the library media specialist. In each, task analysis — albeit only one element of a complex audit — aids in identifying the work of the librarian in curriculum development.

The School Library Personnel Task Analysis Survey (1969) was part of the initial data collection for the School Library Manpower Project con-
ducted by AASL from 1969 to 1975. The study identified superior school library media centers in each of the 50 states and surveyed them using a checklist of 300 task statements to learn the types of duties carried by staff members. From this work came the 1971 publication of occupational definitions for school library media personnel and a list of seven areas of competency outlined in behavioral statements for the professional education of media personnel. These competency statements served as guidelines for the curricula of six experimental media education programs, and as the basis for the 1973 publication, *Behavioral Requirements Analysis Checklist.* This checklist is composed of about 700 tasks grouped into 7 categories: human behavior, learning and learning environment, planning and evaluation, media, management, research, and professionalism. Each category is broken down into job functions and task descriptions in behavioral terms. The learning and learning environment category lists six functions and forty-three tasks pertaining to curriculum and learning.

The Jobs in Instructional Media Study (JIMS) sponsored by AECT in 1970 examined the tasks of audiovisual personnel using a functional job analysis technique and a model, the Domain of Instructional Technology. Tasks were analyzed from two perspectives—what gets done and what people do to get things done—and then classified as data, people or things. Further analysis sorted tasks by degree of complexity and educational level required to complete them. JIMS offered researchers a large group of tasks which could be reclustered into a variety of job descriptions either by function or by difficulty of tasks or skills required.

In 1969 Gaver attempted to identify the variety of services which media staffs in high schools offer their patrons by a survey using a checklist of approximately 280 items. The list is useful for its comprehensiveness, although Gaver warned that it measures only the media specialists' perceptions of service rendered and not the opinions of faculty or students.

Liesener (1976) formulated a systematic planning process for school media programs. Included are detailed inventories and forms used in early stages of the process to determine the priorities faculty and students attach to media services. Services are classified in five areas: access to materials, equipment and space; reference; production; instruction; and consultation. The inventories are written from the users' viewpoint and permit them to choose the amount of service desired on a continuum ranging from "self-service" to "full service."

The 1969 standards, specifying broad professional preparation in media and education, motivated a number of studies directed at determining how prepared library media staff in the field believed they were
The Curriculum Consultant Role
to handle the new tasks suggested for them. Respondents frequently cited their need for more preparation in instructional design and development, and in the handling and utilization of nonprint materials (e.g., Crowe in Pennsylvania, 1973; Van Dreser in Nebraska, 1971; Ball in the southeast, 1975; Marshall in South Carolina, 1972; Rosinger in Ohio, 1968; and Ayers in southern Appalachia, 1972).25

Universities educating media personnel have assessed practitioners' needs in order to plan for continuing education. For example, in 1975 Wayne State University polled media staff in Wayne County, Michigan, to find out their interest in topics such as administration and management, equipment, materials, curriculum and instruction, and inservice training.26 Three of the four highest-ranked topics, selected by more than half of the 182 respondents, dealt with curriculum: helping teachers plan and develop multimedia units, applying library/media to new curriculum developments, and participating in cooperative curriculum development.

Hoban (1973) studied the professional and personal profiles of members of the Division of Instructional Development of AECT.27 Only a minority (37 percent) of the respondents worked at the elementary and secondary school levels. A major focus of his study was to determine the range of learning theories and instructional guides used by developers in their work. He found them limited to a very small range of theories (Skinner was predominant) and to the instructional guides essentially of Gagné, Bloom and Mager.

These reports suggest that many practitioners believe they are ill-equipped to bear the responsibilities of newer media and curriculum development. However, polls of graduates of the six experimental library media programs in the AASL School Library Manpower Project indicating high participation in learning activities counter such professional gloom.28 (More detailed analyses of needs and of preparation to handle them are available in the voluminous literature dealing with the professional education of the library media specialist, and are omitted here.)

Perception of Role

Researchers have asked principals, teachers and media professionals about the appropriate responsibilities of the media staff. Lacock (1971) queried representatives of each group from the fifty states about what jobs the media specialist should undertake and what abilities the media specialist should possess in production, consultation and utilization, and instructional design and development.29 Media administrators (principals as well as media directors were included here) and teachers disagreed on
whether media specialists should operate equipment or make learning materials. In an emergency, teachers expected the media specialist to tape the interview, develop the negative, and repair the equipment, while media administrators only expected the media specialist to bring in the technician to do the work. Teachers and administrators agreed on the specialists' role in instructional design, development and consultation, and teachers were willing to accept their advice and assistance on such problems.

Pearson (1974) asked media center directors in elementary schools whether or not their media centers had participated in thirteen curriculum development tasks. His inquiry assumed that curricular innovation encourages instructional development. The survey supported his hypothesis.

Leeper (1975) compared Colorado elementary school library media centers in open-space schools with those in closed-space schools (i.e., self-contained classrooms and media centers). Teachers, principals and media personnel opted for the media services of the open-space schools. He also found that attitudes of these three groups varied more among individual schools than among types or sizes of schools. He believed this finding implies that individuals, particularly the principal and media specialist, determine the quality of elementary school media programs.

Johnson (1977) found that library media specialists, teachers and principals in the elementary schools of Atlanta, Georgia, generally agreed about the work of the media specialist. Her checklist grouped fifty-two tasks into seven categories. Voted as most important for the media specialist were selection and utilization of media; and as least important, media production, research and evaluation. Qualifications of the media specialist, such as experience, media course preparation, degrees and participation in curriculum development, were unreliable indicators of the tasks assigned to them.

Hellene's 1973 study focused on the relationship between strong media programs and the school principal's behavior. She questioned three groups — teachers, principals and library media specialists — in elementary, junior and senior high schools in Washington State. The respondents appraised those principals in schools with well-developed media programs as stronger in their support of the program than were their counterparts in schools with ill-developed programs. Poorly trained or poorly motivated librarians in weak libraries appeared to inhibit program development.
The Curriculum Consultant Role

In a study of Utah secondary school media professionals, Larsen (1971) concluded that the principal and media specialist often disagree on the appropriate role for the media specialist. He suggested that the difference may be caused by the principal's ignorance of the potential of the media program.

Loertscher (1972-73) compared the opinions of teachers in Indiana high schools on the media services received with the opinions of the librarians on the services offered. He investigated the importance and frequency of service in eight programs, including instructional design, utilization and evaluation. He found that the media staff preferred and implemented the traditional services of acquisition, accessibility, awareness and distribution, as opposed to the newer services of instructional development, evaluation and utilization.

Hiland (1973) quizzed thirty-five high school social studies teachers to learn the substance and sources of their information needs. She also tested the relationship between teachers' use of information sources and three media center variables: number of services for teachers, proximity to social studies classrooms, and number of adult staff. None of the selected variables related significantly to teachers' use of information systems or the media centers.

Senior high schools of Westchester County, New York, were the site of Cantor's 1975 study of role expectations for library media services held by school administrators, teachers and media staff. She found that media specialists expected more from the media program than did the other respondents. Teachers and administrators did not perceive media specialists as participating in curriculum development and revision, working on curriculum committees on resource units and guides, cooperating in instruction design, or conducting workshops for teachers.

Bucher's 1976 survey examined the role of secondary school library media specialists in Alabama as perceived by superintendents, principals, teachers and media specialists. Her questionnaire was a list of fifty role statements arranged under seven role segments: administrator, teacher, materials specialist, instructional designer, library media professional, technical processor, and clerk. Respondents indicated on a 5-point scale whether they would or would not expect the media specialist to perform the stated function. Each of the four groups of respondents agreed among themselves about the role segments, except for that of clerk; there were significant differences, however, between role expectations held by teachers and by library media specialists, and between those held by superintendents and by teachers.
Pfister and Alexander (1976) attempted to determine the discrepancies between the actual and ideal roles and functions of Texas elementary and secondary school librarians as perceived by school superintendents, principals and librarians. The survey questionnaire consisted of fifty-seven statements about possible tasks for the librarian; respondents noted whether their librarians were engaged or should be engaged in the activity. All three groups perceived the librarian as working on the fringes of curriculum and instruction now and in the future.

Jetter (1972) conducted a Delphi study to determine the consensus among experts in the allied fields of library media service, media education, curriculum and instruction, and educational research about the future role for the school library media specialist. The major role that emerged was that of an instructional development specialist.

That the school media program continues to be frequently overlooked in texts and journals addressed to teachers and administrators was the major finding of Saddler (1970) and Holzberlein (1971). Saddler analyzed textbooks used in introductory education courses in teacher training schools in Kentucky; Holzberlein studied professional journals published during 1960-69 available to administrators. What descriptions there were pictured only traditional reading and reference functions of the school library.

Findings in Shoemaker's recent survey (1978) of journal articles of 1970-78 about the media program and curriculum offer additional evidence of the insularity of the school media field in education literature. Of the ninety-three pertinent articles published during this period, Library Literature indexed eighty-three, and Education Index sixteen.

The single generalization that may be drawn from these role perception studies is that school faculty, administrators and media staff disagree on the work media specialists now do and might do in the future. Some respondents would restrict the media specialist to the production workroom or the reference and circulation desk; other would assign to him or her a broad range of duties, from advising on materials to leading staff in planning, developing and evaluating instructional systems. None of the researchers whose role studies are included here tried to find out why respondents, including library media specialists, held the opinions they expressed, although both direct and indirect evidence was offered about the importance of the principal and media specialist in building effective media programs. Studies discussed in the following section will fill this gap.
The Curriculum Consultant Role

Entry and Exit Points in Curriculum Development

If one conceives of the curriculum development process as consisting of three major stages — planning, implementation and evaluation — the stage at which the media specialists enter will obviously affect the character of their contribution. The research noted here attempts to describe the extent of involvement of media specialists in curriculum development and factors related to it.

Schulzetenberge’s 1969-70 study of Minnesota high school libraries concentrated on ascertaining the relationship between the extent of head librarians’ work with teachers in curriculum and instruction, and personal and educational background variables. He found that the best predictors for success in curriculum development activities with teachers were the type of materials program, and the librarian’s undergraduate major and working preference. Librarians identified as extroverted with diversified interests were more involved in curriculum work with teachers.

Adams (1973) studied the relationship between the personality of secondary school librarians and the amount of time allotted to various library services. Of a sample of twenty-four librarians from southern California, she found that those with lower self-images spent more time on clerical tasks and less on reader services.

Daniel (1974) hypothesized that library media specialists in schools where the library is highly integrated will exhibit significantly different communication patterns and personality characteristics than will their counterparts in schools where the library is isolated from the central functioning of the school. Her population was 138 Maryland public schools. She found that high integration scores correlated significantly with humility, accommodation, submission, conscientiousness, responsibility and perseverance. Librarians in these schools were also significantly more conservative and tolerant of traditional difficulties, while their counterparts were more independent, radical and projected. Librarians in schools with low integration scores were less likely to initiate contact with teachers; the contact was less frequent, and was seen as less important. Daniel concluded that the roles of the library and the librarian were marginal in the schools studied and that the potential of both was undeveloped.

Madaus (1974) investigated a number of factors conceivably related to a successful library media program in Texas high schools. Among the variables were the extent of the librarian’s curriculum involvement, librarian personality factors, and teaching structures available (e.g., language labs, teaching machines, team-teaching, flexible scheduling). Madaus defined a successful program by the amount of
The best predictors of high material circulation were a high extroversion score on the personality inventory and a high degree of involvement in curriculum on the part of the librarian. School librarians differed significantly as a group from librarians measured in Douglass’s (1957) landmark study, which recorded many negative characteristics. School librarians surveyed by Madaus were more extroverted, more sociable and demonstrated fewer neurotic tendencies.

Turner and Martin (1978) studied the relationship between personal and environmental characteristics of media specialists and the extent of their involvement in instructional development activities. The subjects were forty-three graduates of the library service graduate program at the University of Alabama. Investigators found that those respondents who read more journals, had more production equipment and had completed more research and courses in psychology contributed somewhat more to instructional development.

Kerr conducted two studies on the work of the “new” media specialist. In the 1975 study, the media professional is a learning resource specialist, or LRS; in the 1978 study, an educational communications consultant. In the former study, he queried administrators, teachers and LRSs in the state of Washington about the recommended expansion of the media specialist’s role. Respondents voted on the appropriateness of LRS participation in technical, informational and instructional development tasks. Kerr theorized that teachers would resist sharing with LRSs their authority in those aspects of curriculum development in which they consider themselves autonomous and omnicompetent (e.g., designing units and selecting instructional strategies and materials). Adapting Blau’s theory of social exchange, he reasoned that teachers might find sharing less threatening if the LRS had valued resources to share. To test this theory, Kerr added a final section to his survey with questions about resources which might have social exchange value — career mobility, professionalism, cosmopolitanism and role-taking ability (i.e., ability to “step into another person’s shoes”). He found that administrators, teachers and LRSs agreed that information services were the most essential part of the LRS’s role and technical services (e.g., setting up equipment and producing materials) the least important. Teachers and administrators at the elementary level, and administrators at the high school level, were more interested in having the LRS engage in instructional development than were LRSs themselves. Of the social exchange variables, role-taking ability was correlated positively with teachers’ acceptance of the expanded role of the LRS.
The Curriculum Consultant Role

In his second study, Kerr offered a persuasive review of the literature to support his thesis that two current trends in education offer the educational communications consultant the opportunity to assume a more effective role in promoting change, provided there is an increased awareness of the social interactions inherent in that role. The trends cited were "ecological" research and development, which recognizes the need to study school programs in their social setting, and the growth of specialization in education. Kerr argues that if ecological research is to function, new leadership is mandated. If teachers become increasingly specialized, someone will need to link them for essential communication. Kerr cited research reports of team-teaching studies to buttress his contention that team-teaching offers an ideal opportunity to link teachers in a productive unit, as well as a logical base for the educational communications consultant to utilize capabilities in instructional development. Kerr's work crosses disciplines and offers a rich resource to theoreticians in the library/media field.

Aaron (1973) developed and tested a model which assigned the library media specialist an active instructional development role on the school's teaching team. She reported on the responsibilities of the media specialist on the teaching team, the environmental factors which affect teaming (e.g., size of professional and supportive staff, attitudes of administrators and teachers toward media staff participation, and amount of lead time for planning instructional units), and the media staff's perception of their responsibilities in instructional development. Her warning that media specialists must accept their enlarged role or lose it to others less qualified echoes the viewpoint of many other researchers cited in this paper.

The carving out of a niche for the school librarian in curriculum has been going on for many years. Standards have both extended and systematized the role. Research offers conflicting evidence about what changes, if any, have occurred. The pessimist could conclude that the prescriptions and new vocabulary of the standards have not succeeded in accrediting the library media specialist to participate in curriculum development. The classroom remains the province of the teacher and is not to be intruded upon by the media specialist. The proper place for the library media specialist is the media center. The pessimist might also argue that the attempts to unify media program and staff have created antagonism, confusion and an impossible set of labels for the professional in the field.
MARGARET GRAZIER

The optimist, on the other hand, could claim that research revealed that some school staffs believe in an active role in curriculum for the library media specialist, and that some library media specialists meet these expectations. The national standards evolved from the experience and judgment of leaders in library science and educational technology familiar with exemplary programs in the field. Optimists would argue that creative library media specialists mesh programs with instruction, and that the extended yet flexible role within the school now encourages the talented and discourages the meek.

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The Curriculum Consultant Role


The Academic Library as a Teaching Library: A Role for the 1980s

ALAN E. GUSKIN
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The 1980s will challenge universities to make some serious choices regarding programs and priorities. These choices will arise, to a great extent, from the continued deterioration of the economic status of higher education in general. Following a period of extensive growth, and then one of relative stability, the 1980s will almost surely be marked by continuing fiscal constraint. The manner in which a university faculty and staff respond to the difficult choices of the next decade will be an indication of the educational values they consider important.

Maintenance of academic standards is the first and most significant of the choices that will have to be considered. Much of the financial problem which universities will face is a consequence of the reduction in numbers of 18- to 22-year-old students. For these institutions, the temptation may be to increase the number of students by any means possible. A danger in over-responding to the need for increased enrollment is to lower academic standards in an effort both to admit and to retain more students.

While open access to and increased availability of higher education are desirable goals, they can be justified only when academic standards are maintained. In fact, such goals make it essential that all students demonstrate that they have the necessary skills to remain students once they enter the university. If universities lower academic standards, grad-

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uates will be ill-prepared for their future careers, and, as a result, there will be a further erosion of confidence in institutions of higher education. The challenge then will be to maintain standards in the face of declining enrollment even if it means dropping some students from the university.

Other choices will have to be made as a result of the increasing diversity in the types of students who attend colleges and universities. Adults and part-time students may well become the majority group on most 4-year college campuses. These students will be on campus less, but will be demanding more of the university in terms of the type and quality of the education and educational services they receive. Because of their commitments to home, work and community activities, they will have limited time for their education. They will, therefore, need more flexible course scheduling than will their younger, full-time counterparts, as well as more challenging assignments, and better and more integrated services, all of which will require a greater share of scarce fiscal resources.

As institutions strive to deal with these internal pressures, they must also be concerned with rebuilding the public trust, which was seriously damaged in the late 1960s and early 1970s and has never been totally restored. A key element in reversing the damage will be the relationship that the university develops with its surrounding community. Universities can be important resources for the local, regional and state communities they serve. In order to realize this potential, however, they will have to reallocate scarce resources and reorder internal priorities. If they do so, they will have a powerful impact on the communities and, conversely, will be considerably influenced by these same communities.

These and other choices which colleges and universities must make in the next decade will bring old assumptions about educational programs and priorities under close scrutiny. How will a changing student body affect the curriculum, class scheduling and educational services in general? How can faculty and staff be encouraged to maintain academic standards in the face of declining enrollments? How can the basic skills of entering students be improved? How can universities relate to their surrounding communities and at what cost? On what basis will educational changes be made? How will necessary changes be introduced by and to the various constituencies? What impact will these changes, new priorities and the reallocation of increasingly scarce resources have on the traditional units, especially the academic library?

It is unlikely that academic libraries will remain unaffected by the manner in which their institutions meet the challenges of the next decade. The library can choose to stand aloof from the changing environment...
and continue business as usual, or it can seize the opportunity and move boldly and decisively into the educational mainstream of the campus. If the library chooses the former, it should be prepared to suffer the gradual and continuing neglect of the campus community. If the library chooses to accept the latter role, it can evolve into a dynamic unit receiving considerable attention from faculty members, students, administrators and community residents.

Most academic libraries are at crossroads and must select a path for the 1980s. Decisions are already being made in response to the pressures now on colleges and universities, and these decisions are affecting the library. Book budgets are static if not decreasing. Other library programs are being questioned because of the competing financial needs of campus programs which deal more directly with the changing student body, standards and community support. In other words, there is no status quo. Libraries cannot remain primarily committed to collecting, storing and retrieving information and materials. To do so will be to accept quietly a deteriorating condition.

THE TEACHING LIBRARY: A DEFINITION

One major way in which the library can respond to the present challenges in higher education, maintain itself as a viable campus unit, and realize its potential as the symbolic heart of the campus is to become a "teaching library." By the term teaching library, the authors refer to a library which is not only a support service for academic programs, but which is itself actively and directly involved in implementing the mission of higher education: teaching, research and community service.

The teaching library is characterized by the following:

1. a commitment to instructing students, faculty and staff in the effective identification and use of information resources;
2. a commitment to bringing all library resources to bear on the development of college students into lifelong learners;
3. a commitment to providing access to and encouraging the appropriate use of its resources by residents in the surrounding communities;
4. a commitment to developing a climate of learning in surrounding communities by working with other community educational agencies to facilitate the fullest possible use of the information resources available;
5. a commitment to maintaining a collection adequate to meet basic campus needs; and
ALAN GUSKIN, CARLA STOFFLE AND JOSEPH BOISSÉ

6. a commitment to resource-sharing so that the campus community has easy access to materials not available in the library.¹

THE CORE PROGRAM OF THE TEACHING LIBRARY: BIBLIOGRAPHIC INSTRUCTION

One program must be present in all teaching libraries: comprehensive bibliographic instruction at the elementary and advanced levels. This essential program emerges from the one function common to all institutions of higher education — namely, education of the undergraduate. The need for bibliographic instruction was recognized early by librarians and university administrators. In his annual report for 1883, the president of Columbia University stated:

The average college student ... is ignorant of the greater part of the bibliographical apparatus which the skilled librarian has in hourly use, to enable him to answer the thousand queries of the public. A little systematic instruction would so start our students in the right methods, that for the rest of their lives all their work in libraries would be more expeditiously accomplished.²

In 1886, at the annual conference of the American Library Association, Edwin H. Woodruff of Cornell University Library referred to the role of the college library in this manner:

The practical duty of a college library ... is to teach the student how he may, ... at any time in his post-collegiate years, seek out and use the books that have displaced or carried along the knowledge of his college-days.... He should feel that the college has done all it can for him when it has led him into the library (and) taught him to ... use its contents.³

In 1902 W.R. Harper, president of the University of Chicago, stated rather emphatically: "The equipment of the library will not be finished until it shall have upon its staff men and women whose entire work shall be, not the care of books, not the cataloguing of books, but the giving of instruction concerning their use."⁴

Throughout these years and the decades that followed, many librarians developed courses and other instructional materials designed to teach students how to utilize more effectively library resources. There is ample reference to these efforts in library literature.⁵ For the most part, however, attempts to develop instructional programs into basic library services were isolated and, for a variety of reasons, short-lived.
The Academic Library as Teaching Library

The past decade has witnessed a resurgence of instruction activities by librarians. Increasingly frustrated by the apparent futility of many, if not most, of the traditional librarian/student contacts, librarians have been directing their energies toward developing effective methods of teaching students how to use libraries. While many libraries today can point to very successful bibliographic instruction activities, few can claim to have comprehensive programs.

A comprehensive program of bibliographic instruction should have the following components: (1) a general orientation to available facilities and resources, (2) the teaching of basic research skills and strategies, and (3) the teaching of the organization of the literature in various disciplines, as well as the basic reference tools in each discipline. In addition, the program should be characterized by: (1) a written profile identifying the audiences for the instruction and their needs, (2) a written statement of instructional goals and objectives, and (3) a plan for evaluating the instructional program.

In establishing a comprehensive program of bibliographic instruction, the library staff will follow essentially the same steps that will be outlined for the development of a teaching library. The recent library literature abounds with articles on how to plan a library instruction program, how to develop instructional goals and objectives, how to select appropriate methods and develop effective materials, and how to evaluate instructional programs. The key element in developing a successful instruction program is the relationship between faculty and librarians. Without cooperation and communication, librarians cannot prepare relevant instruction programs and faculty will not accept librarians in the classroom. Therefore, librarians must spend a substantial amount of time cultivating faculty members — providing information for them, obtaining information from them, and developing among them the concept of the librarian as a team member in the educational process. Some examples of programs for achieving this relationship include:

1. creating faculty profiles, i.e., holding individual interviews with faculty members to learn about their courses, research and service activities, while at the same time providing faculty with information about useful library resources and services;
2. contributing to faculty newsletters or regularly issued publications in order to inform faculty about library services, staff, new collection items and programs, etc.;
3. attending faculty receptions, coffees and social hours;
4. initiating faculty routing of articles, Choice cards, etc. — activities
which provide a special service to the faculty by giving them information they might not otherwise have found and/or involving them directly in decisions about the development of the library's collection; and

5. holding faculty workshops, seminars, etc. which focus on materials and new technological advances, such as how to access data bases and use new instructional media.

OTHER PROGRAMS OF THE TEACHING LIBRARY

While a comprehensive bibliographic instruction program is an essential component of a teaching library, it is not the sole component. A variety of other activities will flow from the commitments of the teaching library, activities which are not new to libraries. However, they will have new objectives and will be part of an overall plan rather than being isolated. To enrich the climate of learning on campus and generate greater use of its resources, a teaching library might:

1. develop displays of its materials on topics of current interest nationally, locally or to the campus;
2. establish regular showings of library films or videotapes during lunch hour or at other appropriate times;
3. set aside special areas for recreational reading with current book collections of popular materials available;
4. create special areas for displaying student art work;
5. sponsor lectures, poetry readings, etc. either in the library or at other locations on campus; and
6. provide bulletin boards for posting notices of cultural activities on and off campus, or for posting book reviews, film reviews, etc.

From its commitment to provide access to and encourage the appropriate use of its collections by community residents, the library staff may: (1) develop book lists or bibliographies describing the resources of the library in areas of interest to community agencies or special interest groups; (2) establish special circulation privileges for community agencies, schools, businesses; and (3) issue to community residents library cards which will allow them to enjoy the same circulation and use privileges as students.¹²

From the commitment to work with community educational agencies to create a climate of learning in the community, and as a natural extension of a bibliographic instruction program, the teaching library may provide programs of library instruction for area high school classes. The
The Academic Library as Teaching Library

availability of these programs will enable teachers to upgrade coursework and expand research assignments because of access to specialized materials — materials which the students will be taught to find and use. Following from the same commitment, librarians may provide instructional sessions or inservice workshops for local government employees, area businessmen, professionals in local social service agencies, teachers, and members of community organizations (such as historical societies) on locating and using specialized materials to which they might not otherwise have had access.

Other community-related activities of the teaching library may involve programs developed in conjunction with other area libraries. The programs may involve traditional resource-sharing activities or may extend to joint programming. The preparation of joint book lists on topics of interest to the community, the cosponsoring of film programs and lectures, joint displays, and the loan of specialized collections — such as a public library's current fiction collection to the academic library, or conversely, specialized academic library materials to the public library — are only some examples of what might be done. Examples of other programs include staff exchanges, joint continuing education activities, joint circulation systems, cooperative acquisitions, and cooperative processing. In addition, the libraries involved may even develop cooperative reference and circulation policies. These activities will assure the community of both the efficient use of available resources and more effective library services.

Because of its commitments, the teaching library must be genuinely concerned with the problem of providing an adequate basic collection and quick access to research materials. Since a major objective of bibliographic instruction is to teach people how to access and use information, it is obvious that the reference collection gains added importance as a prime vehicle for leading people to information. The necessity for careful, well-planned development of the general collection is further emphasized by the fact that a successful bibliographic instruction program will increase the level of sophistication of the users. Finally, because of this increased user sophistication and because all libraries are experiencing fiscal constraints, greater importance will have to be given to the establishment of fast, efficient, effective resource-sharing mechanisms. Unless attention is paid to these collection development factors, all of the activities and programs of the teaching library will flounder and fail since it will be impossible for the library to maintain any degree of credibility.
THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEACHING LIBRARY

The development of a teaching library is not a simple process. It takes careful planning, flexibility, tenacity and commitment on the part of both the library administration and staff. This process begins with an analysis of the external and internal environmental factors directly affecting the university. Such an analysis involves examining institutional goals and objectives, priorities, curriculum, long-range plans, and other factors which are likely to affect substantially the future of the institution. Following the analysis, the population to be served must be identified. This population may include undergraduates, graduate students, faculty, institutional administrators and staff, and community residents such as teachers, businessmen, city officials, etc.

Following the identification of these groups, the library staff can proceed to the assessment of the information-related needs and the information-gathering skills of the various populations to be served. Some ways that this might be done are to:

1. interview representatives of each segment of the population about their needs, and available resources and programs which already meet those needs;
2. interview faculty and administration about the perceived needs of other population segments;
3. examine course syllabi, the college catalog, student assignment sheets, listings of reference questions asked, etc.;
4. attend faculty meetings whenever possible;
5. establish contacts in the community, with educational agencies, other librarians, etc., and attend meetings involving these people or their organizations; and
6. examine the library literature, including articles about patrons and services in other than academic libraries, to gather ideas and place the information collected on the library's specific population in a broader context.

While assessing the needs of the population to be served, the library must also analyze its resources which can be utilized to meet these needs. Most critical is an assessment of the available human resources: the commitment and ability of library administrators to implement a teaching library in terms of their technical expertise, internal leadership skills, and influence on central university administrators; the skill of the present library staff to implement the array of programs that make up a teaching
The Academic Library as Teaching Library

library; and the availability of staff to carry out traditional library functions along with the new programs.

Besides the ability and availability of staff, the library resource assessment must include consideration of the finances available in the library and the potential for funds reallocation to new programs, fiscal resources available within the university that can be allocated to the library, the needs of the collection and the capability of fulfilling them, and the availability of equipment for present and future needs. Of course, each university has special circumstances that may require assessing unique campus resources which could help fulfill the needs of the teaching library (e.g., specialized libraries on the campus, and libraries within the community with which there is a consortial relationship).

The need for clearly defined goals and objectives in the teaching library cannot be emphasized too strongly. In the most general sense, people need objectives to tell them where they have been, where they are going, why they want to go, and when they will get there. In the process of developing goals and objectives, library staff must gain clear understanding of their self-interests, the university's interests, their conceptions of a library generally and of a teaching library specifically, as well as what can and should be accomplished by the desired conception. Moreover, objectives are useful not only because they help chart a course of action, but because they make evaluation possible.

A critical element in the development of goals and objectives is the process itself. Faculty, staff, students and appropriate community members should be involved in discussing the early drafts. Through this participation, these individuals and groups not only lend constructive insights, but also become committed to the outcome — the actual goals and objectives. Obviously, this commitment is dependent on the sincerity with which the consultation takes place; if the process is open and has the potential to produce changes in the draft — whether or not each comment leads to an adjustment — the involvement in the development of the goals and objectives will more than likely lead the participants to an understanding of the teaching library and to support of its implementation. This type of consultation is especially important in periods of fiscal constraint, as the development of some of the programs in the teaching library may displace other more established library activities, which under the new plan may have a lower priority.

Developing programs and activities carefully designed to implement the goals and objectives is the next step. This program development function must take place within the context of all resource analyses and needs
assessments previously completed. Since each university has a unique configuration of internal and external resources and needs, the nature and/or the type of programs that emerge will be distinct from those of other institutions.

Once the library has decided which programs and activities to implement, it must develop an evaluation component. Unless the library is involved in evaluation on an ongoing basis, there is a grave danger that many programs and activities will become entrenched simply because they have been started. The whole purpose of evaluation is to provide the library with a method of improving its programs, of redirecting them when necessary, of changing them when appropriate, and of quietly laying them to rest when they have served their purpose. Evaluation methods used can vary from the informal and subjective, such as interviewing students, faculty and staff and checking use statistics, to more formal and objective methods involving carefully constructed questionnaires and the use of elaborate research designs.

THE PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTING A TEACHING LIBRARY

Creating a teaching library requires sensitivity to the political and administrative processes of university life. Since it demands a reorganization of library priorities and activities, the building of elaborate relationships between the library staff and faculty, and the use of scarce fiscal resources, implementation of the teaching library is in itself a political process which requires considerable skill to manage.

The implementation of the teaching library, especially the bibliographic instruction program, is a major undertaking entailing considerable organizational uncertainty and some risk for those involved in the process. Uncertainty must be reduced as much as possible and the risk involved must be seen as reasonable to those responsible in order for them to be willing to undertake the change process. Furthermore, because such new programs upset routine activities, some people are always going to resist the change. Not all the uncertainty, risk and resistance can be avoided, but a great deal can be done to reduce it through good planning, understanding of the process by which new programs are developed and adopted, and careful analysis of the people and organizational units involved in the implementation of the teaching library.

The development of a teaching library should begin slowly. The program should start on a small scale and build acceptance through successful performance. The key activities in this social/interactional/political process (described here in the context of the bibliographic instruction
The Academic Library as Teaching Library

program but also applicable to the other services of the teaching library) are as follows:

1. diagnosis of the courses which have the greatest need and where faculty members could use bibliographic instruction if they chose;
2. diagnosis of the type of faculty most willing to try this innovation in the classroom;
3. cultivation of those faculty likely to be most receptive, with an emphasis on those faculty who are opinion leaders among their colleagues. These individuals can be essential to gaining the acceptance of others, e.g., senior faculty members who have reputations as good teachers and scholars. Havelock, a leading scholar in the field of knowledge utilization and planned change, summed up the effect of such opinion leaders in the following way:

Diffusion of an innovation begins with the acceptance of the idea by a few key members of a community. From there on, it begins to spread more rapidly, usually through word-of-mouth contacts between friends, neighbors, and relatives. This person-to-person process is very effective; once it has started and there are clusters of people who accept the idea and are “talking it up,” it gathers momentum. A chain reaction seems to be generated once this “critical mass” of key individuals has formed, and there is a rapid upswing in the rate of acceptance until a large majority has been won over.13

4. diagnosis of areas of likely resistance. Care should be taken to avoid individuals who would reject the ideas, large-scale faculty senate or even department votes on adoption, and situations in which the program could be challenged prior to successful adoption by large numbers of people. For example, the library must continue to provide high-quality traditional library services while implementing the new program. This is difficult, but essential if the library is to avoid negative criticism of bibliographic instruction and its other teaching library activities.

The purpose of diagnosing faculty need and interest and cultivating potential implementers of bibliographic instruction—or any of the teaching library activities—is to facilitate the acceptance by these individuals of the new programs. An important part of this effort to encourage acceptance is an understanding of the process by which people adopt innovations. The literature on the adoption of innovation indicates that the process of acceptance has six phases: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial,
Each stage is described here generally and in terms of how it relates to the implementation of bibliographic instruction and the teaching library.

**Awareness:** The individual is exposed to the new program or innovation and becomes aware of it. The manner in which it is presented at the outset may determine the individual's motivation to move into the next phase of the acceptance process. The purpose here is to stimulate the curiosity of potential adopters. This is a key period in the cultivation of these people to make them feel at ease with the librarian.

**Interest:** The individual seeks out information about the new program or innovation, and has expressed an interest even though he has yet to decide on its suitability to his own situation. Based on the information gathered, the individual may either decide against the new program or to move into the next phase of the acceptance process. The librarian at this stage should involve appropriate individuals, i.e., faculty members, librarians in other libraries, etc., in group discussions concerning the proposed program, and encourage them to seek out more information on how this new program can be beneficial.

**Evaluation:** This is a “mental trial” period in which the individual applies the new program or innovation to his own situation and decides whether or not it is worth trying. At this point, the librarian should demonstrate to interested individuals how the project will actually work so that they can envision its application. For example, in promoting a bibliographic instruction program, the librarian might discuss the specific benefits that will result and give some indication of how the program will actually operate in the classroom.

**Trial:** During this stage, the individual tests the new program or innovation on a small scale to see how it would actually work in his or her situation. For example, at this point in the adoption process of a bibliographic instruction program, the librarian should encourage the faculty member to let the instruction librarian take over a few class periods and actually demonstrate the program. It is particularly important at this point that the faculty member understand his/her relationship to the librarian during the classroom sessions, and to the program during classes prior to and immediately following the bibliographic instruction. In order to realize the potential in this situation, the faculty member must see how he or she relates directly to the process. At this point, the faculty member needs maximum support, both intellectual and emotional, to develop a positive atmosphere. Care must be taken to help the faculty member evaluate the bibliographic instruction program and personal
The Academic Library as Teaching Library

reactions to it. The results of the trial may not be immediately apparent unless they are pointed out.

Adoption: As a result of the trial period, the individuals make a decision either to adopt or reject the new program or innovation. For example, after the faculty member decides to incorporate bibliographic instruction in class, care must be taken to continue close interaction in order to avoid any difficulties that might occur before or after bibliographic instruction. The key issue here is to help the individual adjust to the new situation and to provide necessary support.

Integration: Even after a positive decision is made, it is extremely important that the new program or innovation become fully integrated into the ongoing work of the adopter. True integration occurs when the new program is seen as a routine activity. At this point, the librarian keeps in touch with program adopters through follow-up information about new developments or possible additions to the program. Continuing emphasis should be placed on the importance and usefulness of the program.

Throughout all of these stages it is important that the individuals who may adopt the new program are allowed and encouraged to make a personal commitment, to discuss their doubts about the program, and to seek out librarians when they need help. It is extremely important that those individuals who are among the first to utilize the program receive a great deal of support and encouragement when the program is initiated. Librarians should foster in those individuals positive feelings about the program and show them how it fulfills their desire for better service (in the case of local educational agencies), or for higher standards and better-prepared students (in the case of faculty). Such support is important in overcoming any fears or insecurity, and should be given to everyone involved in adopting the programs of the teaching library.

In addition to support of those responsible for the day-to-day implementation of the program, any major organizational change requires support from the leadership of the institution. Gaining support from the senior administration of a university requires both the cultivation of the individuals involved and the demonstration of a significant commitment by the proposing unit. This means that the library director and staff must demonstrate their strong support for the new program by reordering priorities and reallocating library resources to implement the new program.

Senior university administrators spend much of their time dealing with requests for funds. From this experience, they are often cynical about
the importance of new programs that are additions to present ones. They are easily surprised and their imaginations stimulated when someone does not ask them for money, but rather shows them a new and exciting idea for increasing the effectiveness of a unit, especially a traditional academic unit like the library. Since libraries are generally seen as mausoleums where books are accumulated, as "bottomless pits" for monies to increase collections and as passive servants of a student population with decreasing skills, administrators may well be pleased by and attracted to an aggressive library oriented toward teaching.

Senior administrators have a universitywide perspective, and are thus continually struggling to keep a proper balance between competing interests while maintaining a concern for the total array of university programs. In many ways, the library is one of the few campus units which shares a universitywide perspective and must deal with the problems of such competing interests. Librarians can utilize this perspective in working with senior administrators by showing them how a teaching library can serve the educational interests of the entire university rather than one small part of it.

From the viewpoint of senior administrators, the library is a resource that can respond to the changing needs of universities. First, library directors tend to be responsive to the leadership of senior academic administrators. Second, unlike academic departments whose highly tenured faculty members may emphasize more traditional concerns, the teaching library has the flexibility to adjust to the changing educational demands made on universities: to student needs for basic library research skills and advanced research methods, to the need for new instructional technology to teach students more efficiently and effectively, to the out-of-class needs of adults and community members, and so on. Given the pressures on universities to adjust to new types of students, senior administrators are looking for university units flexible enough to make this change. Library directors who understand this and are willing to make a commitment to a teaching library can find their organizations receiving considerable moral — and even financial — support.

The support of high-level university administrators does not assure the success of programs like bibliographic instruction or the teaching library; ultimately, that will depend on the faculty members, staff, students and community members involved in the many new activities. What high-level administrative support does provide is fiscal resources, if needed, and even more importantly, the endorsement of such an innovation as an important university interest and program. Without such sup-
The Academic Library as Teaching Library

port, faculty and staff members will always be concerned about whether or not the program will receive the resources necessary to survive. The reality that they will receive the resources may be less important than the symbolic support of the senior administrators. Such support reduces the uncertainty ever-present in universities these days, and reduces the risk that a commitment to this program will prove embarrassing at some future point.

SUMMARY

Colleges and universities will undergo changes in the next decade in response to the pressures being brought to bear on higher education by the changing student body, the reexamination of standards, and the need to restore public confidence. Educational priorities will be reordered. Traditional campus units, including the library, will feel the impact of these changes. Rather than remain an amorphous symbol of the academic world, the library can seize the opportunity to become an active ingredient in the educational process of the university by becoming a teaching library.

The creation of a teaching library requires major effort. Careful planning must take place, priorities must be reordered, and the library staff must understand how to implement the necessary changes. The development of a teaching library is not a function of any single activity, but rather the configuration of programs and priorities focused on the manner in which a library can best serve the educational needs of the faculty, students and community individuals and institutions.

If academic libraries accept the challenge of the 1980s and respond to it in a manner similar to that described in this paper, they will not only gain control of their own destiny, but may well become a model of institution (and constituent units') responsiveness to the educational changes of the next decade.

References

1. The concept of the teaching library presented here is much broader and more comprehensive than the term as recently used in Breivik, Patricia S. "Leadership, Management, and the Teaching Library," Library Journal 103:2045-48, Oct. 15, 1978; and Spencer, Robert C. "The Teaching Library," Library Journal 103:1021-24, May 15, 1978. In addition, the teaching library should not be confused with the library-college concept; see Shores, Louis. Library-College USA: Essays on a Prototype for an American Higher Education. Tallahassee, Fla., South Pass Press, 1970. While there is some similarity between the two concepts, the teaching library is committed to a much broader range of activities.


7. A checklist for the assessment of information needs of the academic community is being prepared by Mary Reichel for a section of the Handbook being drafted by a committee of the ACRL Bibliographic Instruction Section. See also Stoffle, Carla J. “Focus on Objectives: A Workshop on Writing Objectives on Bibliographic Instruction Programs.” In Cerise Oberman-Soroka, ed. Proceedings of Southeastern Conference on Approaches to Bibliographic Instruction. Charleston, S.C., College of Charleston, 1978, pp. 7-32; Cottam, Keith. “An Instructional Development Model for Building Bibliographic Instruction Programs.” In Oberman-Soroka, op. cit., pp. 33-40; and University of Texas at Austin. General Libraries. A Comprehensive Program of User Education for the General Libraries, the University of Texas at Austin. Austin, University of Texas, 1977.


11. Farber, Evan I. “Librarian-Faculty Communications Techniques.” In Oberman-Soroka, op. cit., pp. 71-86.

12. While academic libraries generally choose not to do this, fearing a significant drain on their resources, no great amount of research has been done on the subject. For one study of a group of university libraries in Ontario, see Wise- man, John A. “Community Use of University Libraries,” Canadian Library Journal 32:373-76, Oct. 1975.


After the first big push of the early 1970s, video use in libraries has entered a phase of reexamination and regrouping brought on by pressures of fiscal conservancy and mercurial technology. New attitudes toward video development place internal priorities before external pressures. The fever of initiative is yielding to more deliberate design of video service that is in agreement with perceptions of community need. This progress is based on firm knowledge of events past.¹

The emergence of video in libraries has not been a sequence of insular events, but, rather, a matter of widespread discussion involving active participants and onlookers alike. Thus, reiterating the history of library involvement in video is not a painful task. Its background can be traced clearly in current bibliographies and reports on technological developments, regulatory issues and commercial and educational application.² Its progress is documented in library-specific publications so numerous that this article can only mention a fraction of them.

An early preview of events to come can be found in a 1971 article by Kenney and Norwood outlining the possibilities which the new visual medium offered for library services.³ In the following year, Film Library Quarterly devoted a major part of its coverage to new media services. There the first exposition of library/community involvement in video appeared. Pioneer professionals, among them William Sloan, Emma Cohn and Walter Dale, gave insightful reports on current developments.⁴

Growing library interest in video was next underscored by the ALA resolution of January 31, 1973, which recognized the importance of in-
corporating the new technology into the scope of library activities. A core of video librarians was forming, and that same year *CableLibraries* emerged, a monthly newsletter which continues to chronicle library experiences with video and cable throughout the country.⁵

In 1973 and 1974, video leaders in ALA offered the first practical advice and cautionary notes. *Video and Cable Communications: Guidelines for Librarians* was ALA's first major publication on the subject.⁶ George Stoney gave food for thought to librarians considering "getting into the act" by raising important questions concerning the consequences of such involvement.⁷ During that time public librarians were encountering new equipment and acquiring new skills. Some ventured outside their buildings, taking portapacks into the community; others felt the need to absorb the implications of the new phenomenon in a conceptual manner first. ALA began surveying developments in the field, finding a steady pattern of growth during 1973-74.⁸ Since then, efforts to monitor library/video involvement continue, but the most recent survey results were published in 1977.⁹ To fill their need for current information, some librarians have undertaken their own regional-scale inquiries. For example, audio-visual consultant Pat Mackey of the Monroe County Library System (New York) carried out a statewide survey in 1978.

In 1975 the Information Science and Automation Division (ISAD) of ALA formed the Video and Cable Communications Section (VCCS), maintaining the momentum generated among library professionals. VCCS continues as part of ALA, within the recently renamed Library Information and Technology Association, whose *Journal of Library Automation* should be increasingly concerned with reports relating to video, cable and upcoming technologies, such as satellites and fiber optics.

As librarians' interest in video expanded, so did the need to examine future options and relationships of new services to established ones. In 1976 Kenney discussed the future of cable communications in libraries, and Boyle drew attention to sensitive issues of priority-setting and problems video librarians were encountering in 1977.¹⁰ Then, in 1978 *Catholic Library World* devoted its spring issue to nonprint media in libraries and included an article charting the development of library video and cable involvement in the preceding years.¹¹ The slowdown in expansion of video activities in the late 1970s noted in that article continues, although it is not regressive. Rather, it is a process of judicious retrenchment in the face of definite but surmountable barriers imposed by fiscal and technological realities.
Video and Cable: Emerging Forms of Library Service

What, then, is the nature of emerging video services today? What can be said about current activities and problems, discernible trends and future prospects for video in public libraries? Three underlying factors play a part in this discussion: (1) the efforts of public libraries to respond to community needs, (2) the effects of omnipresent fiscal constraints, and (3) the problems created by an ever-changing technology.

CURRENT ACTIVITIES

Library involvement in video/cable runs the gamut from minimal in-house use of prerecorded tapes to daily cable-casting of library programs on library-leased access channels. In general, the value of video as a playback medium is widely recognized, though commitment to production has been slow to take hold.

Many libraries have little in the way of equipment or software, and others have only recently embarked on limited-scale in-house projects. For example, Mercer County Library (New Jersey) owns playback equipment and a small collection of 1/2-inch, black and white videotapes which they use to orient new library employees and to introduce touring schoolchildren to the facility. The Rockford (Illinois) Public Library owns no equipment or tapes, but is currently participating in a local university video project which enables channeling of user feedback to the library board. In mid-1979, when the university’s project ends, its portable equipment will go to one of Rockford’s branch libraries, where it is earmarked for public use. Meanwhile, through workshops, information packets and displays, the library is actively informing the community about video and public access to cable.

Other libraries have devised different methods of sharing what they now have or hope to acquire soon. The Wicomico County Free Library (Maryland) owns equipment, but is deferring production until completion of a new facility where studio space will be available. In the interim, the library allows local government offices and private businesses to use their video playback equipment for workshops and programs.

At the next level of development, libraries are involved in building equipment and tape collections that will enable them to meet patron requests for video materials for library or home use. In these libraries, videotape is just another type of material that has been successfully assimilated into existing library lending, interloan and in-house use patterns.

Both the Mount Prospect Public Library and members of the Bur Oak Library System (both in Illinois) lend tapes to patrons, as does the
B. K. L. Genova

Rochester (New York) Public Library. The Schenectady County Public Library (New York) and the Public Library of Nashville/Davidson County also loan tapes to other area libraries on request.

It is at this point of service development that two important issues are likely to surface: cost-effective methods for video collection growth, and pressure to list or catalog available tapes for better accessibility and control. Software acquisition from commercial sources assures technical quality of materials, but introduces problems of high cost and lack of local subject orientation. However, as libraries develop their own production capabilities, dependence on outside sources for quality tapes gradually diminishes. This is happening at the Tucson Public Library where the gap in locally-oriented tapes is filled by in-house production of materials (some in Spanish) about the Southwest, solar energy and desert ecology.

The point at which the size of tape collections makes cataloging necessary varies from library to library and, generally, seems associated with the extent to which a library moves beyond in-house-only use of materials. Obviously, the circulation of tapes to the public or among libraries within a system makes material accountability more necessary. Not unexpectedly, the most extensive catalogs are found in libraries which early became involved in video: Port Washington (New York) Public Library, Altoona Area (Pennsylvania) Public Library, Dorchester County (Maryland) Public Library, and Rochester Public Library, to name a few.

Another level of current activity involves libraries which function as video collection centers and community production facilities, even though they are not involved in cable. The San Jose (California) Public Library provides video support at conventions, club meetings and sessions of the local city council. A monthly video magazine and a staff development program build video competencies throughout its sixteen branches. The Mesa Public Library in Los Alamos, New Mexico, uses video as the medium for a community newsletter and to provide information and referral service to area residents. The Eau Claire (Wisconsin) Public Library, in cooperation with the local cable company, has established a public access center. It loans equipment on a 24-hour basis and also has a viewing area. The Port Washington Public Library has extensive equipment, viewing facilities and a rich tape collection, and fulfills its role as a community video center by offering continual training in video to local residents. The resulting core of skilled volunteers handles the production of all on-location tapes.

The activities of cable-casting libraries have been highly publicized
Video and Cable: Emerging Forms of Library Service

for obvious reasons. Perhaps a useful distinction can be made here between library use of available public-access cable space and library control of a cable channel. As might be expected, the number of channel-controlling libraries is smaller than those utilizing public-access time. In addition, local cable companies are not equally amenable to allocating considerable amounts of time to public access. Thus, libraries may find themselves limited, despite internal capability to provide programming.

The Public Library of Columbus and Franklin County (Ohio) has a weekly 1-hour program on each of Columbus's three cable systems, including Warner's interactive Qube system. It is to be hoped that in the near future they can increase their use of Qube, which has been publicized as a highly innovative, community-minded system. The Everett (Washington) Public Library, coping with limited support, cable-casts three hours weekly on local Viacom Cablevision. The East Brunswick (New Jersey) Public Library cable-casts twenty-five hours a month on Middlesex Cablevision. At the high end of the scale is the Pocatello (Idaho) Public Library, which transmits five and one-half hours daily, Monday through Friday. Their programs are scheduled at half-hour intervals from 8 A.M. to 7 P.M. over the community-access channel.

There is considerable variation in the manner in which libraries exercise control over cable channels in their communities. The Monroe County Public Library in Bloomington, Indiana, operates a leased cable channel and programs up to sixty-four hours each week! They produce 300 original programs annually and estimate that 80 percent of the community's cable subscribers watch them on channel 7, whose studios are located in the library. The Albany (New York) Public Library has been the public-access facility for the local cable company since 1977 and cable-casts three nights a week. The Danbury (Connecticut) Public Library maintains that city's officially designated municipal/community information service on cable channel 6, which operates twenty-four hours a day. It produces six to eight hours of original programming each week and has earned national recognition by winning the National Cable Television Association's award for best children's access programming. Its channel enjoys 13.6 percent of the cable audience.

PROBLEMS

Whatever the apparent richness of such diverse video and cable projects nationwide, none are easy to maintain and cultivate. Some of the difficulties are familiar ones, such as lingering resistance to audiovisual (AV) development and nontraditional services among officials,
the public and even some library staff. More importantly, funding shortages in a number of vital areas continue to frustrate most video-oriented professionals.

While quality software is increasingly available and hardware options abound, prices are still not readily affordable for most. A library might be able to purchase programs for $50 or $100, but a price of $300 for a single 1-hour prerecorded tape gives pause to many. Inevitable equipment damage, as well as routine maintenance and repair, are financial burdens which must somehow be borne if deterioration of the entire video program is to be avoided. Often equipment suppliers fail to provide reliable service. In the absence of steady support, some video projects soon run out of raw material and resort to recycling tapes every six to eight weeks, which in turn lowers the technical quality of productions. Finally, fundamentals such as space, staff time and hiring of new skilled staff often take a long time to materialize.

A newer problem, exacerbated by intense competition among video equipment manufacturers, is the proliferation of formats and machines and discontinuation of earlier models, which can make the purchase of videoware totally confusing, not only for newcomers but also for those with considerable experience. The fact that a few basic models are sold under a number of different brand names is not readily apparent. The lack of equipment compatibility further complicates matters. Despite the sophistication of video librarians today, there is very little they can do to correct this situation, since the factors responsible are entirely beyond their control. While this message presently seems lost on manufacturers, it can be hoped that the dictates of good business will eventually bring them around. Meanwhile, video professionals are acting to help themselves and their colleagues. With increasing frequency, video-related journals devote attention to equipment comparisons, general technology information, and analyses of AV alternatives. Two instances of recent coverage of this kind deserve mention here.

The February 1979 issue of *Video Systems* carried an article by Manfred Dorn outlining the basic differences between Beta and VHS formats in both consumer and industrial versions. It may also be of interest to examine that journal's "New Hardware" section, which gives periodic coverage to new equipment and accessories.

Another thoughtful comparison of Beta and VHS formats, aimed at facilitating selection decisions, is offered by Michael Heiss in the January 1979 issue of *Videography*. The author discusses such features as freeze-frame availability, audio dub, warranties and, of course, price.
Throughout the year that journal's "Home Screen" column follows developments in hardware. Yet, in light of recent trends, librarians should always expect "surprises," as vendors continue to introduce new equipment and features.

TRENDS

Increasing consumer sales of home playback units will continue to create patron demand for public library video services involving both software and hardware. The needs for good circulating video collections, provision of in-library viewing areas, and staff attention to the maintenance of equipment are already taken for granted in many libraries. Increased patron interest will suggest what kinds of programs can best address community needs and interests. Currently, children's materials, "how-to" tapes, and programs suited for adult independent learners have emerged as favorites. An 8-part TimeLife videocassette speed-reading course has proved popular with patrons of several New York State libraries, including Syracuse's Onondaga County Public Library.

Most public libraries try to build well-rounded collections, however small, in order to satisfy general audience tastes. There is evidence, however, that video facilities in libraries are most readily accepted by younger patrons and least used by senior citizens. The Texas State Library, for example, attributes to video the increased use of the library by the 18-30 age group—a segment of the public that rarely frequented the facility before. As video service improves, its use level is likely to rise correspondingly. It is also conceivable that in expanding their role in community-access programming, libraries may attract new user groups. The East Brunswick Public Library notes that live programming with call-in opportunity is popular among individuals who are traditionally nonusers of libraries.

Fiscal limitations and difficulties in obtaining grant money for video projects are giving rise to new funding patterns and methods of dollar conservation. Many libraries are beginning to look at fees as a means of achieving partial cost recovery. The Willard Library in Battle Creek, Michigan, charges a minimal fee for equipment loans to citizens and outside agencies. Others, like the Brunswick-Glynn County Regional Library (Georgia) charge for and use their own production capabilities to prepare training materials for local businesses and industries. Still others, like the Public Library of Columbus and Franklin County make their studios available to nonprofit organizations—universities, churches—at minimal cost.
The trend toward development of cooperative library consortia continues, and groups, old and new, are beginning to implement coordinated purchasing and shared use of video resources. In a recent article, Boyle made astute note of such "networking" and described the efforts of the California Video Circuit, the Texas State Library Video Network and the South Central Research Library Council in Ithaca, New York. On behalf of twelve libraries, the California State Audiovisual Consultant negotiated an agreement with vendors for volume purchases of software and hardware at reduced cost. It is anticipated that a 555-title collection, in packages of twenty-two tapes—eleven titles each in Beta and VHS—will circulate for one month at each of the twelve participating libraries. A catalog will be developed to facilitate interlibrary loan.

From the Texas State Library a core of 400 titles, circulated for 2 months in packets of 25 tapes each, will move among 31 libraries involved in the video network. In Ithaca the approach is different: individual libraries in the 14-county region purchase tapes on their own, but maintain common listings to facilitate exchange and interloan.

Two main variations in cooperative patterns are developing: cooperation among libraries themselves and cooperation between libraries and other agencies. Notable examples of each are worth describing here.

The Los Angeles County Public Library Project MOST (Media Outreach Service and Training) circulates seven video packets in six regions of the county, according to a predetermined schedule. Each packet contains subject-related videotapes on sports, home economics, art, management, travel, science, etc. Project director Joan Livingston feels that a 3- to 5-year projection of video use, provided by independent consultants, would aid in future planning and help determine the proper balance between expansion of their in-house training mode and outreach efforts. The Boulder Public Library is currently establishing a video clearinghouse that will list the video resources of all Colorado libraries. It is intended to facilitate statewide resource sharing. Director of Media and Programming Richard Varnes notes that information collected in the process will also be the basis for future in-depth cataloging, which could easily be entered into a statewide data base, LC MARC II, OCLC or individual library cataloging systems.

In Georgia, public libraries involved in video have formed the Georgia Public Library Video Association in order to exert greater influence on government decision-makers and to help each other. An extensive volunteer program is planned, as well as increased video services publicity. Patterson (New Jersey) Public Library AV Supervisor Sylvia
Jaroslow is planning to open a community production studio during 1979. It will serve as regional video center for several area libraries as well as community groups and governmental agencies.

Emphasis on cooperation with organizations outside the library sphere is also evident. Future plans of Joe Shinnick, video department head at Brunswick-Glynn County Regional Library, include establishment of an alternative distribution system whereby library video will serve as a cooperative resource for the local business community. The Wicomico County Library is working out a taping agreement with the city museum and the local arts council. AV Librarian Judy Parsons also intends to pursue mutually advantageous ways of working with the local chamber of commerce. In the Kern County (California) Public Library, Information Officer Linda Culberson predicts increasing cooperation with government agencies, school districts, and the local museum and arts council as these agencies and the library attempt to function in post-Proposition 13 times.

PLANS IN PROGRESS

No matter where on the video-use continuum libraries stand today, the collective outlook is clearly a forward one. Plans to inaugurate video services are being made by libraries of all sizes. At the Chicago Public Library cost data have been gathered and decisions concerning circulation of tapes and equipment and location of in-library viewing and production areas are well underway. In Mt. Clemens, Michigan, the Macomb County Library is looking forward to a new building that will contain facilities for viewing ½-inch and ¼-inch tapes and permit some in-house production.

Libraries planning to expand existing services have a variety of community-related projects in mind. The Boulder Public Library plans a video hook-up with a senior citizen center being constructed next door. In Pocatello, the library will attempt to set up limited interactive video with several neighborhood centers. It also intends to involve the public in program production.

Among libraries now planning for cable use is Maryland's Baltimore County Public Library, where a small, 2-camera color studio is under construction in one of the system's branches. Barbara Weiss, head of programming services, indicates that staff will be trained in production techniques and, thereafter, the library will focus on making public service spots, using its dedicated-access channel and reaching out to help older adults and other user groups make their own tapes. By the summer of
1980, that library expects narrow-casting to reach the point where pro-
gramming is regularly scheduled.

Other libraries that already offer access programming see the need to expand it. The Scranton (Pennsylvania) Public Library currently pro-
vides weekly gavel-to-gavel coverage of city council meetings, cable-cast on 24-hour delay. Media Librarian John Finnerty would like to see these meetings cable-cast live in the near future. Live coverage of school board meetings is also contemplated.

The stress of providing quality video services does not diminish at libraries which have already gained recognition for their ability to use the full potential of the medium. At Everett, Washington, extensive com-
munity productions have been cable-cast since March 1976. Library programs are seen weekly and are also rebroadcast on local radio. The Tompkins County Public Library in Ithaca, New York, has produced a popular community information service program for two years. It is a forum for local talent and presents news of community interest. Despite these achievements, both libraries indicate an acute need for improved financing to stabilize day-to-day operations and facilitate future planning.

On the other hand, strong initial funding is reported by the Arling-
ton (Virginia) Public Library, which is receiving financial support from its local cable company, along with a channel assigned to its exclusive use. Each of the library's six branches will soon have an incoming outlet, while the central library will have two incoming and one cable-casting outlet. The library's contract with the cable operator gives it five years to dem-
onstrate worthy use of the cable channel. Staff led by Ed Epstein and Lois Kane thus have an opportunity to demonstrate that libraries can, indeed, make video/cable work — for themselves and for the community.

THE FUTURE

How will new technologies change the characteristics of libraries and their users? With this question in mind, Eugene Garfield took a provocative look at upcoming innovations and their impact on libraries and urged librarians to consider how space, policy and personnel re-
quirements must change to meet the future. Will display and copying agreements grow easier to negotiate, thus enabling libraries to assemble large collections of video programs, both general and specialized? Will acquisition policies move some libraries toward purchase of mainly family-
oriented material? Would a tape-rating system, similar to those used by movies and television, be useful to libraries with diverse collections, so
that selection and circulation policies can be streamlined and freed from controversy and censorship disputes?

How will reference and information services expand by combining on-line retrieval with the home television set? Currently, the British Post Office is experimenting with Project Viewdata, a telephone information service. Subscribers call to request the display of specific information on their home television sets. Then, by sequentially pressing buttons on a key pad, they can gradually narrow their choice of subjects and topics to retrieve one page out of a million. It should be noted that video reference service at the Natrona County Public Library in Casper, Wyoming, can be viewed as a forerunner of this type of service. Early in the 1970s its patrons were able to phone in requests for visual information, tune their television sets to the appropriate channel, and see material relevant to their queries.

At present there is great library interest in the video disk. Prerecorded disk programs and players cost less than their videocassette counterparts. In addition, laser-read video disks are durable, offer superior picture quality, and allow random access to specific content items. Yet, despite these attractive features, the video disk is a playback-only tool that cannot match the portability, production, erasure and recycling attributes of videotape formats. It is likely, therefore, that librarians will put the best features of both to work in providing library video services; that is, they will capitalize on video’s portability and live programming capabilities and, at the same time, take advantage of the storage, selective information retrieval and archival strengths of video disks.

Prospects of interconnecting libraries through cable are just beginning to be explored, but many professionals are already aware of the possibilities offered by satellites. Instantaneous satellite transmission is here; point-to-point connection, using a library’s own small earth-receiving station (dish), could be feasible before the turn of the century. The procedural and service applications of such technology will become increasingly evident as media-conscious librarians and administrators rise to the challenge.

The Great Plains National ITV Library is exploring the cost-effectiveness of previewing programs by satellite. Current methods depend on physical shipment from distributor to potential buyer and back. Early in 1979, the PBS satellite network with its 149 ground-receiving terminals was used by Great Plains to transmit several new instructional program series. Potential buyers could preview the material at the time of transmission or record it for viewing at a later, more convenient time.
The importance and complexity of the issues raised by existing and emerging technologies have not been lost on the library profession. Keen awareness of the issues was evident in last year's ALA statement to the House Communications Subcommittee, presented in connection with the revision of the Communications Act of 1934. It addressed the urgent need to restore localism as the focus for community programming and to assure ever-improving service to rural areas. It also asserted the role of librarians in shaping national communication policies and practice and in providing access to information.18 However, perhaps the most significant statement made, from the perspective of this writer, was that "cable represents but one of the many telecommunications devices or systems which may be used to carry information . . . over distance."19 This thought carries one's attention beyond present involvement with video and cable toward the advent of "mixed technology networks."

These networks will likely result from a combination of multiple technologies that seek optimal solutions to burgeoning information delivery needs. Providing service to the public through such networks will bring back to library doorsteps many of the same issues and problems germane to video/cable today. To the extent that some of these difficulties will echo past experiences in handling new technology, libraries will be well prepared to deal with them.

There will, however, be totally new challenges created by innovations only now on the drawing boards. These challenges will demand the attention of personnel as conversant in computer technology and systems design as staff today are with videotaping and post-production.

It is the responsibility of practitioners and educators alike to anticipate the competencies implied by such evolution. When this is done, the profession can look to the future with some confidence that a new generation of "mixed technology specialists" will be prepared to carry on library community service traditions.

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Video and Cable: Emerging Forms of Library Service


6. Kenney, Brigitte L., and Esteves, Roberto. Video and Cable Communications: Guidelines for Librarians. Chicago, ALA/ISAD, Dec. 1975. (This valuable 84-page handbook is currently being updated and revised by Roberto Esteves.)


17. Further information can be obtained by contacting Great Plains National ITV Library Director Paul Schupback at (402) 467-2302.


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The Emerging Information Professional

ROBIN D. CRICKMAN

There are so many clichés about this being the Information Age that additional pronouncements on the subject seem destined to put readers to sleep. How many people, though, really understand the role of information in society? Should information and its curators be treated with respect and provided with ample resources? What makes them so deserving?

There are many reasons to value information. None is more significant than the fact that the appropriate use of timely information can expand the resources available to society as a whole and to its members individually. The expansion of physical resources is a case in point; for instance, consider the use of railroad tracks. Trains must be scheduled far enough apart to ensure that two trains traveling in opposite directions will not be on the same section of track at the same time. The more information the transportation manager has about the exact position of each train at each minute, the closer together the trains can run. The information on train positions actually expands the resource of railroad tracks by making possible more use of the same tracks on any given day.

The ability both to gather and to process data rapidly into information also makes possible more effective use of capital resources, which in turn enables the provision of more goods and services using the same amount of capital resources. Anyone who can provide two items to a society where only one was produced before, using the same resources, is very likely to have the respect and support of that society.

Better information can also improve everyday consumer decisions.
and expand individual resources. Consumers who have more information about the range of products available can make choices which better reflect their needs. Knowing that certain garment finishes resist certain stains, the consumer can choose a garment finish well suited to the environment in which the garment will be used. The personal resources of the consumer are thereby expanded because less money and time have to be spent on cleaning the garment. The informed choice is possible only if reasonably complete information on the dimensions of choices is known.

Information can be used to expand the utilization of other human resources as well. Consider, for instance, the choice of employment. Information such as occupational outlooks helps a person to decide whether to become, for example, a librarian or a technical writer. Information networks such as employment advertisements and job hotlines help the trained graduate locate a position. Without them one would be forced to depend solely on friends and family to learn about job openings; in the past, such methods have proved somewhat limiting, leading to discriminatory hiring and to underutilization of skilled people.

In the development as well as the utilization of the human resource, information has the power to expand the raw material. Teachers of exceptional children provide a good example. With information on new techniques of instruction, the teacher can present material more clearly. This allows time either to complete more lessons or to reinforce material already presented. The result either way is a better-prepared student with an improved capacity to contribute to society—a result of information being available.

If information can be accurately described today as valuable, it is well on its way to becoming invaluable tomorrow. While it is quite reasonable to expect that many of the current trends in information usage for industrial, consumer and human development decisions will continue, there also appear to be other directions which are new developments in information utilization. Some of these are the result of the enhanced analytical processing now possible because of the development of digital computers.

The ability to process very large amounts of data by computer has led to many new developments in science and society. Not the least important of these has been the trend toward assembling and preparing very large collections of data for analysis. These data may result from surveys of human opinion or of natural environments, observations of economic indicators, or counts of accumulated artifacts. The subject
The Emerging Information Professional

matter is widely varied, but all these data collections share some common factors. Because the collection of data and converting data into a form suitable for computer processing require substantial effort, the data gathered are most effective when they can be used for many different purposes. To make this possible, it is necessary to allow subsequent researchers to form and reform their own subsets of the data, and to analyze them using various statistical and analytical programs developed for computer analysis.

Fortunately, allowing for the multipurpose analysis requires only that the data be gathered and reduced to computer form with careful consideration of the regroupings likely to be desired and the probable computer programs to be used for analysis. While this is no small "only," it is being done. The growth of data banks, as these large collections of data for multiple analysis are known, is one of the newest and most exciting challenges in modern library service.

Another new dimension of information utilization brought about by the processing ability of digital computers is the development of large-scale modeling systems. These systems use large quantities of data to produce information about the probable future state of a natural or human environment. One such project of considerable scope and importance today is the reasonably accurate computer models which can predict weather. The reason they are not used as much as every one may wish is that they require immense amounts of data and huge computers for processing. So much data and processing time are necessary to calculate the weather using these models that the day for which weather is being predicted has passed by the time the computer calculations are finished. However, computer designers are making rapid improvements in the speed of both data input and analysis. The day is not long distant when models that utilize huge amounts of data to produce information on future states of the environment will be viable. Information professionals need to be ready both to assist in the process of overseeing the assembly of the huge quantities of data, and to make the information resulting from such models available to the widest audience possible.

Large-scale models are also useful for predicting human activity. It has been recognized by insurance companies for many years that the inability to predict individual deaths does not mean that accurate predictions on the number of deaths in a given age group cannot be made. Models predicting human behavior also require large quantities of data as input. Like the models of natural systems, they produce information that is of considerable interest and significance to patrons.
For information professionals, the challenges of providing service on human systems models are perhaps greater than those of service on natural systems models. Not only can the information professional expect to assist in locating the large data input, but for human systems the data-gathering discipline is more variable than that for natural systems. The discipline can affect both the accuracy and the valid uses of the data. Because of this, it is important that information on the data-gathering discipline be complete and readily available both to those who would use the data and to those who would use the information the models yield. Again, it is the responsibility of information professionals to see that this important information is available.

There is yet another problem related to human systems models. The data required usually pertain to the behavior of individuals, and many people are reluctant to allow data to be gathered on their personal behavior. They fear that the data will be used in ways detrimental to them. Yet, without keeping data on many individuals, models cannot be developed and used. In the past, the factors which constrained researchers from "undue prying" were technological; it was simply too difficult to collect and store massive quantities of data on millions of citizens. That form of protection is quickly vanishing. A new balance will have to be found between the fears of undue prying on the part of the citizens and the desire for data on every aspect of a person's life on the part of researchers. The conflict between privacy and public need for information will very likely remain one of the significant issues of this century.

One additional trend in information usage is now developing which relates to models of the world. It is now necessary to make planning decisions, based on the best judgments available, that will have consequences for very long periods of time. The information needed to make such long-range decisions is somewhat different from previous needs. One area for which long-range consequences are obvious is in the location of sites for nuclear waste disposal. Nuclear wastes must be stored securely for many decades. Accordingly, the storage sites should be safe from natural and human disasters (as nearly as possible) for many centuries. Location and selection of such sites requires models that use information about such considerations as geological conditions, likely future population levels, and other factors not yet even identified. Whenever decisions must be made which will have consequences for many people, either immediate or long-range, it seems that the demand for accurate information on which to base such decisions will increase. Since technology and population both increasingly require decisions of wider and longer-range con-
sequences, the information professional should expect heightened pressure for better and more accessible data and information.

The growing complexity of social systems and models of them has increased the demand for information goods and services. This demand has spurred the development of entire industries which respond with products and services designed to provide the information required. It has been variously estimated that from one-third to nearly one-half of the American GNP is devoted to develop information goods and services.¹ This figure, however, includes more than information products and services for libraries and their patrons. It includes the entire computer industry because the computing machine is used primarily for processing information. It also counts telephone and other communications industries which transfer information from one place to another. Education expenditures are also incorporated in the information sector of the economy, since education involves the imparting of information to others. The information industry, however, is the part of the information sector of the economy which is of most interest to librarians. The information industry, one of its major spokesmen has stated, consists “of those organizations that are in the business of producing and distributing information products and services.”² While this broad definition can still include many organizations which would not generally be identified as information industries (such as the telephone company), it provides a very reasonable working definition.

The first efforts of the information industry were in the production of information products. Book publishing is clearly a part of the information industry. However, the organizations which most readily identify themselves with the information industry are the producers of secondary publications, such as indexes, reference books, and handbooks or directories, which contain material gathered from several original sources in one conveniently organized item. These companies have also led the field in the development of multiple products from a single information source. For instance, the same information may be available in conventional printed format, in microform, and stored in a computer where it may be searched (and part extracted and printed for the patron when desired).

The information industry, like Gaul, has three parts. It consists of (1) private, for-profit companies in the business of preparing and distributing information products and services; (2) not-for-profit organizations, often associated with professional or academic societies, which produce and sell information products and services; and (3) government
agencies which, as part of their mission, produce or gather and make available information products and services. A well-known representative of the private companies is the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI). BioSciences Information Service (BIOSIS) of Biological Abstracts is a good example of the not-for-profit organizations. National Technical Information Service (NTIS) is one active example of the government agencies in the information industry.

Two organizations which exist to further information industry interests are the Information Industry Association (IIA) and the National Federation of Abstracting and Indexing Services (NFAIS). The IIA is a trade association formed in 1969 to promote private enterprise in the information field. Its members are largely for-profit information companies. NFAIS is an organization of not-for-profit and government agencies concerned with the production and distribution of indexing and abstracting tools. Both IIA and NFAIS are called upon to describe the importance of information products to the public and to government bodies when such input is appropriate, and representatives of both have testified before Congress. Both groups are interested in the development of faster, cheaper and more reliable computer processing and telecommunications. In these areas they sometimes join with the library community to present common interests. Libraries and information industries both have a stake in improving the ability to generate and distribute information products.

The fact that several organizations represent the interests of the information industry is not an accident. There is considerable controversy within the industry, however, over which organizations should provide which services and products. Private companies are accused of profiting from information that was created or gathered at public expense, such as funded scientific research or census and economic indicator information. If such information must be sold, some maintain, it should be sold at the lowest possible price. This suggests that government or nonprofit organizations should be its providers. Private companies argue that it is not the creators but the consumers of the information who should be considered when deciding whether an item should be provided by the profit or the nonprofit sector. Their argument is that the taxpayers' money should not be used to finance services and goods which will only benefit specific people. Thus, if the private sector can offer a service, the government should not compete. Private companies hold that government and not-for-profit organizations should reserve their productivity for those
information products which the private sector cannot economically produce.

One area in which this conflict in the information industry impacts libraries is journal article photocopies. There is clearly a demand for the service of providing to library patrons copies of articles not held by the library. Private companies claim that document delivery services which sell such products do it well, and that both users and original publishers are best served when this service is a profit-oriented activity. Some of the private companies in this business obtain the journals they copy from libraries, and the question of proper compensation to the library has been raised. The controversy became quite heated when NTIS announced that it would offer journal article copies in addition to its other document delivery services. Private companies have contended that a government agency has no business offering a service that they themselves are clearly able to provide. (Librarians are particularly concerned with this controversy both because of the occasional use of their collections for other people's profit and because of their interest in establishing a national periodical center. Librarians believe a national center will provide the material for patrons at the lowest cost. Since it would take profit from private companies, businesses are not in concert with the libraries.)

The problem of how to provide the best products and services at the lowest cost constitutes the major tension between librarians and the information industry as a whole. Librarians have traditionally been committed to providing information whether the patron can pay or not. Need for information has been the major motivation in library decisions. Payment has come from other sources: taxes, tuition or organizational operating budgets. The commitment of the information industry is to develop products and services which will produce an economic return (either a break-even or profit-making situation). Even government agencies which are part of the information industry are usually required to charge for their products in order to recover at least some of the cost of providing the information. Librarians have charged that the information industry does not take enough interest in developing some mechanism for the transfer of resources to ensure that those needing information but unable to pay for it will nevertheless receive it. Information industrialists have argued that libraries are demeaning the value of the information they provide by not making the public aware of the very substantial cost of its provision. Furthermore, for-profit information industries also hold that information products which best meet patron needs will be developed through profit incentive and free-market competition.
In spite of the tensions between them, there is still much to draw the library community and the information industry together. Librarians know quite well that their ability to serve patrons rests in part on the quality of their tools. Thus, the work of the information industry to develop better tools for information retrieval is to the benefit of the library patron. The information industry, for its part, is aware that the prices of many of its products and services are such that libraries will remain the primary market for those items. Even where libraries are not the only market, they are still very strong supporters of informing the public of the availability and value of the product or service. Finally, the information industry and the library community share the realization that the need to develop an information-sophisticated public is of critical importance to the well-being of both.

While it is certainly true that the industry has expended effort in developing many new information products, it would be difficult to say whether the development of these new products and services is a result of supply push or demand pull. Clearly, the suppliers of these products have tried to induce libraries and their patrons to use them, but it also seems that the time for such development was very ripe. Almost twenty years ago, Derek Price commented on the growth and development of information dissemination mechanisms in science. The number of journals being published, Price noted, has grown in a very regular way since the late 1600s. When the number of journals reached approximately 300, a critical mass was reached. The result was the development of a new type of information dissemination tool to help scientists stay abreast of new developments. That tool was the abstract journal. Around 1950 the number of abstract journals had reached the critical mass of 300. The time was ripe for new developments.

From the perspective afforded by the late 1970s, it is possible to see that a new technology just being designed in 1950 was to play a critical role in providing the new tools that the situation required. Indeed, digital computers and other technologies have combined to provide a number of new information organization and dissemination tools in years since 1950.

The existence of computer processing helped to bring about the very large data banks that are just beginning to play an active role in providing information. The data banks now available hold material on political opinion, social phenomena, natural resources, and economic development. The data can be transmitted either by sending magnetic tapes from a central collection point to the interested researcher or analyst, or by allowing remote computer terminal access to the central computer where
the data are held. Once a researcher has determined that a data bank contains elements pertinent to his research, he can use a statistical package to analyze the material for meaningful patterns or trends. By combining the data in novel ways and analyzing them to determine if the observed count is sufficiently unusual to be more than just a matter of random variation, the researcher can ascertain, for example, whether political affiliations of a given ethnic group are changing, whether social unrest is higher in some parts of the nation than others, whether natural resources will be adequate for a new technical development, or whether economic conditions merit investment in new production capacity. These are only some of the questions that data banks allow researchers to study.

The availability of the data in the banks is aided by the development of common statistical packages (such as SPSS), which are being taught at many different places. With these common "canned" programs, the same kind of statistical analysis, using exactly (or almost exactly) the same computer commands, can be done on computers in Seattle, Houston and Atlanta, for example. The researcher can move his project from place to place and not need to learn a new program of analysis every time. This boon has made it possible for researchers to concentrate more on the material to be analyzed and less on computer programming.

The proliferation of data available for analysis, and the fact that researchers can now spend less time concentrating on the "how" of analysis and more on the "what," imply a new challenge for the librarian or other information professional called upon to assist researchers with their information problems. A new type of information must now be stored and retrieved. The researcher needs to know if any data banks hold data suitable for a specific type of analysis and, if so, which ones. It is not just a simple listing of data elements that is required; the researcher will also need to know about the data-gathering and population-sampling disciplines used in order to decide what analytic techniques are appropriate. Further, different computing systems will accept data in differing coding styles and densities, so that somewhere the researcher will have to locate information on the coding and density of the data and what coding and density the computer or computers available to the researcher will accept. These information needs provide a clear challenge to those who would make their work the resolution of the information problems of researchers. And, because these banks are of great potential, using them effectively is an important task.

The value of computers in information dissemination is not limited to analysis of data bank material, significant though that activity is. It
ROBIN CRICKMAN

was less than ten years after the first commercial sale of computers that Hans Peter Luhn came up with a technique that would allow information retrieval using computers — the KWIC (keyword in context) index. Many other retrieval systems which are facilitated by the computer have followed in the years since KWIC indexing’s introduction in 1958. Today citation indexes, automatic indexing programs, and on-line bibliographic data bases are also available. All of these computer-aided retrieval systems are designed to enhance the ability of the information professional to serve the patron.

One significant difficulty has developed. The computer tools make it possible to identify the material which seems to be of interest to the patron. The job of the information professional, however, is not done until the material is provided to the patron. Initially, the computer was of no help in supplying the items wanted. Systems such as on-line bibliographic data base searching make it easy to list for the patron hundreds of journal articles or reports on a specific topic. However, upon learning that many of them are not in the collection, the patron will become dissatisfied. Some new method of providing these materials was necessary.

One solution employed another new technology, microfilm, to support the development of publication on demand. To date, this technique has been used primarily to provide technical reports rather than journal literature, but the new copyright laws which require that publishers be compensated for copies of journal articles may encourage the use of this technology for journals as well. Basically, publication on demand uses an original report (which may be typed, printed or even computer-photo-composed) and a microfilm camera to produce a microfilm original. Once the original is indexed and stored, it can be retrieved whenever a copy is wanted. Each copy can be produced — usually on microfiche — for a few cents. It is also possible to produce paper copy from the microfilm original at a somewhat higher price using photopying. Publication on demand has been used very effectively by NTIS and ERIC to make available the material that these two government agencies are charged with collecting. A copy of an entire scientific report can be acquired from NTIS for under $1.00 and within less than two weeks. The development of this technology has allowed suppliers to keep thousands of works on microfilm and to produce copies only when orders are placed for each item. This means that items of interest to only a very limited number of people can still be made available at a reasonable price.

Document delivery, which was mentioned earlier in conjunction with the information industry, is another method that has been used to
The Emerging Information Professional

satisfy the increased demand for access to items not held in a library's collection. Interlibrary loan, of course, is another way to approach the problem. The growing demand for access brought about by the improved tools of the information industry will probably only increase the use of both of these mechanisms.

An additional means of providing better access and retrieval uses the computer to store and search the actual text of the material of interest. This technique, called full-text searching, has two advantages. First, it does not restrict the retrieval system to any specific indexing discipline. Any term of reasonable significance can be used as a retrieval point. Second, once the item or items that match the search are located, they can be printed out at the terminal for immediate inspection. There is no additional wait while the desired items are located and supplied to the patron. Full-text searching is being used quite extensively for information retrieval in law. This technique is especially suited to legal materials, because virtually every word in a court decision can be significant. Furthermore, while legal items seem long, frequently only a few sentences are of interest to the patron and must be printed out. The major constraint on full-text searching currently is that it is expensive to store and search an entire text to find the relevant section. As storage costs continue to drop, more full-text searching will be used in the future.

A new development in information access that has not yet come to full fruition is the on-line journal. The combined developments of computer and communication technology have made it economical for researchers throughout the country to use a centrally located computer to store information and display it to any individual requesting it. This has enabled writers who are geographically dispersed to coauthor papers or reports without traveling. Computer conferencing is the general term for this technology, and it holds the seeds of full-text on-line storage of journals for the future.

Imagine that a group of researchers have jointly authored a paper (without ever seeing one another) and are ready to submit it to a journal. If they were to submit it to an on-line journal, they would simply send a message to the editor directing his attention to the computer file containing the text of the manuscript. Referees would read the manuscript from a computer printout and anonymously transmit their suggested revisions to the authors. The manuscript and all pertinent communications would be stored in a computer file. Once the article had been revised and was acceptable to the editor, its publication would be effected by incorporating the revised manuscript file into a collection of accepted
articles. These would constitute the current issue of the on-line journal. Interested readers could access the material on their computer terminals.

This development may give librarians many new tools for providing information about new articles. Full-text searching would be simpler since data input problems are minimal. Indexes could easily be prepared by computer programs. A possible innovation would be the use of readers as an indexing technique. By keeping a list of people who read an article and associating these readers with subject areas, it would be possible to assign subject headings to articles according to the interests of those who read them. It could even be possible to assign quality ratings by determining which articles respected researchers spent either very little or a great deal of time on. This could be done without violation of the privacy of one's reading habits by computer coding and tabulation.

The on-line journal would not only provide new retrieval tools, it would also end the document delivery problem. There would be no delay between the time that a patron learns an item exists and the patron's receipt of a printed copy of that item. As in the case of full-text searching, the main stumbling block here is that on-line storage is still expensive enough to keep the price of on-line journals beyond the means of many readers. In addition, publishers and other information industry companies are not sure they would benefit from this new technology. Thus, it may be some time before on-line journals actually enjoy widespread use. However, the basic computer conferencing technology that precedes it is in use now.

The increasing demand for information products and services has had its effect on librarians as well as on information companies and publishers. Virtually every librarian has encountered the situation in which a patron would like a service the librarian is trained to provide, but time limitations make its performance impossible. It might be verifying citations for a professor's publication, advising a schoolteacher on how to organize a personal record collection, or locating all sources of a specific product for a local business. Traditionally, such a task might be undertaken by a librarian or a competent assistant (for instance, a library science student) as an outside activity for extra income.

In the 1970s, new providers developed services that the library was not able to provide. Trained librarians, who either could not find other jobs or who found other positions less challenging, began to sell their expertise in information storage and retrieval directly to clients, calling themselves information brokers. Often these brokers are the first to offer on-line bibliographic data base searching directly to a client population.
Brokers also do manual searches when a client does not wish to do the search himself. Another activity information brokers have undertaken is to provide the services of a corporate librarian to companies too small to afford full-time librarians. These services could include answering traditional reference questions (usually by telephone), doing literature searches, and providing current awareness literature, as well as using the brokers' skills in storage and retrieval to arrange a small company library to be maintained by company employees.

The information broker differs from the librarian in terms of focus rather than activity. There is no teaching function in brokering as there is in librarianship. The broker does the searching or organizing for the client, rarely with the client. Explanations of technique are given primarily to gain assistance from the client in clarifying the question, and to develop a better product of service for that client. The broker is in the business of selling information retrieval. The clients often don't care how the information is located as long as they get what they want. The client perceives the broker as delivering an information product even when what the broker is actually doing is using his or her skill to provide an information access service.

The development of these information entrepreneurs has had considerable influence on the library community. One agreeable effect is that there is now a place to which the librarian can refer a patron willing to pay for a service the library does not provide. Referral to an information broker, however, raises problems. There are situations in which referral is taken as endorsement of the broker's skill. There are areas in which several brokers work, and any one of them may resent the library's referral to another. Even when such situations are avoidable, however, there is no way to escape the problem arising from the fact that information brokers make their living by charging for information access services. What is the library to do about the patron in need of the service who cannot afford to pay for it? How can the library justify its refusal to do some things when the information broker, for a fee, will undertake any service activity for which he or she has the skills and ability?

There is also the problem of compensation to the library for use of its collection. Many information brokers depend on public or academic library collections, which are provided at public or institutional expense, to perform their work. Brokers maintain that they are not selling the material in the library, they are only selling access to that material. They sell the delivery of the desired information to their clients. But they are only able to deliver the information because the library provides a fine
collection. Should the brokers compensate the library for their use of its collection since they profit from that use? Some libraries actually have charged brokers for collection use. Many libraries hesitate to impose such user charges, as doing so might deny access to some researcher who needs the collection but cannot afford the fee. Also, how can the library separate the information broker from the other patrons who use the library? Don't researchers make their living in part from their use of the library? Why not ask them to pay, too?

The development of entrepreneuring in information provision has forced many libraries to consider not just the question of fees but several other serious questions. What is "appropriate" use by someone in the business of providing information? Is it proper for students to use an information broker's service? If not, then why is it acceptable for faculty? Are the traditional teaching functions of librarians no longer appropriate? These questions are very serious issues, even in places where no information brokers practice. The reason is that many libraries are either providing or considering provision of on-line bibliographic search service. These services generally must be provided at charge because of the substantial expense involved. Thus, the question of fees, and the question of performing the service for the patron rather than teaching the patron to do it for himself, are pressing issues for all librarians, not just for those who are considering whether to become, or support the activities of, information brokers.

Library entrepreneurs intent on offering services and products that will sell, especially to businesses, have caused many businessmen to take an interest in the importance of information to the smooth running of their affairs. Further, as management information systems become a standard part of the curricula of many business schools, it is becoming clear to many company executives that people who can manage information are very valuable employees. Finally, the need to keep records of transactions for tax reasons, for affirmative action documentation, or for compliance with various regulatory agencies has increased the demand for people who can advise companies on how to do this efficiently and economically.

Thus, the skills of librarianship and management have united to form a new breed of people able to attend to the information problems of businesses large and small. So important is the development of these skills to information industries that the IIA has formed a Program for Information Managers (PRIM) to help those working as information managers acquire and improve their skills. In addition, a new journal
The Emerging Information Professional

"exclusively designed for organizational information needs," called The Information Manager, began publication in August 1978. The magazine carries advertising for products and services designed to meet the information needs of an organization. Also advertised are systems that will be valuable in solving the information-handling problems within the organization, as well as notices of information brokers who are selling their services as consultants.

Both information entrepreneurs and libraries have begun to offer their services in on-line data base searching to patrons. The use of large collections of citations makes possible rapid retrospective searching of substantial quantities of material. Librarians have been able to use this to advantage in several circumstances. Doctoral candidates, for instance, can use it to find out whether the idea they have developed for a thesis has already been done. Researchers studying phenomena amenable to bibliometric analysis can have large numbers of citations scanned for specific patterns which they hypothesize should develop under certain circumstances. In addition, it is now rather easy for a librarian, even at a very small institution, to create an on-line search using the profiled interests of library patrons. For a modest price, that search can be run against one or more specific data bases whenever there are updates to the data bases. Thus, selective dissemination of information is now within the realm of possible activities for many more libraries and their patrons than previously. The development of on-line bibliographic data bases has made possible the extension of many services to libraries and populations that could never have afforded them before. Furthermore, the speed of the response of these systems has made possible much more rapid determination of items available on a given subject.

Libraries have also found a new role in teaching students in some of the professions. It has been a long tradition that academic and school librarians try to teach use of the library to students. However, only recently have librarians been called upon to teach skills of information retrieval. In law school libraries, the teaching of full-text on-line retrieval systems such as LEXIS is now being done. It seems likely that business librarians will have the opportunity to enter the teaching arena with training on systems of statistical analysis of business trends, such as Predicasts. As information (as opposed to bibliographic) retrieval systems develop for more professions, librarians can expect more opportunities to share their special knowledge of on-line interaction with more kinds of patrons. The bibliographic retrieval specialty the librarians themselves can probably retain as a service for the library patrons.

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ROBIN CRICKMAN

It is a truism that nothing is certain but change. Since information reflects the social, political, economic and physical environments in which people find themselves, the quality of information changes as society changes. Change is a curious thing: it is at once man's greatest challenge and most potent nemesis. Without change and the challenge it brings, it is too easy to grow complacent, then bored and finally stale. Yet the old Chinese curse bids one to live in interesting times. The future for the information professional promises to be anything but uninteresting.

The new publics and services now developing, particularly computer services, are a reflection of both the technology of the times and the demand from all levels of society for more and better information. Large data collections have brought new services and new patrons. Librarians are now finding themselves partners in research in the sciences where it is the data, not just the report of their study by others, that are significant. Not only are librarians expected to find the needed material, but also to store information on what was collected and how, so that the researcher can use the data accurately and fully.

When the data are bibliographic citations, librarians are finding that the retrieval process is sufficiently complex that they can no longer instruct most patrons in retrieval and so must do it for them. Thus, all librarians are in some ways approaching the activities of information brokers. Once the citations have been procured for them, the patrons are seeking ways to retrieve the material just as quickly. Those who enter the information industry are therefore challenged to find better and faster ways to deliver desired material, and those who choose the traditional librarian role are challenged to direct their patrons to the most reasonable and efficient supplier of the material wanted.

Nor is the librarian done with just those activities. While the traditional role of instructing in the use of indexes, abstracts and other printed references may fade with increased use of on-line bibliographic searching, the teaching function will not die out. For effective retrieval, the full-text systems require all the skill and understanding that reference and on-line search instructors can instill in librarians. As more users begin to employ full-text searching themselves, more instruction in effective use of such systems will be needed.

In many circles of society, information is not so much a matter of emerging importance as of emerged importance. What else can explain the expenditure on information of nearly half the country's GNP? Information professionals have the opportunity to be in the forefront of new developments, but only if they are willing to face the challenges the new
The Emerging Information Professional

developments present. The years ahead may prove to be too interesting at times, but surely will never be boring.

References

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Library Cooperative Relationships in Connection with Emerging Service Patterns

ALICE E. WILCOX

A recent Library of Congress task force was nicely succinct in reporting to Daniel Boorstin, the Librarian of Congress: "The whole point of library work is to put the needed object—book, periodical, map, recording—or its intellectual substance into the hands of the user."

Accurate, timely information is essential to the educational process, supports the research necessary for a healthy economy, enhances the quality of life, and is critical to the political functioning of a free society. More than ever, society needs information and is placing ever-greater demands on libraries as the repositories of man's recorded knowledge. At the same time, libraries are constrained in their ability to perform adequately, and the public is increasingly concerned about library costs and efficiency. In all areas, including libraries, society is becoming painfully aware of finite resources. Every library has limited human and material resources. Resource-sharing through cooperative arrangements is increasingly the means by which libraries attempt to meet efficiently the information needs of their constituencies.

In this information-rich society, individuals know that, somewhere, the information they need exists. Depending upon his or her level of sophistication as an information retriever, the user may have the skills to identify and locate the documents containing the information needed. However, the patron is increasingly viewing information as a commodity. The user, as a consumer, simply wants to state a need ("order" the in-

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formation) and have it fulfilled. When the patron feels intimidated and/or uncomfortable in the process (frequently as a result of the librarian's attitude), he or she tends either to take the shopping center approach and browse through the inventory until finding the needed item, or to query the most convenient friend, colleague or man-on-the-street.

As information plays a more important role in society, many public agencies and entrepreneurs are offering information services. This has forced libraries to evaluate their own services, to become more responsive to their users' needs, and to be more aggressive in the delivery of their services.

SERVICE PATTERNS OF COOPERATION
AT THE LOCAL LEVEL

Library cooperation is not new. It has a long and noble tradition. Especially noteworthy are the century-old American Library Association interlibrary loan practice, the cooperative cataloging through the Library of Congress card catalog services, and the time-honored courtesy privileges given to visiting scholars and other nonconstituents of individual libraries. When professional librarians knew their colleagues and the collections in neighboring institutions, they tended to make use of these personal relationships and knowledge to receive special assistance and privileges for their patrons.

At midcentury, library cooperation began to change. The post-World War II period marked a dramatic shift in the lifestyle of most Americans, witnessed by the great mobility of the population, the movement to the suburbs, the commuting of workers and students, and the development of the shopping center. People began to live in one area, work in another, go to school in a third, and shop in yet another place. It became convenient for students to use the library where they attend school, and for workers and shoppers to use libraries where they work and shop. Jurisdictional and single-constituency library policies were questioned by users.

Several major developments resulted; probably the most significant was that of county systems. Early public library development had closely followed municipal lines. As counties are generally the larger units, these library systems became larger and included multimunicipal jurisdictions. These larger units frequently established centralized processing units to handle acquisitions and cataloging. Soon they developed union catalogs,
with many producing book or microform catalogs, and the formerly independent libraries became branches. These systems began to compete with the urban libraries.

Another development was the reciprocal borrowing card. Libraries in contiguous areas worked out agreements to honor library cards from neighboring libraries. In many cases, books could be returned at any convenient library in the system.

The third major development was the publishing of area collection guides. Inevitably, numerous libraries were discovered, and those left out quickly identified themselves. As a consequence, a new appreciation of the breadth and depth of community library resources developed. Sharing resources was expedited by moving patrons to resources.

Out of expediency, the user had questioned "why not?" — and librarians learned to think about materials as community resources rather than with a simple institutional orientation. The old concepts of self-sufficiency and of serving only one's own patrons were giving way. Directors of individual libraries found it easier to specialize both collection policies and services if a nearby library had a superior collection and requisite expertise in other specific areas. Much of the change was attitudinal.

In all these cases, the library was responding to the user. Libraries worked out the fiscal responsibilities and allowed the user to go to the most convenient location.

LIBRARY NETWORKS AS ENABLERS AND INITIATORS OF NEW SERVICE PATTERNS

During the past fifteen years, library cooperation has accelerated and significant changes have occurred. Library cooperation came of age with the emergence of networks, systems and consortia. These tend to be legally based, formal organizations. Whether on the national, regional or state level, the genesis is similar. One factor in their emergence is the growing consciousness of citizen's rights to access in all fields, including libraries. Another is the fact that the sheer quantity of published materials has increased exponentially. Also, the costs of providing library services are extremely sensitive to inflation because libraries are very labor-intensive. New technologies, especially computers and telecommunications, offered solutions, but frequently were feasible only in joint endeavors.

With Library of Congress's development of machine-readable cataloging (MARC), it was only natural that libraries attempt to utilize the computer for on-line cataloging. Single institutions, however, could not
support the necessary computer facilities alone. The most successful venture was the network formed by a group of Ohio college libraries, OCLC. As of early 1979, over 1600 libraries are cataloging on-line through OCLC, building their own machine-readable records. They have instantaneous access to the 4.5 million titles in the data base, which has over 40 million holding locations.

After the Library of Congress terminated publication of the nationwide *Union List of Serials*, some networks developed such lists for their own constituencies. These data bases, on-line catalogs and union lists of serials provide resource-sharing options when the local library does not have the needed materials. The local library may serve as the surrogate and obtain the item on behalf of a patron, or, if convenient, the patron can go directly to the holding library. As of this writing, the OCLC on-line interlibrary loan system is undergoing testing. This system could greatly enhance resource-sharing among libraries.

Networks provide one or more of the following services:

1. support telecommunications so that libraries can easily transmit messages,
2. develop bibliographic data bases which show where items are held,
3. support delivery systems so that materials may move freely between libraries,
4. contract with utilities or vendors to provide cheaper on-line group rates for their members,
5. train librarians to use automated services such as on-line cataloging and on-line subject retrieval,
6. convene user groups to assist library personnel in the utilization of available cooperative resources and services,
7. develop cooperative collection plans in order to build on strengths and eliminate unnecessary duplication,
8. operate processing centers for the purchase and cataloging of materials, and
9. provide integrated circulation systems in order to ascertain availability as well as holdings information.

The regional networks have trained literally thousands of librarians in ISBD (International Standard Bibliographic Description) and MARC cataloging formats for books, serials and nonprint materials. This massive short-term training program is unprecedented in library history and is leading to uniform adoption of standard cataloging practice. It will be of incalculable benefit to the user when there is one unique, authoritative
Library Cooperative Relationships

record for each item. This will allow either the merging of large bibliographic files or access to multiple files through one system.

It should be noted that there is no substitute for collections and service provided at the local library. Libraries should do cooperatively only what they cannot do individually in a cost-effective manner. E.F. Schumacher poignantly reminds one of this:

From the point of view of Buddhist economics, therefore, production from local resources for local needs is the most rational way of economic life, while dependence on imports from afar and the consequent need to produce for export to unknown and distant peoples is highly uneconomic and justifiable only in exceptional cases and on a small scale. Just as the modern economist would admit that a high rate of consumption of transport services between a man's home and his place of work signifies a misfortune and not a high standard of life, so the Buddhist economist would hold that to satisfy human wants from faraway sources rather than from sources nearby signifies failure rather than success.  

PUBLIC LIBRARY/COMMUNITY COLLABORATION

There are two indicators of emerging patterns of service: new names and new locations of libraries. It is interesting to note how many libraries have changed their designation to "information center" or "learning center" or added the phrase to their name. An increasing number of public libraries are being built as part of or adjacent to either shopping centers or government buildings which provide license, social, medical and municipal services.

These changes reflect the desire to be located in a busy area so that patrons can stop at the library as part of normal business or shopping activity. They suggest that libraries are less concerned with their custodial book depository role and more interested in providing citizens with useful information and programs to support their daily activities. Some libraries, in cooperation with local medical and bar associations, are offering lay medical, legal or consumer information through a telephone tape-recorded service. Many are actively involved in independent adult learning programs and in publicly espousing their educational role. The lending collections libraries provide of recorded music and art objects align them with cultural institutions. Audiovisual materials and equipment, as well as calculators and computers, for in-building use or loan, reflect signifi-
ALICE WILCOX

cant collection policy changes. Libraries are being much less prescriptive in setting standards of what ought to be read, and more responsive to users’ information needs.

THE ROLE AND STRUCTURE OF LIBRARY POLICY IN ENCOURAGING EMERGENT FORMS OF PUBLIC SERVICE

Federal, state and foundation monies have all encouraged library cooperation with the intent of providing improved or expanded services to patrons. There is hardly a library in the United States that is not a member of at least one network, system or consortium. As a result, libraries are becoming interdependent institutions; and increasingly, decision-making is cooperative instead of institutional. Governance and constituencies tend to be extrajurisdictional rather than only local.

Networking is not without its problems. The major ones are governance, standards, local autonomy and costs (who pays and how much). These problems demand serious attention lest they usurp time and energy that needs to be spent on services. The new public services, i.e., access to external collections and the ability to provide automated and other new services, will not survive if the profession is unwilling to yield some local authority, if the structure cannot survive changes in personnel, and if there are no provisions for growth and change.

There is a critical need to reexamine acquisitions policies. It is mandatory that the profession learn to make better utilization of personnel. A few libraries need to be designated as research libraries, provided with appropriate funds, and given the responsibility to make their collections available for potential future users. This would allow the majority of libraries to concentrate on serving current patrons. It is essential that the appropriate funding and governance roles at the local level be found while allowing libraries the necessary flexibility to interact with other libraries. Adoption of bibliographic and telecommunication standards is overdue.

Those in public libraries must understand and acknowledge their role of providing free information to a free society. It is reasonable for the user to expect that upon going to the library, he or she should either receive the necessary document or information, be referred to a library where it is available, or have the library secure it.


Library Cooperative Relationships

References


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AACR</td>
<td>Anglo-American Cataloging Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>National Federation of Abstracting and Indexing Services</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
OCLC — Ohio College Library Center
OLSD — Office for Library Service to the Disadvantaged
PBS — Public Broadcasting System
PIIN — Public Interest Information Network
PLA — Public Library Association
POSDCORB — Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting, Budgeting
PP&E — Program Planning and Evaluation
RASD — Reference and Adult Services Division
R.E.A.D. — Reading for Everyone to Achieve and Develop
SDI — Selective Dissemination of Information
SMU — Southern Methodist University
SPSS — Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TIP — The Information Place
VA — Veterans Administration
VCCS — Video and Cable Communications Section
VHS — Video Home System
YASD — Young Adults Services Division
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Volume</th>
<th>Issue</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Editor</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>11 N.</td>
<td>Library Boards</td>
<td>J. Archer Eggen</td>
<td>July 1962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Financial Administration of Libraries</td>
<td>Ralph H. Parker</td>
<td>April 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Paxton F. Price</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>12 N.</td>
<td>Public Library Service to Children in Selected Countries</td>
<td>Winifred C. Ladley</td>
<td>July 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Education for Librarianship Abroad</td>
<td>Harold Lancour</td>
<td>Oct. 1963</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Current Trends in Reference Services</td>
<td>Margaret Knox Goggin</td>
<td>Jan. 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>European University Libraries: Current Status and Developments</td>
<td>Robert Vosper</td>
<td>April 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>13 N.</td>
<td>Research Methods in Librarianship</td>
<td>Guy Garrison</td>
<td>July 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>State and Local History in Libraries</td>
<td>Clyde Walton</td>
<td>Oct. 1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Regional Public Library Systems</td>
<td>Hannis S. Smith</td>
<td>Jan. 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Library Furniture and Furnishings</td>
<td>Frazer G. Poole</td>
<td>April 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>14 N.</td>
<td>Metropolitan Public Library Problems Around the World</td>
<td>H. C. Campbell</td>
<td>July 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Junior College Libraries</td>
<td>Charles L. Trinkner</td>
<td>Oct. 1965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Library Service to Industry</td>
<td>Katharine G. Harris</td>
<td>Jan. 1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Current Trends in Branch Libraries</td>
<td>Eugene B. Jackson</td>
<td>April 1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>15 N.</td>
<td>Government Publications</td>
<td>Thomas S. Shaw</td>
<td>July 1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Collection Development in University Libraries</td>
<td>Jerrold Orne</td>
<td>Oct. 1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>16 N.</td>
<td>Cooperative and Centralized Cataloging</td>
<td>Esther L. Pierce</td>
<td>July 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Library Uses of the New Media of Communication</td>
<td>C. Walter Stone</td>
<td>Oct. 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Abstracting Services</td>
<td>Foster E. Mohrhardt</td>
<td>Jan. 1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>School Library Services and Administration</td>
<td>Sara K. Srygley</td>
<td>April 1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>17 N.</td>
<td>Group Services in Public Libraries</td>
<td>Grace T. Stevenson</td>
<td>July 1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Young Adult Service in the Public Library</td>
<td>Audrey Biel</td>
<td>Oct. 1968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Development in National Documentation and Information Services</td>
<td>H. C. Campbell</td>
<td>Jan. 1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>The Changing Nature of the School Library</td>
<td>Mae Graham</td>
<td>April 1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>18 N.</td>
<td>Trends in College Librarianship</td>
<td>H. Vail Deale</td>
<td>July 1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Issues and Problems in Designing a National Program of Library Automation</td>
<td>Henry J. Dubester</td>
<td>April 1970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Book Storage</td>
<td>Mary B. Cassata</td>
<td>Jan. 1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>New Dimensions in Educational Technology for Multi-Media Centers</td>
<td>Philip Lewis</td>
<td>April 1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>20 N.</td>
<td>Personnel Development and Continuing Education in Libraries</td>
<td>Elizabeth W. Stone</td>
<td>July 1971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Library Programs and Services to the Disadvantaged</td>
<td>Helen H. Lyman</td>
<td>Oct. 1971</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>The Influence of American Librarianship Abroad</td>
<td>Cecil K. Byrd</td>
<td>Jan. 1972</td>
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<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Current Trends in Urban Main Libraries</td>
<td>Larry Earl Bone</td>
<td>April 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>21 N.</td>
<td>Trends in Archival and Reference Collections of Recorded Sound</td>
<td>Gordon Stevenson</td>
<td>July 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Library Services to the Aging</td>
<td>Eleanor Phinney</td>
<td>Jan. 1973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Systems Design and Analysis for Libraries</td>
<td>F. Wilfrid Lancaster</td>
<td>April 1973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>22 N.</td>
<td>Analyses of Bibliographies</td>
<td>H. R. Simon</td>
<td>July 1973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Research in the Fields of Reading and Communication</td>
<td>Alice Lohrer</td>
<td>Oct. 1973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Evaluation of Library Services</td>
<td>Sarah Reed</td>
<td>Jan. 1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Science Materials for Children and Young People</td>
<td>George S. Bonn</td>
<td>April 1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Editor</td>
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<tr>
<td>V. 23 N. 1 Health Sciences Libraries</td>
<td>Joan Titley Adams</td>
<td>July 1974</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 2 Library Services in Metropolitan Areas</td>
<td>William S. Budington</td>
<td>Oct. 1974</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>23 4 Resource Allocation in Library Management</td>
<td>Wolfgang M. Freitag</td>
<td>April 1975</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>23</td>
<td>H. William Asford</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 24 N. 1 Federal Aid to Libraries</td>
<td>Genevieve M. Casey</td>
<td>July 1975</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 2 Library Cooperation</td>
<td>Pearce S. Grove</td>
<td>Oct. 1975</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 4 Commercial Library Supply Houses</td>
<td>Harold Roth</td>
<td>April 1976</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 25 N. 1 American Library History: 1876-1976</td>
<td>Howard W. Winger</td>
<td>July 1976</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>25 3 Trends in Bibliographic Control:</td>
<td>Mary Ellen Soper</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>International Issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>D.W. Krummel</td>
<td>April 1977</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 26 N. 1 Library Services to Correctional Facilities</td>
<td>Jane Pool</td>
<td>Sum. 1977</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 2 Trends in the Governance of Libraries</td>
<td>F. William Summers</td>
<td>Fall 1977</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 3 Institution Libraries</td>
<td>Harris C. McClaskey</td>
<td>Win. 1978</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 4 Publishing in the Third World</td>
<td>Philip G. Altbach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Keith Smith</td>
<td>Sprg. 1978</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 27 N. 1 Films in Public Libraries</td>
<td>John A. McCrossan</td>
<td>Sum. 1978</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 2 State Library Development Agencies</td>
<td>Phyllis Dain</td>
<td>Fall 1978</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 3 Libraries and Society</td>
<td>Margaret F. Stieg</td>
<td>Win. 1979</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 4 Study and Collecting of Historical Children’s Books</td>
<td>Selma K. Richardson</td>
<td>Sprg. 1979</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. 28 N. 1 Economics of Academic Libraries</td>
<td>Allen Kent</td>
<td>Sum. 1979</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 2 Emerging Patterns of Community Service</td>
<td>Jacob Cohen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>K. Leon Montgomery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28 2 Emerging Patterns of Community Service</td>
<td>Kathleen M. Heim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Margaret E. Monroe</td>
<td>Fall 1979</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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† Also available in clothbound edition.
Library Trends

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Spring 1980, Rural Public Library Service. Editor: John M. Houlanahan, Administrator, Northwest Regional Library System, Sioux City, Iowa.


Fall 1980, Library Services to Ethnocultural Minorities. Editor: Leonard Wertheimer, Languages Coordinator, Metropolitan Toronto Library Board.