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Library Trends, a quarterly journal of librarianship, provides a medium for evaluative recapitulation of current thought and practice, searching for those ideas and procedures which hold the greatest potentialities for the future.

Each issue is concerned with one aspect of librarianship. Each is planned with the assistance of an invited advisory editor. All articles are by invitation. Suggestions for future issues are welcomed and should be sent to the Managing Editor.

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Introduction

ELLSWORTH MASON

To read these articles is to hear loudly once again the chirring, swirling condition of librarianship of the past fifteen years, during which empires rose and fell, crowns blew off like leaves in the wind, and cities on the darkling plain were taken by ignorant armies that clashed by night. We are to a very great extent faced today with the repair of damage left by the period 1968-75 in librarianship. We have met the enemy, and he is us.

At the same time, an extensive array of outside forces has intruded on library affairs to drain our energy and resources by making everything harder to do than it ever should be in any rational world. The expanding nature of these forces is described in full in this group of articles on library consulting. They make clear that we are largely caught up in processes to the detriment of purpose in librarianship, that we are suffering badly from confusions of the multiplicity that so besets our times.

In considering the infinite complexity of librarianship, and the range of conflicting forces that whipsaw us, it is proper to remind ourselves of Forrester's Law, which should be much better known than it is—that in complicated situations efforts to improve things often tend to make them worse, sometimes much worse, on occasions calamitous, because the obvious thing to do is often dead wrong. The conditions described by these articles are beginning to put a very high premium on searching for and using to the fullest a wide range of highly specialized

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consulting talents in order to embrace comprehensively the factors that bear on decisions and make those decisions as sensitively accurate and as long-term as possible. These articles discuss when to use consultants, how to identify those who can really help, and how to use them effectively. They also present a range of the situations in the specialty they discuss that are repeatedly confronted in libraries, and how they can be dealt with.

Webster and Lorenz write the most informed and comprehensive treatment to date on how consultants can be put to effective use. They end by endorsing formal training as consultants, and describe the beginnings of such training. We are reminded, regrettably, of that time which called for formal training as schoolteachers, and of the wreckage that surrounds us in a profession so overwhelmed by methodology that talent has been forgotten.

Hayes writes a pioneering article about the involvement of consultants in library computerization, an area strewn with more wreckage than the rocky cliffs of Cape Horn. With his guidance it really is no longer necessary to blow ourselves up with our own ammunition, although I feel sure that some librarians will still feel compelled to do so.

Byam persuasively attaches staff development to organizational conditions which encourage personal effort and reaching out, the only processes by which anyone can grow. This emphasis is especially important for our times, in which we tend to conceive of staff development as a kind of miracle that descends from above, or an easy process that comes from mini-miracles like one-day conferences, workshops or anything else not connected with the work process.

Henderson recapitulates the history that has led to our present state of unionization in library staffs, delineates the strange problems that descend on newly organized staffs, and describes new processes that enter the management scene and where expertise can be found to help manage them.

Ash's article on collection building relates to the area of library performance that in my opinion has declined the most since the early 1960s, during which good libraries had generated the best of all possible interactions between the library-minded faculty and the faculty-minded librarians for the purpose of selecting the books most needed. The descent of the shower of gold sent the faculty their own merry way, confident that the library could buy everything, exactly at the time when acquisitions staffs were unable to spend the money allotted to them at all, let alone wisely. The substitution of random systems has left us in a
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condition where, as I have observed elsewhere, the Ouija board probably
would do us as well. I have no doubt that the painstaking personal
review of collections which Ash describes the consultant performing
must return to the scene.

Downs describes from a depth of more than forty years of consult-
ing the broad-guaged actions of the past that laid the basis for our
current achievements. The variety of approaches he describes for ana-
lyses of wide-flung geographical areas of librarianship should prove
extremely useful for a generation of librarians to which concerns of
network applications will be of continuing and increasing importance.

From the top, Dougherty describes the systematic traumas of high-
level management that threaten to render obsolete all library directors
by the age of forty-five. Has anyone run the tenure-years for directors
through the computer recently? His proposal for a continual process of
consultation and consultant review of library activities, as an adjunct to
review of the potential of the library staff, will probably become stand-
ard practice at least in larger libraries.

To read Markuson's article is “to see the world in a grain of sand,”
in William Blake's phrase, as the range of library complexities are
compressed within the confines of a network headquarters office. Hers
is the first article written on network consulting, and the wide range of
problems on which consulting is frequently demanded, which far
exceeds that of individual libraries, presents an unusual view of the
operations of networks.

At the same time that the demand for consultants escalates sharply,
the pressures increase on the consultants themselves to expand their
expertise, as demonstrated in my article on library building consulta-
tion. The article suggests the number of different areas into which the
consultant must expand to be used with maximal effect in planning
buildings.

Taken together, these articles should give a much clearer view of
the growing importance of consulting in libraries, of how it is likely to
affect us all in the future, and of how we can maximize its effect.
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Effective Use of Library Consultants

DUANE E. WEBSTER
JOHN G. LORENZ

INTRODUCTION

ALL INSTITUTIONS MUST RESPOND to environmental pressures, and libraries are no exception. In the last few years libraries have experienced severe erosion in purchasing power at a time when budgets are becoming tighter, the demands for service are becoming louder and more articulate, and the world of publication is redesigning the way information is made available. In general, libraries must do more with less. They must make fundamental changes in the way they operate, including improvements in technical systems, organizational structures, staff behavior, policies, decision-making processes, and ways of solving problems. Library leaders have a responsibility for planning and directing change that goes beyond reacting to crises as they occur. This requires executive judgment that combines a library-wide perspective of opportunities and challenges with the application of tools that facilitate change.1 With the pace of change, the dimension of many organizations, and the complexity of today's environment, greater attention has been drawn to consultants who can bring additional skill, knowledge, and experience into the library in order to facilitate change.

Consulting is a common organizational and social process in which professional advisors attempt to help a client solve a current or

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anticipated problem. Librarians, lawyers, social workers, and other service workers are frequently engaged in personal helping relationships that are consultative in nature. But in an organizational setting, the advice and assistance is aimed at altering institutional performance. Management, technical, or other professional experts are retained to assist library staff in solving problems, implementing new systems, redesigning organizational structure, or improving work methods and relationships. The process involves the consultant, the client, and the target for change, i.e., the problem.

Unfortunately, however, libraries frequently secure limited results from employing external consultants. There are examples of librarians being reclassified as nonprofessionals by business consultants not conversant with the functions and roles of librarians. Library buildings occasionally turn out as architectural experiments that resemble supermarkets. Or, more frequently, consultants are retained to study a problem, but their report is quietly shelved and never heard of again. Part of the problem is the result of limited consulting capabilities available to the profession. Most librarians do not have formal training as consultants, thus limiting the possibility of this capability coming from within the field. The large consulting firms do not have an important enough market in the library area to warrant development of specialists for libraries. The lack of an adequate pool of consultants is one constraint, but a more important one is the way librarians select and use consultants, which is often due to a lack of experience in identifying, retaining and managing these resources.

Obviously, many consulting arrangements end with satisfactory results. Consultants can help significantly by providing an independent point of view; substantial savings in time, money and energy; and specialized expertise that is essential in resolving particular problems. Consultants contribute imaginative solutions to current problems and their advice can help the library prepare successfully for the future. This paper explores how consultants can be better used to contribute to the process of change and improvement in libraries.

THE ROLES AND LIMITS OF CONSULTANTS

A consultant can perform a variety of functions to help resolve problems, improve performance, or secure action. The consultant may act as a trainer, fact-finder, researcher, diagnostician, conflict negotiator, or system designer. There are times when these functions may
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blend and fluctuate, and there may be circumstances in which the contribution of the consultant is not clearly defined or understood.

Objective assessment of the situation is a typical consultant role. Here an outside party is asked to spend a brief period of time reviewing the situation, identifying key issues, and making recommendations for change and improvement. Occasionally, there are particular problems calling for attention, such as staff complaints, fiscal inconsistencies, faculty concerns, unsuccessful introduction of new technology, or productivity problems. On other occasions, these brief reviews are part of a periodic visit conducted by the institution’s governing group to see if the situation is as good as it appears and where future opportunities for improvement might exist. In this role, the consultants use their specialized knowledge, experience or skills to gather information, provide an objective assessment, and make recommendations for change. The product is usually a brief report along with some verbal explanations. This role helps the institution confront sensitive areas more constructively, and allows administrators time to continue dealing with ongoing concerns.

Another role is technical advisor. Here the consultant is a technical expert who may be engaged to determine technological needs, design a system, revise currently existing systems, or implement a new system. Technological developments are a common problem area for libraries. New techniques and tools require new knowledge and skills. Frequently the library staff doesn’t have an adequate level of experience with technology to plan for its introduction or to operate new systems. Machine-based information services are an example of a situation in which the organization cannot rely upon the vendor or producer of the service for objective advice. It becomes valuable to retain a competent consultant to help the library decide on the best system, how to install the system, and how to provide training to make the most effective use of it. The result can be more extensive use of new technology, lower costs, and a higher success rate. The advantages of this role are that the library secures technical expertise it may not be able to afford on its staff, and that interest is stimulated in experimenting with new methods.

A third distinct role is organizational problem-solver, a traditional role of the consultant. Here a specialist is called in to assist in resolving a particular problem. For example, in the performance area, the library’s collections or services may be found lacking, a unit’s productivity may be declining, the library’s overall capacities may be severely limited by a stable budget, or the users may be demanding new services, better accommodations or improved collections. Or, there may be staff problems characterized by low morale that is affecting the ability of the
library to do its job, turnover which requires costly replacement, or efforts by informal groups to gain public review of internal problems which continue unresolved. Finally, there may be management problems that need attention. The client sees some symptoms of malfunctioning: staff are polarized, departments are not working together, users are complaining, or a hostile climate exists. In other instances, there may be opportunities that need to be seized, such as a sudden availability of training funds, a university-wide planning process, or introduction of a new system. Depending on the client's definition of the problem the consultant may be an advocate for certain changes or may simply provide a problem-solving process. One advantage of this approach is that it provides added resources and points of view to the problem-solving process. It stimulates action, offers a response to the situation, and adds some new ingredients that may prove useful.

A fourth consultant role is a training and educating function. In this capacity external resources are employed to plan or operate various training activities. Some consultants specialize in helping clients assess the training needs of their organizations. Other consultants design and conduct workshops, problem-solving conferences, or seminars. Companies supplying new technology such as machine-based information services or word-processing machines often provide the training needed to use the technology effectively. Such training efforts may be very brief updates or reviews; in other instances, the training may be a phased program executed over a period of several months or years. For example, the Office of Management Studies has conducted workshops focused on special issues selected by individual libraries, as well as long-term projects aimed at training supervisory staff to implement a performance-appraisal program over the course of eighteen months. Consultants who assist in training can offer libraries expertise that may not be available on staff, and a broader perspective on the current state of the art of training. In addition, the organization is able to concentrate its limited resources on developing staff rather than on maintenance of a training office.

A final role is that of process counselor. In this capacity, consultants provide advice and assistance to the client in defining and implementing developmental processes. These processes may be planning, problem-solving, training, or conflict-negotiating activities, or they may be broad change strategies involving several of these activities. Management and collection self-studies designed and operated by the Office of Management Studies (OMS) are examples of this approach. In these library studies, consultants from OMS are retained by the library to assist in the conduct of comprehensive self-studies that may focus on
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management issues or collection development and maintenance issues. Staff study groups are created to collect data, conduct analyses, and make recommendations, while OMS consultants assist by providing study procedures, helping in the planning process, conducting training in analytical methods and group decision-making procedures, and providing objective assessment of products developed during the study.

Consultants in this role do not advocate solutions or propose recommendations. Instead, they advise the organization on how to address the issues. In this use, the organization has the responsibility for identifying and dealing with the issues. Given a perception of inadequate communication, for example, consultants will help the client specify the problems, suggest methods for securing more information on the situation, and recommend ways the organization can diagnose the causes and develop ideas for dealing with the problem.

This approach to using consultants develops the organization’s problem-solving capacities which can be used in future situations; builds a climate of understanding and support for changes required to improve the situation; leads to a more active, energetic and committed staff acting in a responsible way to deal with their ongoing situation; frees the staff from expending energy on designing study procedures; and allows them to concentrate on the content issues.

The potential contributions of consultants range well beyond the traditional concept of external experts coming into an organization to determine the problems that may exist and to recommend solutions. Consultants may appropriately be retained to assist a healthy organization prepare for the future, exploit current opportunities, or strengthen further present problem-solving capabilities.

Clearly, there are many advantages gained by employing consultants. Consultants can provide the impetus for action that can lead to a number of beneficial outcomes for the institution. In addition to their external, objective point of view, they also can contribute expertise in specialized areas that might not be available internally, and they bring with them information on how to deal with problems that can apply to the immediate situation. Finally, they can supply a degree of credibility as outside experts which may influence internal groups.

There are also certain limitations and disadvantages in using external consultants. The direct cost of retaining consultants may consume funds that could be used for other purposes. Most libraries have great difficulty finding the money to support major studies by large consulting firms. Even locating a few thousand dollars required for a short-term project can be difficult. However, in practice, a library can secure
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financial support if both its needs and the anticipated contribution of the consultants are well defined. Many universities have discretionary funds that can be used for deserving projects, and frequently local donors or foundations find such short-term projects of considerable merit. Of course, federal funding for planning studies is also available through agencies such as the National Endowment for the Humanities.

Other problems that may occur include:

1. the consultants’ workload may interfere with their ability to respond;
2. at some point in the project the consultants’ skills, experience, or knowledge may prove to be inadequate for the job;
3. the consultants may apply someone else’s solutions to the present situation;
4. staff changes at the consulting firm can cause unexpected reassignments of key personnel;
5. a poor and unacceptable report may be produced as the result of inadequate investigation or time spent on writing the final report; and
6. conflict between the consultants and staff members may jeopardize the project.

The causes for breakdowns in the consulting relationship are varied. It is clear that lack of a clear statement of problems, lack of a sound contract, absence of feedback during the course of the project, and passive dependence upon the consultants’ skills will assure limited results. Thus, the client’s approach to managing the consulting relationship often determines the success of the project.

THE DECISION TO USE CONSULTANTS

Need and Timing

The decision to use consultants should come only after discussions leading to the judgment that external resources can contribute to resolution of a problem which cannot be handled with available resources. An understanding of the problem situation should be well developed, recognizing the tendencies of participants to see only symptoms, to jump to conclusions concerning solutions, and to possess a subjective view of the people and the issues. One way to view the problem is as an illness, in which the symptoms are identifiable but the causes are somewhat obscure. If standard remedies have not worked, a new
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approach or an imaginative insight may be needed. The difficulty, of course, is specifying what elements need attention.

A crucial step is the development of a statement or description of the problem situation which focuses on what needs to be changed. Starting with the problems, not the answers, the statement should present all the important factors and constraints in the situation. One way of doing this is to formulate several different definitions of the problem situation. A discussion of different definitions will help the library staff as well as the consultants to examine the underlying assumptions, the need for additional information, and possible approaches.

The desired outcomes of the possible consultation also should be defined in advance. If, for example, the problem appears to be a breakdown in communication, then specific benchmarks should be established to allow feedback on whether progress is being made toward improving this situation. The goals for improvement need to be spelled out in order to know when the problem is resolved. The consultants then have a point of departure to work from, possibly modify and use to direct the design of the consulting intervention.

The questions that may be asked at this point serve to clarify the readiness of the organization to move into this type of helping relationship. Are the consultants being asked to do something that the staff should be doing? Is an executive decision called for? Or is it necessary for the department heads to develop operating policies? Frequently, dissatisfaction can be resolved by the staff's taking responsibility for doing something relatively directly. Furthermore, the library needs to ask what has been tried in the past to solve the problem.

It is also appropriate to consider the readiness of the library to work constructively with consultants on the project. An assessment of timing and the organizational climate, including levels of staff interest and energy, is critical. Are the library staff and, particularly, the key executives able to work in a helping relationship with the consultants? The helping relationship requires much attention from the person being helped. The client must be willing to be influenced and to play an active role in the process of working through the problem. If there is dogmatic opposition to consultants or if staff members want to leave the problem entirely to the consultants, the potential of a consulting project's success is severely limited.

The organization also must be prepared to cope with the process and the results. While the need for help may always be present, the issue is whether the capacity for action exists. Chief executives engaging
Selection

Once the library has decided that consultants have potential value, and the role and function of consultants has been thought through, then the process of selecting the person or group begins. This should include an assessment of the knowledge, capability and experience of the prospective consultants as well as their credibility and responsiveness. While the knowledge, skills and attitudes of consultants are central elements in the assessment procedure, the experience of the consultants will be the single greatest contribution. Therefore, the decision should take into account whether the consultants have worked successfully with the library's type of situation and whether their experience can help resolve the problem. An investigation of the consultants' credentials and past work can help answer these questions.

Beyond their experience, the ability of the prospective consultants to relate to the library's need and establish a rapport also should be taken into account. Are the consultants compatible with the library in point of view and philosophy, and are they willing to work within the library's requirements? Furthermore, the consultants should be able to win acceptance by major constituent groups involved in the situation. Finally, the working relationship between the consultants and the library requires the development of mutual respect which is based on trust and confidence. Nothing can be accomplished with suspicion, secrecy, or surprises. The client should find consultants willing to listen and able to understand the situation, to pick up on elements viewed as important, and to respond to concerns.

In assessing prospective consultants, the types of questions that may be asked include: What experience do the consultants have with this type of problem? How have other clients felt about their working relationships with the consultants? Are the consultants willing to work the problem through before coming up with a solution? Are the consultants able to recognize when the problem is beyond their capabilities? How do the consultants evaluate their success? How do the consultants propose to involve the staff in the consultation process?

Consulting Firms and Costs

At least four types of consulting firms are available. First are the large multidisciplinary firms with extensive resources to conduct man-
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power studies, organizational studies, classification studies, or other specialized management and technical investigations. While these corporations can have considerable impact, individual libraries have difficulty affording the rather high price tags for their services. In addition, there is inevitably a period of indoctrination of nonlibrarian consultants. A second type of consulting resource is the library-based consulting firm, which sees its primary specialty and principal focus to be library organizations. Such firms are frequently smaller, have flexible staffing arrangements, and engage specialists familiar with libraries. Third, there are individuals acting as consultants on a part-time basis. These individuals usually are librarians or faculty with particular skills and national reputations whom libraries engage for their particular philosophies or perspectives. Fourth, there is increasing availability of consultative assistance from library organizations, such as associations, regional networks and state agencies. Such consulting services frequently are subsidized, topically oriented, and responsive to individual needs.

Regardless of the type or size of consulting firms being considered, they should be evaluated as an individual would be. While every firm will accept responsibility for reaching desired objectives, the library will be working with assigned individuals, and it is crucial to find out about their experience, style of operation, and effectiveness.

Most consultants establish their fees on an hourly or daily basis. This rate is applied to the amount of time estimated for completion of the assignment. The rate depends on the amount of experience and reputation of the individual, as well as the specialty. For example, the part-time consultant may charge $100 or $150 a day, while a major management consulting firm will cost $400 to $600 a day. While the standard fee may sound exorbitant, it covers overhead, support services and management time, in addition to the salary and benefits of the individual. In negotiating the consultant arrangements, the staff fees, travel costs and chargeable nontravel-related expenses (e.g., typing of the report) should be spelled out.

THE EFFECTIVE USE OF CONSULTANTS

Advance Preparation

Organizational understanding of and support for the use of consultants should be developed in advance of the consultants’ arrival. This
can be done through exploratory discussions involving key administrators and appropriate staff. As noted previously, it is important at this stage to focus the discussions on the problem area and what needs to be done. Developing initial staff understanding and acceptance of consultants will greatly aid the processes involved in gathering information, analyzing the situation, and acting on recommendations which may result.

Some thought should be devoted to the initial contact. The first exchange should acquaint the consultants with the overall character of the situation and the target problem, and the consultants should have an opportunity to relate their experiences in dealing with the type of problem presented. A meeting should ideally take place in the library, which enables consultants to secure an impression of the environment and setting. At this meeting both parties should examine the reasons for retaining the consultant, the problem situation, and what options might exist for dealing with the problem. Out of these discussions, a basis for establishing a contract is developed. A final decision of whether to use the consultant should be made, based on these initial contacts, after some reflection on the applicability of their resources as well as the suitability of the working relationship.

The Consultant Contract

In working with consultants, a shared understanding of the problem and how it will be addressed needs to be developed. This is usefully formalized as a contract which establishes ground rules, schedules, products, fees, and so forth. The contract should be prepared by the consultants following initial discussions with the client aimed at clarifying the problem and how it is to be addressed. The consultants present their understanding of the issues and propose a process for addressing them. The consultants will demonstrate in this fashion how responsive they are to the initial expressions of the client. The document should note who has responsibility for doing what. For example, if the consultants are required to produce a report, who owns it and what type of distribution will it receive? Possible contingencies should be considered, and the option of disengagement at any point where there is unresolved dissatisfaction should be included. The contract formulation is a point at which the task is defined and the procedures for addressing the task are spelled out, and at which expectations of both parties can be specified and future developments anticipated. It requires both parties to think through their positions and begin a working relationship with clear communication and mutual understandings.
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While some of these understandings will be maintained via informal arrangements, the formal contract assures the client that key issues are addressed in a way that allows for future reference.

Consultant Orientation

At the outset of any problem-solving venture, external consultants require a period of education and orientation. The client can assure a much more productive relationship if this process is carefully attended to. Briefing the consultants should bring them to a level of understanding that enables them to propose a strategy for gathering information, completing a diagnosis, and developing recommendations. The briefing can start with background documents, such as previous consultant reports, accreditation studies, committee reports, or routine administrative reports. The briefing should ensure that the consultants are exposed to several points of view in addition to the chief executive's understanding of the situation. Experienced consultants will quickly learn about the nature and character of the situation and briefing will not require a large investment of time. However, where the consultants are not librarians or are not aware of library functions, the client should be prepared to invest a large amount of time and energy in this initial stage.

The other part of orientation involves building an acceptance for the consultants and the developmental process. This is a difficult challenge that calls for initiative from the chief executive aimed at building a climate of support and trust. The staff will want to know why the consultants have been retained, the goals of the project, and how the work will affect them. The need for staff-wide orientation is particularly important when the project is envisioned as a long-term effort affecting several parts of the organization. A staff seminar often works well as a general briefing. In this setting the consultants and the director can review the project, answer questions, and ask for support. Typically, the staff will want to know how the work will be done, the extent of staff involvement in the effort, and the type of results expected.

On another level, key administrative staff both within the library and in the university should be informed about the project. This is probably best done through some face-to-face discussions, possibly as part of regularly scheduled meetings. The important aspect of these meetings is informing these key people of the chief executive's support for the project and the role the consultants will play in the conduct of the study. The director should clarify the amount of authority the consultants will have, the resources being made available to them, and the impact the project will have on day-to-day operations.
While the need to inform key staff of plans and prospects exists, there is also the danger of spending too much time communicating and thereby overexposing the consultants to what may be unnecessary debates over the project. Some balance needs to be secured in the communication process which alerts staff to the project but does not siphon off the energy or resources required for effective completion of the effort.

One of the best ways of assuring success of the project and maximizing its benefits is to assign a talented staff member to the consulting team. This individual can help acquaint the consultant with the idiosyncrasies of the situation, provide help in gathering information and analyzing the problem, and generally act as an integral functioning member of the consultant team. At the conclusion of the effort, the library staff member will be available to explain rationale and answer questions on intent, and will have gained consulting skills that may be applied to other problems.

After the consultants have been oriented to the organization and have had a chance to look over the situation, project strategy and plans should be developed. Most problem-solving processes experience typical work cycles that include: identifying the problem, gathering information on the problem, developing an understanding of causal factors and what might be done to deal with these forces, designing alternative approaches to improving the situation, testing and acting on the recommended improvements, and assessing the impact of the changes, including costs. The client should be aware of where the consultants can make contributions in each of these phases and be prepared to manage the process from beginning to end. This means reviewing plans, checking progress, identifying major developments, and monitoring results. The consultants will make proposals in terms of what categories of information will be needed, how to get necessary information, what methods will be used for analyzing data, and how the progress and results of the effort will be reviewed and communicated. The chief executive and key administrative staff should react to these plans in terms of suitability and feasibility. It is important that library staff be a functioning part of this planning process and retain responsibility for major strategic decisions. While it is important to manage the consulting project, the library should guard against compromising the integrity of consultants. Monitoring the work of the consultants should not mean writing the report or dictating the results.
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### Access to Information

A critical issue at an early point in the consulting project is how to get information on the problem. The four basic ways of doing this in an organizational setting are: reviewing documents, observing operations, designing questionnaires and conducting surveys, and interviewing staff, users, and administrators. Each method has advantages and disadvantages, and the consultants’ choice of strategy should be fully understandable to the client. All relevant internal documents should be readily available to the consultants, all interview guides and questionnaires should be reviewed by library staff prior to use, and the rationale for information collection and analysis should be reviewed by the chief executive.

Another aspect of information concerns treatment of data collected during the study. People providing data have an implicit right to see the results. Therefore, the consultant should be prepared to report the results of surveys and interviews in a timely fashion. This is generally best done by presenting summaries and highlighting data without attaching names. Assuring anonymity while providing open access to the data generally satisfies the staff that their contributions are being dealt with in a professional and responsive fashion. The chief executive and administrative staff should observe the treatment of the data secured in this process to assure that information is reported in a way which addresses the issues and does not damage the individuals supplying it.

### Working Relationships

A close working relationship between the client and consultants increases the potential for making effective changes and for implementing recommendations resulting from the effort. Obtaining a close working relationship, however, requires time and attention. A first condition is mutual trust and confidence, as evidenced in the establishment of the relationship and preparation of the consulting contract. Next comes joint exploration of the problem, as evidenced by the planning process. Subsequently, the process of discovery and learning should be mutual. The job of the client is to push and probe the thinking of the consultants in order to grasp the rationale, intent and implications of study results. At each step of the development of the working relationship, expectations held by both parties need to be communicated and related to
available capabilities. The evolution of the relationship should not, however, lead to a dependency where either the consultants or the client is relied upon to do all the thinking, come up with all the ideas, or produce solutions to all issues.

The potential problems in developing a working relationship are easily identified. First, the consultants may not understand the problem adequately. In this case, the client needs to test and retest the consultants' perspectives. This process of communication is best accomplished via joint exploration of the issues rather than a process of debate. Second, there can be a problem if the role of the consultant is unclear. The initial contracting activity will need renewal as the study progresses to ensure that roles and relationships are modified with the benefit of experience and that changes are understood. A third problem in the development of a sound working relationship can come from an expectation of fast action and quick results. Clients have high aspirations for impact, yet time is needed for consultants to learn and for ideas to develop. Patience on the part of the client is most helpful in encouraging a speedy culmination of project efforts. A corollary problem is failure of the consultants to meet established deadlines. This is destructive for a working relationship because it erodes confidence in the capacity of the consultants to produce. The client deserves a warning if the schedule milestones will not be met, and the schedule should be reworked to accommodate the needs of the client as well as the capabilities of the consultants. If consultants consistently fail to meet agreed-upon schedules, the library may have to call for termination of the working relationship.

Dealing with the Results

The major findings and final recommendations of the consulting project should not present surprises to the client. If the results are unexpected, then the working relationship outlined above has not occurred. The client should know the direction of the study and be aware of the principal conclusions as they are being developed.

At the close of the project there should be an executive review of products and the process. This executive review should consider initial expectations and how well they have been met by the consultants, and should look at the success of the recommendations in addressing the concerns identified at the outset and clarified during the process of investigation. The original contract should be checked against the results to assure that the consultants have met the agreed-upon commitments.
Effective Use of Library Consultants

As a first step in reviewing results, the key executives in the library and university should be briefed by the consultants. The principal purpose of the executive review is to establish the validity of findings and the persuasiveness of the recommendations. The consultants will probably provide a written document, but some sort of verbal review will be required for full explanation and sound understanding. The executives involved have a responsibility to be open and candid about any concerns they might have or areas in which they may not fully understand the ideas being presented. While the executives should not be required to pledge adherence to the recommendations at this point, they should comprehend the meaning of what is being proposed, and the consultants deserve to know what reservations may be present about the feasibility and utility of the propositions.

In most instances, a full report should be made available to the staff. Where personal advice is appropriate for key executives, it may be best provided directly without the need for a confidential report. While it is common practice to produce confidential consultants' reports intended for limited audiences, this has many adverse consequences that should be considered. Rumors often exaggerate the content. Copies are frequently distributed in a clandestine fashion. The recommendations often are distorted and misinterpreted. The key point, however, relates to the process of change. Such a process requires a distributed understanding of the reasons for and the direction of change. If these reasons are obscured in a mysterious document, the impetus for change and improvement is slowed. As noted earlier, the various staff contributing to the study and affected by the study results deserve to know about what has transpired.

Beyond basic courtesy, however, the process of planned change requires that the ideas being presented be understood by the people required to act upon them. This knowledge includes an understanding of the forces calling for the change, as well as an acceptance of the ideas for action. Therefore, the consultants' report should be made available to interested and affected elements of the general staff. The distribution of the report should be accompanied by a note from the chief executive providing a context for conduct of the study and preparation of the report, indicating the approach to be taken to the implementation-planning process, and asking for comments and reactions from the staff. A way of assuring useful feedback is to ask the staff to consider several questions as they review the report. For example, what do they consider to be the most important findings and recommendations? What important gaps exist within the report and how should they be addressed? What changes in operation would represent significant movement in
the implementation of the report? These questions provide a format for positive reaction to the report and constructive feedback that can contribute to the implementation process.

The implementation strategy evolves from the methodology used in conducting the study and distributing the results. The content of the consultants’ recommendations will be the determining factor in deciding upon the approach to be taken. A common pattern includes: communication and distribution of results, discussion of findings and recommendations, establishment of priorities, and development of a course of action to implement the results. The development of a strategy begins with a discussion of results with administration from the governing body of the library.

Most reports contain two types of recommendations—a series of specific actions that individuals, groups or units can accomplish in a short time with few resources, and broader concerns requiring concerted attention over a longer period of time. In approaching the latter type of recommendation it should be recognized that most organizations are capable of working on only a limited number of major projects. The Office of Management Studies has produced a guide to implementation planning for organizational studies which is available upon request.

Assessing the Consultation

It is extremely difficult to assess the success of a consulting arrangement, and very typically attention ends up focusing on the readability and persuasiveness of the final report. This is followed by a review of the action taken on recommendations and their implementation. But as valuable as an inventory of actions and responses may be, the real measure of success of the consultation calls for a reconsideration of the issues that prompted retention of the consultant in the first place. Has the problem been resolved? What is the difference in organizational performance? Where is the impact of the consultant arrangement most noticeable? In addition to this set of questions, consideration should also be directed at the results of the helping relationship itself. Has it left staff in a better position to deal with problems on an ongoing basis? Is there an improved response to change within the organization? Has the consulting arrangement left staff in a more energetic or positive state? Clearly, the consultants have failed if they have left the staff feeling dependent on them or if the staff believes the situation is hopeless.
Effective Use of Library Consultants

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The consulting relationship is first and foremost a helping relationship aimed at securing constructive and useful change. As a result, the process for creating and exploiting the relationship requires attention from the client as well as the consultants. While the client can do a number of things to assure the maintenance of an effective relationship, there is also a need within the library profession to develop competent consultants trained in the process of assisting rather than prescribing. Technical expertise is available but the harnessing of this talent is haphazard and ineffective. The result is that the need for consultants is outpacing their availability.

Some responses are being made to meet this need for consulting talent. The U.S. Office of Education is funding a training effort at the University of Pittsburgh. The Office of Management Studies at the Association of Research Libraries is starting an Academic Library Consultant Training Program. Training opportunities in this area provided by University Associates and National Training Laboratories also can be used by librarians. With these opportunities for librarians to receive sound training as consultants, the increased availability of talent should allow libraries to get the help they need in introducing change to their organizations.

New directions in library consulting can be predicted. First, the use of networks and regional cooperation will become more important. These agencies have a great stake in developing the capacity of libraries, particularly in terms of responding to new systems and national or regional resources. As a result, they will be defining consulting talent to enable individual libraries to contribute effectively to the operation of envisioned decentralized networks.

Another trend involves process consulting, as compared with technical advice, where methods for introducing change and developing in-house capacity for problem-solving will be the focus of consulting rather than simple resolution of the immediate crisis. Interdisciplinary teams made up of librarian and nonlibrarian talent will collaborate to design creative alternative ways of dealing with individual problems.

Finally, more libraries will turn to external resources to aid in developing situations and organizations that are initially sound. This is a matter of anticipating future developmental needs rather than responding to existing problems.
Preparing for the future calls for an expansion of methods, resources, and vision. In order to help meet these challenges, libraries can use consultants to assist in sharpening perceptions, designing imaginative alternatives, and stimulating action.

References

10. Information may be obtained from University Associates, 7596 Eads Ave., La Jolla, Calif. 92037; and National Training Laboratories, 1501 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, Va. 22209
Consulting on Academic Library Buildings

ELLSWORTH MASON

There are a number of ways in which consulting on library buildings differs sharply from any other kind of library consulting:

Magnitude of the commitment. A new building or addition or a sizable renovation will cost from 7 to 15 million dollars. The lower level of this price range dwarfs even the most extravagant development costs of comprehensive computerized operations such as RLIN (who used to run for office as BALLOTS).

Durability of the results. A building is three-dimensional (not conceptual) solid masonry, and it will have a major visual impact on the community or campus for at least a hundred years. If it fails, we cannot return to what we were doing before, and can't call in a new consultant to rebuild it from scratch. It must be, in as many ways as possible, easily convertible to the unforeseen uses to which it will be put over a century. Libraries in our time may become military fortresses by the year 2025.

These two factors alone place a much greater premium on achieving unusual success in the building, and largely account for the fact that library consultants first arose in considerable numbers in the field of building planning. But there are two more major differences.

Range and variety of the consultant's specialized knowledge. I am well aware that ordinary librarianship is often foisted on the innocent as library building skills, but, as will become apparent in discussion of the stages of planning below, the number of different areas totally foreign to librarianship that a good building consultant must master exceeds

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those required for consulting in any other library field, including computerization.

After the intellectual base for planning the building is written in the form of the program, to which any knowledgeable librarian could contribute, the physical shaping of the building by architects and engineers begins. In other words, the preplanning for the building ends and the actual building planning begins. Exactly at this point, where the most critical part of the planning occurs, most librarians enter a wilderness, in which they must depend heavily on the consultant as a guide through what can become (depending on the skill of the architect) miasmal swamps to founder us, or impenetrable jungles infested with wild things. The skills required for the consultant to guide true are mostly far beyond the reaches of librarianship.

Fragmentation. A library building consultant may be called in anywhere in the planning process, rather than at the beginning. Frequently this point occurs when the architect and his client realize they have tied themselves into an impossible knot, and they come to the consultant with the wide eyes of an eight-year-old handing up a fish line he has spent an hour tangling, confident that with a few skillful pulls Daddy can untangle it. Unless the client is willing to go back to the beginning and start again (and he generally is not, especially in periods of rapidly escalating construction costs), these situations seldom are retrievable, and the consultant with a good reputation must be wary of them.

In addition to these differences, the library building consultant must act, as other consultants, as resolver of conflicts, translator, communicator, bearer of wide general experience in librarianship, diplomat, psychoanalyst, and statesman. Since he deals with the entire range of library specialists, including administrators (nowadays a separate profession from librarianship), with architects, and with engineers in at least five different specialties, there is unusual need for the library building consultant to be one who relates quickly and easily to a wide range of different personalities. He must inspire credibility in both librarians and nonlibrarians, in order to serve as the bridge between them, and to have his recommendations considered with high seriousness. Far more than any other kind of library consulting, library building consulting is a teaching relationship primarily dependent on deep knowledge and interpersonal skills.
New Trends

Finances and scope. With the disappearance of money from the field of higher education, new libraries to accommodate ambitious expansions (the hallmark of the 1960s) have given way to additions to buildings out of desperation. As a result, some buildings whose properties seemed to preclude any addition have been added to with great success (such as those at Texas A & M, Ohio State, and the University of Colorado at Boulder). Since at present construction costs are once again escalating at the 1972 rate of 1 percent a month, they will place an even greater dampener on library construction in the future. The three great universities still hung up on monumentally bad buildings—California, Illinois and Michigan—will probably not be able to replace their central library buildings in this century, if ever. At the same time, added construction requirements for energy conservation in all aspects of the building, and greater provision of conduits for computer outlets and other electrical flexibility have increased building costs an additional amount.

For these reasons, the projected size of the library building seldom emerges as a planned projection of the library’s expected dynamics over a desirable period of time (the former basis for planning its size). Rather, a fixed budget related to the political possibilities in the parent institution, which generally is not closely related to library needs, determines size. The result is the necessity of parceling out space to provide reasonably for staff needs while planning to seat a smaller percentage of the total student FTE than formerly, and to accommodate as large a collection as possible, because of the high probability that this will be the last library building or addition in its history. There is at the same time a strong tendency to pull in branch libraries when new building occurs at the central library, providing further competition for space. The present situation places a higher premium than ever on the consultant’s highly informed recommendations on the balance of alternative allotments of space in order to provide the optimum mix for well-defined purposes of the library.

Self-sufficiency. With the mission and scope of higher education flailing like the tail of a speared but vigorous dragon, and academic power structures shifting and uncertain, no longer is deep, if quick, immersion in the long-term trend of the university’s mission a central key for understanding of the library’s ultimate needs. The consultant must now look at the library’s present and potential interconnections
with libraries outside of itself, in the state, region, nation, and in a variety of networks, to predict the requirements of all such adjuncts, whether they supply or demand the library’s resources. A library is no longer a comparatively self-sufficient entity.

Storage libraries. Storage libraries are in everyone’s future, and not only must implications of such a relief valve be anticipated, but whenever possible the storage library space is to be built into the library building (e.g., University of Toronto, University of Colorado). Compact storage, with all its increased demands on the library structure, will soon be commonplace for very large low-use collections.

Computerization. Computer outlets are now planned in every technical and service department in the library and in various public access areas, such as group study rooms, against the possibility of on-line solutions to every possible library need. Consultants must advise on where consoles might be clustered in the future, and on physical provisions to avoid warpage of data on the screen. 

Consultant’s scope. Consultants are now being involved in far more stages of building planning than formerly, ranging from helping to interview and select the architects, through planning design development and technical aspects of the building, into interior design review and planning, stack layout and specification planning, and design and placement of the library’s graphic signs. For these reasons, there is a tendency for architects to hire consultants qualified in a number of specialties to enhance their potential of being hired to design library buildings.

Do You Need a Consultant?

While there are many problems in librarianship where the library skates on thin ice without a highly qualified consultant, it is absolutely impossible to achieve anywhere near the highest potential of a library building without working intensively with a building consultant hired by the library. To save money, there is now a tendency to require the architect, as a condition of his contract, to hire a good consultant. But a good library building emerges from constant interplay between the library’s expertise and the architect’s, with the architect having to respond to unresolved problems defined by the library. Unless the consultant is the library’s, his recommendations will not necessarily elicit architects’ response. If he is their man, they will pay attention to him only when they feel like doing so; meanwhile, his presence will assure the librarians that a normal course of consulting is in process.
One certain contribution of a good building consultant is a library layout that minimizes library staff movements, and therefore maximizes the effectiveness of their time, a critically important factor in today's staff shrinkage.

**How Do You Select One?**

The buyer must beware. Nearly everyone who has been involved in one library building planning assignment is willing to set himself up as a consultant, and there is no accreditation body to evaluate qualifications in this field. Donald Bean suggested one in 1965, and his proposal fell flat. Other informed librarians complain about this situation, which invites fraud from time to time.

A consultant should be selected not just because he has a high reputation as a librarian, and not just because he has consulted on one or two other buildings. Most consultants are pretty feeble beyond the program-writing stage. The really good ones are highly experienced, and therefore older, and therefore likely not to have been heard of by that large part of the profession under the age of forty.

The only reliable way to identify good consultants is to ask a librarian whose building you know is good, whose judgment you trust (and whom you know you are going to confront twice a year at conventions, thus keeping him honest), to identify the consultant on his project, and how effectively he worked in the range of building stages discussed below. It is necessary, ultimately, to get this information from the staff member who was centrally responsible for nursing through the building's details, who will have been most in contact with the consultant in a variety of planning situations.

If you do not know such a librarian, you have to rely on documentation, such as the following, listed in ascending order of reliability:

1. *the consultant's personal documentation:* This should be treated with suspicion. In my career, I have had occasion to review the documentation of two or three librarians who I knew had risen from failure to failure higher and higher in this profession on the basis of their documents, which would convince the unwary that God should forthwith turn over His Empyrean to their charge. But certain levels of documentation surpass even healthy suspicion. A review of Keyes Metcalf's achievements, for instance, would indicate that any fraud would have been smoked out long before you got to the middle of the list.
2. *the ALA Library Administration and Management Association “Library Buildings Consultant List”: This is not selective, because anyone who applies must be included, and all the information supplied came from the consultants listed. However, the list is a statistical summary of recent consulting experience, and is backed, for each consultant, by a longer list of his consulting assignments for the past ten years, including specific information about each project, which they will send for the cost of photocopying it. These projects you can follow up.

3. *recommendations from architects whom you know personally: On the basis of your personal relationships, they will frankly appraise the quality of consultants they have worked with. If you ask them as a stranger, however, you will get an uncritical recommendation, because their jobs occasionally come from recommendations by library building consultants, and they will not take risks to help you.*

4. *writings:* These should be taken with caution. Some articulate consultants are not the best, and some very good ones seldom write. However, an intelligent critic ought to be able to determine the level of substantiality in an article or book on library buildings.

5. *architectural awards:* Only a few have been given to library building consultants, and those for work on good buildings.

6. *accolades in professional architectural magazines:* For those who read them, jot down such names for future reference, because they are rare. When architects praise a librarian consultant he has to be good.

Beyond documentation, your consultant must not only have a wide range of experience and knowledge, he must have talent for building consulting, a combination of high intelligence and sensitive perception, and a fine touch for interpersonal relationships. These you can test only by interviewing him. If you visit him on his home ground, you can get this information free. If you have him visit you, which is desirable since he will be exposed to the local scene and his reaction to it should reveal a good deal about him, you will pay his consulting fee.

**When Do You Hire Him?**

The answer is: immediately after you decide to build a library or an addition.* Some of the most important contributions he can make are likely to be in the early part of the consulting period. It is important for the consultant to be carried on throughout the planning process, since the details of a building being planned are cumulative, and the planning becomes laden with thought that has emerged from a long series of
choices of alternatives. The consultant must be the focus of this repository of information, since he will be the only one on the library side of negotiations with a deep understanding of the building and how it has emerged.

There are some examples of delayed hiring of the consultant. By the time a consultant was first hired to help with the planning of one New York university library, it had already been completely planned, had come in 40 percent over the budget, and had been shrunken to a size that seemed to be within the budget and replanned. Up until this time, the only persons involved in the planning were the architect and (so help me!) the university's attorney. It is one of the worst functioning buildings in the world.

In another situation, the campus had needed a library for forty years. Their present building was a fusion of buildings carpenters had locked together without removing walls. The administration had demanded that the "program" be produced within a week from a librarian with no building experience. He had copied it from another library. This model was not a complete building program, but a general description of needs that had been used for an architectural competition. Two years later the planning of the building actually began, dominated by a technologist tub-thumper prepared to lower the cost of the library by converting everything, especially the collection, to machines. After this nonsense was finally wrung out of the situation, the librarian was fired. There were no unusually strong librarians on the staff; the locus of power on campus was split between the president and faculty senate. In the power gap, the architect had taken over and completed a campus master plan, which sited the library very badly, and without a program had set the shape and massing of the building's shell and had provided elevation drawings of it. Despite the fact that the university had not a cent of the $8 million it was to cost, the administration was in a great hurry to have the plans completed.

At this point they called in a consultant to straighten everything out. Two days earlier, the firing of the librarian had barely been sustained after a bitter fight in the faculty senate, and the smell of gunpowder still hung in the air. By the end of the day, the consultant pointed out that Jesus Christ was no longer available for descents from the cross, and that they would have to junk all their "planning" and go back to the beginning if they were to salvage anything from the wreckage. Sure enough, after about another year, and one or two new presidents later, they did. The time for hiring the consultant was two years before.
What Can You Expect the Consultant to Do?

Planning group. He can review the local planning situation, make sure that the planning committee is sensibly constituted, and that negotiations with the architect remain firmly in its hands, with internal communications resolving local differences. He can help make sure that the librarian is a central voice in the committee. He can focus what is always an amorphous understanding of what building planning involves, bring out the itchy questions squirming in the background, and propose a sensible and orderly procedure to set their feet on the first steps of the staircase. He can lead the committee to buildings to examine and literature to read. His presence and expertise reinforce the librarian's power position in this committee.

The program. The consultant must not write the program, unless the entire staff is bankrupt. He will establish procedures that require the intensive consideration within each library operation out of which, and only out of which, can emerge a sensitive statement of needs for this library. He can expand the vision of the departments of the possibilities inherent in new planning, and discourage their asking for just a little more of what they already have around them.

The consultant can establish confidence in the soundness and fairness of the planning procedure, can review and refine locally written program sheets, and can assign space estimates to each of the areas requested in the library program. This last step is of great importance, because formula space estimates are very wrong a large part of the time. Sophisticated estimates require projection of the proper shape of the areas and probable relationships of furniture, equipment and traffic patterns within them. In addition to having gone through this process many, many times, the consultant's greatest assets are wide and varied experience in library line operations (which alone would disqualify many head librarians), a study of hundreds of other library buildings, understanding of the uses of a wide variety of equipment, and knowledge of the technical requirements of buildings. Finally, and often of importance, he can keep the architect out of the program, which should be a statement of what the library thinks are its needs. The program is not an inflexible document, and the architect has his very long day in court in the planning development.

Development of floor plans. Many consultants are very good up to this point, but now defer entirely to the architect. The statement is frequently made that the consultant should make sure the buildings work and leave the aesthetics to the architect. This is errant nonsense. If architects were that good at aesthetics (except for the few great designers
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at the top), since they are in a dominant position in planning most buildings they design, most of our public buildings would be beautiful. The simple fact is that most of them are dumpy or worse, with—infrequently—a very handsome building emerging from the unworthy mass.

Most librarians assume that good taste has entirely bypassed our profession, and few have any confidence in their aesthetic judgment. A consultant should be chosen who does, and he can contribute a great deal to the aesthetics of a building by reviewing what is presented by the architects and asking for upgrading. There are two sides to this problem. When a library area's function is incompletely met, architects frequently take the position that it has to be the way they propose it because the aesthetics of the building demand it so. It is proper to point out that beauty is achievable in an infinite number of forms, and that the function must be improved while making the building beautiful in some other way. On the other hand, there are frequent occasions when the aesthetic judgment of even the most creative architect flags, and this must be detected. It is true of the many creative people I have worked with, as of all creative people, that they come to believe that their imagination works full-time under any conditions, and they are unable to distinguish the points at which it fails. Every creative person needs a censor to tell him when his work falls short of his potential. The consultant should be able to serve this function.

The consultant should also make major contributions to the building in his review of floor plans. Most librarians are unable to puzzle their way through architectural plans, and the consultant must bear the largest burden for their review. He must be skillful at reading floor plans (ideally, should be able to sense in them the level of intelligence and sensitivity of the one who designed them, to know what level of skill he is dealing with), and unusually adept at sensing what the various areas proposed in the floor plans will feel like. A good consultant can tell when details of drafting have fallen into the hands of the most junior architectural staff who, like computer programmers, go beyond their orders and love to play around with the design. In working with a good architect, the library building, by repeated review and response, can go on being improved infinitely, if there is enough time to reach for excellence. The functions and relationships must be constantly examined within the context of achieving a handsome building.

Architects, who spend a great part of their lives dealing with imperceptive, uninformed, and uninspiring clients, react very positively to high-level, informed interaction with clients who really under-
stand what they need and urge the designers to stretch to meet those needs. When encouraged to reach for high-quality performance, they tend to do so, and an unusually good rapport with them can result. As one architect remarked to me many years ago, after a long and profitable afternoon, “most people just don’t care.” The consultant must care, and the worst possible thing he can do to the building in working with the architects is to be indifferent.

All of this interaction, which is both exciting and challenging, must be accompanied by intimate agreement with the point of view and goals of the library client. There must also be a discussion of alternatives in case the library prefers another direction, and, in general, certainty that all the signals are straight before floor plans are reviewed with the architect.

Discussing plans at the table with the architects can be the consultant's largest contribution to the building. He can act as a bridge between the librarians' functional knowledge and the architects' technical knowledge, and make sure that they understand when both are saying the same thing in different words, or different things in the same words. Through experience with the results of delay, he can make sure that considerations of lighting, air-handling, acoustics, and interior design are brought into the architectural planning at an early stage, where they better intermesh, rather than at a later time when the building is largely committed. He can make sure that the separate plans of the architect and the engineering specialist, which seem always to go in different directions, are more fully coordinated so that lighting hangs above reading spaces and water taps above sinks. He can make sure that building details previously accepted remain in the plans (they have a dreadful tendency to slip out). He can make sure that the librarians remain true to the original intent in their program, or else change for clearly understood reasons which must be stated to the architects.

The greatest assets a consultant can have at this stage of planning are a thorough knowledge of librarianship, including its latest trends, many years of practice in building planning, study of the critical mass of library buildings (probably about 200) that encompasses most of the variations in arrangements that work for library functions, a thorough knowledge of the dynamics in the architect's office and the limitations under which he works (which account for things that go wrong in the floor plans), and a wide range of acquaintance with architects and profound respect for their professional field, an attitude which they easily reciprocate. Given any kind of a chance, a good consultant can help generate interpersonal relationships and professional interactions.
between those negotiating the plans that will allow the potential for excellence that exists in all but the worst situations to struggle free.

Working drawings. After approval of final floor plans, which define the size and relationships of all areas in the library, the architects proceed to the development of working drawings, which takes from four to six hard-working months. During this period, drawings in progress will be submitted to the client for review. They require thorough review, since they are critically important.

These drawings present graphic instructions in minute detail to contractors and their specialist subcontractors as to how every aspect of the building will be constructed. They are correlated before bid with written instructions (called specifications) that detail the quality requirements of all aspects of construction, including specific brands and models of certain mechanical equipment, such as elevators. Together, these two sets of documents form the basis for the contractors' bids on the price of the building, and the only basis on which the contractor can be legally required to do anything. If it is not in the bid drawings and specifications, no matter how disastrous the omission may be, the only way to have anything added to make the building function properly is to issue an addendum to these documents, called a change order, which asks the contractor to submit an estimate for its construction.

At this point the contractor has no competition for price and can charge outrageously for anything. I have seen change orders amount to 20 percent added on to the base cost of the construction contract. In the 1960s, one contractor in the New York area was known for submitting unusually low bids, and after the contract was signed having his legal firm go through the documents thoroughly to list all details that the building required but that were not required by the documents. He made his profit from the change orders, based on the correct assumption that in the haste of planning, which is especially acute when construction costs are escalating sharply as they are right now, the bid plans and specifications would not be written accurately enough to get everything needed into the base contract. It is therefore extremely important for these documents to be as complete and accurate as possible.

The basic responsibility for these documents lies with the architects but, except in the case of flagrant negligence, they cannot be held responsible for costs inflicted by incomplete documents. Since a great deal of the detail in working drawings involves highly specialized technical knowledge, the architects must be the prime source of review. However, in the current state of architectural education, young archi-
tects are graduated without ever having heard of things like flashing, a standard detail of roof design that goes back to classical Greece and without which roofs leak horribly, so the ability of architects to review the work of structural, mechanical and electrical engineers will weaken as time goes on.

A knowledgeable consultant who has immersed himself in details of construction on the site can help greatly in reviewing working drawings. His earliest review of structural details will have already been made in examining the bay size for the building in the floor layouts, one of the most important single factors in any library building. At this stage of development of plans he can review the structure of internal walls to ensure soundproofing and removability, the details of doors provided for each room, proposals for floor coverings and acoustical ceilings, and similar familiar items for their quality and appropriateness to library areas. He must know a range of things about construction elements commonly used in buildings, such as the fact that components of preformed concrete construction tend to shift position in time, and he must judge what library areas cannot tolerate such movement. He must know how sound transmission can be prevented between adjacent rooms under dropped ceilings, what kinds of preformed flooring in tier-built stacks (now returning to vogue) produce noise and where to avoid them, what kinds of construction provide good fire protection and what to avoid when water is a serious hazard, how existing windows in renovation projects can be adequately blocked off, and similar details. He must be in a position to review and require testing of valid alternatives for important structural elements when this is necessary.

In reviewing drawings of the air-handling system, a good consultant can help assure high quality in the humidity and temperature controls, the design of temperature control zones, the basic air-tempering units, the locations of air vents with relation to seating, and the filtration system. At present, concerns with energy conservation dictate radical cutbacks in the amount of air-tempering provided in buildings, and the consultant must make sure that what is provided for the library is adequate and of high quality. The consultant may be the only one in the entire planning group who knows how to achieve the very special requirements of air-handling systems for rare book rooms.

Other areas of mechanical planning that he can review, if he has acquired specialized knowledge of types and brands of a range of equipment and their comparative advantages, are circulation record systems, security and fire alarm systems, fire detection and extinguishing systems, air-exhaust systems, and the like. He should make, with the
Academic Library Buildings

Academic Library Buildings librarians, a review of all electrical, telephone and computer outlets in relation to the furniture layout. He should make sure that there is a final technical review with the architects and engineers of the bid drawings, before they are sent out to bid, for the size of temperature and humidity zones, and adequacy of the number and the final location of their controls.

A good library building consultant can be especially important in planning illumination for the building, a crucial factor that usually is unsatisfactory in libraries. Despite our blaring metropolitan areas that light the skies for twenty miles, knowledge of how to achieve quality in illumination has declined in the professions of architecture and electrical engineering over the past twenty-five years, and it continues to get worse. The number of engineers who have this knowledge rapidly approaches zero, and the only resource to help attain quality in library lighting is likely to be a consultant who has developed expertise in defining acceptable levels of glare in lighting systems and how this can be achieved, by sheer experience, viewing them in a variety of layouts. He can make sure that a mock-up of fixtures proposed for the library is presented early for review, in the proper layout to assess them; he can review the lighting layout of the building with relation to stack and seating areas, and when required, can propose a range of specific lighting fixtures for review.

Final documents for construction of the library, the bid drawings and specifications, are by far the most complex of all. The drawings will consist of as many as 200 separate sheets, each jammed full of details, for a 300,000-square-foot building, and they all will incorporate a vast number of additions of details since the last time they were seen by the client. Drawings are separated into groups: site, architectural, heating/ventilation/air-conditioning, electrical/lighting, and plumbing. The drawings are the architect’s attempt to present in graphic form, with great precision, exact instructions on how to build the building. When tested in the hands of construction craftsmen, it is clear how difficult this process of communication really is. Every sheet will contain some omissions and errors, which are inevitable, since the drawings contain about half a million details.

While a great number of these details are beyond the capacity of anyone except high-level technicians in their specialty, a great number are amenable to review by informed nontechnicians. The consultant should review every detail he can understand to minimize errors in them. The review must be prompt, since architects have only about two weeks after the bids are called for to issue addenda (which become part of
the bid documents, subject to competitive bidding) in time for them to be incorporated into the bid price. Even more of the specifications are beyond the nontechnician, but the consultant should review all parts of them that he can understand, especially for parts of the building that he has helped plan, such as elevators. Addenda will be issued to correct these, too. And, such is the rarity of meticulous accuracy, even the addenda sometimes contain errors.

After the bids for the building have been let, the library will proceed to plan the interior design. The library building consultant should be used for interaction with the interior designer, whose work will depend on attaining a deep understanding of the nature and function of the building in all its aspects. I have written in detail on working with the designer in my book on library buildings. Here let me say that the consultant can lead his client to successful interior designs and good interior designers (who are limited in number), and should work closely with the designer in choosing furniture and equipment, and in reviewing presentations of the entire interior design.

Stack layouts, specifications and designs will be developed next, and the specifications require considerable work to be complete and totally correct. They are especially important if they are intended to give one manufacturer an advantage over others in the bid. While stack layouts should be simple for any informed librarian to develop, I have never seen a layout that did not contain many errors in location, width, height, color, and special requirements in shelving. The consultant should be used to help develop and review these documents.

The graphics, including directional and informational signs, will be the final library elements to be planned. They will be an intimate part of the interior design and will have a major visual impact on the library's appearance. They must therefore be carefully coordinated with the interior design at each location in the building, and must be aesthetically pleasing. Planning their aesthetics, number, location, letter size, content, and clarity in directing users is a highly complicated procedure, requiring a great deal of discussion with the library staff, and two or three versions of the text of the sign in order to be complete. Ideally, these signs should be developed by a firm that specializes in graphics (the architects, if they have a specialized department), and the library building consultant should be used to review the content, location and aesthetics of the signs. His experience with student reaction to signs in many libraries, which often consists of tearing them down, can contribute a good deal to the selection of the kind of signs to be used, backup equipment for changing them, and methods of fastening them to walls.
Follow-through

The library building consultant should be used throughout the entire planning process, applying at each stage the knowledge of the building he has accumulated in previous stages. It should be apparent what a waste of time it is to hire a building consultant for only a few days. Very little can be achieved by such a process. After the planning of the graphics, his contributions to the building are complete. But before leaving, he should make sure that the librarians and officials who must follow through the construction understand fully the importance of three final details.

Clerk of the Works. This is a construction engineer hired exclusively to supervise the performance of the contractor at every point, to make sure that it is complete, accurate, and of the quality called for in the contract. This supervision can eliminate overalls shoved into air ducts, sand in pipes of the air-handling system, and like refinements of the construction industry. He can make sure that one phase of construction is correct before the next phase proceeds to cover it up, a condition in which it is totally irretrievable. He makes sure that all conduits are in the right place before concrete is poured. He must be a man of proven success in his field, and it is worth stretching salary very far to hire him. His cost can be the most important single bit of money spent on the building. Removal of such a man from construction of the Rockefeller Library at Brown University three months before it was completed resulted in one-third of the air-tempering units not working, electric motors not wired, access panels in ceilings not provided, and other similar flaws.

As-built drawings. The contractor will make sure that subcontractors install everything in the building exactly in the location and in the way prescribed by the drawings and the specifications—right? Unfortunately, no. The craftsmen have their own ideas of how to wire from here to there, and how and where a telephone junction box should be installed. Often their ideas supply what is lacking in the plans, or are superior to the way that the architect wants it done. Sometimes they are merely shortcuts. The difficulty arises when those left with the building after it is completed have to revise it in any way. It is useful, when you drill a two-inch core in concrete to install another electric outlet, to find the conduit box where the drawings say it is located, and not six inches to the side. It is dangerous, when sawing through a slab of concrete, to hit a 400-volt electric cable that is not supposed to be there. For similar reasons, the contractor is required to record all variations from the drawings that occur in construction on one set of the drawings, called
as-built drawings, to be turned over to the client at the end of construction. In twenty years, I have never seen a set of these drawings that was anywhere near completely accurate. The library should not depend on the contractor for this work, but should make sure that the Clerk of the Works keeps them accurately.

**Indoctrination of library staff.** Anyone who has participated in a large-scale library move knows that most people do not like change, especially change in physical surroundings. They may like change that they institute (if they ask to move into another room), but even those rabid for changing other people do not like change to be imposed on them. I have seen librarians move into quarters that upgraded their appearance and potential by a factor of three and grumble unhappily about them for months. In time, this will settle down, but it should be prevented, to the extent possible, in every conceivable way. The larger the building into which the move is made, the greater the chance for unhappiness.

The staff should therefore be prepared for what is coming in every possible way, and repeatedly, during the entire period before the move occurs. They should be involved in planning their areas of the library, periodic reports of planning progress should be made, and final plans and their implications should be displayed in an elaborate audiovisual instruction/question period. The staff should be led through the building as it begins to take shape, but long before it is finished, to see where they will be and what the area will be like, and led back again as it really nears completion, and again before the move, when it has been finished with paint and carpeting. This process cannot be overdone. The strongest staff dissatisfaction with a building I have ever encountered occurred in the largest academic library building in the world, the massive poured-concrete, million-square-foot Robartes Library at the University of Toronto.9

**Cost of the Consultant**

Although some public library building consultants still charge a percentage of the building's cost as a fee, most of them tend to charge a per diem fee, and this is universal practice among academic library building consultants. This fee will range from $250 to $350 per day, plus expenses actually incurred (largely travel and housing). At the present rate of inflation, and with more money than ever at stake in construction costs, these fees may rise in the future. Most building consultants work on a verbal rather than a written contract, but it should be clearly
understood what you are paying for. Some consultants charge per diem fees for their travel time, portal to portal; some do not. Some charge for writing reports and some do not. Some charge for advice given by telephone and some do not. Whatever the practice, the cost of a consultant is inexpensive, and he should never be chosen on the basis of price. Those who charge higher fees are highly experienced and can work faster, and their total cost is likely to be less than someone who commands a lesser fee. When intelligent investigation has convinced you whom you should hire, don't boggle at fees.

The total cost at the present time for consulting throughout the entire planning process as outlined above (and there are very few who can go the whole route) would be in the neighborhood of $5000 for a $12-13 million building, or .04 percent of construction costs. Having seen bills by academic colleagues in the business fields in the range of $50,000 for intermittent work over a 2-month period, I know that library building consultant fees are ludicrously low. But then, librarians were never destined to get rich.

What drives a really first-rate library building consultant far more than fees is total commitment to excellence (toward which all his advice on the library building tends) and to the process of lifelong learning, which is the only way to attain excellence. Constant travel and examination of libraries wherever he touches down, repeated exposure to construction on the site, study of high architectural achievement of all kinds, endless reading, and talk with architects, engineers, construction managers, and building craftsmen wherever he meets them, are constant nourishment for his practice. By endless seeking and refinement, a good library building consultant makes himself worthy of his craft. Practiced at its very peak, it would simply require all the information in the planning and construction world, for which one lifetime is inadequate preparation.

References

2. This article was prepared in July 1979.
3. For new information on planning student seating, see Mason, Ellsworth. "Balbus; or the Future of Library Buildings." In Daniel Gore, ed. Farewell to Alexandria: Solutions


6. Some architects are not above really laying it on with a trowel when their advantage is involved. Take the example of the Auraria Learning Resources Center library in Denver. This won a 1976 Chicago Architectural Award by a Chicago panel that had never seen the building, which is a turkey from a stem to stem, from wattles to Parson’s nose, with hardly any redeeming features. The building had no consultant and very little librarian input. Even more shameful, since our own, was a rave review of this building in *American Libraries* for December 1976 by a young journalist who had really been snowed (her terminology indicates) by some clever architect. Replete with the lovely cliches (“greenhouse effect,” “innovative,” “conserve solar energy”) this ignorant and ugly building is hailed as a “20th-century pioneer” unusually effective in taking advantage of the sun. There is absolutely no solar energy component in the building, except that its walls are 80 percent glass, the Chicago building disease. This glass confronts the intense Colorado sun with some highly ineffective louvers on two sides (a third sun-side has none) of a building prevented by state policy from installing air-conditioning. During the first summer it was occupied, the temperature rose to 130° in one corner of the first floor, using the sun very effectively for the purpose of melting microfilms. This article is especially inexcusable in light of the fact that two of the top half-dozen academic library building consultants who live in Boulder, thirty miles away, were never asked about the building.

7. The importance of early hiring of the consultant is fully explored in Ellsworth Mason. "Managing the Planning of Library Buildings." In Martha Boaz, ed. *Current Concepts in Management*. Littleton, Colo., Libraries Unlimited (1980). I have consulted on three libraries for colleges that had not yet been established. Kirkland College when I first arrived on the scene consisted only of the president, his administrative assistant, a secretary, and the dean of the college. It was my most successful consulting ever. After talking with them comprehensively, I advised them not to build a library, but space for a reading and reference collection no larger than 40,000 volumes, and instead to contract with Hamilton College, whose campus abutted theirs, for library service, and join financially with Hamilton to precipitate a decision to build for that college a very badly needed new library building. Wonderful to relate, all these things came to pass.


9. Ibid. The book contains a 67-page review of this building’s achievements and problems.
Consulting in Computer Applications to Libraries

ROBERT M. HAYES

INCLUDED IN THE BIBLIOGRAPHY to this paper are several references that include listings of library consultants directly or indirectly related to library automation (Berry, Cibbarelli, Finnigan, International Microfilm Source Book, Kruzas, Special Libraries Association, Warnken, Wasserman). Beyond the more than 200 companies identified in them are uncounted numbers of individuals who serve as consultants, either as a business or on an ad hoc basis.

The Consulting Relationship

With such a profusion of consultants specializing in this field, it is clear there are both real and felt needs that they serve. The purpose of this paper is to explore those needs and to identify what the consultant can do to help.

Roles of the Consultant

Consulting with respect to library automation is probably similar to that for other areas, at least in most general aspects. In particular, the reasons that one calls on a consultant are almost certainly the same:

1. There may be internal conflicts within the library concerning one or another aspect of the decisions regarding library automation. The consultant is called upon as a means of resolving them.

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2. There may be a need to establish communication between the library staff and technicians, such as programmers, with whom staff must work. The consultant is called upon to facilitate that communication.

3. There may be specific expertise that the library lacks, and the need is neither great enough nor long-lasting enough to warrant adding staff. The consultant is called upon as a means of providing that expertise.

4. Even when the library has all of the expertise required, there may be interim manpower needs greater than library staffing can cover. The consultant is sometimes called upon to augment the library's staff.

5. There frequently are specific tasks that, while within the capabilities of the library's staff, can best be handled by someone outside the library. The consultant is sometimes called on to carry out such tasks.

6. There may be a need for communication among a group of libraries, especially toward the goal of establishing common practices and standards. The consultant serves an especially valuable role as mediator in that communication and as a means of fostering standards.

7. There may be a need to transfer technology from one library to another or even from one country to another. The consultant is frequently called upon for advice concerning the feasibility and the means of doing so.

As I have said, there is nothing startling about the fact that these are reasons for calling on any consultant, but there are some aspects of special relevance to the context of library automation. Turning to the first role, library automation was, for many years, an issue of particularly acrimonious conflict within libraries—more universally so, probably, than any other major library decision. It was viewed as a threat to the library as an institution, and to its values; as a diversion of resources into an activity of uncertain, even dubious, value; as a dehumanizing, mechanistic force that would pervert librarianship and degrade the position of the librarian. But, on the other hand, it was viewed as an essential tool if costs of library operation were to be controlled, as a new capability that would vastly expand the services provided by the library, and as a means of effecting greater interaction among libraries and creating cooperative networks. The fact is that neither view, taken in its extreme form, was a valid picture; automation is neither Frankenstein's monster nor a panacea for all library ills. But the fact also is that both views would be held by members of the staffs of libraries, with little basis for reconciliation.
Even today, when automation has been accepted and is being used in day-to-day operation by libraries of all kinds and sizes, the issues of internal conflict are a primary reason that consultants are called on. The choices among cataloging systems, circulation control systems, and the like have frequently been more political than technical decisions, but the consultant is called on in the hope that technical evaluations will resolve the political differences.

Can the consultant really help in this kind of situation? It is hard to say, since it depends upon both the nature of the internal conflict and the perceptivity of the consultant. Usually, in fact, the situation is not presented, or perhaps even recognized, as one of internal conflict. Instead, it is presented as a purely technical problem, and it takes experience and sensitivity on the part of the consultant to see what the situation really is. The difficulties are compounded by the fact that, in any decision of real substance, technical reasons can rationally be found to support any of the valid alternatives. Thus, whatever the consultant may advise, the ultimate decision will still be based on the political imperatives.

The second role of the consultant—as facilitator of communication—has been and continues to be important in library automation. The technologist’s misconceptions of the library and its requirements are far greater than the librarian’s misunderstandings of the computer, but both represent real barriers to communication. The consultant with awareness can remove those barriers.

The third reason for calling on a consultant, the need for specific expertise, has been one of special significance in the area of library automation. In the early days of development, there were few people with knowledge of both librarianship and the computer and fewer still, if any, who were expert in both. It was therefore virtually impossible for each library facing automation decisions to have staff with the necessary expertise. Today, the situation is dramatically different. There is widespread knowledge of library automation, and large libraries at least have most of the range of requisite expertise. However, there are still lacunae and thus a real role for the consultant with valid expertise. Of course, to be effective in this role the consultant needs to develop close working relationships with others.

The fourth and fifth roles of the consultant are self-explanatory and do not seem to be especially significant with respect to library automation.

But the sixth role has been one of special significance to library automation. If libraries had continued to develop catalog data bases
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independently, as they did in the days before MARC format was established, the pace of progress would have been slowed, perhaps even brought to a halt, and the costs of implementation of library systems would have been prohibitive. Even now, however, the tendency is to diverge from commonly accepted standards. The consultant, by bringing knowledge of the broader national context to bear and by bringing to the decision experience with other libraries, helps to maintain commitment to the accepted standards.

Finally, in the international scene, the consultant has been an essential participant in helping various countries gain from the developments elsewhere. Usually such consultants function under the aegis of national or international bodies, rather than directly for individual libraries.

Kinds of Consultants

In general, consultants emphasizing library automation, just like those in other areas, are either independent or members of consultant firms, but there are three types of consultant firms especially significant in library automation: application firms, software firms and hardware firms. Individuals may be drawn from academe or from other libraries, as well as from full-time practice as a professional consultant. The choice of an individual is made primarily on the basis of reputation, publications, or known experience with the problems faced by the library.

Kinds of Arrangements

Even at the risk of stating the obvious, it is worthwhile identifying the kinds of arrangements under which consulting may be done.

The first, most evident and probably most common arrangement is that for short-term advice. Typically, the consultant is asked to spend a brief period, one or two days to perhaps a week, in on-site discussion and review. During that time, concern of the library, its management and its staff will be identified; data will be gathered about present operations and possible alternatives. The consultant is likely to do some further analysis and data gathering off-site. A report will then be prepared and submitted either formally or informally; a fee will be charged based on a daily rate plus expenses. The needs for advice are likely to be ill-defined, and the major role of the consultant may well be simply to identify the problems rather than advise on solutions.

The second arrangement is the long-term retainer, under which the consultant is available on a continuing basis for advice and review. The
value to the library is the consultant's increased degree of responsibility and more intimate knowledge of the library's needs; the value to the consultant is the guaranteed level of income for the period of the retainer contract.

The third arrangement is the contract for performance of a specific task. The tasks will range over the full set of developmental stages which will be discussed later, but the crucial point is that the library has been able to identify the task with sufficient specificity to warrant a contract—or at least that the library thinks it has. A "request for proposal" will be issued; a number of possible consultant contractors will be identified and asked to bid; a formal evaluation and selection will be made; a contract will then be negotiated. All of that sounds very proper, well controlled and consistent with a good management approach to contracting for services. In principle, it results in clearly defined contractual responsibility.

Appealing though the third arrangement appears to be, it should be used only with great care. It is important to recognize the difference between the essentially advisory role of the consultant and the performance role of a contractor. The problem lies in the extent to which the task can be defined specifically with adequate recognition of its impact on other aspects of the library's operation. If advice is what really is needed, a contract calling for specified performance of the wrong task may turn out to be the worst approach.

Developmental Analysis

The various roles for consultants, kinds of arrangements, and types of consultants can perhaps best be viewed in the context of the successive stages in the development and implementation of automated systems:

1. the decision to automate—the feasibility study,
2. determination of requirements,
3. systems analysis and design of alternatives,
4. evaluation and selection,
5. implementation,
6. training and organizational change, and
7. continuing review and evaluation.

Feasibility Study

This stage is one in which the consultant is likely to be of special value, especially the individual consultant on a short-term contract. It is
a stage in which objectivity and the ability to evaluate the potentials is essential. The consultant with a great deal of experience can provide an evaluation of the readiness of the library for automation, of the possible savings in operating costs, of the available computing facilities, and of the costs of implementation. The hours or days required to provide this kind of consultation are likely to be within the capacity of the individual.

The consultant can help at this stage by providing guidance to the library's own team, including identifying issues to be considered, providing forms and procedures to be followed, and training key library staff. Review of the evaluations by library staff is another useful role; it permits the library to get maximum value from the consultant's experience and knowledge.

**Determination of Requirements**

The second stage in development—determination of requirements— Involves a major investment of time and manpower. The individual consultant, unless under essentially a full-time arrangement, is unlikely to be able to provide more than guidance. However, a consultant firm can bring in a team of analysts—survey staff, accounting staff, and procedure analysts. They can interview staff, administration, and patrons. They can compare the library's data with data from other institutions.

**Systems Analysis and Design**

The purpose of this stage is to translate the requirements into systems that will meet them. It is crucial that a suitable set of alternatives be defined. The alternative of primary importance is simply upgrading of the present operation. It provides a benchmark; the data about its costs and effectiveness are the most reliable, since they are based on actual experience in the library rather than hypothetical or analogous experience. It is the least risk alternative since there is little or no investment required. It may be the most acceptable alternative as far as staff or patrons are concerned, since it involves the least change and disruption. Given this, it would seem desirable that the consultant be one known to be sympathetic to this alternative, rather than one who is simply an "automation expert." On the other hand, many have claimed that a focus on mere improvement of the present system is destructive of creative design, that it preconditions the approaches taken to automation.

The design of other alternatives does require special creativity, an ability to see how combinations of equipment and procedures can be
arranged and rearranged to meet the requirements. It requires knowledge of the full range of equipment, without *a priori* bias or commitment to any one choice.

**Evaluation and Selection**

The choice among the alternatives is the next stage in the process. There are a number of consultant companies that specialize in providing evaluation services. Some of them use highly formalized evaluation tools such as simulations, bench-mark tests and computerized weighting of criteria. These have the value of making the decision as objective as possible. In fact, in some procurement contexts such objectivity may be a legal requirement, and the use of a consultant helps assure that it is met by removing at least part of the decision from the library's staff. Beyond that, some decisions cannot be made without the use of tools like simulations or bench-mark tests. For example, OCLC used a simulation program in selection of its computer system because there was no other way in which the effects of varying workloads on on-line operations could be evaluated.

On the other hand, formalized methods of evaluation, valuable though they can be, should be used with exceptional caution. They may give a spurious picture of quantitative ranking that totally fails to recognize the qualitative realities. For example, a computerized weighting of criteria requires that subjective judgments be translated into quantitative form and then weighted by *a priori* identified measures of relative importance. If used without *ex post facto* review, what appeared initially to be rational weights may result in totally irrational decisions. The consultant in this area should therefore be regarded exactly as that—as a consultant—and should be given sufficient flexibility in the evaluation decision to permit the results of formal evaluations to be placed in perspective.

**Implementation**

Is this a stage with a significant role for an automation consultant? On the surface, it would appear to be almost a contradiction in terms. The contrast, of course, is between the essentially advisory role of the consultant and the operational role of a contractor. To provide a complete picture, however, it is worthwhile summarizing the possibilities, taking them in the broadest interpretation.

There is a clear value and role for a consultant as monitor and advisor during implementation. Frequently, problems that the library or contractor might ignore or even conceal may be seen from the objective standpoint of the consultant.
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In contrast, there are likely to be specific tasks in implementation that can best be handled by a contractor. For example, file conversion is typically a task requiring a large but temporary staff; a contractor can provide qualified staff, training procedures for additional staff, effective quality control methods, and experience. Programming is a task which quite typically is assigned to a contractor. At times contractors have even been asked to take full responsibility for implementation—a "turnkey contract." (I must confess to a deep-seated distrust of turnkey contracts; they abdicate too much responsibility.)

Training and Organizational Change

There does appear to be a most important role for the automation consultant in this area. The needs are for a knowledge not only of good management but of the specific problems in dealing with the effects of a computer-based system. Training is likely to be especially important because of the need to learn new procedures as well as the use of equipment.

Beyond that, automation will frequently require administrative changes. The consultant with experience can identify the needs and advise on what changes would meet them.

Continuing Review and Evaluation

This is a much-neglected phase in implementation of automated systems, and one in which the consultant—particularly the independent consultant—can be of special value. By bringing objectivity and prior experience to this task, the consultant can identify problems in operation of automated systems before they become critical; he can identify means for correcting them which the staff might find difficult to recommend.

Functional Analysis

Computers can be applied to various functions in the library involving a diversity of problems (with potentially different values in use of a consultant). It is worth reviewing these functions to identify what the differences may be.

Management and Administration

This area is one which library automation has least affected. It may be that the size of the library, in comparison with other kinds of organizations, is too small to make automated systems worthwhile.
Furthermore, for many libraries the critical data processing needs (such as payroll accounting) are met by parent organizations, rather than by the library itself.

On the other hand, there are identifiable management problems in libraries for which automated systems would seem especially appropriate. Cost accounting, work-flow scheduling, balancing of staff, managing of the collection, allocating resources, preparing budgets—each of these is a critical problem for the library's management and each of them, in analogous form, has been aided by automation in industrial and commercial contexts. The size of a company in which such automated systems have been successfully used is not necessarily larger than a typical public or academic library.

A review of the literature in this functional area shows not only few applications, but even fewer that evidence the use of consultants. It is a surprising lack of interest, since this would seem to be an area in which consultants with experience in other management contexts could be of obvious use.

Selection, Ordering and Acquisition

Table 1 lists some of the consultant firms identified from the published literature which are involved with this functional area. Several of them are really in the business of marketing their own packaged systems (BATAB being the most widespread example).

Given the fact that packaged systems are readily available, it would seem wise to use individuals or consultant firms who do not have a preestablished bias toward one or another of the systems.

Serials Records

This was perhaps the first functional area in which computer processing was applied. In certain respects it seems to be a natural application, since it is so analogous to inventory control, with a relatively high percentage of the file active each month. Furthermore, the creation of union lists of serials would seem to be especially amenable to computer processing.

It is therefore somewhat surprising that there are few, if any, consultants that are clearly and specifically identified with this area of application. It may be that the crucial problems are subsumed under other areas of application—acquisitions or cataloging, in particular.

Cataloging

The choice of automated systems in this functional area has been
TABLE 1. LIBRARY AUTOMATION CONSULTING AND SERVICES FIRMS: ACQUISITIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firm</th>
<th>Representative Clients</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Richard Abel and Co.</td>
<td>Anne Arundel Board of Education, Md.</td>
<td>To aid libraries in installing the Richard Abel and Co. mechanized approval program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Portland, Ore.)</td>
<td>Albuquerque Public Schools Processing Center</td>
<td>Automated acquisitions system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM</td>
<td>Rutgers University—CAPTAIN (Computer Aided Processing and Technical Access and Information Network)</td>
<td>Planned the automated system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(White Plains, N.Y.)</td>
<td>Texas Southern University Library</td>
<td>Planned, with library staff, the acquisitions system</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Simon Fraser University Library, B.C.</td>
<td>Planned, with the University Library, acquisitions system</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Claremont College, Honnold Library, Calif.</td>
<td>System development was assisted by IBM systems engineers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Automated Library System, Ltd. (U.K.)</td>
<td>Derbyshire County Library, U.K.</td>
<td>Automated acquisitions system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hitachi, Ltd. (Japan)</td>
<td>Gunma University Library, Japan</td>
<td>Conducted a case study of mini-computers in university libraries which led to the adoption of the computer processing system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bruce Alper</td>
<td>Florida Atlantic University Library</td>
<td>Designed LAIS (Library Acquisitions Information System)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Arizona State University Library</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boeing Computer Services (BCS) (Seattle, Wash.)</td>
<td>Washington Library Network (WLN)</td>
<td>Technical design and development of the WLN bibliographic system module</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inforonics, Inc. (Maynard, Mass.)</td>
<td>New England Library Network (NELINET)</td>
<td>Designed and developed NELINET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baker &amp; Taylor (BATAB)</td>
<td>Mississippi libraries</td>
<td>Offers continuing BATAB systems support to clients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baker &amp; Taylor's Automated Buying system</td>
<td>Atlanta Public Library</td>
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<td>Denver Public Library</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hennepin County Library, Minn.</td>
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<td>Houston Public Library</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Omaha Public Library</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monroe County Library System, Mich.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tampa Public Library</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tucson Public Library</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eastern Carolina University</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Computer Applications to Libraries

TABLE 1.—Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firm</th>
<th>Representative Clients</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baker &amp; Taylor (BATAB)</td>
<td>University of Louisville, Belknap Campus</td>
<td>Offers continuing BATAB systems support to clients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baker &amp; Taylor's Automated Buying system</td>
<td>University of New Hampshire, University of Texas at Dallas, University of Texas of the Permian Basin, Trinity University Library, Tex., Utah State University, Weber State College, Utah, York University, Ont., Illinois State Library, Utah State Library Commission, Atlanta Public Schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book and Periodical Acquisitions, Ltd. (computer consulting firm)</td>
<td>Scarborough Public Library, Maine</td>
<td>Assisted in development of computer-operated systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto-tronics Universal Corp. (electronics firm)</td>
<td>Jefferson County Public Library, Colo.</td>
<td>Programming and keypunching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olson, Shultz and Flowers (accounting firm)</td>
<td>Jefferson County Bank of Lake-wood, Colo.</td>
<td>Computer time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Century Information Service (CIS) (software consulting firm)</td>
<td>Orange County Public Library, Calif. BIBLIOS (Book Inventory Building and Library) Information Oriented System</td>
<td>Programming and printouts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

both simplified and complicated by the existence of several competing national or regional cataloging services. The most frequent decision problem has been the choice between OCLC or RLIN (BALLOTS), with the Washington Library Network system and the Toronto system hovering in the wings. Commercial systems, without the subsidies that continue to make the not-for-profit services economic operations, face an increasingly difficult competitive situation. However, as the list of companies in Table 2 illustrates, there are sufficient opportunities in catalog production, especially using computer-output microforms (as contrasted with the use of on-line cataloging services), to support commercial operations. Each of them provides consulting services, in addition to contract production services.
TABLE 2. LIBRARY AUTOMATION CONSULTING AND SERVICES FIRMS: CATALOGING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firm</th>
<th>Representative Clients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autographics, Inc. (Monterey Park, Calif.)</td>
<td>West Virginia State Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Baltimore County Public Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enoch Pratt Free Library, Md.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Salt Lake County Library System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blackwell North America (Portland, Ore.)</td>
<td>University of Texas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Library Bibliographic Division (London)</td>
<td>City University Library, London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bro-Dart Inc. (Williamsport, Pa.)</td>
<td>Black Gold Library System, Calif.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>St. Louis County Library System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brooklyn Public Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eurocom Bureau (Manchester, England)</td>
<td>Liverpool Polytechnics Library Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inovan, Inc. (Los Altos Hills, Calif.)</td>
<td>Kansas State Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library Interface System (Minnetonka, Minn.)</td>
<td>Arrowhead Library System, Minn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Houston Public Library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Micrograph (Watford, England)</td>
<td>Milperra College of Advanced Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIS (Sydney, Australia)</td>
<td>Belgian Libraries and Documentation Centers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordina Benelux</td>
<td>Lincoln University, Pa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clark County Library, Nev.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Forsyth County Library, N.C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Palm Beach County Library, Fla.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hidalgo County Library, Tex.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cook County Library, Ill.</td>
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</table>

Are there special problems that call for the use of individual consultants? One can immediately be identified, and it has nothing to do with the choice between one or another of the national or regional services. It is the fact that the service represents only part—and it’s the smaller
part—of the library's total cataloging system. Too often the decision has been made to opt for one or another service without clear analysis of why, of the library's own objectives, of when the implementation should best be made, or of the effects on the library's own internal processes.

It is the wider context, for the individual library, that should be of special value for use of the consultant—individual or corporate. The transfer of experience from one library to another, the availability of techniques for identifying needs and evaluating how they would be affected by the external services, the objective examination of the internal operations of the library, the evaluation of compatiblity between national standards and local needs—all of these make the consultant especially valuable.

Circulation

Some of the companies presently making circulation control systems are:

CLSI (Newtonville, Massachusetts);
Dataphone (Dallas, Texas);
Gaylord (Syracuse, New York);
Plessey (Poole, England); and
System Control Company (San Jose, California).

Each of them, of course, provides consultant services focused on assistance to customers in installation of its system. The literature, however, does not clearly identify companies or individuals specializing in consultant services in this functional area, independent of the suppliers of systems.

In a sense, this lack of independent consultants is strange, since there are crucial problems faced by the library in the decision to automate circulation control as well as in the choice of a system. In particular, installation of an automated circulation system involves major investment in the creation of machine-readable book identification, an investment far greater overall than the cost of the hardware and software. Furthermore, the decision to install an automated circulation system ought to involve consideration of other functional areas—acquisition, cataloging and collection management—that have profound implications in the total library system design.

Reference

The explosion in the number and variety of data bases available through national services (SDC, Lockheed, BRS) has created a revolu-
tion in reference services, but aside from that fact, libraries have just begun to explore the use of automation in support of reference services.

Consultants can be of great value if they have an understanding of the potential for computers and microforms in areas of reference services, such as ready reference, community referral services, and local database development.

The firms listed below are in the business of providing commercial searches, primarily utilizing the national on-line reference data base services. Each of them will, to one extent or another, provide consultant services as well.

Access to Information, Inc. (Santa Fe, N.M.)
Biological Information Service, Inc. (Riverside, Calif.)
Black Resources Information Coordination Services, Inc. (Tallahassee, Fla.)
FSU Search (Tallahassee, Fla.)
Chemical Data Center, Inc. (Columbus, Ohio)
Calspen On-line Information Services (Buffalo, N.Y.)
Documentation Associates (Santa Monica, Calif.)
Editec, Inc. (Chicago, Ill.)
Franklin Institute Research Laboratories (Philadelphia, Pa.)
General Electric Company, Library & Information Services
(Philadelphia, Pa.)
Infomart (Santa Barbara, Calif., and Toronto, Ont.)
Inform (Minneapolis, Minn.)
Information Dynamics Corp. (Reading, Mass.)
Information Exchange Center (Atlanta, Ga.)
Information Unlimited (Berkeley, Calif.)
Information Resources (Toronto, Ont.)
Library Information Service (Honolulu, Hawaii)
Library Reports & Research Services, Inc. (Westminster, Colo.)
NASIC Search Service (Cambridge, Mass.)
Northeastern University Computer Services (Boston, Mass.)
Regional Information and Communication Exchange (Houston, Tex.)
Savage Information Services (Rancho Palos Verdes, Calif.)
Scientific & Technical Information Services, Inc. (Rochester, N.Y.)
Text Information Processing Services (Gainesville, Fla.)
Unesco Computerized Documentation Service (Paris)
University of North Carolina (Chapel Hill, N.C.)

Equipment Alternatives

The consultant should bring to the library a combination of
knowledge—of management, of library functions, and of equipment alternatives. There should be a basis of experience, in the last area especially, on which the consultant can provide a balanced evaluation. Too often, the consultant, like any other specialist, becomes committed to one alternative. It is therefore worth reviewing the identifiable alternatives, if only to see how they may differ in the consulting problems involved.

**Computer Service Facilities**

One decision frequently faced by the library, one that becomes virtually imposed upon the library and perforce upon the consultant, regards the computer service facility. The university has a computer; the county has a computer; the company has a computer. The library is asked (in fact, expected) to use it.

Rarely is the availability of such a facility, even if "free," the proper basis on which to embark on an automation program. The consultant has special value as a means for placing the availability of a service facility in proper perspective within the total context.

**Software Packages**

There are and will be an increasing number of software packages tailored to library functional needs. The consultant has value as a means of evaluating them, especially in comparison with special development of tailored programs for the individual library.

**Hardware/Software Packages**

The best example of this alternative is the CLSI package for circulation control or the competitive Plessey system. Although there are relatively few of these packages, they provide a total answer—a "turnkey" operation—for the function they are designed to handle. Evaluation of them is complicated by the fact that other alternatives (except directly competitive packages) are extremely difficult to analyze. The turnkey package involves relatively well-defined costs and functional capabilities. Data can be obtained from other installations of the package with which to evaluate reliability, problems in operation, difficulties in implementation, etc. That is difficult to do even for the software package in which the hardware configuration may be different, and it is impossible to do with a tailored system.

The consultant may be able to provide a relatively informed evaluation of the costs and effectiveness of the alternatives.
Mini- and Microcomputers

Minicomputers are widely available today, of a scale in costs and capabilities completely appropriate to the internal operating needs of almost any size of library. They are reliable, free-standing, easy to operate and maintain, and to the right scale in every respect.

But a revolution is occurring as the computer is becoming a consumable product. It is the microcomputer that will really revolutionize library data processing—if it is properly handled. An APPLE (a product of Apple Computers, Inc.) or a TRS-80 (a product of Radio Shack) or similar competitive units are now available for under $1000 and, with full-scale capabilities for relatively large file storage, for under $3000. Software packages are being developed at a pace that boggles the mind, as individual hobbyists play with their capabilities. Since the experience anyone now has with this kind of equipment is very limited, it will be some time before consultants will be able to give advice much better than the library's own staff or the published literature. However, certainly (within the 1980-81 year) that experience will be widespread. And the consultant's advice will be of even greater value than ever before, since the array of alternatives will be vastly increased and the complexity of effect upon the library deeper.

Summary

In this paper, I have tried to identify various aspects of the use of consultants in library automation. I have identified various kinds of consultants, various roles for them, various contexts or stages in development in which they may be useful, various functional areas in the library in which consultants may have different values, various alternatives that may affect how much help the consultant can give. But, it is all pretty much philosophical and descriptive. There are few data available on which to base a more informative evaluation of consultants. As a result, this represents a personal commentary, based on my own experience, but it should give the reader a picture against which to compare his own experience and limitations.

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Consulting in Staff Development

MILTON S. BYAM

Consulting in staff development is the process of advising an institution on those steps needed to provide its staff an opportunity to develop their potential and increase both their talent and skill. The consultant reviews the philosophy, procedures and techniques of the institution which indicate the library administrators' degree of awareness of the importance of staff development.

The consultant begins, after an interview with the director, with the staff, preferably those at the very bottom of the "pecking order." Through the library's appearance and the alertness of its staff, the consultant can discern almost at a glance everything he needs to know about the library, though not necessarily about its program for staff development. One talks to staff about charging systems, book shelving, library cleaning, or anything that will reveal attitudes, knowledge and opportunities for growth.

At this step one is simply exploring the knowledge of the staff members regarding the institution's rules and regulations and their applicability to them. Such knowledge or lack of it does not in itself indicate institutional success or failure, though it may relate to the processes by which such information has been transmitted.

The institution may, for example, in all good faith make provision for the transmission of information through letters, memoranda, staff newsletters, and oral direction, and yet may fail to transmit anything that does not require confirmation by the "grapevine." This is espe-

Milton S. Byam recently retired as Director of the Queens Borough Public Library, New York.
cially true in very large organizations. Memoranda may be unclear or seem to contradict other orders. The wrong form of dissemination may be used to convey complicated directions, through numbers of supervisors, for example. The consultant will examine the memoranda issued and their success in achieving results with the supervisors required to implement them, and will suggest alternative forms and techniques for accomplishing the desired goals.

After the interview step (which is carried through at all levels of the organization) the consultant is ready to study in depth the techniques used by the organization in developing its staff. Staff development is not, after all, a one-step process but a multifaceted one. It is not a one-day happening but continuous. It does not end even when a staff member has resigned or retired or been separated. The aroma of an institution which a staff member carries into the outside world creates, good or poor conditions for adding employees in the future. The consultant must, therefore, study:

1. the organization's rules and regulations;
2. the process of staff intake;
3. orientation programs;
4. training programs;
5. the process of performance evaluations;
6. the techniques of promotions, transfers, salary increases; and
7. methods of staff separation.

The Organization's Rules and Regulations: Procedure Manuals

There should be a manual which clearly spells out the philosophy and aims of the personnel practices within the institution. It must be stated in writing, for example, that one-half hour is allowed for lunch and that this is the rule for everybody, with exceptions clearly spelled out. Here it is imperative that fairness and honesty are evident and that safeguards are included which assure the staff that written regulations cannot be undone by unwritten practices guided by subterfuge or self-interest.

The minimal personnel manual, therefore, concentrates on practices universally applicable to all within the institution, with emphasis on hours of work, schedules, breaks (if any), staff meeting times, emergency allowances, benefits available, and in some cases, specific departmental rules within the overall institutional umbrella.

The manual may seem wildly at variance with comments garnered
Consulting in Staff Development

from the staff. Some regulations may have been superseded without having been rewritten; some may have been ignored and never applied since they were written. While these are danger signals, they are not necessarily a sign of failure, for what the consultant is looking for is honesty, consistency and flexibility in the organization's rules and their application. Honesty means that the rules are applied with justice to all employees, so that if a subaltern must make up five minutes of late time, upper-echelon staff must also do the same. Consistency means the existence of a clear line of reason throughout the rules, so that one knows that whenever he is late he is expected to make up the time, exceptions being made only by administrative fiat in emergencies of one sort or another. Flexibility means the opportunity to provide for emergencies such as snowstorms or hurricanes or for the more mundane breakdowns in transportation.

To the consultant, the differences between the manual and the staff's perception of the rules and regulations are less important than whether principles of honesty, consistency and flexibility are being applied. The consultant should point out, however, that the institution would be better served by a manual which clearly and accurately states its guidelines for action.

Staff Intake: The Beginning of Misunderstandings

The hiring process begins long before a staff member is even considered for employment. There is a self-selection process always at work around any institution which causes some people to want to work for it. One aspect of this process is proximity; another is that a relative works there. The self-selection process is also influenced by former employees who describe their jobs as having been easy or their years at the institution as happy ones, or who consider the benefits good. And while all of these may be true statements for the individual making them, they do not really describe the job and are, therefore, misrepresentations which create the first opportunity for misunderstanding, employee complaints and morale problems later on.

Absolute care and accuracy must consequently be employed at each step of the hiring process to eliminate misunderstandings. This is done by spelling out the institution's needs in writing and advertising the position. It is advisable to advertise both internally (to take advantage of internal skills and referrals from the staff) and externally (to take advantage of the larger market outside the institution). If it is a temporary position, this should be clearly stated. Hours of work, salary, benefits,
and skills and/or education required for the job must be equally clearly spelled out.

This is but the beginning of the process, which includes applications, interviews, assignment and title. All kinds of pitfalls exist between the advertising and the hiring which determine the kind of staff that will exist to do the job required. A staff may be ingrown because the hiring process has depended wholly on staff referrals. Persons may have chosen an institution because of its rapid promotions, and such rapidity of promotion may no longer be possible. Others may have chosen an institution because of its reputation as a place where staff are left unsupervised, or are given special training—and the administrator responsible for these conditions has left. Each of these unrealized hopes, as well as an infinite variety of others, can leave a residue of bitterness in individuals who were hired for the job and find it is not what they had expected. While, indeed, no such promise had been made, the application and interview process had failed to distinguish the candidates with unrealistic expectations from candidates with real ones. Indeed, sometimes interviewers themselves are so impressed by the qualities of a candidate that they will go to any lengths to recruit him, even though they know the institution cannot provide the candidate’s hoped-for goals. Or, perhaps they simply have not considered this problem.

The staff development consultant should therefore review the techniques employed in recruiting staff and comment on the institution’s accuracy and care in eliminating misunderstandings. Does the institution acquire the best people available, or does it collect an ingrown staff loaded with relatives and friends of existing employees? Nepotism should also be examined. Affirmative action should not only be the policy of the institution, but all staff should be aware of its existence and the reasons for it. The consultant in his report should comment on the hiring practices used and the success derived from them, including staff perceptions of them.

At this juncture it should be pointed out that many interviewees, by the very nature of the hiring process, hear only what they want to hear. They are determined to get the job, and little can dissuade them from having it offered to them. The burden is thus on the interviewer to select the person who has the qualifications, can do the job, and will be able to develop within the environment of that particular institution.

Orientation: You Never Told Me

One of the areas about which library staff almost universally com-
Consulting in Staff Development

plain is that of orientation. They generally claim they never had one. They were never told that they would be required to work nights or Saturdays. They were never told their pay could be reduced for absences and lateness. This is obviously an area of much misunderstanding and ill will. On the other hand, supervisors report that of course, there had been an orientation, but the staff just did not recognize it as such.

Orientation is the formal indoctrination of a staff member to a new work situation. It should always be formal and labeled as such. A large institution may provide two, three or even four such orientation sessions. For example, at the institutional level, one should be told about paydays and payroll deductions, at the departmental level about transfers and promotions, at the unit level about schedules and work practices, and at the section level about methods of doing overdues or charging books. Although these orientations may run from fifteen minutes to two hours each, they should all be formal.

Upon a new person's arrival at his unit, the pressures on him are generally too heavy to put him to work immediately. He is often foisted on the unit supervisor instead of being oriented in toto. The head of the department should have a conference with each new staff member, show him his locker and his work station, spell out the department rules, introduce him to all the staff and even take him to lunch. It is important for a new staff member to learn all he needs to know at the beginning of employment so that he will not be required to unlearn things at a later date. He will thus have a chance to develop.

A consultant should review the orientation procedures of the institution both for quantity and quality. His conversations with the staff, while important in assessing staff efficacy, should not be the only determinant. All too often the staff is given so much information in so many forms that it confuses them. It may be that a simple staff handbook, to be read as needed and issued annually, will remove most of the orientation problems and provide needed clarity.

Orientation is neither easy nor inexpensive. An institution which manages to accomplish it well should be given high points for seeking to resolve the problems inherent in orienting staff to the organization. One that fails cannot be condemned if, indeed, all the trappings of a formal orientation program do exist.

Training: Now You Tell Me!

Nowhere in staff development are there likely to be more howls of dismay than with staff training. Like orientation, this is often treated
perfunctorily by the unit heads, although some libraries provide extensive centralized training sessions for some staff. Library schools like to think that they send professionals fully trained to the hiring libraries. This is not so. All staff require training so that they can perform intelligently as members of the institution as well as carry out assigned duties in the unit. Again, staff training is best done formally so that it is dignified and recognized as such. The practices of “tell, show, let do, and revise” should be carried through all functions until the staff member performs them perfectly. If he is turned over to another staff member for training, then one must be absolutely certain what that staff member is capable of teaching and how he will go about it.

Every staff member accepts and understands the need for training. He won’t be bored with it as he might be with orientation, unless he thoroughly understands the job already. He will grasp it with eagerness, for his self-development and self-esteem depend on it. A consultant should look at the training given, the techniques employed, and the quality of the trainers when evaluating the staff development program of an institution. If the program is a good one, then the evidence will be a heavy turnover of good staff getting better jobs and long-staying staff happy with what they are doing.

Training encompasses more than the opportunities provided within the library for staff development. There are plentiful opportunities for continuing education which may be either provided by the employer or supported by the employer and provided by outside organizations. The library may provide workshops to improve technical or managerial skills, such as storytelling or supervision. It may provide time for attendance at conferences or workshops on the local scene or at professional conventions, such as the American Library Association’s, or it may provide opportunities and funds for pertinent courses given, for example, by the American Mangement Associations or local colleges and universities.

By conversing with staff and reviewing the procedures manual, the consultant will investigate the provision made for continuing education. Supervisors may indicate their interest in such training while the manual is silent on the subject. A review must therefore be made of the number of staff provided such opportunities over a measured period. The kinds of courses involved and the amount of institutional expenditure should also be examined. Caution must be exercised in drawing conclusions from the data gathered, however, since there is no absolute figure which might be suggested for continuing education. Moreover, opportunities may be provided with little or no staff interest being evidenced in taking advantage of them.
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Performance Evaluations: Report Card or Development Tool?

The performance evaluation, service rating or staff evaluation is the most valuable staff development tool in personnel work—if used properly. It can be a self-development device unless it is used as a report card or for purposes of determining promotability. When used as a report card it becomes a weapon, since it can be used to demean, outrage or destroy the psyche of an individual.

As a developmental tool, it is *sans pareil* in providing staff the opportunity to improve. There are thousands of appropriate forms for staff evaluation on the market. The form does not matter except that staff must agree that it is applicable to their jobs. The form should be brought to the staff member’s attention on the day of orientation at the organizational level at which the evaluation will be made. After the staff member has worked a month, a conference should be held to review his work, at which time he should be told how he is seen in terms of the evaluation form. He should also be told when a formal evaluation will be made. Another conference on progress should be held in the second month, but now he should be given an evaluation “in pencil” for review and comments, again with indications as to when the formal rating will be done. This should be done each month until the formal rating is made so that he has a chance to improve.

These conferences are held for the purpose of providing the supervisor an opportunity to give a staff member guidance, as well as to listen to what the staff member has to say. If evaluations of the staff member are critical, he may be expected to react with anger, unhappiness or even despair. From that moment he will not hear anything being said. The purpose of the performance evaluation is to make the staff member clearly understand what he is being told about himself and the changes needed to improve his performance. If he stops listening, the supervisor should be aware of this and seek ways to bring him back to the discussion. If this fails, the interview should be abandoned and another rescheduled a week later.

The staff member should then be given the completed evaluation forms to review in privacy and asked to return to discuss it. The supervisor must listen carefully to be aware of all the nuances of the bitterness which may pour out and seek an opportunity for their correction. For example, a staff member may be distracted from performance by slurs, racial or otherwise, by staff members not speaking to him, by assignment to a job he doesn’t like, or by the supervisor. The supervisor must avoid being distracted by personal likes and dislikes from the individual’s performance being evaluated. Dress, speech or other habits may
annoy the supervisor so much that he forgets what he is evaluating. He therefore may insist on changing the individual instead of providing an opportunity for development. For example, loud, tasteless dress may meet the library dress code but cause comment by staff and public alike. It would be helpful to point this out without making it paramount to the performance evaluation. Staff development depends on a supervisor who can discern problems and correct them with subtlety and grace.

It is imperative in consulting in staff development that, when forms are examined, the attitudes of the administrators and supervisors toward evaluations be reviewed, as well as the techniques employed in evaluation. An employer who does not use appraisal forms is failing the staff by not providing this valuable tool for self-development. Most people come to work without ever having had objective criticism of their performance other than their mothers' comments about "sloppiness." The performance evaluation is a revelation to them—unless it is used as a report card.

Promotions, Transfers, Salary Increases: Living With Your Job

Each employee looks at the other persons on the job, especially those supervising him, and is sure that he deserves a promotion. Sometimes, he simply compares his salary to another staff member's and feels that promotion is due. In some cases, his wife is having a baby, and that is sufficient reason. All such considerations, of course, miss the point. Promotions are rewards for successful self-development that require higher levels of skill and competency and therefore lead to higher salary.

One cannot prevent the staff from misconstruing the purpose of promotions, but promotions can be made a source of high—rather than low—morale by making certain that the procedure's objectivity is apparent. Absolute objectivity is, of course, impossible in any endeavor which involves mankind, but one must devise procedures which at least approximate it. Written examinations can be given, oral examinations can be required before an internal panel or board or before an outside panel, or promotion can be on seniority. However it is done, the staff must believe it is fair and equitable, and the library must move the employee best able to do the job into the open position. Objectivity begins at the selection process. All qualified employees must have access to the next higher step, no matter who dislikes them. Screening can eliminate unqualified applicants, who are told why they have been eliminated. Performance evaluation and sick leave records might then be scanned, and those employees objectively found to be below par eliminated and told why. All of the others might go to examination.
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Since promotion is a tremendous incentive toward self-development, a consultant should review promotion procedures in considering staff development. His review should look for objectivity and staff awareness of that objectivity. The consultant must be aware, however, that every staff member can point to some individual he feels should not have been promoted. It should be pointed out that this very situation intensifies the need for objectivity.

Since promotion represents an opportunity for the library's staff to grow, the consultant will also be interested in promotional opportunities filled from outside the institution. Closing off opportunities which are not really opportunities rankles the existing staff. The consultant will examine all persons at levels above entry positions to determine if their status was the result of promotion or appointment. Checking all promotions made within a reasonable period should provide the necessary information about practices employed. Still, all advanced appointments may not, and indeed in some cases must not, be from within. The question continues to be one of objectivity and opportunity. Therefore, internal staff should be given the opportunity by internal advertisement to fill the positions. If no qualified staff members surface, then one should go outside rather than promote an unqualified person. A consultant's examination of promotional activity should provide these overviews.

Separation: You're Always With Us

Development of staff depends on the integrity of the institution and its continued interest even in those who leave its employ. People leave employment for numerous reasons, including better work, higher pay, or a spouse's relocation; some stay until retirement. A few, unfortunately, are fired or asked to resign. No matter what the reason for termination, the institution has contracted a debt that it will continue to pay long after the staff member has left. There will be demands for information about former employees which should be answered quickly and courteously. There will be requests for references which should receive the most positive response possible so as not to deny former employees opportunities for new employment elsewhere. (Employees who have been dismissed for theft should be told not to seek recommendations for employment as a cashier, for example.)

There should also be an exit interview during which the employer has a last chance to respond to gripes and rub off the edges of bruised or hurt feelings. Moreover, the employer should seek this opportunity to place in proper perspective the accidents and failures of the institution.
One wants every employee, however separated, to promote the institution, to create a positive climate about employment there. As a result, a consultant reviewing staff development at an institution should be concerned with the separation process both as a technique and procedure. Former staff members should be contacted to determine their perceptions of their former employer and its response to their needs both during and after employment.

The consultant should examine all separations from the organization, for whatever reason, over a 5-year period. Turnover is one of the matters of concern, but the reasons for separation are of equal importance. Death, poor health, relocation of spouse, better job offers, retirement and involuntary separation constitute the bulk of the reasons for separations. None of these may be indications of institutional failure, unless there is an unusual incidence of one or more factors. For example, too many involuntary separations may indicate poor hiring policies or poor working conditions. No involuntary separations may indicate that deadweight is being kept on without regard to performance. An unusual incidence of health-related separations may be masks for other reasons or indicate practices that encourage the hiring of older persons. The consultant should therefore review the separations and evaluate the techniques and procedures used in handling them.

Summary

Consulting in staff development is therefore a process in which the perceptions of the staff are gathered together with factual data and compared with those of the institution to come up with a set of new facts useful in improving its program. The institution has indicated its desire for improvement by hiring the consultant. He should provide that help without becoming involved in championing staff views or furthering vendettas.

A good staff development program would presumably have resulted in the proper preparations, the hiring of appropriate skilled personnel, their adequate orientation and training, and their evaluation. Difficult personalities, even at the administrative level, should have been corrected. Nonapplication and misapplication of rules and regulations would have been eliminated. If indeed these adjustments have been made, then one should see high morale, increased productivity and less in-fighting.

This article has not tried to be definitive about personnel practices, but simply to cite a few as examples. The consultant would consider the
seven areas discussed above, but would review practice in more detail than could be cited here.

Reference

1. A search of the literature yielded no articles on consulting in staff development.
Consulting in Union-Management Relations

JAMES W. HENDERSON

There exists by now a considerable body of information on unionism in libraries, but there is little to be found on the subject of consulting in this increasingly important area of library operation. Is there need for such specialization? If so, where are such specialists to be found, and what qualifications and preparation should they bring to the assignment? What role can the consultant play in library union-management relations? Before dealing with these questions, it will be useful to review the development of unions in libraries, to measure the impact of unionism on library management, and to examine the sources of assistance in union-management relations available to the library administrator.

Berelson, Clopine, Spicer, Goldstein, and more recently Biblo and Guyton have recorded the essential history of library unionism. There is no need to retrace their steps here except to provide a backdrop for the subject at hand. There were outcroppings of union activity in libraries in the second and fourth decades of the century, but these movements represented only a small number of employees in a few large libraries and arose primarily as a result of economic hardship. The present wave of union activity, which began in the 1960s, is distinguishable from the earlier movements by the greater number of unions involved, larger memberships, inclusion of professionals and academic library personnel in unions, the enactment of protective legislation at various levels of government, the number of agreements bargained collectively, occasional job actions, and greater interest in unionism as reflected in the

Early public library unions failed, among other reasons, because of their small memberships and short-term objectives and because of the opposition of library administrators. The current movement shows signs of greater stability and longer duration. By 1975, union membership had grown to an estimated 20 percent of librarians of all types, and the unionization of support staffs is now substantial. In addition to objectives relating to compensation, working conditions, fair treatment, and job security, unions today have long-term professional objectives which can be most succinctly described as an effort to share in institutional decision-making. Overt administrative opposition to unionism has subsided as the result of protective legislation and the changing attitudes of society toward the rights and security of individuals and organized groups. The existence of collective bargaining agreements and the negotiating process leading to them have established unions as part of the operating pattern of libraries and have added momentum to the library union movement.

The chief difference between unions in public libraries and those in academic libraries is that the former usually have been affiliated with public employee organizations, whereas academic librarians are more likely to have been included in faculty unions. Another distinction is that while professional and support staffs are commonly included in the same bargaining unit in public library unions, they are often to be found in separate units in academic libraries.

Unionism in libraries has become a reckoning factor in library administration at a time when the library director's responsibilities have been stretched in scope far beyond the traditional core areas of librarianship. To collection development and conservation, cataloging, reference and circulation services, policy formulation, and coordination of operations have been added involvements with new theories and techniques of management, automation, networking, cooperative enterprises, services to the disadvantaged, fund raising, and a host of laws, regulations, and procedures relating to equal employment opportunity and other aspects of personnel administration, including two legacies of the 1960s—participatory management and unionization. "The complexity of the problems," says Dougherty, "strain the abilities of even the most able and experienced library administrator. When one considers that in one day a person might be asked to cope with problems including affirmative action, automation, budget shortages, unionization, participatory management, it becomes easier to understand why so many library managers have voluntarily relinquished their positions as library directors."
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The library director's role has thus become more complex as participatory management and unionization, coupled with increasing fiscal stringency, have diminished the administrator's power to act quickly, flexibly and, in some cases, effectively in dealing with daily operations and in carrying out the library's mission. As Shaffer has put it:

Any administrator...must be acutely conscious every moment of his working day of the ambivalent attitudes toward his authority on the part of his staff, his superiors, and outsiders. ...Too often, the administrator's life is exhausted by threat, demands for instant and radical change, public ridicule and debasement, and recurrent confrontations. His time, energy, and patience are devoted to “putting out fires,” and little may be left for him to carry on the work of a productive manager.6

In recent years library administrative officers have come to be referred to by some library employees as “management” and, as is evident from the two articles just cited, the term library manager has begun to appear in the literature and even in organization charts. In view of the many constraints now imposed on administrative officers, this new appellation is becoming increasingly apt.

Especially in the initial years, unionization can produce a psychological relationship between administration and employees that exacerbates any difficulties that may arise. Although there is a view that this relationship can be collegial, the more common experience is one of polarization of senior staff and union members. The problem can be particularly acute for the library director, who may have difficulty comprehending the new relationship and adjusting to it and who is hampered by the additional limitations placed on his ability to act freely. The position of the administrator may be ambivalent with respect to the union. He may or may not share the point of view of the staff on the one hand, or that of the trustees whom he represents or with whom he sits at the bargaining table on the other. For these reasons, the administrator may find it difficult to participate honestly and objectively in collective bargaining processes, grievance hearings, and arbitration proceedings.

Even if the library administrator is informed about labor-management matters and is free of philosophical conflicts or adverse psychological attitudes or is able to overcome them, he may be unpracticed in the art of negotiation and may experience discomfort in the negotiator's role. The library negotiator needs to be able to maintain a certain dignity without, at the same time, appearing to be stuffy. He should have a good understanding of human nature and should be a
good judge thereof. He should have a good sense of humor. He needs to have solid information about the kinds of work performed by the staff. He should know something of law, psychology, economics, statistics. He should have research ability. He should be a quick thinker, an effective speaker, a good listener. He has to know when and how to stand firm as well as when to concede. Even a skilled library negotiator, however, is in a disadvantageous position in relation to a union negotiator, who through training and experience has most likely developed negotiating expertise and who, in any event, can participate in negotiating sessions with greater ease and is better able to employ histrionics when such a technique seems to be indicated.

The effects of unionization on library administration have been reported in the literature by a number of administrators and others who have studied administrators' views. Although recognition is often given in these reports to the positive values of unionization, the weight of opinion up to now is that the effects have been for the most part dysfunctional. Among the positive effects on library administration attributable to unionization are guaranteed employee rights, a more evenhanded treatment of staff, better working hours, attractive pay scales, and faculty status; a greater emphasis on the management function, including more formalized personnel policies and procedures and better communication; a better understanding of the institution, its administrative processes and financial restrictions; and improvement of service. On the negative side are the limitations unionization places on outstanding and innovative performance; diminution of individual freedom that may decrease job satisfaction; lack of responsibility on the part of union leaders, lack of professionalism among staff; the adversary relationship, time-consuming grievance and arbitration proceedings and other conflicts, endless paperwork, a decrease in the power of the administrator, inflexibility, restrictions on contracting out, restrictions in automation and other technological advances, higher costs; arbitration decisions that are adverse to service, and other threats to the service function.

It must be emphasized that the above listing is nothing more than an attempt to synthesize what has been stated in the literature. Obviously, some benefits attributed to unionization have been achieved under enlightened administrations without unionization. By the same token, not all of the so-called dysfunctional aspects of unionization can be said to be universally valid. For example, among present-day library directors of demonstrated ability, there are several whose union activity and leadership have almost certainly contributed substantially to their
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development and success. In the opinion of some, the authoritarian administrative style of some library directors caused an adversary relationship to exist between administration and staff long before unionization and was one of the reasons for the emergence of labor unions in libraries.8

The library director must be prepared to deal not only with changes in the administrative environment, but also with the welter of questions that will arise with the advent of unionization. What laws are relevant to the situation at hand? Federal laws and rulings or state and local laws? Or, as is true in some states, no laws at all? Under what jurisdiction does the library fall? The National Labor Relations Board, if a private institution; a local agency, if public; or no agency at all? What personnel are to be included? What personnel are to be excluded from representation? What procedures are to be followed if there is an election and if the union is recognized and certified? Is the union independent, or is it affiliated with a national organization? If the latter, what is the nature of that organization? What is considered to be unfair labor practice on the part of both management and the union? What is the duty of the library to bargain? What is the proper scope of bargaining is a question not easily answered. What issues are not, by law, subject to bargaining? What responses are to be made to union demands? What proposals can management make in bargaining that will result in concrete gains in terms of economy or improvement in service? What proposals are there that can be traded off with impunity? How should the administrator respond to the union's demand for a labor-management committee? How is the contract to be administered? What is grievable and what is arbitrable, and how are grievances, job actions, and arbitration proceedings to be handled? If a strike is threatened, is it legal (as in the case of a private institution) or illegal (as in the case of some public institutions or government agencies)? What provisions should be made for operating the institution during a job action?

How can the administrator develop the expertise necessary to deal with these new requirements? As has been pointed out, the literature of library unionism has grown considerably in volume over the past decade. Chaplan, a specialist in industrial relations librarianship, has compiled a bibliography3 that can be recommended because it contains helpful commentary and is designed for the benefit of a person having little knowledge of the subject who might be faced with a bargaining situation. The bibliography is selective; only the most important contributions to an understanding of the subject have been included. It goes beyond the purpose of this article to evaluate writings in the field, but
two works should be mentioned because they deal substantively with matters relating to the legal framework and the actual processes of union-management relations. In 1969, Vignone formulated a model set of procedures under which public library employees in Pennsylvania might bargain collectively. With one exception, these procedures were validated in the following year by legislation in that state (the Pennsylvania Public Employe Relations Act). The exception had to do with the proposition known as "agency shop" which the Pennsylvania legislation neither endorsed nor invalidated. (In an agency shop, a union may collect union dues or an equivalent "contract consideration fee" from all employees with job titles included in the bargaining unit whether the employees are union members or not.) Vignone's model is useful because it provides an example of the legal basis for public library employee bargaining. Weatherford, experienced as both library director and negotiator, has produced what he calls a "primer of collective bargaining for the faculty in general, with special emphasis on academic librarians." Although oriented to academic libraries, Weatherford's work is of value to administrators and union members in public libraries also because it deals with the specifics of unionization and collective bargaining: determination of the bargaining unit, terms and conditions of employment, compensation, governance, and contract administration.

In addition to self-education through reading, the administrator can avail himself of courses in labor relations offered in most universities and even in library schools, where collective bargaining is beginning to be included in the curriculum; but universities are not always located conveniently, and classroom consideration of the subject, in any event, may have only limited meaning when separated from the dynamics of a union-management relationship.

Unlike organizations in other professions, notably teaching, which have taken on the function of the labor union, professional organizations in the library field have been satisfied for the most part to serve merely as conveyors of information on labor matters. In 1970 the Board of Directors of the Library Administration Division of the American Library Association adopted a position paper stating that the ALA "will promote bargaining legislation, inform its constituents about bargaining trends, assist library personnel in data gathering, and encourage training programs relating to bargaining," but this was never adopted as policy by the ALA as a whole. As matters now stand, the association offers little by way of assistance beyond what can be found in its publications and conference programs. The Office of Man-
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agement Studies of the Association of Research Libraries has issued a series of publications on collective bargaining and grievance procedures that can be useful in the administrator's orientation. One of these, a "Review of Collective Bargaining Activities in Academic and Research Libraries," while no longer up to date, contains information on how various academic libraries have handled labor relations and suggests avenues of assistance. A "kit" on "Collective Bargaining" provides guidance as to what administrators may and may not do in discussing unionization and includes sample election procedures and sample contracts. Another "kit" on "Grievance Procedures" is primarily a collection of grievance and termination procedures followed in various institutions.

If the library has a parent institution there may be an experienced personnel officer, a labor relations officer, or staff legal counsel who can be turned to for assistance, or, if the library is part of a government entity, there will be a department or agency of government charged with responsibility for labor relations. The amount and kind of assistance that can be expected from such sources will vary depending on the experience and competence of the personnel in the agency and the time available to give advice or to participate in labor matters. There is also a question as to the nature of the relationship of the library to the parent body and the responsibility such an agency would have for labor relations in the library. For example, a library board may be empowered legally to exercise full jurisdiction over the library even if it is dependent on public funds. Whether obtained through the parent organization or from outside the institution, however, legal counsel will be necessary at various steps along the way, particularly in the initial phases of union activity and in the writing of the contract. It is usual, also, for management to be represented by counsel at arbitration hearings.

The administrator may also call on the services of a labor relations consultant. Lippitt has described consultation as a voluntary relationship, perceived as temporary, between a "help-seeking system" (the client) and a professionally qualified "helper" from outside the organization (the consultant) in which the consultant is attempting to help the client solve a current or potential problem. It should be made clear that the term labor consultant is not used here, as is sometimes the case, as synonymous with "union buster," a person utilized by management to prevent employees from organizing or to induce them to participate in unions formed or favored by management. Instead, we are describing the consultant who can ease the administrator's task by offering a reservoir of knowledge of legal requirements, labor standards, and
labor-management procedures which otherwise would be available to the library board and director only through painstaking research and wasteful trial and error. The need for consultation may be greatest in the small library in which trustees and administration are without access to personnel or labor relations specialists to guide them, but consultants have been utilized also to good advantage in larger organizations.17

Who are the consultants in labor relations, and where are they to be found? The Academic Collective Bargaining Information Service, established by the Association of American Colleges, is a source of information on various aspects of collective bargaining, including the availability of consultation services.18 Most directories and reference works in the consulting field are business- and industry-oriented and are of little immediate help. The Directory of Library Consultants19 does not list labor-management relations as a consulting specialty, nor is it included as a subspecialty under the heading most closely related to it—personnel. There are only a few librarians who have developed competence in the field. One of these reports that after serving as a member of a university management negotiating team in three rounds of bargaining, he was asked to chair the team. He estimates that negotiations with the union consumed some fifteen months over a six-year period.20 Experience of this kind and degree among librarians is not common.

In labor relations, it will probably be necessary to draw on professions other than librarianship for the required expertise. The usual practice is to turn to the legal profession, or to the professors in schools of labor and industrial relations and business administration, or possibly to management consulting firms. Lawyers specializing in the labor field may function expertly as consultants; their services are costly, however, and are perhaps best reserved for times when legal assistance is mandatory. Nonlawyer consultants have varying backgrounds in the academic world, in management, in labor unions, or in government, and work either as individuals or in association with universities or consulting organizations. Nonlawyer consultants, however, cannot take the place of lawyers. They must refer legal questions to lawyers. Some accept cases only through lawyers. Some work in tandem with attorneys.21

Lewis has described the involvement of one "lawyer-consultant" in the negotiation of a library-union contract.22 His report traces the history of a union local from its origin through the first agreement between the union and management. In this case the management team was made up of three senior administrators (exclusive of the library
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director) with the lawyer-consultant present at the bargaining table. The negotiations lasted seven months. A report on the same set of circumstances by Lubin and Brandwein, officers of the union at the time, indicates that the lawyer-consultant's role in this case was more dominant than would be evident from Lewis's account: "At a first meeting...an agreement was reached to begin dues check-off and establish an interim grievance procedure....Optimism was high that a satisfactory agreement could be reached...without any great difficulties. It was at this point that Mr. Lewis arrived on the scene, club in hand, ready to beat down the union if only he were given the chance." In Lewis's account, the lawyer-consultant makes clear his reason for concern over developments that had taken place before his participation as labor counsel, illustrating the need for consultation services at an early stage in management-union relations:

The union immediately took the position that it would not engage in the full scope of collective bargaining before their demands for dues checkoff and a grievance procedure were met. The library reluctantly agreed to discuss these two preliminary matters, although...this resulted in the granting of major concessions which ordinarily would have been part of the full scope of bargaining....The library might have withheld this valuable union tool [the checkoff] until it obtained from the union some "quid pro quo"....Thus the union obtained for itself a substantial privilege, even before it began its attempts to produce any tangible benefits for its members.  

Taken together, these reports provide a useful insight into labor-management relations in a library from both management and labor points of view and serve as a good introduction to the subject. Brandwein has described the state of affairs between this same library and union as they were more than a decade later. This time, interestingly enough, he reports as a representative of management: "With the settlement of the major dispute concerning promotional policies in late 1969, and the change in attitude and makeup of the library administration in early 1970, the period of confrontation drew to a close. Each side made the conscious choice of moving along the path of reason, accommodation, and peaceful coexistence." In still another instance a lawyer-consultant who actually conducted the initial negotiations for management was replaced in that role by the assistant chief librarian as the result of union dissatisfaction and pressure.

The involvement of the "professor-consultant" in library union-
management relations is exemplified in the work of Harris, who specializes in the field. His qualifications include work as arbitrator, hearing officer, mediator, fact-finder, and conciliator. He has offered instruction in library labor-management relations in a library school and issues a newsletter devoted to library personnel management and collective bargaining. He has negotiated contracts on behalf of library boards. Harris's contributions to the literature consist, for the most part, of advice addressed to both trustees and unionized staff. He counsels trustees, for example, to take particular care in the preparation of management's proposals for bargaining. Here, he says, the advice of experts (i.e., consultants) is essential: "Their input is needed in the preparatory phase as well as in negotiating the final agreement. Oversights and misuse of language and vagueness can be costly. Those who have been reversed by arbitrators will attest to this fact." Harris's advice to staff, written from the management perspective, can be characterized by the dictum "moderation in all things": "The director and trustees regarded you in one light before the decision [to unionize] and in another light afterward. Searching for the middle ground is a worthy objective."

Reference has already been made to the consultant's participation in contract negotiation. To begin with, he can advise on the composition of the management team. It is advisable, for example, that trustees not appear at the bargaining table except as silent observers in order to avoid the possibility or suggestion of premature commitments or rejections. The consultant can help establish the ground rules for bargaining. It must be understood, for instance, that neither management nor the union can be allowed to put new proposals on the table once negotiations have commenced and that agreements reached during the course of bargaining are tentative and have no validity until the bargaining has been concluded and the entire agreement accepted by both sides. The consultant can suggest procedures to be followed in bargaining sessions. Careful note-taking is necessary, for example, and language should be spelled out as agreements are reached on individual parts of the contract, lest there be misunderstanding when the final document is drawn.

The consultant can assist in developing negotiating strategy. Management's list of proposals should be extensive enough to permit trade-offs since the union's list of demands is typically longer. The consultant can make certain that one of management's demands is for a "management rights" clause in the contract. Although managements often assume that rights not conceded by the agreement with the union
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continue to be theirs, the management rights clause will serve as a reminder that management is responsible for determining the institution's services, staffing and scheduling, and that it has the right to direct and control its employees, including the right to hire, transfer, promote, demote, discipline, suspend, or discharge personnel; to locate its physical facilities and equipment; and to control its property.

The consultant can also help guard against the inclusion in the contract of restrictive clauses which tie the library's hands in contracting out certain operations such as binding, in instituting new processes such as automated systems, and in participating in cooperative enterprises designed to improve service and reduce the rate at which costs increase. He can emphasize the importance of precision in contract language. Management, for example, should not agree to the inclusion in the contract of blanket provisions such as the continuation of all past practices, but should indicate, at least by reference, the specific practices being continued.

The consultant can also serve as an information resource for management. The union negotiator will come to the bargaining table armed with data on the cost of living and other matters relevant to the negotiations, information most probably supplied by the union's research department. A management negotiator is unlikely to have had the benefit of research support of this kind. Since the consultant, like the union, is in the business of keeping abreast of developments in the labor field, he can function as the library negotiator's primary source of such information.

A consultant can be helpful also in connection with various aspects of contract administration, especially in the handling of the grievance procedure. If there appears to be any basis for a grievance at all, the union, for obvious reasons, is likely to pursue the grievance as far as is necessary to obtain a ruling favorable to the grievant. At the same time, unless an obvious injustice exists, administrators tend to be stiff-necked in defense of the organization in grievance hearings. Nothing, other than contract bargaining, is more time-consuming and expensive than the grievance procedure, and nothing, other than a job action, is more disagreeable. Unless a matter of principle is involved, there is little point in allowing the union to take a case to arbitration if chances for a decision favorable to management are not good. A series of decisions adverse to management tends to weaken the administration's position vis-à-vis the union. The consultant is able to view the grievance more objectively than management, to advise on the merits of management's position, to predict the likelihood of an adverse or favorable ruling, and
to weigh the importance of the effect of the arbitrator's award.

Another aspect of contract administration in which the consultant can be utilized is in helping middle management and supervisory staff adjust to a new, unionized situation or, in cases where the union is not a new phenomenon, in explaining the significance of the provisions of new contracts. The effect of unionization on supervisors may be twofold. Supervisors continue to be responsible to management for the productive and economic performance of work of appropriate quality, but their authority, like that of the director, has been diminished by unionization. If supervisors are union members, there is also a possible problem of divided loyalty, a source of difficulty particularly when supervisors are involved in grievance hearings and arbitration proceedings. Seminars on contract administration and interpretation conducted by a consultant can be instrumental in helping key members of the organization think through these situations, and can help ease tensions that may have arisen between supervisors and top management as a result of unionization.

At times of crisis in labor-management relations, a labor consultant can function in an advisory capacity. He knows from experience how to measure the effect of such occurrences as demonstrations and job actions, and can help management determine whether its position is strong enough to take a strike or whether (for public relations reasons, for example) it would be better to seek quick settlement of the dispute. If there is an impasse, a consultant can function as fact-finder or mediator, but in this case he must be impartial, representing neither labor nor management. The same is true of consultants who serve as arbitrators in grievance cases. Consultants acting in these capacities usually do not accept consulting assignments involving contract negotiations or bargaining strategy because they want to maintain their neutrality beyond the shadow of a doubt.30

Nothing has been said about the need for consultation on the part of the library union. An independent, unaffiliated union would have use for such services, as would a union in the process of organizing and making a decision with respect to affiliation. The literature records instances where consulting services were employed by unions at this stage of unionization.31 In most cases, however, union headquarters is likely to be involved early, sometimes even before organizing begins. After affiliation, union headquarters may provide a wide range of expert services to locals, including research services and the assignment of a headquarters official as chief negotiator during the bargaining process, a headquarters representative at certain steps of grievance hearings, and
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legal counsel at arbitration proceedings. There is also evidence to suggest that headquarters assistance can be gratuitous, amounting at times to domination and even attempted control.

Unionization, a fact of life in many libraries, has added significantly to the library administrator's growing scope of responsibilities and has changed the character of library management and operation, limiting the ability of the administrator to "direct" the organization and requiring him to acquire new knowledge and skills. The labor relations consultant can facilitate the unionization process from the management point of view and can be effective in the negotiation and administration of the library-union contract. Consultants also serve both labor and management in the roles of fact-finder, mediator, and arbitrator.

References


4. McAnally, Arthur M., and Downs, Robert B. "The Changing Role of Directors of University Libraries," College & Research Libraries 34:103-25, March 1973. This development in library administration has been commented on by a number of writers in the field. The article cited here is probably the "classic" statement.


23. Lubin and Brandwein, op. cit., p. 975.


The Role of Management Consultants in the 1980s

RICHARD M. DOUGHERTY

Management consultants have been a fixture on the library scene for many years. Consultants, or surveyors as they were commonly called, provided advice and counsel on matters such as salary and job classification plans, collection evaluation, physical planning and fund raising. Early surveyors collected data by examining existing documents, distributing questionnaires, and conducting personal interviews. Prior to World War II, analytical approaches to systems and procedures were not yet common. One of the earliest, often-cited, analytically oriented surveys was conducted by the management firm of Cresap, McCormick and Paget at the New York Public Library (NYPL) in 1951. In a historical context, this study proved to be an important event. The survey demonstrated how analytical tools could be applied to library-related procedures. Its recommendations resulted in an extensive revamping of processing procedures within the library. The study also forced the library's administration to cope with the process of managing large-scale change within a complex organization. The experience as described by Kingery in 1954 suggests that the problems faced by NYPL's administration almost thirty years ago were very similar to obstacles that must be overcome by the contemporary manager who initiates organizational change.

The Cresap, McCormick and Paget study also revealed what can occur when a surveyor does not possess a completely clear understanding of a library's purpose. Some of the recommendations for cost cutting

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were more appropriate to a profit corporation than they were for a socially oriented institution.\textsuperscript{4}

The literature contains many examples of the early survey reports. Those interested in the history and development of management consulting in libraries should consult it for reports published by notables such as Maurice Tauber, Louis Round Wilson, Robert Downs, and Joseph Wheeler.

General library surveys frequently resulted in the issuance of a formal report that was made generally available. It is, however, more difficult to assess the impact of management consultants because their reports were seldom published or even widely circulated, particularly those surveys initiated by university administrators or boards of trustees for the purpose of evaluating the performance of an incumbent director. A report that assessed the performance of individual staff members had to be handled with discretion, for such surveys often touched upon sensitive issues. But as Wilson and Tauber observed in 1956, these surveys were sometimes necessary to obtain an objective clarification of existing conditions.\textsuperscript{5} Even though the lack of generally available written documentation hampers our ability to assess the contributions of early management consultants, the large number of surveys cited in the literature suggests that consultants often made important contributions.

The availability of consultants as well as professional attitudes toward the use of consultants have not changed radically during the last generation, but the managerial climate in which library directors labor has changed. Overall, the role of a typical library manager has become much more complex. Budgets have become tighter, the constituencies a library serves have become more diverse, users have become less tolerant and more vocal, and library staffs are quicker to display their anger when they become dissatisfied with a director's performance.

Library managers are expected to manage effectively during a period of resource decline. They are asked to encourage resource-sharing programs even though resource-sharing requires that dollars be diverted from traditional library activities. Library managers must wrestle with an almost bewildering array of state and federal regulations in order to comply with affirmative action and equal opportunity, OSHA regulations, and programs intended to aid the handicapped. Managers must become conversant with many technical issues related to AACR 2, alternative catalog formats such as computer-output microform (COM), and computer-based catalogs. And, as if this weren't enough, most of these issues must be further subdivided. For instance,
network development involves not only technical considerations, but also complicated legal, fiscal governance problems, and several unresolved public policy issues, such as who owns data, who should pay for data, and how data should be shared among libraries. Each of these questions will ultimately affect the way libraries operate and the way libraries deliver services. Therefore, they are matters with which a library director should become familiar.

This paper explores the reasons consultants may play more prominent roles in library management in the coming decade. Most library managers today do not have the time to keep abreast of all managerially related issues, and it is unlikely that tomorrow's manager will fare much better. The rapidly changing economic and technological environment is creating too many complex technical problems. These pressures on management will dictate the use of specialist problem-solvers, the management consultants.

In order to understand better why management consultants will become more important to the library manager of the 1980s, one can begin by reviewing the events of the immediate past which created the environment in which libraries currently exist. Libraries have been in the throes of accelerated change for more than a decade. Following World War II, academic libraries entered a relatively long period of unprecedented growth and prosperity. Libraries were able to build comprehensive collections that seemed to double and redouble almost overnight. Hundreds of new buildings were constructed. Staff sizes mushroomed and services to users were greatly enriched. Probably few professionals fully appreciated the uniqueness of the period until its time had almost passed.

Paradoxically, this sustained period of growth also sowed the seeds that caused many library staffs to become restive. Staffs wanted to play larger roles in determining program priorities and they wanted more voice in deciding how budgets were to be allocated. At the same time, library staffs became increasingly dissatisfied with their status on campus. The lure of faculty status was great, for faculty received better perquisites and enjoyed more generous salaries. Consequently, more and more staff energy was directed toward improving the status of professionals.

The management style of directors that had been so effective during the period of growth began to be questioned. The travails of library directors were forcefully chronicled by Robert Downs and Arthur McAnally in 1973. Unfortunately, few staffs realized how complicated most management issues were. It was not until later, when staff began
to participate in library planning, that they came to understand how complicated were the dynamics of managing large libraries.

Colleges and universities themselves experienced similar problems during the prolonged period of growth. Colleges became instant universities, Ph.D. programs were created from the fabric of marginal master's degree programs, and faculty argued for a more prominent voice in governance and budget allocation decisions. College and university presidents found their authority questioned in ways that were unprecedented. Disgruntled alumni, faculty, and university groups forced some presidents from office and others found it more desirable to resign than to cope with the pressures of their office, particularly during the period marked by the Vietnam War.

As the euphoria of the late 1960s began to fade, higher education found itself largely unprepared for what lay ahead. In fact, few recognized and even fewer understood that the great growth period in higher education had ended. Moreover, societal attitudes toward education had undergone a decided metamorphosis. Higher education had not solved the ills of society, so it no longer held its special status in the eyes of many legislators. No longer were budget requests granted carte blanche; it became fashionable to construct quantitative formulas for budget allocations based on factors such as the number of academic programs and student enrollment. Unfortunately, the student enrollment-driven formulas that had served so well during the period of growth seemed less attractive as enrollments leveled and in some cases began to decline. Then, too, inflation, which had become so pernicious by the late 1970s, began to take its toll on educational budgets in the late 1960s.

The failure to adjust at the end of the growth period contributed to the severity of problems libraries and their universities faced in the early 1970s. Even though officials intellectually understood the predicament, many were emotionally unprepared to deal with the consequences. The governing structures of libraries and their parent institutions were still geared to render decisions that involved the allocation of additional resources. It is one thing for a manager or a committee to decide how new funds are to be divided; it is quite another for a manager or a committee to decide whose budget will be cut, whose staff will be reduced, or who must be laid off. While committees are capable of making tough decisions, preparatory training is highly desirable. Most library staffs were not prepared to advise managers on how to reallocate static budgets. The hard decisions that would have facilitated organizational transition from the growth period of the 1960s into the stable 1970s were often deferred through inaction. It became increasingly
apparent that directors had to become skillful in the management of organizational decline. Kenneth Boulding predicted some time ago that a high premium would be paid to those who learned how to manage constructively during a period of budgetary and programmatic retrenchment.7

As one ponders the immediate future of libraries, it seems certain that library managers will be expected to do more, but with fewer resources. Political slogans heralding the “age of limits” are already in vogue. Although people seem less willing to tax themselves for social services, there seems to be little willingness for people to surrender what they have come to expect as their due. People who demand that budgets be cut, however, are likely to single out activities that do not directly affect them. The attitudes of those in higher education are very similar. Students, faculty, and librarians may recognize the need to reduce programs, but they rarely support proposals that will cut services upon which they have come to depend. The need to reorder priorities, to make choices in the face of stiff opposition, only adds to the challenge of the contemporary library manager.

The austere budgetary climate is not the only factor that has altered the operating of libraries. The technological revolution has been equally dramatic. Computer technology, long heralded as the panacea for library ailments, finally began to realize its promise in the 1970s. OCLC’s arrival ushered in a new era. Librarians could begin to think about cataloging, bibliographical control and bibliographical products in a new light. But a technological innovation improperly implemented can create more problems than it solves, as more than one library manager has discovered. At the time a library joined OCLC, the astute library manager took steps to reorganize technical services procedures in order to take full advantage of OCLC’s capabilities. But as Barbara Markuson discovered in her study, some library managers failed to develop adequate implementation strategies.8 As a result, some libraries did not enjoy the full advantages of the OCLC system. Managers discovered that technology improperly implemented could lead to increased operating costs rather than the economies that had been promised.

Managing a technologically oriented environment is further complicated by the rapid evolution in the technologies themselves. What is the state of the art technologically today may be obsolete tomorrow. Rapid technological obsolescence is a phenomenon that is now generally recognized, but recognition alone will not ease the problems of maintaining systems that are likely to become quickly obsolete. It was
only a few years ago that OCLC was viewed as a state-of-the-art system. This is no longer the case, as other sophisticated bibliographic utilities, such as the Research Libraries Information Network and the Washington Library Network, have appeared on the scene. OCLC’s management must now allocate a larger share of its organizational resources to accelerate system update and renewal. Many libraries have purchased sophisticated minicomputer-based circulation systems. Such systems are already found in hundreds of large and small libraries. Unfortunately, these systems will become obsolete as more sophisticated and cheaper versions reach the market. Replacing obsolete equipment is expensive. Therefore, a plan that permits the systematic replacement of obsolete equipment should become part of a manager’s overall organizational plan.

The changes in the budgetary climate, coupled with the greater availability of technology, have also produced changes in the way libraries deliver services. Libraries have traditionally attempted to satisfy the information needs of its clientele by utilizing their own resources, but no library can be totally self-sufficient. The present period of relative budget austerity has forced librarians to become even more dependent on others in order to serve their users. Fortunately, technological advancements have facilitated interinstitutional sharing. Computer-based bibliographic data bases are increasing the awareness of library collections, and document delivery will soon become more cost-effective as telecommunication systems become available.

The proper utilization of technology combined with expanded resource-sharing should help to offset the damage caused by the current period of budget decline. But if resource-sharing proves successful, this new operating environment will create other problems for the contemporary library manager. The attitudes of some users toward resource-sharing will have to be changed. Library staffs must learn to cope with an environment that causes divided institutional loyalties, and managers will have to secure general agreement on new patterns of budget allocation as some traditional library services wither and new services expand. These changes cannot be orchestrated without careful and considered planning and negotiation.

The working environment of the 1980s will require managers to become conversant on many diverse issues—to many that it is probably unreasonable to expect those responsible for formulating and implementing policy to become knowledgeable on all technical issues. Even elected officials do not have the time or resources to become conversant with all of the issues on which they must legislate. Since time is of the
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essence, legislators have learned to specialize. They have become increasingly dependent on the advice of their administrative assistants and technical experts. The legislators’ time-bind is analogous to the predicament of library managers. This highly technical, rapidly changing environment argues for the greater use of specially trained consultants.

A qualified consultant can serve management in many capacities. He can: (1) provide advice on a specific technical or managerial problem, (2) confirm a prior administrative action, (3) convince the administration of a parent institution of a particular course of action, (4) train or educate a library staff, or (5) facilitate the process of organizational change.

In years past, library directors depended heavily on informal advice of colleagues at professional meetings. Library organizations such as the Association of Research Libraries have served as forums to assist library managers in solving problems. But such informality serves less adequately in today’s more complex operating environment. In fact, as it became apparent in the early 1970s that there was growing dissatisfaction with library management, ARL established its Management Review and Analysis Program (MRAP) to assist directors by providing a mechanism whereby research libraries could assess and, if necessary, reformulate their goals, objectives, and service programs.9 The MRAP process is predicated on securing broad participation of a library’s staff; MRAP techniques draw heavily on the concepts of team building and group decision-making. The MRAP process illustrates one form of group consultation. Programs such as MRAP, however, may not be appropriate when what is needed is an immediate solution to a pressing problem. In such cases it is a management troubleshooter whose advice is needed.

The most important decision a manager can make, once the decision to employ the services of a consultant has been made, will be the choice of the consultant. One should pay particular attention to the credentials of prospective consultants. Anyone can call himself a consultant. There is no consultant’s code of ethics, nor is there any test one must pass in order to qualify as a consultant. One need only examine the listings of a directory of consultants for confirmation of this assertion.10 A librarian who has designed one new building or who has attained the position of assistant director for technical services, coordinator for bibliographic instruction, or ascended to the lofty position of director is not by virtue of that position qualified to serve as a consultant.

The person selected should already have acquired a broad range of
experiences and have demonstrated the capacity to provide practical and successful solutions. A person possessing broad experience should be better able to identify problems and recognize behavioral patterns than the neophyte. An experienced consultant would recognize that tension usually exists between staff who work in branches and those who work in a central facility, whereas the neophyte might not realize that this is the rule rather than the exception. The experienced consultant can explain why such tensions exist; the causes might not be so evident to the neophyte. Furthermore, a less experienced consultant might tend to superimpose a prepackaged solution based upon limited personal experience; a good consultant should be able to recommend a course of action that is tailored to specific needs.

The consultant selected should bring to the assignment an attitude of objectivity. The importance of objectivity merits special emphasis. It has been common among librarians to engage the services of friends and colleagues. This approach might appear to be the safest course, but it can also backfire. The consultant, because of personal involvement, may find it difficult to maintain objectivity. Thus biased by friendship, the consultant may temper his criticism to avoid hurting a friend or colleague, and instead of rooting out the real problem, the recommendations could lead the colleague to initiate a course of action that might further exacerbate it.

A consultant will play a different role in every assignment, but in each case he should function as a positive agent for facilitating change. To be a successful change agent, a consultant should possess the requisite analytical skills and the ability to communicate with staff and administrators. He must be able to assess middle-management’s readiness for change, and to persuade key decision-makers that change is desirable and that it is in the best interests of all concerned. A creative solution may not prove successful if a consultant fails to create a solid foundation that facilitates organizational change.

An organization should prepare carefully for the arrival of a consultant. The manager should take steps to analyze the existing situation, gathering policy statements, procedural manuals, and other documents which will provide the consultant with relevant information. Staff who will be directly affected should be informed and given time to prepare in advance. Special efforts should be made to review the goals and objectives of the library. It is essential that there be a common understanding of the library’s mission and where its priorities lie. It is not necessary that everyone agree with the goals and objectives, but there should be a common understanding of what they are. The failure to secure an
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understanding could cause a manager to provide a misleading assessment to the consultant.

The dangers attendant on such misunderstandings are clearly underscored by an incident with which the author is familiar. In this case, a library director was subjected to severe criticism from his campus administration generated by faculty dissatisfaction with the quality of library services. A campus confrontation led to the employment of an outside consultant. The university's administration was looking for an excuse to terminate the services of the director. They attributed the problem to the director's lack of leadership. But the consultant found that the faculty and the administration had sowed the seeds of controversy. The administration had allowed the faculty, either intentionally or unintentionally, to ignore formal institutional goals and objectives. Whereas the campus was established to provide high-quality undergraduate instruction, the faculty appointed by the college were more interested in research than in teaching. Whereas the library collected and organized materials to support undergraduate instruction, the collection lacked numerous tools considered important by the research-oriented faculty. Who was at fault: the library director, the faculty who were appointed, or the administrators, who may have misled the faculty at the time they were appointed? The culprit is not important, only that recognition and prior agreement on goals and objectives might have avoided the confrontation that eventually occurred.

A consultant should prepare carefully prior to the actual site visit by reading all of the documentation provided by the library, but no matter how well prepared, a consultant should be ready to deal with any eventuality once on the scene. It is important to remain open-minded and receptive to input and to avoid making prejudgments. In many cases, the real problem may not emerge until after the consultant has interviewed all of those directly involved with the situation. Often, a consulting assignment which has been construed as a technical problem is in reality more related to interpersonal conflict. For example, a sudden decline in cataloging productivity occurring soon after a computer-based cataloging system is installed might logically be attributed to causes such as poorly designed processing procedures or inadequate training, when in fact the decline might have been caused by the catalogers' perception that the use of records obtained from other libraries had degraded the quality of local catalogs, thereby reducing the job satisfaction of the catalogers. The consultant might have been requested to develop a better training manual, but a training program would not get to the root of the problem. What appeared at first to be a production
problem to management was in reality quite a different problem, one which required a different solution.

The success of a management consultant will be closely correlated to his ability to identify problems as well as to develop practical solutions. For this reason a consultant should be an attentive listener. It is well known that people view the same problem from quite different perspectives. An individual's perception will be influenced by factors such as his training, professional philosophy, status within the organization, and personal stake in the issue under review. An administrator may be more interested in a unit's productivity, whereas the staff of the unit may be concerned about personal esteem and satisfaction. It is only after a consultant has listened carefully to all points of view that the different attitudes may become apparent.

There has been a general reluctance on the part of library managers to utilize the service of outside consultants. Two explanations are that libraries cannot afford to pay for outside advice, and that there is an insufficient pool of qualified consultants available. Some librarians believe they cannot afford to pay for outside advice, but the complexity of today's management environment suggests that the prudent manager can ill afford not to pay for outside advice. Library managers should establish a distinct line in the budget to fund the use of consultants. Qualified consultants have also been in short supply. In fact, this condition was one of the factors that motivated the Association of Research Libraries to initiate a program specially designed to sharpen the skills of midcareer librarians who desire to function as library management consultants. The program is termed the Academic Library Development Program (ALDP). It is intended to benefit not only large libraries but smaller libraries as well. The goals of the program are laudable and individuals who participate will undoubtedly benefit as their observational and analytical skills are honed. ALDP represents a positive beginning and a hopeful sign that the pool of qualified consultants will be larger in the coming years.

Another explanation for the traditional reluctance to use consultants is not associated with cost or availability but rather more related to the stigma associated with the use of consultants. The appearance of a consultant may be interpreted by a staff or by the academic community as a signal that something is very wrong. This attitude probably can be traced to the management style that has prevailed in libraries for many years. Library managers, like most other managers, have governed traditionally in an autocratic manner. This observation is not intended to imply that managers did not operate with the best of intentions,
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working diligently to facilitate staff and organizational development, but by playing such a dominating role, a manager may (though unintentionally) have assumed the proportion of a father figure. To draw an analogy from one of television's most successful situation comedies of the 1950s, "Father knows best," and for "Father" to call upon the services of a consultant contradicted the image that father knew best. The contemporary library scene with its growing technological orientation, coupled with the rapidity of change, presents a strong argument for the use of qualified management consultants. There is no alternative if a library manager is to cope successfully with issues that are on the horizon; therefore, it is important that the negative stigma associated with consultants be dispelled.

Libraries are already hampered by a plethora of internal and external restrictions such as state and federal regulations and collective bargaining agreements. Managers will be expected to make decisions on issues that demand technical expertise which they personally do not possess. The rapid rate of environmental change will not permit a leisurely approach to problem-solving. Time has already become a manager's valuable resource. It must be conserved whenever possible. Officers of colleges and universities are surrounded by experts knowledgeable in the subtleties of personnel management and financial planning. The problems confronting the library manager are equally complex, the need for special assistance no less pressing. For this reason, in the near future it will be a normal managerial strategy to draw upon the expertise of skilled management problem-solvers.

References

4. For examples, see Cresap, McCormick and Paget, op. cit. (recommendations section)
Consulting in the Library Network Environment

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When I agreed to write this paper, under severe time constraints, a search of the literature failed to turn up any articles on the subject. However, as I got deeper into the topic, a considerable activity—if not literature—was discovered. This exacerbated the problem since it seems more difficult to track down itinerant networkers than elusive articles in obscure journals. I have therefore only explored the framework in which network consulting takes place and identified some areas of actual or potential network consulting, leaving a more definitive treatment to subsequent authors.

In general, this paper adheres to the classic definition of consulting—the formal seeking of advice relating to an identified problem or set of problems for which specific action-oriented recommendations is needed. "Library network" means a formally organized entity providing computer-based and related services to a defined member group linked by telecommunications. Although many topics addressed in this paper may be relevant to cooperatives and consortia, the considerable use of consultants that obtains in these endeavors has generally been excluded. Some attention is given to related agencies engaged in planning, financial support and other matters relevant to library networks.

This paper has helped me synthesize some previously inchoate perceptions about networks and consultation and has raised some intriguing questions about the caliber of much of our national network.
planning. It seems obvious that the library field generally has not used consultants with the discipline that prevails in areas such as business and industry, and it is possible that, just as networks have formalized interlibrary cooperation and planning, they will also play a role in formalizing the use of consultants. Their use will certainly become more frequent and rigorous as networks explore increasingly complex relationships, systems, and services, and their input will add an important new dimension to library and network management in the future.

Network Client Groups

In the literature on consulting, organizations seeking the aid of consultants are called "clients." At least four specific client groups can be identified in the network environment. These are: the network, the member libraries, related agencies, and vendor/suppliers.

The Network as Client

The computer-based library network is a relatively new organizational entity. There is little tradition for networks to rely on, since most have existed less than a decade, and many of the standard formulations for library management do not apply to networks. Furthermore, within the limits of their resources, networks are probing the leading edges of technology, information service, and cooperation. Increasingly, networks will have to take risks and yet at the same time guard against failures that would adversely affect hundreds of libraries. Since networks exist outside the taxing base or private organization budgets that support libraries, and since they depend largely on sale of their services to members, they exist in an entrepreneurial environment foreign to most library endeavors.

This set of conditions makes networks natural clients for a wide range of consultant services. It is unlikely that all networks can or should develop a permanent staff with the wide range of specialist knowledge that will be needed for solving certain complex problems. Later in this paper, several examples of consulting for the network client will be reported.

The Member Library as Client

Participation in networks raises many issues for prospective member libraries. Which network? Which specific service? How do network services interface with local services? How should local long-range planning accommodate itself to prospective network develop-
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ments? What features should be provided in new buildings to facilitate total network participation? What changes in relationships will occur within the staff and with user groups as a result of network participation? How can local computer systems interface with network computer services? Are there any real alternatives to network services and, if so, at what cost? For larger libraries and systems these questions are especially compelling, given the contending desires for maximum local autonomy and for increasingly sophisticated services at the lowest possible unit cost and managerial risk.

The eagerness for information in this area has created a bibliographic samizdat which is passed from reader to reader increasingly illegible photocopies. One often receives such material sans cover and only through internal evidence can the original source be deduced. It is also often the case that the information value is all out of proportion to the cost of this internal library-supported documentation system.

Recently, new clusterings in the member library client group have been emerging in which libraries of the same type or subject interest join together to explore the network relationship. The possible permutations are endless. A recent example of this genre is described in the consultant report on LAWNET commissioned by the American Association of Law Libraries.¹

The Related Agency as Client

Literally dozens of organizations at the state, regional, and national levels have a potential interest in library network development. These organizations may provide direct services to networks, may have library planning as part of their normal activity, may need advice on how network developments affect their own future plans, or may simply be seeking a piece of the action. Such organizations include professional associations, national and state library agencies, library and educational commissions, library and information science schools, government and private funding agencies, national and state education agencies, and so on. Although there are private organizations in this client group, the majority are public, tax-supported agencies.

Members of this group may overlap with other client groups. For example, the New York State Library is a library member of the SUNY network using the OCLC network system, is the administrator of the computer-based New York interlibrary loan network (NYSILL), and is a state agency with certain responsibilities for library development in New York State.

The use of consultants among this group is uneven, with the
heaviest use occurring among state and national library agencies. The reason for this probably is federal funding which makes available an external source of funds, renewed annually, to support such studies. The amount of such funding directed specifically to computer-based networking has been small in comparison to that spent for other types of library cooperation, but is increasing. The state or national plan and feasibility study appear to be the most prevalent products generated for this client group.

The Vendor/Supplier as Client

One of the hallmarks of business consulting is the confidentiality of the consulting activity. For this reason, I cannot cite specific work for this client group and can only say that, based on general comments from former vendor/supplier employees, that it is occurring. Library, information and equipment vendors also must assess the impact of networking on their existing or planned products. Areas of concern that come to mind are market decline or opportunities presented by network activities, equipment and services to support network activities, and new services that are feasible for vendors only through network distribution. One example of consulting in this area is the study “Strategies in the On-Line Data Base Marketplace” by LINK Resources Corporation, an information marketing service firm. Consultants for the study include Carlos Cuadra, Peggy Fischer, and Martha Williams and, according to recent information, only the research sponsors will get the consultants' report at a reputed cost of $7000 per copy. Time did not permit even a modest canvass of vendors; therefore, the remainder of this paper will concentrate on the library-related client groups identified previously. However, we should all hope that vendors are exploring this area with expert consultants so that we can look forward to a continued, vigorous symbiotic relationship between the library and information field and its vendor/supplier groups.

Potential Sources of Consultants

For practical purposes I have divided sources of consultants into part-time and professional groups. By “professional” I mean consultants or firms whose business is consulting, whether they be librarians, computer specialists or management specialists. By “part-time” I mean individuals or groups who are not consulting as a primary vocation or as a major source of income. Generally, the arrangements with professional consultants or consulting firms are formal and based on a legal
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contract, whereas part-time sources of consulting are often available under more casual arrangements.

Part-Time Consultants

Sources of part-time consultants include staff members of networks, member libraries, library agencies, library schools, and faculty and staff of the parent organizations of certain networks and member libraries. Types of expertise sought frequently include legal and financial advice, cataloging and other library specialist knowledge, system design and programming, statistical and surveying skills, and assistance in continuing education and training.

These consultants are heavily used by the three library-related client groups, and a few examples will suffice to show the diversity in this area. The library network staff itself serves member libraries in consulting relationships. Library use of network staff can range from day-to-day informal advice to more structured long-term tasks, such as work-flow analysis performed for a set fee. In turn, staff of member libraries may be used to augment the skills of the central network staff. For example, the SUNY network is in the process of identifying specialized skills of member library staffs and formalizing arrangements whereby these staff members can be called upon by other library members. In this arrangement, the network would provide some reimbursement for the consulting activity.

Network staff members also assist other networks, particularly when specialization has led to development of some specific skill or service not generally available. Member library and network staff may serve as informal consultants on advisory committees to organizations such as the Library of Congress (LC), the National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS), the Council on Library Resources (CLR), and state agencies in providing advice and guidance on developments related to networking. In turn, these organizations may assist networks by making staff available for network consulting tasks.

If several part-time consultants are working on a project, they are generally organized into advisory groups, task forces, or project teams. The amount of time and money spent for such part-time consulting must be enormous, but since little fund transfer occurs (except for library support of network staff) it is impossible to estimate the actual cost. The common practice is for the client to pay travel and out-of-pocket expenses, with the cooperating organization donating its employee's services. However, if the project is of significant duration,
arrangements may be made for partial or full reimbursement for salaries as well. This arrangement is more common when the project is supported by an outside grant.

*Professional Consulting Organizations*

Fuchs divides the consulting industry into the following five major categories and provides a description of each: the international or national consulting firm, the large regional firm with specialization, the medium-sized specialized firm, the small independent specialist, and the small or medium-sized generalist. Each of these types has been used in library network consulting. The criteria for selection of the type of firm are generally subjective and depend on the scope and direction of the project, the specific problem to be solved, and the type of support and advice the client is seeking. These professional organizations seem to be used more widely by the vendor/supplier, network, and public agency clients than by the network member client group.

Sources of information about these firms is provided by Klein, who notes that "getting reliable information about consultants isn’t easy.” Indeed, the consultancy is served by eight professional associations, leading Klein to comment that “somebody ought to get those people organized.”

*Areas of Library Network Consulting*

A number of classification schemes for general management consulting have been developed. Fuchs, for example, has developed a scheme which identifies ten major categories and ninety-nine subcategories. A comparable scheme for library consulting applicable to networks is not available, but I have developed the following preliminary scheme, limiting the categories primarily to activities of interest to the network client group.

A. *General*
   - Needs assessment
   - Information policy
   - Short- and long-range planning
   - Feasibility studies
   - Organization and governance
   - Legal
   - Performance evaluation

B. *Administration & Management*
   - Management information systems
   - Records management

C. *Personnel*
   - Staff development
   - Labor relations
   - Policy

   - Forms design
   - Procedures
   - Staff organization & utilization
   - Documentation & internal communications
   - Word processing
   - Project control

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Recruitment
Health insurance & benefits
Group dynamics

D. Financing, Budgeting & Accounting
Accounting systems
Cost accounting
Short- and long-range financial planning
Capital investments
Grants procurement
Fees and assessments
Cash-flow analysis
Cost/benefit assessments

E. Marketing
Member services
Market analysis & forecasting
Strategies
Pricing
Analysis of competitive services

F. Procurement
Preparation of specifications
Inventory management
Purchasing
Quality control
Acceptance testing
Bid evaluation

G. Public Relations
Graphics design
Printing and advertising
Communications planning
Audiovisual presentations

H. Data Processing & Telecommunications
State-of-the-art assessments
Data base management
Computer systems analysis
Telecommunications network analysis and design
Software system design
Programming
Performance monitoring
Documentation
Security
Inter-network linkages
Technical audit
System replication

I. Network Services
Cataloging
Authority control
Acquisition
Serials control
Union list of serials
Bibliographic access & related products
Interlibrary loan
Document delivery
Information retrieval & subject access
Circulation
Abstracting and indexing
Centralized processing services
Reference and message switching
Retrospective conversion & reclassification

J. Building & Space Utilization
Architectural design
Space modification
Space utilization
Security
Warehousing & storage utilization

K. Research & Development
Basic research design
Applied research design
Project evaluation
Field testing
Statistical analysis
Surveying & data analysis
Standards & format design

L. International Networking
Network design
Trans-border data flow
Governance
Funding
Telecommunications
Implementation strategies
Problems specific to developing countries

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Space does not permit a detailed analysis of the characteristics of each category of network consulting. However, in order to give an idea of the scope of network consulting, examples have been provided for many of the categories listed. Unfortunately, the bare recital of these activities makes for dull reading.

**General Consulting**

This area of network consulting has probably been the most fertile. Here we find the planning, feasibility, and general needs assessment studies that underlie decisions to implement, delay or restudy network activity. Here we also find the consulting activities most likely to be immortalized in formally published and disseminated reports, since the "real" client is often the professional library community which is to be persuaded to accept the consultant's efforts. Frequently, reports which the client decides are not what the public needs to know are quietly shelved away with as little notice as is consistent with legal requirements.

Becker and Hayes did several state network planning studies, of which the one dealing with the Washington State network is perhaps best known. Markuson did surveys and network studies for Indiana, MIDLNET, and the Federal Library Committee. A recent example of this genre is the Butler study previously cited, which recommends a law information network.

One of the most interesting examples in general consulting is the Parker and Kilgour effort for the Ohio College Library Association in 1965. The study recommended establishment of a cooperative, computerized network for Ohio. The report is startlingly brief; the rationale, recommendations, action plan, budget and staffing, and development goals for services, including information retrieval, on-line acquisitions and cataloging, serial control, and circulation, are encompassed in just nine single-spaced pages.

Library of Congress and NCLIS reports relating to national networking generally fall into this area. For example, Ladd performed a national needs assessment for NCLIS. Adding to the growing corpus of National Periodicals Center studies, NCLIS has engaged Arthur D. Little, Inc. to study alternative strategies for the National Periodicals Center. The two-month consulting effort will have been completed by September 1979. LC's Network Development Office has drawn together a team of part-time consultants from various networks to serve on its Network Technical Architecture Group. This group has explored a number of issues related to the feasibility of developing a nationwide
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network through linkage of existing networks. Other studies include Dataflow Systems' effort to develop a network glossary, the Buckland and Basinski report on LC's role in the national network scene, and a consultant report issued by LC on design considerations for a nationwide database.

Arthur D. Little, Inc. did a major consulting study, funded jointly by OCLC and CLR, of network governance. They recommended a new governance structure for OCLC encompassing all participating networks and expanding the board of directors to bring wider library representation and more expertise from nonlibrary management and technical fields, as well as a user's council to allow participating libraries to have more input into governance. Martin reviewed legal aspects of interstate networking which gave considerable attention to the possibilities of the interstate compact. The study, done for SLICE, the Southwestern Library Cooperative Endeavor, was also the basis of an article in Library Trends. A governance study using local talent was the original basis of what is now AMIGOS. Lee Crandell of The Association for Graduate Education and Research (TAGER) as a special assignment did a network cost modeling and configuration study, and also assisted with the OCLC contract negotiations and the development of institutional agreements to establish the network.

Administration and Management

This area, so active in general business consulting, appears not to have had much formal consulting work. Perhaps this is because networks are new and administrative routines are still being evolved; perhaps it is because network boards and councils can provide a collective expertise that negates the need for outside consulting. The Markison study for INCOLSA, cited earlier, made general recommendations on network administration and management. OCLC engaged Arthur D. Little, Inc. to develop a management plan for project development—an effort which has been suspended due to lack of funding, but which OCLC would like to renew at a later date.

Personnel

Although the ability to attract and retain qualified staff is a problem of immediate concern to all networks, no overall consulting efforts related to this area were found. However, OCLC has used a consultant specializing in personnel-related benefits packages.

Financing, Budgeting and Accounting

Networks are largely funded by transfer of money from member
libraries to the central office for cooperative purposes. As a result, financial affairs of networks differ significantly from standard library budgeting and accounting. Involved are accountability for the use of funds, maintenance of up to several hundred different library accounts (in some cases), the problem of equitability, the member's interest in cost-effective and viable services, and the desire for information to support cooperative establishment of fees for current services and support of new programs.

Accounting assistance was provided to the INCOLSA network in an informal arrangement, whereby a staff member from the Indiana State Board of Accounts worked with INCOLSA staff to develop a chart of accounts and a system to control all accounts and projects which would meet state auditing regulations. Similarly, the staff of the Washington State Data Processing Authority have identified and are reviewing two automated general ledger systems to be used for financial and accounting information for the Washington Library Network.\textsuperscript{15} OCLC has hired a consultant to evaluate the potential of a financial and budget costing system.

Member libraries frequently make in-house cost/benefit studies to determine whether to join a network. Network staff are often available to help as consultants, and many times formal consulting assistance is used. Westat, Inc. was engaged to perform a cost and time study of selected AMIGOS (then Interuniversity Council) members using the OCLC system for cataloging.\textsuperscript{16}

\textbf{Marketing}

Growth of networks depends upon successful and continuing marketing. Despite this, no formal use of consultants to evaluate and recommend network marketing techniques was discovered.

\textbf{Procurement}

Whether a network is nonprofit, or is in the public sector with more rigid procurement regulations, the procurement process can be complex at best. Complexity increases as the number of agencies involved in the process increases. Consultants can be used at any step, from preparation of specifications and Requests for Proposals (RFPs), to bid evaluation, acceptance testing, and final evaluation. Consultants have been used frequently in procurement of circulation systems. Bruce Alper was a consultant for the Washington Library Network system for on-line minicomputer procurement, and James Kennedy of AMIGOS has served as a consultant to the State Library of North Carolina in assisting
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with bid evaluation for a statewide procurement of circulation systems for public libraries.

Recently, the Mitre Corporation has been retained by OCLC to assist in the procurement of its new terminal, the OCLC 200. Services provided by Mitre include assistance in preparing detailed specifications and the RFP, bid evaluation, design review, and prototype acceptance testing.

Public Relations

An important aspect of networking is effective communication with members and related agencies. No formal study of network public relations was discovered. An example of informal activity in this area is the Council for Computerized Library Networks' use of a graphic design consultant to advise the council on an integrated plan for its printed products, including logo, letterheads, newsletters, flyers, etc.

Data Processing and Telecommunications

The technical orientation of networks and the increasing complexity of that technology frequently require use of specialists to supplement in-house staff expertise. State-of-the-art assessments, system planning, hardware and software design, technical audits, system interfacing, and hardware and software procurement are some of the tasks for which consultants are sought.

Consulting in this area does not generally lend itself to formally published documents. There are exceptions, of course, and a common instance is the state-of-the-art report. A recent example is the report Introduction to Minicomputers in Federal Libraries prepared by a team of Informatics, Inc. consultants for the Federal Library Committee, which covers general aspects of automation, the role of computers (including network applications), hardware and software characteristics of minicomputers, and recommended equipment selection and procurement practices.

The National Library of Medicine used a number of consultants in developing its automated in-house and network services. For example, the System Development Corporation was engaged to help with the design and implementation of its on-line system. BALLOTS, OCLC, and WLN have all used consultants for technical evaluations and review, e.g., Arthur D. Little's technical audit of the OCLC system. The Library of Congress and other national information programs have also used consultants for various network-related studies.

The SUNY network has used consultants for several technical
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tasks. Hank Epstein is assessing the feasibility of developing an interface between the SUNY/OCLC interlibrary loan system and New York's computer-based NYSILL network. Don Franz, a software consultant, developed the software design for SUNY's system for processing the OCLC-MARC tapes generated by its members as a by-product of on-line cataloging. The NYSILL system itself was the subject of a number of consultant studies as New York State Library pursued its development. Consulting firms such as Nelson Associates analyzed and evaluated various aspects of resource-sharing in New York.

The potential linkage of various networks, and in particular, the RLIN, WLN, OCLC and LC systems, has for some time been a major concern of LC's Network Development Office program. This work is being carried forward by CLR which has hired consultant Davis McCarn (formerly with NLM) to study the economics, services, and potential products of an inter-network communication (message) system and to identify the questions to be resolved. McCarn is to develop an RFP for a subsequent detailed investigation of inter-network linkage.

A matter of continuing interest for networks is the feasibility of replicating systems or parts of systems that are operating for other networks, vendors, or federal agencies. The consultant firm Software A.G., of Darmstadt, Germany, has been engaged to assist in transferring the Washington Library Network system to the National Library of Australia where it will operate on the latter's IBM 370/148.Recently, Ralph Shoffner of Ringold Associates completed a study for the New Mexico State Library in which he recommends replication of the WLN system to form the base of a statewide resource-sharing network.

Network Services

The most common network services are shown in the above list. As new services are added and as we increase the sophistication of computer support for existing services, more perplexing problems are revealed. All potential sources of consulting help have been directed toward solutions to these problems. Only a few examples can be cited here of this increasingly active area of network consulting.

Almost every network provides some consulting support for members to promote effective use of network services. For example, AMIGOS staff are available to members for consulting on evaluation of technical services and improved utilization of OCLC. A consultant fee is paid to AMIGOS by the member library client.

OCLC has used Michael Gorman of the University of Illinois as a consultant to explore various ramifications that result from adoption of
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AACR 2. The SUNY network uses a consultant to advise it on matters related to AACR 2 and the MARC formats. The advent of AACR 2 has stimulated interest in solutions to the authority problem in the network environment. The Library of Congress engaged Edwin J. Buchinski as a consultant to identify the requirements for authority control in a national data base.19

Serials control and union lists of serials are major network services and, unfortunately, often create major problems. The INCOLSA network engaged Elaine Woods to help it determine how best to upgrade the old Indiana Union List of Serials, an effort which eventually led to the present Indiana University/OCLC development of an on-line union list of serials as part of OCLC's services. Elaine Woods also served as a consultant to Indiana University to develop the system specifications and to establish in-house procedures for conversion of its serials file into the OCLC data base as a basis for the union list system.

Bibliographic access, bibliographic products (such as COM catalogs) and interlibrary loan are closely related efforts and will be treated jointly. A recent report, Bibliographic Access in Pennsylvania, has been prepared by Strasser for the Pennsylvania State Library.20 The report analyzes various bibliographic access tools, access dependency patterns, and the existing ILL structure in terms of present and emerging network services, and makes specific recommendations for improvement of access.

Martha Williams was chief consultant for a study funded by the Illinois State Library to explore the feasibility of creating a union catalog capability from disparate data bases using tapes from MARC, Northwestern University, University of Chicago, and OCLC.

Document delivery is frequently a network service or a service operated by a separate agency which is available to network members. Recently two state agencies have engaged consulting firms to make recommendations on statewide document delivery. The engineering firm Deleuw Cather is performing a design study for the Illinois State Library of a statewide document delivery system. Battelle Institute has recently completed an evaluation of document delivery in Pennsylvania for the Pennsylvania State Library.21

In addition to consulting efforts related to circulation systems procurement, circulation in the network environment presents many challenges. Network library members seek advice on the future linkage of local circulation systems into area or state networks, and networks are concerned with the feasibility of circulation as a network service. James Kennedy of AMIGOS is performing a consulting study for the Texas
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State Library to explore system design specifications for linking five on-line minicomputer circulation systems—represented by three different vendors—now operating in that state.

Building and Space Utilization

Although this is a well-established area for general consulting, building consulting efforts specifically directed to networks are just beginning to emerge. Areas of concern are planning for future data processing equipment and linkages to network centers. Networks housing large-scale computer systems do make use of special consultants. For example, OCLC has used a data processing security consultant to perform security audits and to identify security factors to be incorporated into the design of OCLC's new building, for which ground was broken in June 1979.

Research and Development

Extensive research and development efforts have been undertaken by RLIN, WLN, OCLC, LC, and other networks and agencies to solve some of the technical and bibliographic questions of networking. Many of these projects rely on consultants. An interesting example of the use of library school faculty as a source of network consultants is the research project done by Ed O'Neil of SUNY-Buffalo Library School for OCLC. O'Neil is studying the problems of subject access to data bases, and has recommended criteria for access when the data base is between 5 and 10 million records. Two reports will be issued.

International Networking

Several consultants have engaged in studies addressed to network development in foreign countries or to extending U.S. networks abroad. The example of the extension of the WLN system to Australia was mentioned earlier. Barbara Evans Markuson, Janice Alexander, and Harold Baker (associated with the INCOLSA network) did a network planning study for the University of West Indies, and Markuson did an informal evaluation of network efforts underway at the Bureau of Libraries, Museums and Archaeological Services of the Virgin Islands. Lou Weatherbee and James Kennedy of AMIGOS did a technical plan for a centralized cataloging and processing center for the University of Costa Rica. This team also surveyed university libraries in Colombia to determine the feasibility of centralized cataloging, and Weatherbee accompanied library delegates from Colombia on a six-week tour of U.S. and Canadian installations to develop this plan further. OCLC has
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engaged a British consultant to explore international networking with a principal emphasis on telecommunication factors.

Issues in Network Consulting

By its very nature, consulting is associated with risk. Consultants are called in to solve problems. Problems can be solved correctly or incorrectly, and, moreover, there is the added risk that one isn’t dealing with the real problem at all. To these general risks are added some particular difficulties inherent in network-related consulting.

The Criteria for Success

Consultants in the profit-making sector may deal with extraordinarily complex problems, but there is little doubt about the measure of success. Success is rather simply evaluated by the extent to which decisions based on the consultant’s recommendations tend to increase the company’s profit performance. Public agencies have yet to find a similar yardstick for success, and resort to substitutes which are subjective and open to question.

Clearly, consultant recommendations that lead to a 50 percent reduction in the cost of interlibrary loan processing would be successful. However, if the resulting cost per transaction is $5.00, we still lack a market measure to tell us whether the service is “worth” that much. Part of the problem is the lack of comparative data on a national scale.

The lack of a success measure is exacerbated in network consulting. Essentially, we agree that a library must have a catalog at a reasonable cost, but what is a network data base worth and what is a reasonable cost? Although most network services espouse the goal of a reduced per-unit cost through cooperation, planning network services is difficult when the members themselves do not know what their costs are. Thus, the more vigorous cost performance test of business consulting is replaced by a subjective assessment either that more benefits result for about the same cost, or that the system is beneficial because it meets some social or bibliographic need. For example, the arguments of the costs/benefits of a National Periodicals Center assume local costs/benefits for libraries due to a guaranteed supply source, as well as the larger social value of preservation of a segment of serial literature as a national cultural resource.

Who is the “Real” Client?

The business consulting firm generally assumes that it will be held...
accountable if implementation of its recommendations adversely affects the client. This implied accountability encourages thorough fact-finding and analyses prior to recommending solutions. Network consultants are not often held to such accountability because it is not clear who the "real" client is.

A consultant doing a think piece on national information problems or solutions does not generally have to worry about whether his recommendations will fail, since it is unlikely that they will be carried out at all. If the consultant recommends that "Agency X should take the leadership in national library network development," unless he recommends very specific steps projected to result in Agency X's actually becoming a leader, the recommendation is meaningless and both client and consultant should know it. If the consultant recommends that "Agency X should seek to develop a viable plan for providing information services to all citizens of the state," it will be hard to hold client or consultant responsible, and it is obvious that the consultant really is not recommending anything at all.

If a private foundation hires a consultant to develop an implementation plan for a national union list of serials system, it is clear to all that the foundation is not an action-oriented client needing a solution to a deeply perplexing internal management problem. Neither the foundation nor the consultant will be accountable, and this looseness must affect many studies as the normal accountability for recommendations is diminished. The prevalent use of consultants by clients who are not potential implementers may foster an illusion that tough problems have been rigorously analyzed by an objective consultant when, in fact, the findings may be another addition to an already considerable corpus of network curiosa.

Managing the Consulting Activity

Effective use of consultants requires management that is able to define problems precisely and to get them answered rationally. Consultants are not miracle workers: good consulting can help good network management, but good consulting cannot rescue poor network management.

Many experts believe that minimal use should be made of outside consultants. Following the folk wisdom that a consultant is a person who borrows your watch to tell you the time, they argue that if management must know enough to define the problem, supervise the work and evaluate the recommendations and, furthermore, if the regular staff must be able to carry out the recommendations, then there is probably
sufficient in-house expertise to do the whole job. These experts recommend use of consultants as a last resort, after all in-house efforts at tackling the problem have failed.

Others take a more charitable view of the benefits of consulting. Consultants can be used when there are severe internal management problems, when staff is too pressured to take on more work, when an independent outside review is needed, when highly specialized expertise is required for a short duration, and, finally, when an outside group is needed to tackle an issue too controversial to assign to permanent staff. One can envision network conditions that fit all of these instances.

Despite these diverse opinions, there is unanimity that effective use of consultants requires a well-defined work statement, an agreement on deliverable products (reports, computer programs, data analyses, forms, etc.), review points, schedule and fees, and the requisite staff for monitoring the effort. Ideally, consultants will be selected because their formal training, work experience, and prior consulting match the job at hand. Fuchs has pointed out that when consultants are engaged for assignments outside their basic area of competence, they are forced to rely not on knowledge, but on common sense and methodology (the bag of tricks), with perhaps only marginal results.22

Networks are affected by all of the above issues. Frequently, network staffs are small and overworked, face complex problems, have inadequate research and development budgets and, frequently, governing boards that are not technically oriented. Further, the body of skilled library network consultants available to cover the range of specialized tasks indicated in the above list is virtually nonexistent in comparison to general management consulting. Frequently, regulations may require use of low bidders. A poorly prepared work statement, an overview committee that itself barely understands the problem, or an inappropriate consultant is certainly going to result in a product that no amount of postconsulting effort can make good. Because of the limited availability of funding for network studies, it is beneficial to all if each effort is managed with competency.

An interesting view is expressed in a brief article in Purchasing which argues that consulting performance will improve if everyone involved treats the effort as a bona fide agency purchase with all the rigor that any major purchase involves.23 They recommend that the scope of the project, the benefits which the client expects from this purchase, the tangible products, and the costs be clearly understood. This simple concept, if followed, should result in more consultant reports that are circulated and not filed away. Besides, it isn’t so easy to
file away network reports; too many are aware of the effort. Foreknowledge of wide dissemination, coupled with sound purchasing efforts from the cooperative dollar, will obviously not be sufficient to guarantee good results, but will probably lead to more rigorous planning and more strenuous efforts to stave off complete disaster.

Evaluating the Consulting Effort

Assuming that the satisfied client does not want to have just a rubber-stamp consulting effort, a good work effort should include solutions to the problems defined in the work statement (to the extent possible), rigor of analysis, creativity, and clarity in presenting recommendations. We often want to evaluate the efforts done for other clients. Evaluation is difficult if key evaluation criteria are missing. What did the work statement call for? What resources were provided? What was the total cost, or, failing this, what manpower was expended? What data were made available and what constraints existed? Were certain conditions or assumptions given to the consultant? What time was allotted? Is the report released as the consultant submitted it, or has the client made significant alteration, and if so, where?

The general failure to provide this information in the final report is deplorable and especially so when public money is involved. These data would help networking by adding to the substantive body of information that can be evaluated and upon which subsequent efforts can build.

As networks increase activity, as state and federal agencies step up network support, and as the post-White House conference era begins, we will probably see increased use of consultants. The consultancy will continue to play a role in shaping our perception of networking and in expanding network services. Therefore, we must demand better data for judging consultant performance. We need to hold networks and agencies accountable for the caliber of network consulting efforts they sponsor. We should press for more review and evaluation of the consultant literature in the professional press. These actions should improve the quality of network consulting efforts for the benefit of clients, consultants, and network constituents.24

References

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4. Ibid., p. 195.

5. Fuchs, op. cit., pp. 149-206.


22. Fuchs, op. cit., p. 15.


24. I want to thank my colleagues in the Council for Computerized Library Networks who shared information with me, especially about unpublished works in progress.
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Consulting for Large Geographic Areas

ROBERT B. DOWNS

Under the inspiration of such factors as the Library Services and Construction Act, increasing state aid for public and school libraries, various types of cooperative programs, federal legislation affecting libraries, and new trends in library architecture, library surveys have proliferated. The library surveyor is being called upon to advise and consult on building plans, development of collections, personnel problems, administrative organization, schemes for library cooperation, and applications of automation and mechanization to libraries.

Library surveys and consulting assignments are most commonly concerned with detailed studies of individual libraries related to specific local needs or problems. Examples are numerous. The present study, however, deals with more broadly based investigations, such as groups of libraries in a state, city, region, or nation. The primary focus will be on library resources, i.e., collections or holdings, and closely allied matters.

Published surveys of library resources vary widely in thoroughness, amount of detail, care in planning, form and arrangement of data, background of the surveyors, and other aspects. Because some have been sketchy, incomplete, and not well organized for use, doubts have been expressed about their value. Among the purposes that resource surveys are designed to serve are to aid the research worker in locating materials which might otherwise be overlooked or found with difficulty; to provide leads for interlibrary loan inquiries; and to furnish a basis for

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cooperative planning, such as divisions of fields of collecting and agreements for specialization.

The first comprehensive survey of the resources of a large region was undertaken under the sponsorship of the ALA Committee on Resources of Southern Libraries and published by the American Library Association in 1938 under the title *Resources of Southern Libraries: A Survey of Facilities for Research*.* The committee was created in 1934 to coordinate and increase facilities available for advanced study in the region. Every proposal for carrying out the stated objectives, however, was handicapped by lack of information on library holdings. No intelligent division of collecting interests, development of union catalogs, or other cooperative enterprise could proceed without an adequate basis of fact on which to build. A systematic investigation of holdings in all relevant types of institutions appeared to be the logical requirement.

To eliminate individual differences, so far as practicable, and to insure a fairly uniform final result, since a team of some twenty persons was recruited to assist in the project, a guide was developed to be followed by the surveyors. Types of material to be examined and data to be obtained in each field were outlined. In general, correspondence, questionnaires, and similar long-distance methods were ruled out. Instead, investigators visited and made firsthand studies of libraries. On numerous occasions subject specialists were consulted for expert advice. Important individual titles were listed for illustrative purposes, but the chief aim was to prepare condensed descriptions of entire collections according to form or subject.

The specific objectives of the southern libraries survey were these: to provide a basis for interlibrary loans; to assist scholars and advanced students to find the best collections in their fields; to give a basis for planning, as in agreements to divide acquisition activities; to aid national and regional union catalogs; to locate and describe little-known collections of value for research; to discover particular weaknesses in libraries of the South; and to stimulate the development of research collections. Thirteen states, from Virginia to Texas, were included, and the gathering of data for each state was done by one or more librarians familiar with conditions and usually residing in the state.

Two supplementary reports were issued later dealing with southern libraries: *Opportunities for Library Cooperation and Coordination in the Richmond Area: Report of a Survey, with Recommendations (1947);* and Richard Harwell’s *Research Resources in the Georgia-
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Florida Libraries of SIRF: Emory University, Florida State University, Georgia Institute of Technology, the University of Florida, the University of Georgia, the University of Miami, published by the Southern Regional Education Board (1955).3

Four years after the southern libraries survey, a comparable investigation was undertaken for a much smaller geographic area, but one far richer in library resources. Sponsored by the ALA Board on Resources of American Libraries, another publication was issued by the American Library Association in 1942: Resources of New York City Libraries: A Survey of Facilities for Advanced Study and Research.4 The procedure followed was substantially the same as for the study of southern libraries. By limiting the task to the five boroughs of New York City, it was practicable to see all the collections at first hand. The holdings of nearly 400 libraries were described. There was an immense variety in the types of institutions, ranging from great general collections, comprehensive of all subjects, to highly specialized libraries limited to a small segment of a research field. At the time of the survey, New York City’s libraries possessed about 16.5 million volumes, larger by several millions than any other city in the country (Washington, D.C., has since moved into first place). The richness of these collections was of a comparable nature. One of the aims of the New York survey, in addition to those mentioned for the South, was to relieve the burden on the largest libraries by spreading library use among a considerable number of institutions. The published guide revealed not only to New Yorkers but to scholars everywhere something of the wealth of opportunities for library research in the nation’s largest city.

At approximately the same time as the New York City survey, John Van Male, Director of the Pacific Northwest Bibliographic Center, was undertaking a project quite similar in plan to the southern study. This resulted in publication of Resources of Pacific Northwest Libraries: A Survey of Facilities for Study and Research (1943).5 The holdings of libraries in British Columbia, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington were investigated. The principal libraries were visited. The surveyor’s findings were described under several major categories: general works, humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and technology.

In 1937, Harry Miller Lydenberg, Director of the New York Public Library, proposed publication of an annual report on distinctive collections acquired by libraries in the United States. Such an enterprise was inaugurated by the ALA Board on Resources of American Libraries, and continued for an 11-year period in a series of articles appearing in The Library Quarterly under the title "Notable Materials Added to Ameri-
can Libraries, 1938-49." The information compiled was classified by broad subjects with no attempt to keep information for an individual library or for a region together. Inquiries were sent to about 150 institutions, chiefly university, reference, and large public libraries.

During the 1930s, in the midst of the Great Depression, there was a large-scale movement to establish local, state, and regional union catalogs, as well as to build up the National Union Catalog in the Library of Congress, because of the sudden availability of a mass of free labor from federal government relief agencies. The result was the creation within the span of a decade of a variety of city, county, state, regional, exchange, and subject union catalogs, widely distributed over the nation. Out of the numerous problems which inevitably arose from this rapid growth came the need for a comprehensive study of the current state of the art, techniques, policies, the nature of existing catalogs, and plans for the future. Out of discussions in the Joint Committee on Materials for Research of the American Council of Learned Societies and the Social Science Research Council came a proposal for a national survey of union catalogs. In cooperation with the ALA Board on Resources of American Libraries, a successful application was submitted to the Carnegie Corporation for financial support for the investigation. To demonstrate the potential value and importance of a union catalog study, the following considerations were outlined:

1. experience had shown that through the use of microcopying methods and relief labor, it was possible to construct union catalogs;
2. ideally, it should be possible for a scholar to learn quickly whether a given book is available in the United States;
3. many books not recorded in the National Union Catalog, primarily based on the holdings of large libraries, are available in smaller libraries;
4. the relative value of regional catalogs as against one all-inclusive national catalog should be weighed;
5. by sampling and statistical procedures, it should be possible to estimate the probable total number of titles in the country; and
6. a further investigation should reveal total American library resources as compared with total world library resources.

In brief, the survey would be concerned essentially with inspecting by statistical and sampling methods the contents of union catalogs in order to determine how rapidly new findings of titles diminish as union catalogs multiply, and to discover the distribution of titles among...
libraries, the percentage of the world's literature available somewhere in the United States, the effect of union catalogs on the selection of books in libraries, the uses of union catalogs, and the best form for a union catalog. The foregoing were the principal phases selected for study by the surveyors.

A decision was made to divide the investigation among four individuals working under the direction of the chairman of the Board on Resources. The persons selected were George A. Schwegmann, Jr., Director of the Library of Congress Union Catalog; Arthur B. Berthold, Associate Director of the Philadelphia Union Catalogue; John Paul Stone, Librarian of the California State College at San Diego; and LeRoy C. Merritt. Among them, these four investigators visited and inspected nearly every union catalog, large or small, in the United States. Schwegmann's contribution considered the National Union Catalog's historical background, its composition, administration, methods of compilation, various uses, and the outlook for its future expansion. Merritt studied the extent of duplication among libraries, holdings of foreign books, the probable number of book titles in the United States and in the world, problems of regionalism as they relate to libraries and union catalogs, and problems of union catalog compilation and maintenance costs. Stone's assignment was to study the actual and potential uses of union catalogs. Berthold added two sections: a manual of union catalog administration, and a directory recording every union catalog of any type in the United States about which information could be obtained—a total of ninety-two. These several studies were brought together, edited, and published by the American Library Association, in 1942, under the title *Union Catalogs in the United States*.

In 1949, at the invitation of the Librarian of Congress, the present writer was invited to serve as Acting Chief of the Union Catalog Division to review the problems and to make recommendations concerning the future development of the union catalog. A "Report and Supplementary Report on the National Union Catalog and Related Matters" was issued. In the thirty years since the report was submitted, some of the principal recommendations have been effected: selected libraries are now reporting their acquisitions regularly to the National Union Catalog, and their holdings are included in the published *National Union Catalog*; a separate subject catalog began in 1950; the *National Union Catalog, Pre-1956 Imprints* in published form is near completion in more than 600 volumes; and a *Union Catalog of Manuscript Collections* has been published periodically since 1959.
Inspiration for a continuing national project relating to library resources came from a work published in 1930: Constance M. Winchell's *Locating Books for Interlibrary Loan; With a Bibliography of Printed Aids Which Show Location of Books in American Libraries*, a subject list of bibliographies which locate copies. This work had been found useful by reference librarians, but a more complete record was needed. Consequently, the ALA Board on Resources of American Libraries came to the rescue with publication of *American Library Resources; A Bibliographical Guide* (1951), listing 5578 handbooks, checklists, bibliographies, calendars, surveys, union lists, union catalogs, and similar guides to American library resources. A first supplement, for 1950-61, added 2818 items; the second supplement, 1961-70, listed 3421 titles; and a third supplement for 1971-80, is in process. The three published volumes are arranged by broad categories of the Dewey Decimal Classification system and include detailed indexes of authors, compilers, editors, libraries and other organizations, subjects, types of material, and occasional titles. The data for these several volumes were compiled from information supplied by libraries throughout the country and from a search of published sources.

The pattern adopted for the American list was followed in preparing *British Library Resources: A Bibliographical Guide* (1973), which recorded 5039 items that describe library holdings in England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland. There was a slight variation in arrangement of the latter work: individual bibliography, biography, and criticism were separated and placed at the end under personal names. The mass of material listed in the British guide was obtained chiefly by visits to the British Museum, the National Libraries, university and college libraries, large public libraries, and society, association, and government department libraries throughout the British Isles.

A different approach was used in national surveys of libraries in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, over a period of about eighteen years.

A document which had great influence on administrators, faculty members and librarians in Canada was Edwin E. Williams's *Resources of Canadian University Libraries for Research in the Humanities and Social Sciences: Report of a Survey for the National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges* (1962). A principal division of the report is devoted to "Research Collections" in the humanities and social sciences, consisting of a comparative summary of the holdings for research purposes of fourteen college and university libraries. The basis was a test list of periodicals in twenty-four fields and of monographic
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material in thirty-four areas.

A few years later, the Canadian Association of College and University Libraries and the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada agreed that a comprehensive national investigation was needed. Financial support was obtained for the project from the Canada Council and the Council on Library Resources. A survey staff of three Canadian librarians, with special assistance from others, undertook the main task of collecting the necessary data. In carrying out its assignment, the staff visited every university library in Canada, as well as many college, public, government, and special libraries. The final report, Resources of Canadian Academic and Research Libraries, appeared in 1967 in both English and French.13

The Canadian survey is broadly inclusive of every phase of library operations. Following descriptions in profile form of the universities and colleges of Canada are separate chapters on administrative organization, technical services, readers' services and use, physical facilities, personnel, faculty and student views on library service, library automation and mechanization, financial support, resources for study and research, standards for book collections, and a listing of some specialized collections in Canadian libraries. An appendix contains "Bibliographical References to Canadian Library Resources." A pair of coauthors reviewing the report as a whole stated: "Given this assessment as a basis on which to build and with the recommendations throughout the report, the Canadian university library community is fully supplied with the information needed to increase, substantially, its strength and usefulness."14

While Williams was in Canada exploring the strength of university libraries in the humanistic and social science fields, another American librarian, Maurice F. Tauber, was traveling in Australia upon the invitation of the Australian Advisory Council on Bibliographical Services (AACOBS), for an even more ambitious investigation. The stated objectives for which Tauber was brought to Australia under a Fulbright grant were as follows: to describe and evaluate the major collections in the country; to make known the strength of general libraries in special subjects; to discover unsuspected or little-known collections of real importance; to reveal weaknesses which may be important to individual research workers or to the national interest; to acquaint scholars and other research workers, including those from overseas, with the collections likely to be most useful to them; to assist in spreading library use, with possible relief to some large libraries; to assist universities, governments and other bodies in planning, teaching and research programs; to
stimulate the strengthening of library resources generally; to provide a sound basis for cooperation between libraries in policies and programs for the sharing of resources; to facilitate interlibrary lending; to supplement a national union catalog; and to assist in the compilation of bibliographies.

The Tauber report, prepared after a stay of six months in Australia and visits to more than 160 libraries in all the Australian states and the Australian Capital Territory, was never published in full. The complete report, in three volumes, was given very limited distribution in typescript form. A summary, forty-two pages in length, was prepared by Tauber and published in 1963 by the sponsoring organization, AACOBS, under the title Resources of Australian Libraries: Summary Report of a Survey Conducted in 1961 for the Australian Advisory Council on Bibliographical Services. The Tauber survey was done immediately prior to the Australian libraries' taking off on their greatest period of growth and development. Its statistics are outdated, but many of its findings are still relevant.

A follow-up survey, with the addition of New Zealand, was undertaken in 1978 by Robert B. Downs. The procedure followed in this instance was to visit all except a few of the newest university libraries in both countries, plus national, state, large public, and a limited number of special libraries. The published report, Australian and New Zealand Library Resources, is divided into three principal sections: descriptions of collections relating to specific subjects or types of material (112 headings), collections relating to individuals, and a bibliography of 566 items listing further sources of information. There is also a detailed index. The study, done under a grant from the Council on Library Resources, was devoted entirely to an evaluation of library holdings, disregarding such matters as administration, organization, finances, personnel, and physical facilities.

Less ambitious in geographical scope have been a number of library surveys of single states. In 1964, under the auspices of the North Carolina Governor's Commission on Library Resources, a comprehensive investigation was undertaken of all types of libraries in North Carolina. The commission's report, Resources of North Carolina Libraries, was issued in 1965. Detailed data were assembled by librarians representing the principal groups of libraries in the state: public, school, junior college, senior college, university and special. There was a chapter also on library education. The commission itself, consisting of thirty-nine members representing all areas of the state, took responsibility for conducting a public opinion poll in which a cross section of
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citizens expressed their views on the existing state of public library service and offered suggestions for improvement. Another group of citizens, faculty members representing all the senior colleges in the state, cooperated in supplying critical analyses of the adequacy of library service in their institutions.

The governor's commission was guided by the belief that a review of North Carolina's library resources should take into account the needs of the entire population, for every age level and at every stage of educational attainment. It recognized that all libraries, regardless of type, should be seen as a whole and fitted into a common pattern. The published report begins with a study of the people of the state—rural and urban, white and black, rate of increase, migration in and out, age distribution, economic status, and educational status. There follow separate chapters on the state's official library agencies; public libraries; the major universities (Duke and University of North Carolina); senior colleges; community colleges, junior colleges, technical institutes, and industrial education centers; school libraries; and special libraries. Appendices describe special collections, archives and manuscript collections, standards for libraries, library education, and the status of cooperative undertakings.

A year after the North Carolina survey report appeared, a similar document, Resources of Missouri Libraries, was published by the Missouri State Library. The original inspiration for the project came from the Missouri Association of College and Research Libraries, a division of the Missouri Library Association. A team of ten public, college, and university librarians was appointed to gather data required for the investigation. Among them, they visited personally all the approximately 125 university, college, state, research, public, and special libraries selected for inclusion, in order to make firsthand observations and to verify data submitted by individual institutions.

After a background review of Missouri's population, economic status, educational outlook, and other factors, the published report devotes seven chapters to the state's principal universities, senior colleges, junior colleges, public libraries, special libraries, library cooperation and interrelationships, and special collections in Missouri libraries. Appendices contain standard lists of periodicals and reference works, a list of standard guides for collection development, a statement of the functions of the state library commission, and a listing of the principal business centers in Missouri as related to library resources.

Quite different patterns from those followed in Missouri and North Carolina were adopted for two Illinois surveys. The first, under the
sponsorship of the Illinois Board of Higher Education, was undertaken for the board’s use in developing a master plan for higher education in Illinois. The board assigned to its Library Committee the task of examining in breadth and depth the college and university libraries in Illinois at all levels, public and nonpublic. A total of eighty-nine institutions were surveyed by the committee, including eight state-supported colleges and universities (on eleven campuses), thirty-two public junior colleges, six nonpublic universities, and forty-three nonpublic senior colleges, junior colleges, and independent professional schools. The Report of the Library Committee (1969)19 dealt with six principal areas: library education and manpower, physical facilities, book resources and collection development, library cooperation, library automation, and financial support. Ten statistical appendices presented data on such basic relationships as total library expenditures to total college expenditures for general education; total library expenditures to salaries and wages, books, periodicals and binding, and general expense; enrollment to number of volumes and current periodicals; number of seats to total student enrollment; area of shelving for books to total volumes in library; total net assignable square feet in library to area assigned to staff members; number of professional staff members to enrollment; percentage of professional library staff to total library staff; and student per capita expenditures. The report found that the resources of the group as a whole were extensive, but unevenly distributed, and that there were numerous problems of inadequate book collections, shortages of space and staff, and poor financial support.

A second Illinois survey, done for the Illinois State Library, was published in 1974 by the American Library Association under the title Guide to Illinois Library Resources.20 It grew out of a recommendation contained in the report of its Library Committee to the Illinois Board of Higher Education in 1969: “It is recommended that there be compiled and published a guide for library users to libraries and library resources in Illinois, describing special and notable collections, locations, regulations governing use, and such data as hours, photocopying facilities, and interlibrary loan practices.”21

It was determined at the outset that chief attention in the Illinois study should be concentrated on describing resources in every type of library that held collections of potential importance for students, scholars, and general research workers—general reference, college, university, public, and special. Further, there was no limitation as to subject fields or types of material covered. The published guide has three principal divisions: (1) descriptions of collections, alphabetically
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arranged, by subject areas and of types of materials; (2) descriptions of collections, also alphabetical, of biography, bibliography, and criticism relating to individuals; and (3) a bibliography of references to books, pamphlets, articles, and other items listing or describing library collections in Illinois. Four subject fields were surveyed by specialists: American literature, medical sciences, law and music. There was considerable reliance upon a detailed questionnaire for gathering information in other areas.

Looked at from a national point of view, a state-by-state inventory of library resources would vastly increase our knowledge of the country's libraries, including their problems and needs, and provide a solid foundation for moving ahead with a national plan for libraries.

Library surveys may often be designed for a special purpose. An example is a study prepared for the Kansas Higher Education Facilities Commission in 1965 and published under the title *Survey of Library Space Needs of Colleges and Universities in Kansas.* A survey team of twelve, made up principally of Kansas college and university librarians, paid personal visits to the various campuses to supplement information obtained from a questionnaire form, "Criteria for Determining Library Space Needs."

Another example of a specialized survey was sponsored by the Association of Research Libraries in 1969, and subsequently published by ARL: *University Library Statistics; Assembled for the Joint Committee on University Library Standards of the Association of Research Libraries and the Association of College and Research Libraries.* The report presents a wide variety of statistical data collected from some fifty of the principal American university libraries on finances, resources, personnel, space, etc.

Cooperative programs sometimes invite critical inspections from the outside. In 1956 the Arkansas Foundation of Associated Colleges applied for and received a grant from the Rockefeller Brothers Fund for financial support of a plan to enrich library resources through the purchase of materials in certain assigned fields. After a trial period of about two years, the cooperative program, in which seven private colleges in Arkansas were participating, was the subject of a comprehensive study undertaken in 1958 by A.F. Kuhlman and published under the title *The Libraries of the Arkansas Foundation of Associated Colleges; Being an Evaluation of Their Collections and the Effort to Improve Them on a Cooperative Basis, Including a Statement of the Most Urgent Needs for Improvement.* A few years later, a further assessment of the success of the program was made by Robert B. Downs, who visited all
seven campuses. His report was published by the Arkansas Foundation in 1963, under the title *Report on a Survey of the Libraries of the Arkansas Foundation of Associated Colleges.*25

A year later, a report affecting libraries in several adjacent states was published by the Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education, entitled *A Survey of Cooperating Libraries for the Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education.*26 The council had been chartered in 1962 as a nonprofit corporation devoted to cooperative programming in higher education for the greater Kansas City area. Early in its deliberations and planning, the council recognized that library development was a key element in any program for building strong educational institutions. Before proceeding with plans for library cooperation, growth, and improvement, the council obtained a grant from the Fund for the Advancement of Education for a study of existing conditions and future potentialities. Specifically, the consultant appointed was asked to do the following:

1. To survey present library holdings and policies in the [fourteen] institutions affiliated with the Council [located in Missouri and Kansas].
2. Develop general criteria for library holdings, acquisitions, discards, and policies for possible adoption by the schools.
3. Develop recommendations for cooperative action among the colleges participating.
4. Develop recommendations for cooperative action between the colleges participating in the study and library resources elsewhere in the area, such as in other institutions of higher education, Kansas City Public Library, and Linda Hall Science Library.
5. Develop recommendations concerning a central depository library at the Kansas City Public Library for area higher education.27

The council membership comprised representatives of a campus of the University of Missouri (formerly the University of Kansas City), two four-year Catholic men's colleges, a four-year Catholic women's college, a city-supported junior college, a specialized art institute offering a four-year bachelor's degree, a graduate theological seminary, and seven four-year, coeducational Protestant church-related colleges and universities. In addition, it was obvious that the resources of certain other institutions were of basic importance and would be drawn upon extensively by council members, e.g., the Kansas City Public Library, Linda Hall Science Library, Nelson Art Gallery in Kansas City, the Truman Library at Independence, Missouri, a number of specialized libraries in
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the area, and possibly the University of Kansas at Lawrence and the University of Missouri at Columbia.

Based on visits to the individual libraries, conferences with college administrative officers and librarians, and broad sampling of faculty opinion, the library survey report included a series of recommendations on collection development, centralized processing, cooperative storage, means of expediting bibliographical access and facilitating use, finances, and establishment of a regional library authority.

The most exhaustive study of the influence of library surveys was done by Ernest W. Erickson in his work *College and University Library Surveys, 1938-1952.* Erickson found that 60 percent of approximately 775 recommendations contained in 12 surveys had been carried out completely or in large part, and another 10 percent had been achieved to some extent. In only 15 percent of the cases were the surveys considered to have exerted no influence. Erickson concluded that in most cases following a survey, organization had been improved, budgets increased, technical processes made more efficient, readers’ services bettered, and other improvements made.

An article on “Library Surveys” by Stephen A. McCarthy and Murray L. Howder predicted that in the future general library surveys will give way to “more specific and limited studies of particular facets or problems of libraries...as libraries grow in size and complexity.” The authors apparently found no reason, however, to believe that the survey as one technique for improving libraries will cease to exist.

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Consulting in Collection Development

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It is unfortunate that the outside consultant is seldom called upon except when crises arise or when changes are required in a local situation. This is because consultation is seldom thought of as a part of the continuing process of management, although it should be considered as such in all planning operations.

This article is limited to the areas of consultation with which I am familiar, collection development and the weeding process. The basic considerations that determine successful consultation, however, are applicable to most fields of library management, and there are specialists, as we all know, to consult about library buildings, equipment and furnishing, personnel management, technical and public services, public relations, budgetary controls, outreach programs, etc.

Consultants should never be thought of as having knowledge superior to that of the staffs of the organizations they are asked to serve. What a good consultant brings to any project is wide experience with a number of similar problems in other institutions, realization of what has worked in some situations and not in others, and—presumably—a totally unhampered and objective point of view. A consultant cannot undertake an assignment with any prejudgment of what is right or wrong. Consultation must always involve a two-way exchange of ideas between the library’s administration and staff and the consultant. Obviously, the temporary consultant cannot initiate complete changes in organization or control of collections. He is limited to suggesting new or different approaches, reorganization, or the extension or retrac-

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tion of particular programs or procedures. These latter objectives can only be evaluated by studying the history, development and present state of the activities that affect the problem, suggesting alternatives that will answer the problems, talking with everyone concerned and discussing their recommendations, and afterward modifying proposals in the light of information gathered.

Is a Consultant Needed?

All kinds of libraries might benefit at one time or another from an objective study of their problems by an outside consultant with special expertise. My own sense of authority is acquired from a background of graduate study, and experience which has come from years of work with rare books, manuscripts and special collections in libraries, in the antiquarian market, and in publishing. There is a common denominator to several basic problems that arise in all kinds of libraries or in their separate departments, problems suitable for analysis by an outside consultant. Generally, self-examination reduces these to the questions: "Where do we go from here?" or, "Is this the best and most effective way to do this?"—and sometimes, of course, "How did we ever get into this condition?" Such questions often arise as a result of opinionated expressions or stalemated actions by contentious personalities, and the consultant may need to serve only as an arbiter. Following are some typical examples of situations I have found and which can, by extension, be related to various library problems.

Dealing with collection development, particularly in academic and research libraries, questions arise from examination of the purpose and collecting intentions of the institution's founders as expressed in a charter or terms of a gift. In such a case there may be a legal problem in trying to change from the original purpose, as in the recent transfer of the American Geographical Society collection from New York to Wisconsin. Frequently, because of contending forces, the only objective review of such questions must be made by an outside observer. Through use of a consultant, the difficulties can be reduced to an evaluation of the present importance of original intent, of special interests inside the library, or outside among faculty, administration and students, all in the light of the legal alternatives.

The consultant must know the past and recent history of the library, study the personalities involved, examine the quality of the collections, and consider other factors that are known to have an effect, for example, budget, endowments, grants, or any restrictions that are incurred in funding.
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Similarly, in public libraries both large and smaller there is currently an evaluation of the overall community responsibilities of the library, its various departments, and all of its activities. Special libraries, too, have more and more pressure put upon them to justify their existence to their funding agencies, while at the same time specialist readers make increasing demands upon all of their services. The objective advice of the outside consultant can help in collection development situations and many others, particularly in the organization and composition of policy statements that can give substantive expression to the establishment, purposes, and objectives of a library, its departments, and its collections.

In discussions with the library staff and users of the collections (whether faculty, students, or general public) the consultant for collection development should be able to learn what is required of the library in terms of degree of collecting intensity, both in balance and depth, in all parts of the subject content. This is the point at which the specialized training of the consultant is brought to bear upon the problems of the intellectual worth of the collection. Then, when a clear picture becomes visible, the consultant and the staff together should write a policy statement.

Policy statements give guidance to administrators and to the directors of the organization the library serves. They are written as guidelines and should be stated in broad terms that are neither too restrictive nor too permissive. Their purpose is not exact delineation but to provide signposts toward the accomplishment of a miscellany of stated goals, whether these be for such variables as in-service training of staff or building on the strengths of the collection.

Other factors that may determine the need for a consultant can arise from dissatisfactions expressed by administrators, staff, faculty, or the library’s users—students or the public. Most often these groups urge some kind of demand for the improvement of inadequacies of resources or service; others may complain of or question financial deficiencies or budgetary inequities. In collection development there is also always the problem of acquisition of serials versus monographs; and there may also be occasions when weeding programs inspire charges of dissolution of the collections. These are a few typical examples of situations when a consultant may be useful.

The consultant can help establish sound policy in handling gift collections for collection development. While the library staff should be free to solicit gifts pertinent to the collection, no gift should ever be accepted with any strings attached (such as keeping the collection
together, not circulating the books, etc.) unless the restrictions can be modified as the library's needs shift in the future. Donors are generally pleased with the suggestion of gift or memorial bookplates, and the library should try to attain these as the limit of special conditions of handling.

Appraisals of gift collections are often needed, particularly for tax deductions of gifts to tax-exempt institutions. Appraisals should be made by qualified experts who are aware of current values in the antiquarian book market. Consultants with qualifications for development of collections can supply such appraisals. Librarians' evaluations of gifts to the value of $300 are generally acceptable, although acceptability varies with the Internal Revenue Service from $100 to $500 from time to time. The donor is generally expected to pay for an appraisal, the cost of which is a tax deduction for him in addition to that for the value of the gift, but most institutions do not hesitate to pay for the appraisal of an important gift if the donor resists an additional expense.

Returning to the main subject, consultants can be useful when problems arise in any factional disagreements affecting the library. They can also be helpful when the library wishes to embark upon a new project, program, or building, the details of which are not easily learned or the problems of which may not be immediately recognizable because of the staff's lack of experience. The consultant, in any of these situations, can serve as a dispassionate arbiter or an expert tutor when he is fully informed and has gained the confidence of the library he is called upon to help.

How to Obtain a Consultant

Perhaps the best way to find a consultant for any particular service is to inquire among colleagues. Those who spend a large part of their time in consultative and appraisal work find that most jobs come through the recommendations of persons for whom they have worked previously or from the reading of something they have written. Advertisements that some consultants use from time to time only serve to keep their names in mind, and they are pleased, of course, to send references to inquirers.

Librarians will be aware that there are now easily available directories of consultants, some more detailed than others, and a number of these are updated more or less frequently. In the library and museum fields, some professional associations and, indeed, federal, state or city offices keep lists of consultants and their specialties. A few professional
library associations are making greater effort these days to develop lists of qualified consultants.

Directories do not indicate fees charged by consultants, but my most recent inquiries (in winter 1979) show that one should not consider searching for the best-qualified experts for less than an average rate of $80 an hour for up to three hours; or, beyond three hours, $300 a day. Charges include site visits and time spent in writing reports. Such fees will undoubtedly increase, as inflationary trends already indicate. Clients are expected to pay for usual expenses such as transportation, lodging, food, and miscellaneous charges (tips, baggage checks, local taxis, etc.). It is a practice for consultants who must travel great distances (thereby killing a day's work time) to charge the travel day as a regular full work day, in both directions. Some adjustment of fees may be possible, especially if a long-term project is involved. I am aware, for example, of one very expert, long-experienced, thoroughly successful library consultant who charges over $500 a day but who is perfectly satisfied with special 4-day workweek projects at $1500 plus expenses. In any case, expect to pay fees similar to those noted or higher, and be glad you are not looking for financial, engineering, or business management consultants.

What to Do When the Consultant Comes

When negotiations for a consultant have been concluded, a letter of contract confirming the terms should be sent to the consultant. The institution should also send whatever the consultant may think is relevant before appearing on the scene. This will probably include a history of the library, annual reports for the past five years, and additional documentation to study regarding the problems for which consultation is needed.

I have commented on the importance of looking at the consulting experience as a two-way exchange of ideas and opinions. Above all, it is necessary that staff, administration, and faculty who may be concerned in any way in the problem under review know in advance that a consultant will be arriving. The consultant's assignment should be made clear, and everybody should know that they will have access to him to discuss relevant issues. Very nasty situations arise when careless library boards and librarians call in a consultant without advising the staff or faculty. This mistake is unnecessary and only hampers an advisor's access to facts, while it antagonizes staff toward the administration and the consultant.
The director of the library and the chairman of the library committee should be the immediate correspondents of the consultant, and it should be made clear to the consultant to whom the final report is to be addressed. It should be arranged that staff and other interested persons may have direct access to the consultant during the site visit without the approval of supervisors, except for time to be taken from assigned work, and the consultant's availability should be made clear to staff members. This is particularly important when there are elements of gripe or personal controversy.

The librarian should provide a quiet base where the visitor may work and interviews may be held comfortably. Depending upon the nature of the consultation, telephone, typewriter, or part-time clerical and secretarial service should be offered. For major, long-term studies it is advisable for the consultant to describe his purposes and procedures at a staff meeting soon after he has settled in, where he can answer questions that are troubling staff and at the same time invite staff participation.

A practice that I find effective in discussing projects with staff or faculty is to assure them that in matters with which they are concerned, I will review my recommendations with them, and they will have the opportunity to correct errors or misunderstandings on my part. Although I will not plan to alter my recommendations, I sometimes incorporate opposing statements in the report for equal consideration by the authorities if they seem sufficiently important expressions of opinion. In a study of the Toronto Public Library, for instance, the music librarian and I saw things entirely differently, so the report included her counterargument in its entirety.

In early talks with the librarian, the consultant clarifies his understanding of the purpose of his visit, attempts to learn of any anticipated problems with boards, staff, faculty, or students, and tries to discover exactly what the administration hopes will come from the study. The answers to these questions help the consultant to direct his inquiries and to evaluate the level at which his report should be written. As soon as possible, the consultant should direct his attention to the problems he has been asked to examine. When his preliminary conclusions are in suitable form he should review the report with everyone concerned, so far as is practicable, explaining (as mentioned above) his plan to incorporate ideas at variance with his own. The profession of consultantship is based upon subjective capabilities, experience, and trust or acceptance on the part of the client, which the good consultant can inspire. There are only commonplace rules: the
consultant must be knowledgeable in the fields in which he chooses to operate. He must be practical and realistic, and these elements of his training should be based on an underlying moral sense of objectivity and impartiality guided by the best theoretical concepts of his professional and personal ideals.

Some practical applications of the consulting process may be shown in a few examples drawn from my activities over the past quarter-century in collection development.

The question arises about "new libraries from scratch." Today these are most likely to be special libraries, since public and academic libraries across the nation are handicapped by financial strictures.

If an organization plans to establish a subject collection, a professional librarian with subject-related experience should be at hand to plan space, staffing, equipment, and materials. Setting up any special library is a waste of money if a budget is not guaranteed to support it for at least a three-year trial period, with a program set forth for five to ten years of growth (depending, of course, upon the anticipated growth of the parent organization). A written policy statement for the library should be agreed upon and followed for as long as it is useful, and always be subject to thoughtful change. If the consultant is a subject specialist in the area covered by the library, he should estimate the cost of materials—book stock, serial subscriptions, etc.—based upon the latest general market analyses, and projecting inflationary increases. He should prepare lists for acquisitions, probably similar to the holdings of other comparable libraries, and with the aid of specialized bibliographies. The specialist consultant should establish personnel guidelines for the selection of the staff and, according to the best qualifications of professional standards, make recommendations for likely candidates. Basic to the entire library development is an agreed-upon policy statement and the support that management gives it.

The core collection of any special library is likely to be similar to others in its field. Developing a collection's special subject emphases beyond this point is what will give a library its individuality and its particular service capabilities. The success of collection development from this time on will depend upon the imagination and capacities of the librarian or consultants, the support given to the library by both the administration and users, and sensitive interpretation of the policy statement and its evolutionary change over a period of time.

In facing problems of collection development, it is important to recognize the objectives of the program. Most collection development is meant to extend or redirect acquisition of current material, or to fill
gaps in an existing collection. Sometimes both current and retrospective literatures must be considered. Consultation with the librarian and his staff determines what is needed.

It is an expensive waste of time for the consultant to provide itemized lists of recommended additions. Usually, basic selection can be done from specialized bibliographies that the consultant will define for the library to check against holdings. This exercise is valuable for the staff as well as the collection. The consultant, as a subject specialist, will review the selected lists that have been checked in order to calculate the staff’s judgment and to make additional suggestions. In libraries overwhelmed with day-to-day staff assignments, the administration must provide for schedule adjustments that allow time for checking and compiling book lists.

A useful way to handle the compilation of desiderata lists is to divide the library’s classification scheme (Dewey groups or LC alphabetical divisions) among the relevant departments of the library (or in smaller libraries, among a few staff) to cover a part of the classification for review by the consultant on each successive visit. For each division of the classification, I counsel librarians to find no fewer than five bibliographies for each subject field. If more finely divided specialized bibliographies are found within the subject field, they should be considered in addition to the basic five, and not as alternates.

The bibliographies should be studied and their limitations known. They should be checked against holdings, and titles not in the collection should be discussed with the subject staff and divided into primary and secondary desiderata. It is important for everyone to review the lists as though cost is of no consideration and money will come from a bottomless well, since at this point only the quality of the desiderata is being measured.

The two desiderata lists should be reviewed by the consultant who will suggest additions and adjustments. The primary desiderata will be objects of first purchase, and here the factor of cost will determine whether or not purchase is possible, although they will remain targets for gifts. Desiderata lists should be kept current by continual additions and revisions if quality is to remain the factor for collection additions.

Building a viable collection of quality is one aspect of collection development, but it is equally important for useless or irrelevant books to be weeded from collections of any size. Every library’s ideas about weeding policies, storage programs, or sale of materials no longer pertinent vary. Here, indeed, is the place for an experienced consultant. Every library’s statement of purposes and intentions with regard to these
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subjects is fraught with the likelihood of internal dissension, external criticism, and public antagonism. Only personal battles between the librarian and department heads concerning weeding ever seem to create animosities of such bitter intensity. And yet amicable and practical solutions are possible. It is seldom difficult to persuade opponents of the benefits of weeding—whether for storage or sale—when they can be assured of the accessibility of the same materials, the value of space saved, the ease of use of shelf collections relieved of never- or seldom-used books, and even of the gold that can be transmuted from books that for this library are but dross.

The consultant who is asked to weed any collection, large or small, must be what is called a “bookman.” Such a person applies to the task a test of the usefulness of each book in a particular library. For example, during the past nine years (with at least three more to go), I have spent about ten weeks a year—one week a month—weeding the collections of the American Museum of Natural History. The objective is to sort out from the general collection a History of Natural History Rare Book & Manuscript Collection, which is by now an outstanding resource, and at the same time to rid the general collections of duplicate and out-of-scope books. My knowledge of the literature of some areas is scant, so for each science—ichthyology, for example—before I begin weeding, I study four or five histories of the subject, and examine many specialist booksellers’ catalogs (both old and current) and bibliographies. I talk with the departmental curatorial staff, and learn considerably more about the subject than I will long retain. After weeding, I arrange for the museum’s scientific staff—all of them, because of overlapping departmental interests—to review my candidates for removal from the collection. There are seldom any disputes about my selection. This kind of review process protects the weeder and, as he becomes more expert, encourages staff confidence and respect. Similar procedures can be applied to the needs of any library and its clientele.

Quicker but less intellectual weeding can be done on the practical basis of cutoff dates or circulation records. It has been said that a book that has not circulated in the past ten years will not circulate in the next ten either, and the recent Pittsburgh studies prove this view. One can also attempt to apply complex algebraic weeding formulas that have infested the literature in the past decade. Less intelligent methods have been used in weeding. But I am persuaded that the unreasoned reasoning of the prepared and experienced bookman who studies the books at the shelf can weed a collection most effectively. Most libraries cannot afford the staff time for this procedure to be done in-house, so it is an
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economy to call upon the outside expert.

Too often, librarians or library boards take a simple way to dispose of books by sale to a local bookdealer, without considering the fact that such books may have unusual monetary value. And frequently, neither the librarian nor even a reputable general bookdealer has sufficient idea of the special worth of a collection of discarded items. Elsewhere I have presented in full my opinion and reasons why it is most often more profitable to dispose of special collection or miscellaneous duplicates and out-of-scope books at public auction, although there are occasions, if a collection is not too large, when specialist dealers might be invited to offer bids. Usually auction houses charge about 25 percent of the gross, which is reasonable considering the cataloging, in-house insurance, clerical work, and publicity that goes into every sale. For example, collections of one of my clients netted over $300,000 and two other collections about $120,000 at auction. It is my custom to work on a daily fee basis in examining a collection and advising how to dispose of it, rather than for a percentage of the sale price (although some advisors prefer the latter terms).

Storage programs are of questionable worth unless considerable space will be saved and book or periodical stock will be kept easily accessible. In the latter case, 24-hour delivery is generally considered desirable. The availability of cost-free space on campus, for example, often turns out to be temporary, and rented storage plus transport costs have risen at unbelievable rates recently. In any case, temperature, humidity, fire, and security controls are as essential in storage collections as in the library, and the cost of construction, installation, or adaptation today usually makes the necessary investment prohibitive. Even regional cooperative storage programs of several institutions must be questioned; witness the closing after many years of the Hampshire Interlibrary Center. It should be noted that relatively successful storage operations are very costly to their members (for example, the Medical Library Center in New York).

Although it is useful to study the possibility of a storage plan, the most likely beneficial solution is diminution of the collections by judicious weeding. But such weeding must be extensive if it is to provide better collections by removing books no longer of interest. For example, weeding at the American Museum of Natural History has provided no increase in book space because books are added to the collection at the rate of fifteen linear feet each week. Here, the library is having to claim additional stack space in a remodeled exhibition hall about equal to half its present area, which houses more than 350,000 volumes.
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By employing an outside specialist, a library adds to the effective knowledge of the staff through the application of the consultant's experience, based on years of observation through assimilation and understanding of varying conditions in many different situations. In a sense, employing a consultant is a turning to objective reasoning when the forest is obscured by the trees. Use of consultants can save hours of staff time that are spent discussing details, exceptions, and limitations that are too often unnecessary barriers to creative thought. A worthy consultant can eliminate problems and offer alternatives that will be adaptable within a systematic operation. He occasionally even provides wholly new ideas that will give new impetus and better direction to the library.

References


2. Although, on one occasion when I submitted six copies of an extensive public library survey that had cost nearly $8000 and taken three months' time, the librarian's associate asked whether I had kept a copy for myself. On assuring him that of course I had, he said: "That's good, because this is the last we'll see of these. He's got three other surveys in his bottom drawer." It turned out to be so. No one on the library board which had commissioned my survey ever inquired about it, and the librarian died a year or so later. I believe he must have been buried with his unused surveys. They have never surfaced!


6. One large library, when it moved to a new building about thirty years ago, actually junked over 10,000 volumes because they were represented in its catalog by old-fashioned half-cards. The decision was made by a head cataloger without any opposition from a lethargic administration. Who can imagine the loss!

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### Acronyms

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<th>Acronym</th>
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<tr>
<td>AACOBS</td>
<td>Australian Advisory Council on Bibliographical Services</td>
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<tr>
<td>AACR 2</td>
<td>Anglo-American Cataloging Rules (Revised)</td>
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<td>ALA</td>
<td>American Library Association</td>
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<td>ALDP</td>
<td>Academic Library Development Program</td>
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<td>ARL</td>
<td>Association of Research Libraries</td>
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<tr>
<td>BALLOTS</td>
<td>Bibliographic Automation of Large Library Operations Using a Time-sharing System</td>
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<td>BATAB</td>
<td>Baker &amp; Taylor's Automated Buying System</td>
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<tr>
<td>BRS</td>
<td>Bibliographic Retrieval Services, Inc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLR</td>
<td>Council on Library Resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>CLSI</td>
<td>Computer Library Services, Inc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>COM</td>
<td>Computer-output microform</td>
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<tr>
<td>FTE</td>
<td>Full-time equivalent</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILL</td>
<td>Interlibrary loan</td>
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<tr>
<td>INCOLSA</td>
<td>Indiana Cooperative Library Service Agency</td>
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<td>LAWNET</td>
<td>Law Information Network</td>
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<td>LC</td>
<td>Library of Congress</td>
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<td>MARC</td>
<td>Machine-Readable Cataloging</td>
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<td>MIDLNET</td>
<td>Midwest Region Library Network</td>
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<td>MRAP</td>
<td>Management Review and Analysis Program</td>
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<td>NCLIS</td>
<td>National Commission on Libraries and Information Science</td>
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<td>NLM</td>
<td>National Library of Medicine</td>
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<td>NYPL</td>
<td>New York Public Library</td>
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<td>NYSILL</td>
<td>New York State Interlibrary Loan</td>
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<td>OCLC</td>
<td>Ohio College Library Center Inc.</td>
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<td>OMS</td>
<td>Office of Management Studies</td>
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<td>OSHA</td>
<td>Occupational Safety and Health Administration</td>
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<td>RFP</td>
<td>Request for Proposal</td>
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<td>RLIN</td>
<td>Research Libraries Information Network</td>
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<tr>
<td>SDC</td>
<td>System Development Corporation</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUNY</td>
<td>State University of New York</td>
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<td>WLN</td>
<td>Washington Library Network</td>
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*A complete list of back issues is available from Library Trends, Publications Office, 249 Armory Building, University of Illinois, Champaign, Ill. 61820.

†Also available in clothbound editions.
Library Trends

Forthcoming numbers are as follows:


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