

User Education in Academic Libraries: A Century in Retrospect

JOHN MARK TUCKER

EAST ASIAN SCHOLAR John King Fairbank has written that "at any given time the 'truth' about China is in our heads, a notoriously unsafe repository for so valuable a commodity."¹ The same observation could easily apply to instruction in library use. Professor Fairbank's approach, with its appropriate respect for the subject and a corresponding willingness to revise our own opinions, could enhance the value of our review of the topic. As today's truth about library instruction is evident in the assumptions current practitioners use and the views they espouse, so the truth of yesterday may be seen in the ideas, concerns and activities of our predecessors. Historians and their readers may find yesterday's truth to be of interest for its own sake, but librarians, traditionally oriented to practical matters, tend to regard history largely for its utilitarian value.

This rationale for historical study is frequently and aptly set forth. Pierce Butler applied it to librarianship. "The librarian's practice," he observed, "will be determined in part by his historical understanding.... Unless the librarian has a clear historical consciousness...he is quite certain at times to serve his community badly."² The purpose of this essay is to help establish a historical consciousness, a more detailed retrospective on the task of user education in academic libraries. Some of the ideas, the persisting issues, and the nature and extent of instructional activity should become apparent in the course of these comments.

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NINETEENTH-CENTURY IDEAS AND TWENTIETH-CENTURY SURVEYS

In part, current ideas about library instruction grew from Ralph Waldo Emerson's comment urging colleges to appoint a "professor of books" and stating that no faculty position was so desperately needed. McMullen traced the "professor of books" reference back to Emerson's lectures in the 1840s when the older classical colleges were in a state of inertia.³ The philosopher had envisioned instruction about the major ideas in a generally agreed-upon group of important works, a kind of "great books" program for students who would be liberally educated. Inspired by the dictum, librarians referred to it repeatedly in the last three decades of the nineteenth century as a rationale for their instruction in library use skills and in the contents of reference works.⁴

After the Civil War, Emerson saw in collegiate education "a cleavage...occurring in the hitherto firm granite of the past," and he claimed that a "new era" had nearly arrived.⁵ Major trends in the new era became apparent in the 1870s and 1880s and provided the context for library instruction. The Morrill Federal Land Grant Act of 1862 was the legal basis and political impetus for the establishment of public colleges offering technical and practical programs for farmers and laborers. These institutions, bringing higher education to many families for the first time, offered a new channel for upward mobility. Rudolph described their leaders and benefactors as responding to:

the unleashing of new impulses to social and economic mobility, to the emergence of a more democratic psychology which stressed individual differences and needs, and to a more democratic philosophy which recognized the right to learning and character-training of women, farmers, mechanics, and the great, aspiring middle class. They recognized that a new society needed new agencies of instruction, cohesion, and control.⁶

A spirit of scientific inquiry began increasingly to characterize the older colleges as well as the land-grant institutions. Americans adopted the German practice of educating men and women for the pursuit of knowledge, which became "as sacred a responsibility of any institution of higher learning and of any scholar connected with it as teaching itself."⁷ The idea of the university as a community of scholars engaged in the equivalent activities of teaching and research found dramatic expression in the establishment in 1876 of Johns Hopkins University, the first American institution founded solely for graduate education.

Newer approaches to knowledge ushered in newer approaches to instruction. Rigorous methods of inquiry came to characterize emerg-

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ing disciplines and their older counterparts. Students joined professors in examining and comparing sources in the setting of graduate and undergraduate seminars. Rothstein said that the "distinctive feature of the seminar was the first-hand investigation of the original materials by the students" under close professorial supervision; "preferably this process would take place in the library itself, where the group could discuss the students' work within easy reach of the materials cited."⁸

John Cole has termed the last quarter of the nineteenth century in American librarianship as "the age of use."⁹ Not only were universities and colleges undergoing major changes, so also was American librarianship in general. The first annual conference of the American Library Association, the first issue of *American Library Journal*, and the U.S. Bureau of Education's massive report, *Public Libraries in the United States of America*, all appeared in 1876, a year widely recognized by library historians as of great significance. Also in 1876 the concept of the librarian as educator, frequently intoned in recent decades, began to take shape. Otis Hall Robinson of the University of Rochester referred to librarians as educators rather than keepers of books, and Melvil Dewey wrote that the time had arrived "when the library is a school, and the librarian is in the highest sense a teacher, and the visitor is a reader among the books as a workman among his tools."¹⁰

Like their professional descendants eighty to ninety years later, librarians of the early period devised programs of user education with the materials and opportunities at hand. Their purpose was to enhance and strengthen the liberal arts and bibliographical research aspects of undergraduate education. The course elective system, quickly adopted in land-grant colleges, coincided with the need to establish credit courses. Those who organized courses and presented bibliographical lectures included Otis Robinson; Raymond C. Davis, University of Michigan; Azariah Smith Root, Oberlin College; George T. Little, Bowdoin College; C.E. Lowrey, University of Colorado; and George W. Harris and Willard Austen, Cornell University. By 1912 Joseph Schneider had identified Raymond C. Davis as being more influential than anyone in furthering the bibliographical instruction movement.¹¹

The liberalizing attitudes promoted by college librarians were evident in the essays and reports of Robinson and Harvard's Justin Winsor. Their 1880 circular, "College Libraries as Aids to Instruction," used lessons learned from the remarkable situation at Rochester, where as many as 20 to 30 percent of the students, one-half of the faculty, and occasionally even the university president could be found on Saturday mornings engaged in their own investigations under the guidance of the university librarian. Rochester had only about 160 students and 8 pro-

fessors, but Robinson's influence there was quite strong and merits further historical attention.¹²

Public services in academic libraries began to achieve stability in the first decades after the turn of the century. Universities and colleges created full-time positions for librarians to work with patrons in finding information and borrowing books. The acceptance of instruction in library use developed as visibly, if not as permanently, as reference work itself. Despite modest evidence from previous surveys,¹³ it was not until after 1910 that the full extent of instructional activity became apparent.

The U.S. Bureau of Education led the way in stimulating colleges and universities to think about and experiment with library instruction. The bureau disseminated survey results in its annual reports of 1912 and 1913, and in a 1914 bulletin edited by Henry Evans. The 1912 report described an ALA survey to which 149 of 200 institutions responded: 57 percent offered required or elective courses; of these, 86 percent of the respondents had classes designed to help students develop skills in using reference works and in exploiting library resources in general. The 1913 report included results of Willard Austen's survey for the New York State Library Association: 49 percent of 165 responding institutions were engaged in some aspect of organized library instruction.¹⁴ As a member of the bureau's Editorial Division, Henry Evans compiled and edited "Library Instruction in Universities, Colleges, and Normal Schools," one of the most extensive surveys (in terms of sample size) ever conducted on this topic. Evans found that nearly 20.5 percent of 446 academic institutions and 56.0 percent of 166 normal schools offered instruction in library use. The commissioner's following annual report appended eight additional institutions to the Evans survey.¹⁵

However modest its development, bibliographical instruction in 1914 had emerged during the academic revolution in 1870-1910. The revolution fostered competing educational forces that Veysey summarized as the ideals of vocational training, research and liberal education. By 1910 these movements had staked out their intellectual and bureaucratic territories, creating a higher education system of considerable uniformity. Crystallizing during this 40-year period were features such as the unit system for credit, elective courses, departmental and administrative organization and chains of command, and the recitation, lecture and seminar modes of instruction.¹⁶

EDUCATION AND INSTRUCTION,
PHILANTHROPY AND EXPERIMENTATION

Library instruction (educating the library user) and library education (training for the prospective librarian) developed simultaneously. Credit courses and course-related lectures were sometimes designed in combination to meet the separate learning objectives of each enterprise. The mixture of learning objectives and professional goals was particularly apparent in the deliberations of three meetings of academic librarians and library educators. The first of these took place at the ALA conference at Philadelphia in 1897, about ten years after Dewey initiated training for librarianship at Columbia College and twenty years after the concept of the librarian as educator was seriously put forth. Other meetings were in 1901 at the ALA conference in Waukesha, Illinois, and in 1908 at the ALA conference at Lake Minnetonka, Minnesota. Transcripts of these discussions show a consistent attempt to differentiate the pedagogies of user education and professional education. Azariah Root typified librarians who functioned in dual instructional roles. At Oberlin College he taught library use to undergraduates in a liberal arts curriculum, while at Western Reserve University he prepared students for professional work in libraries.¹⁷

In American higher education the interregnum between world wars was a time of drift and disappointment. Administrators were discouraged on the one hand because philanthropic grants had not met earlier expectations, and on the other, because students seemed obsessed with fraternities and athletic events. The general mood bespoke a lack of confidence and a concern over economic scarcity. Veysey described educators as facing a social pattern that was hostile in spirit to the entire curriculum.¹⁸

Librarians interested in user education could not help but share the psychological unease felt by their parent institutions. Programs had fallen short of expectations, and librarians found that incoming students were ill-equipped for any collegiate work demanding fundamental library skills. Survey results from the 1920s and 1930s illustrate the magnitude of the problem, not unique to its own period, but nonetheless disquieting. For example, only 47 percent of incoming freshmen at the University of Maine reported having used either a card catalog, a periodical index, or the Dewey classification scheme.¹⁹ At Indiana University only 50 percent of the freshmen had used a card catalog and only 26 percent had used the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*.²⁰ At Stanford University and the University of California, 63 percent of 354

graduate students had never in their college careers been given personal library instruction by a professor or a librarian.²¹

As professorial discontent had emerged in the face of rising enrollments and expanding universities, so library discontent, however deep or shallow it may have been, arose in the midst of excellent growth in libraries and in book collections. Between 1910 and 1940 the number of institutions of higher education increased from 951 to 1708.²² Between 1912 and 1937 the combined collections of fourteen leading research libraries increased from about 5 million volumes to about 14 million volumes, a gain of nearly 285 percent.²³ Such rates of growth were typical throughout much of academia.

Several new library instruction programs emerged in the 1920s in order to serve the practical and technical curricula in land-grant institutions. In 1923 Lewis cited a survey showing that thirty-six of fifty agricultural and station libraries provided bibliographical instruction.²⁴ Two years later, Dunlap reported that about one-third of the forty-eight land-grant colleges with schools of agriculture were offering library instruction in the form of credit courses.²⁵ The University of Illinois offered a two-course sequence, while courses at the Oregon Agricultural College and the North Dakota Agricultural College were required for graduation.

Library instruction for professional education was gaining acceptance in teachers colleges and normal schools. Originating in the Library Department of the National Education Association (NEA), standards of library service called for teacher education schools to require a library course of all students in teacher preparation curricula. The course would be taught by a librarian and would consist of a minimum of twelve lectures on how to use the library. The standards were adopted by the NEA and later approved by ALA and the National Council of Teachers of English.²⁶

The 1920s might accurately be called the decade of surveys. Not only were librarians inquiring as to student knowledge of reference sources, they were surveying other libraries to enlarge their picture of instructional activity. Ada English of the New Jersey College for Women reported on ninety-two institutions, finding that 46 percent of them provided library instruction.²⁷ C.P. Baber at Kansas State found that of twenty-three respondents to a survey, nine offered formal courses and nine offered other types of instruction.²⁸ Describing programs in thirty-three colleges and universities, ALA found in its nationwide survey of libraries that "instruction to some extent in the use of the catalog and of the more common books of reference [was] given to

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freshmen by approximately half of the libraries reporting of more than 20,000 volumes."²⁹

For fifty years the profession debated the nature and purpose of library instruction. This ongoing dialogue coincided with the birth and development of programs in a number of colleges, and culminated in more ambitious experimentation. In his classic on reference work, James Wyer reflected the traditional view that "training in self-help is part of the warp and woof of any tenable theory of reference work."³⁰ Such training was intended to familiarize the student with library organization and practices that would be of value to any educated person, thus enabling him to conduct searches with greater speed, success and understanding. However, library instruction was seen by others to have more comprehensive possibilities than were suggested by reference work alone, namely, a theoretical capacity to affect methods of instruction throughout the curriculum.

Private philanthropy was an excellent stimulus to rethinking the library's position in small colleges. In 1929 the Carnegie Corporation appointed an advisory committee which, working with Charles B. Shaw, compiled a bibliography of about 14,000 books suitable for undergraduates. The Shaw list became the basis for Carnegie grants of \$5000 to \$25,000 to eighty-one colleges for purposes of strengthening book collections. The value of these gifts, as Wilhelm Munthe suggested, was not as much in the collection development they supported as it was in supplying a "tonic to college libraries."³¹ Administrators were forced to give serious consideration to an important resource they had habitually neglected. Munthe exclaimed that in the 1930s "every college president and trustee" who took seriously the library's educational mission came to realize that the library had to achieve "a more central and active position" in collegiate education.³²

Librarians who were rethinking the library's educational functions were surely encouraged by philosophical currents in higher education. Followers of John Dewey emphasized "life needs" and urged curricular development in social and family adjustment and in civic responsibility. Alexander Meiklejohn and Robert Hutchins maintained and enhanced various notions of the liberal arts. Other educators created honors programs that grew during the interregnum and expanded even more rapidly after World War II.³³ Veysey wrote that at the end of the 1930s "there seemed far more likelihood of widespread curricular rethinking than at any time during the preceding thirty years."³⁴

Attempts to strengthen the teaching function of libraries brought about the experiment at Stephens College spearheaded by B. Lamar

Johnson, who was both college librarian and dean of instruction. Johnson led faculty members in integrating library use with courses throughout the curriculum. He consulted with all professors in their preparation of the portion of their class assignments dealing with library organization and bibliographical tools.³⁵ The 1930s also witnessed the birth of the "library-college" movement (discussed more fully below), which found some of its earliest expressions in the writings of Silas Evans and Louis Shores.³⁶

More pertinent to its own era was Harvie Branscomb's *Teaching With Books*. Supported by the Carnegie Corporation and the Association of American Colleges, Branscomb studied the college library from the standpoint of "educational effectiveness rather than its administrative efficiency."³⁷ Examining book circulation practices in more than sixty colleges, he merged various elements of curricular and library thought into the primary assumption undergirding his study, i.e., that the problems of library use were a common responsibility of the entire academic community. Branscomb sought a wide audience, addressing himself beyond professors and librarians to presidents and other administrators as well. Speaking specifically of library instruction, he defined the approaches that both summarized previous activity and brought us into current practice, namely, the testing of student knowledge, credit courses taught by librarians, and course-related instruction planned in consultation with faculty members.³⁸

The economy of higher education and academic libraries after World War II depended not only on growing numbers of returning veterans, but also on the percentage increase in college-age enrollments—from 14 percent of the population in 1940 to 40 percent in 1964, according to government estimates.³⁹ During this period library instruction advanced in technical and practical ways. Audiovisual materials and equipment became a more conspicuous element of collections and services, bringing with them the problems of staff maintenance and patron use. Honors programs for undergraduates and required research courses for graduate students gained broader support, increasing the demand on the research collections and teaching functions of libraries. Givens complained that despite "project after project" involving testing, orientation programs, and bibliographical courses in the literature of various disciplines, library instruction "gave little indication of being developed on the cumulative knowledge and evaluation of earlier presentations."⁴⁰ She suggested that social upheavals resulting in turn from depression, war, exploding enrollments, and economic growth were sources of isolation within librarianship.

SOCIAL STIMULUS AND ECONOMIC PROSPERITY

Two important events occurred in the 1950s signaling a new relationship between education and the federal government. The first of these was the 1954 Supreme Court decision of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* outlawing state-imposed racial discrimination, thereby guaranteeing entry for blacks and other minorities into all levels of the nation's educational system. Thus, there was an influx of nontraditional students, as A.P. Marshall has referred to them, suffering from inferior educations and swelling the rising tide of college enrollments in the 1960s. They were especially visible in California and New York. In 1960 California guaranteed access to higher education for all of its high school graduates, and in 1970 the City University of New York instituted an open admissions policy radically altering its educational approach from "elitism to egalitarianism."⁴¹ Nontraditional students owe their presence in colleges and universities to social and economic factors which have created a new awareness of higher education as a tool for upward mobility and equality of opportunity, and which more than doubled the nation's student enrollments between 1959 and 1969.⁴²

To cope with the educational deficiencies of the new students, academic institutions assumed many tasks usually performed by high schools. They established remedial curricula, taught reading and study skills, and offered orientation programs to various aspects of campus life. Engaged in compensatory programs, the newer students presented a strong challenge to academic libraries, a challenge that was sometimes answered with damaging ambivalence. For example, in order to teach students how to use fundamental library tools, study skills departments in three eastern colleges were forced to hire librarians rather than work with those already employed in their institutions. According to Breivik, academic librarians lack the necessary aggressiveness to help institutions redefine educational goals and address themselves to the needs of some of their incoming students. Breivik's report on her controlled experiment at Brooklyn College demonstrates some of the library's capacities in teaching the educationally disadvantaged.⁴³ If library resources are to be more widely utilized, students must experience learning that convinces them that the library is a necessary and meaningful part of that learning.⁴⁴

The second important event occurring in the 1950s stimulated federal grants to education at an unprecedented rate. With their government subsidies, soldiers returning from World War II had supported the rising curve in student enrollments and revenues. However, it was not

until October 4, 1957, when the Soviet satellite *Sputnik* was launched into orbit, that the nation raised education to a much higher priority. Congress opened a new chapter in federal funding of higher education, approving the National Defense Education Act of 1958 and its legislative descendant, the Higher Education Act of 1965, the first act to provide a comprehensive aid program both to individual students and to institutions.

Libraries, teaching departments, and research laboratories enjoyed phenomenal growth in the 1960s, a decade of prosperity and federal generosity. Between 1959 and 1970 the number of college and university libraries grew from 1951 to 2535; their total book collections rose from 176 million to 371 million volumes, and their expenditures leaped from \$137 million to \$737 million annually.⁴⁵ This growth accompanied an insurgent professionalism and a heightened sense of social and educational responsibility toward the library user. The sheer bulk of articles published about library instruction testifies to widespread interest. Citations appearing in *Library Literature* illustrate the pattern: 247 entries from 1949 to 1960, 418 from 1961 to 1971, and 421 from 1972 to 1979.⁴⁶

Economic and social factors continued to influence academic library instruction, and private philanthropy directly affected it as never before. Supported largely by the Ford Foundation, the Council on Library Resources (CLR) made grants to academic libraries for programs such as networking, preservation, collection development, and automation. However, in 1969 the council broadened its approach by initiating the College Library Program, which sought the improvement of undergraduate education through the support of experimental library programs. CLR described the thinking behind its new effort as follows:

The academic library's function goes well beyond mere support for the teaching program. It has the potential to sharpen a student's intellectual curiosities to the point where they will demand satisfaction all his life. It must use that potential and apply its resources to make itself a full partner in the education of the student. As in any partnership, active participation among the principals is a *sine qua non*.⁴⁷

In conjunction with the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH), CLR sought to undergird the partnership essential to an effective and, indeed, "central" role for the library in undergraduate education. The principals implicit in the council's "partnership" were, of course, faculty, administrators, librarians, and students.

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Among the similarities of CLR-NEH programs was the use of students as peer instructors or bibliographic assistants. Bodner has noted student roles in program design at Brown University, Hampshire College, Wabash College, and Washington and Lee University. Marshall described student participation at Dillard University, Hampden-Sydney College, and Jackson State College in Mississippi.⁴⁸

The CLR Library Service Enhancement Program (LSEP) was similar in purpose but different in structure. Earlier recipients were awarded five-year grants and they exercised considerable latitude in program design. Receiving a more precise mandate from the council, LSEP recipients designated a project coordinator who for one year would devote his entire time to planning, implementation and evaluation. Especially emphasized was the integration of student input into these programs.

While student consultation is valued and respected, it cannot be depended upon to sustain a comprehensive effort from year to year. An active and satisfying program necessitates cooperative planning with teaching faculty. During the past century this truism has been pronounced as regularly as any other in the field of library instruction. Patricia Knapp's 1958 statement is typical: "If we wish the library to function more effectively in the college,...we must direct our efforts toward the curriculum, working through the faculty."⁴⁹

CONCEPTUAL AMBIGUITIES

The past problems and future prospects of library instruction have their origins in reference work. The profession's inability to commit itself fully to user education grew out of conflicting ideas about the scope and purpose of reference services. William Katz summarized the ambiguities in the issue of "instruction" versus "information": the librarian faces the contradictory impulses of giving service on one hand, and on the other hand of usurping his role in that service by teaching the patron to use the library independently. The question for the reference librarian is: "Should I give the user answers to his questions or should I educate the user to find his own answers?"⁵⁰ Three dominant opinions are apparent from the literature:

Instructional. The purpose of the reference librarian is to teach the user to help himself.

Informational. The patron does not want instruction but information, and it is the responsibility of the reference librarian to retrieve it.

Situational. As personnel and materials become increasingly expensive, the reference librarian cannot and should not provide complete service but should exercise his professional judgment in providing information to some and instruction to others. What he does in a given situation depends on his particular library environment.

In 1930 James Wyer referred to these views as "conservative," "liberal," and "moderate." More recently, Rothstein has called them "minimum," "maximum," and "middling."⁵¹ However the views are classified, their import for library instruction cannot be ignored. Some practitioners see library instruction only as a conservative response to patrons' needs or as a necessary compromise due to insufficient funding for personnel; others use it as a rationale for faculty status since it involves teaching. In brief, librarians do not fully believe in library instruction, and the resulting posture of internal professional ambivalence limits our power to convince others that we are, in fact, educators.

Library instruction is seriously troubled by the absence of sound philosophical and theoretical foundations upon which to base its programs. Part of the deficiency derives from the fact that the larger field of librarianship has yet to achieve a "theory of high informative value."⁵² Stieg noted, however, a commonality of purpose among academic libraries in their support of the research, service and teaching functions of their parent institutions. He also observed elements of common practice: a concern for appropriate collections of recorded information, arrangement and housing of materials for effective use, and assistance in the use of materials.⁵³ Still, the lack of solid theoretical and philosophical underpinnings has fostered confusion about the library's relationship to the curriculum and its role in the academic community. In his history of libraries in 1876, Holley found this lack of direction to be a natural corollary to the struggle of parent institutions to define their own missions and goals.⁵⁴ Echoes of Holley's findings, as they apply to library instruction, continue to be heard. Katz has noted the lack of any meaningful philosophy of user instruction, as have Lindgren and Lockwood, who urge librarians to look beyond their own field of study in order to develop a conceptual framework that is more than merely rudimentary.⁵⁵

The strongest source of a coherent philosophical argument that could lend conceptual support to library instruction is in the library-college movement. Breivik has viewed it as the "only clear-cut philosophical statement of service with accompanying objectives of how

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academic libraries can support the educational trends of this century," identified, among others, as independent study and research, and student-centered interdisciplinary learning.⁵⁶ The library-college concept involves moving the teaching/learning situation out of the classroom and into the library, where the student conducts independent studies under the direction of bibliographically skilled, subject-oriented faculty members. As envisioned by Louis Shores in 1935, the library-college presupposed the abolition of regular class attendance in favor of library learning experiences, the inclusion of all physical facilities in a library complex, peer instruction of beginning undergraduates by upperclassmen, integration of library and faculty personnel into a single teaching staff, and a liberal arts curriculum emphasizing problem-solving techniques. The library-college concept is respected for its comprehensive approach to higher education, its emphasis on independent study, and its view of the totality of learning materials as the "generic book" to which all students should be introduced.⁵⁷

Generally speaking, however, library-college thinking has had little impact on academic libraries and even less on higher education as a whole. The Swarthmore College Special Committee on Library Policy found the realignment of library and faculty personnel necessitated by the concept to be unnatural and idealistic, and the committee expressed reservations about the difficulties encountered in library-college experiments.⁵⁸ Breivik complained that library-college adherents too zealously promote their own approach, thereby alienating faculty and librarians alike.⁵⁹ In 1979 a reviewer for the *Journal of Academic Librarianship* referred to library-college proponents as simply "out of the mainstream" on the subject of library instruction.⁶⁰

PERSPECTIVE ON THE PAST TWO DECADES

The "mainstream" of recent years, emerging in the 1960s and enjoying especially strong growth in the 1970s, sprang up as a grass-roots effort at numerous institutions throughout the country. Librarians who saw the need for user education assembled programs with whatever resources they had at hand; in the early and mid-1970s their projects, as fundamental as classroom lectures or as complex as computer-assisted instruction, were frequently supported by CLR-NEH grants. The movement is readily associated with institutions that conduct systematic programs from year to year. At the risk of offending some by naming only a few, the following institutions have provided

leadership in the past two decades: Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville, University of Wisconsin-Parkside, University of Colorado, Brigham Young University, UCLA, MIT, Eastern Michigan University, and Earlham College. These and a host of others drew their inspiration and many of their ideas from Knapp's experimentation and research, first at Knox College and later at Monteith College, Wayne State University.⁶¹ Breivik observed that the library instruction movement grew from the bottom up (beginning with on-the-job techniques), that the library-college movement had grown from the top down (theory first, then application), and that the two groups, given their similarity of purpose, have much to offer each other.⁶²

Instruction librarians still seek to establish solid theoretical and philosophical bases. Such foundations could ultimately be discovered, if not in the library-college ideal, then in the identification of library instruction with conceptual models that have already achieved broad support in the academic community. The kind of thinking suggested by Lindgren's proposal (that we identify with the teaching of basic composition), by Lindsey's idea (that we adopt the role model of educator), or by Nigel Ford's model of "library learning" deserves further refinement and inquiry.⁶³

Despite its philosophical and theoretical shortcomings, library instruction has grown rapidly in a short period. The practice of mentioning instructional abilities in library job descriptions is basically a product of the 1970s, though it should be noted that time for instruction is typically squeezed out of a heavily committed reference staff. Early random and ad hoc attempts to prepare librarians to teach more effectively have become institutionalized. Conferences and workshops continue to appear and are annual events at Eastern Michigan University and the College of Charleston. ALA committees address themselves to the issues of library instruction; enough support has emerged to institute the Library Instruction Round Table. A clearinghouse of instructional materials was opened at Eastern Michigan University, the first of several such collections.

If all of this activity seems at times to be characterized more by exuberance than by reasoned direction, we should not be troubled. Marshall has predicted that by the end of this century librarians will have earned their place as educators.⁶⁴ Of the history of reference work, Rothstein has written:

Traditionally, and by the nature of the beast, the librarian's role has everywhere been that of custodian, collector, and cataloger. If in the United States and a few other parts of the world he has also under-

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taken to furnish personal assistance on an organized basis, it didn't just happen. We have reference service because it was once a "cause"—a cause to be propagandized for, an idea to be formulated, developed and brought to fruition!⁶⁵

As an essential feature of public services in academic libraries and as an outgrowth of reference work, library instruction is developing in similar fashion. Standing somewhere between infancy and full maturity, it has yet to come to fruition, but is well beyond the stage of being just a cause.

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