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EDITORIAL

In the 1979 Fall issue of *Library Trends* (p. 147), Thomas Shaughnessy wrote, "the trends toward increased accountability and productivity require that library operations and procedures be analyzed, and that staff be deployed and utilized to its full potential." Shaughnessy's argument was well put; his conclusion that administrators must evaluate their library's performance and must honestly deal with the failures as well as the successes in services so that alternatives can be designed is still pertinent. With the recent change of Presidential administrators, and the consequent reevaluation of the amount of federal and state funding to be awarded to various public institutions, librarians are being forced to closely monitor the current trends in service and in staff effectiveness.

The concept of planning through community analysis and studies of current library policies is not new in Indiana. Within the past few years many programs have been developed within our own library community.

The Publications Board chose to devote the 1981 Summer issue of INDIANA LIBRARIES to "The Planning Process and Community Analysis" so that some of the theory and the programs initiated within Indiana could be given a forum. The articles contained in this journal represent Indiana's most recent developments in formalizing plans for support of effective programs and in creating vehicles for change within library services.

Martha J. McDonald aptly discusses the possibilities of community analysis when it is based upon the evolutionary development of population flow and the interrelationship between the area's overall makeup and the library's setting. She suggests that library administrators need to become involved in more sophisticated community analysis, and supports her argument with actual Indiana statistics.

Dr. Choong H. Kim discusses the Indiana Community Analysis Project which he is directing, and demonstrates what goals and objectives can be met within the local program. His paper is lucid and helpful to those who have not yet worked with community analysis techniques.

The final article deals with completed Indiana studies which concentrated upon analysis, proposals for change, or building a data base for further studies. In "Library Self-Studies: The Indiana Experience" authors offer hindsight evaluations of the analysis process in which they participated. This should help others better understand the strengths and weaknesses found in self-study programs.

Margaret Monroe states in that same issue of *Library Trends* (131-132), "it is essential to review standard forms of service delivery for their adaptability to specific needs, and to review methods of administration for their tolerance of variation and their sustained sensitivity to the need for adaptation." This issue of INDIANA LIBRARIES demonstrates that Indiana librarians are already involved in community analysis and welcome positive change.

Jill P. May

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STRUCTURAL APPROACHES TO COMMUNITY ANALYSIS

Martha J. McDonald

For several years librarians have experimented with community analysis techniques, revising and adapting them for use within the public library setting. Recent articles by Evans,[1] Goldhor,[2] Zweizig,[3] and others, as well as the community analysis institutes conducted by Roger Greer, Martha Hale, and their associates from the University of Southern California, have helped to define the role that this analysis may play as a public library planning tool. Further integrating community analysis into a long-range planning model, *A Planning Process for Public Libraries*[4] began its primary planning cycle with the gathering of community data.

Despite progress along these lines, librarians have a tendency to categorize groups and geographical areas in a way that is static, slighting the complex development of the community as a whole. The prediction of evolutionary shifts and trends, based on past and present developments, is a tedious job often neglected by investigators who are eager to complete the analysis and move on to other things. Yet, any changes made in services, facilities, and collections takes time to implement, and long range planning requires the anticipation of future community developments.

Martha J. McDonald is currently a doctoral candidate at the Indiana University School of Library and Information Science, and recently began working as Director of Southeastern Indiana Area Library Services Authority in Columbus.

This lack of responsiveness to environmental change is most noticeable within the urban setting. During the past two decades writers such as Shaughnessy,[5] Martin,[6] and Blasingame[7] have concluded that the urban public library tends to stand still amidst rampant social change, urban shifts, and an increasingly complex environment. Blasingame offered strong criticism of this in his dissertation, *The Public Library as an Urban Phenomenon.*[8] His research was based on the assumption that the American public library was originally a product of the urban/industrial society developing during the last half of the 19th century. He also hypothesized that current policies of city libraries were still geared toward the needs of an earlier time when the central business district of the city served as the multi-purpose core and drew immigrants in large groups. His conclusions supported these assertions.

Students of urban sociology are aware of the rapid decentralization of American cities since the turn of the century, yet there is little evidence to show that public libraries have responded to these environmental changes. Their community analyses tend to lack a dynamic "bird's eye" view of the city and its surrounding region. This structural approach is of value not only to libraries in larger metropolitan areas, but also to those in smaller towns and rural districts. However, given the complexities of the larger urban community, it is understandable that far more attention must be paid to this public than would be required in less populous areas.

CLASSIC MODELS OF URBAN STRUCTURE

Since 1925 several models have appeared in connection with the evolutionary development of the city. Four of these will be discussed within the context of this article. The Concentric Zone Theory (1925),[9] the Sector Theory (1939),[10] and the Multiple Nuclei Theory (1945),[11] which all deal with the internal structure of the city. The models have been generalized for comparative purposes by Harris and Ullman (see Table I). The Urban Field Theory (1965)[12] views urban areas in relationship with one another.

At least three general trends may be discerned from these theories:

1. Gradual migration from the central business district to the fringes of the city.
2. A shift from the multi-purpose core providing total service to the more specialized central business district.
3. A shift from urban-industrial center to urban field, as urban fringes increasingly overlap with one another.

The Concentric Zone and Sector models both reflect a pattern of movement from the central business district to the outer fringes of the city. In the first model, however, the use of land is dependent on the distance from the core, while in the axial organization of the latter model, areas arise in relationship to such factors as transportation routes, with patterns varying for each city.

Not appearing until 1945, the Multiple Nuclei approach to urban structure projects a more involved pattern of community development. The various nuclei are clustered according to function, and the central business district is not necessarily at the geographical center of the city, as in the other models. While the heaviest traffic flow might still be found within this central area, most services are derived from other nuclei. The larger the urban area and population, the more specialized the clusters will be.

It is likely that a city will display a combination of each of these models, since complicating urban factors will tend to alter the pure conceptual arrangements. For example, segments of cities may rise until their growth is stunted by a natural boundary or until a major transportation route is altered. Newer studies view the life cycle of cities as a series of changes in economic functions. Structural changes occur as cities adjust to serving new functions.[13]

In the above models the central section of the city is declining while the outer edges continue to expand and develop. Friedmann and Miller refer to this spread as "the expanding scale of urban life," emphasizing a pattern of metropolitan areas and inter-metropolitan periphery.[14] This theory holds that the bulk of the population will soon be centered in approximately 70 urban fields across the country, affecting all but the most sparsely populated areas. The overlapping peripheries, or "urban fringe," contribute to regional urbanization, until the fields themselves gradually blend with one another.

In a more recent study Arthur Solomon lends support to the Urban Field concept.[15] In a chapter entitled "The Emerging Metropolis" he provides U.S. Census Tract figures on employment, education, and population, reinforcing Friedmann's and Miller's analysis of shifts. Studying forty large Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, he noted the suburban ring share of employment and population for selected years 1948, 1954, 1958, 1963, and 1972. Between 1948 and 1972 the suburban share of the population rose steadily from 36% to 56.9%. Likewise, there were steady increases in the suburban share of manufacturing for the same period (33.1% to 51.1%), as well as of wholesale employment (8.2% in 1948 to 43.2% in 1972), retail employment (24.7% to 52.9%), and services employment (15.2% to 37.1%).[16]

Solomon further elaborates:

> The economies of most troubled cities are going nowhere while their people are going elsewhere. The people leaving these cities tend to be those who have higher incomes, more education, and are younger than those who remain behind.[17]

Solomon and others indicate that these shifts are leading to serious economic problems for cities. In answer to this, the country may in time move beyond the local level to that of the field, or regional concept of urban life.

Before applying the Urban Field Theory to the state of Indiana and to the public library setting, it is important to note that the structural approach to the community is only one dimension of a multi-faceted area of study. As crucial as it is to gain an overview of the community as a "place," this aspect should not be studied in isolation. Dennis Poplin writes that most definitions of community include the components of 1) territoriality, 2) social ineraction or social interrelations, and 3) common ties or activities (although this third area is often debated by urban sociologists).[18] This list of elements is based on a 1955 study by Hillery[19] and a 1976 update by Sutton and Munson.[20] So, while this article focuses on the need for a dynamic approach to urban structure, it is assumed that the researcher will take into account interrelationships with other relevant variables.

THE URBAN FIELD WITHIN INDIANA

To what extent have urban fields developed within the state of Indiana? Given the high number of small towns, villages, and rural areas, it might be easy to underestimate the level to which this phenomenon has risen. A closer look at census data reveals an increase in the size of Indiana's metropolitan areas, with urban spread enveloping several parts of the state.

The first evidence surfaces as Indiana census maps are reviewed and compared. The U.S. Bureau of the Census labels major areas of urbanization as Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's). Although the criteria for determining these areas change every few years, they serve as means of distinguishing metropolitan from nonmetropolitan areas. Boundaries are determined according to population, employment, and transportation patterns, with each area centering around the activities of one or two cities. According to the 1962 *County and City Data Book*[21] eight SMSA's then existed within the state of Indiana. During the next fifteen years the boundaries of six of these areas expanded, and five new areas were added, so that by 1977 the total number of SMSA's had reached thirteen. Since the SMSA requirements have not remained constant over the years, precise, detailed comparisons are not possible. However, these maps do help in visualizing the growing urbanized areas that are beginning to overlap with one another within the state, as SMSA's continue to encompass more and more territory.

Further evidence supporting the concept may be derived from tracing county migratory patterns. Since the 1980 census figures are still incomplete at the time of this writing, comparisons have been made for the period between 1960 and 1975, with figures appearing in the 1977 *County and City Data Book*.[22] Census tables were surveyed to discern population shifts among the counties. According to the theory those counties with larger cities would be experiencing out-migration, as people move from the center to the fringes of the metropolitan areas. At the same time, those counties without major urbanized

areas would be on the receiving end of these shifts. Counties rather than SMSA's were used as units of comparison since their boundaries have remained relatively fixed over time.

To determine the direction of population shifts "net migration" figures are used. It is necessary to distinguish this measure from "natural increase," the other major component of population change. While natural increase measures the difference between the number of births and the number of deaths within an area, net migration represents the difference between the number of persons moving into an area and the number of persons moving away from an area during a given time period (positive number means in-migration, negative means out-migration). It is therefore possible for an area to have a high level of out-migration and still be gaining in total population, if the natural increase is high (number of births heavily outweighing number of deaths).

Census figures include net migration data for two time periods during the past two decades: 1960-70 and 1970-75. Net migration patterns for the most urbanized counties were surveyed first. The six cities with total populations of over 100,000 in 1975 were selected (Hammond has since dropped to 93,440 according to 1980 figures), and census data as collected for each of their counties. (See Table II). Each of these counties experienced out-migration for both time periods, with the exception of Allen County, with in-migration between 1960 and 1970, and out-migration from 1970 to 1975. This indicates that the shift to the urban fringe has exceeded the county boundaries in all of these cases (including Allen for the second period).

A general migration pattern may also be discerned for the less-urbanized counties. Of the twenty-one counties receiving in-migration for both time periods, twenty had no cities with 25,000 or more in population. (The one exception was the case of Monroe County, including the city of Bloomington. The in-migration figures for this county may be greatly due to a change in census methods during the 1960's, allowing for students to be counted as residents for the first time. Given Bloomington's university enrollment, this would have affected the in-migration statistics.)

The patterns of in-migration to the less urbanized counties of Indiana may be viewed in another way. Of the 54 counties where all cities were less than 25,000 in population, 20 (37%) experienced in-migration for both time periods, and 22 (42%) did for one of the two periods. This results in a total of 79% of the 54 counties within this category.

Based on the above figures it is clear that urban spread is a reality within Indiana. Wise librarians will take this into account, whether planning at the local, regional, or state level. No community exists within a vacuum, and while a sound community analysis requires an overview of the internal structure of a city or town, the researcher must also discern how it fits within the context of the region and state. This is true whether the person is running a one room

library next to a country gas station or working amidst skyscrapers in a major metropolitan area.

APPLICATIONS TO THE PUBLIC LIBRARY SETTING

The classic models depict the community as a conglomeration of constantly changing interrelated parts, in turn relating to a broader environment beyond the arbitrarily placed local boundaries. While few if any cities conform entirely to the internal structure models, each will possess some of their elements. Likewise, whether a public library is located within an urban field or somewhere beyond the fringes, the "field" approach to community analysis will provide a broader base for administrative decision-making.

The Concentric Zone, Sector, and Multiple Nuclei theories provide the librarian with keys to analyzing past trends within his/her own service area. Once evolutionary trends have been discerned predictions of future shifts and developments may be made.

Librarians should be careful not to underestimate the value of a map as part of the summary report on the community. This does not have to be a static picture of the service area, but rather a dynamic representation of ongoing shifts and changes within the area. This can be documented through the use of overlays or by shading areas such as rising, stable, and declining residential and business areas. The resulting product will be the community's own model of internal structure, incorporating some of the elements of classic models. This, then, should be updated on a regular basis.

Librarians in states such as Indiana have already begun coordinating community analyses at the state and regional level. Sources along the lines of INDIRS (Indiana Information Retrieval System), data centers, and regional planning commissions provide a wealth of information to anyone interested in gathering data on a particular area. Yet the Urban Field Theory provides even more incentive for filtering local analyses into the regional level. Analyses beginning in the local setting could easily be coordinated by each regional cooperative, in turn filtering through to state networks. As urban life continues to expand and population shifts increase, community analysis will be most effective if viewed in conjunction with studies from neighboring locations.

Although the boundaries of regional cooperatives might not coincide with patterns of population concentration, administrators of these organizations appear to be in the best position to develop regional overviews. According to this plan, analyses would be conducted by public librarians at the local level and next sent to the cooperative for coordination with studies from other communities within the region.

The library world has expanded far beyond the realm of the single library and its collection. While maintaining its own autonomy, each library now has the opportunity to provide service from sources beyond its local setting. Simi-

larly, the urban community has expanded past the arbitrary boundaries of the library's service area. States may now be described as having urban and rural fields. Indiana's concept of a library community will need to be reviewed in light of change.

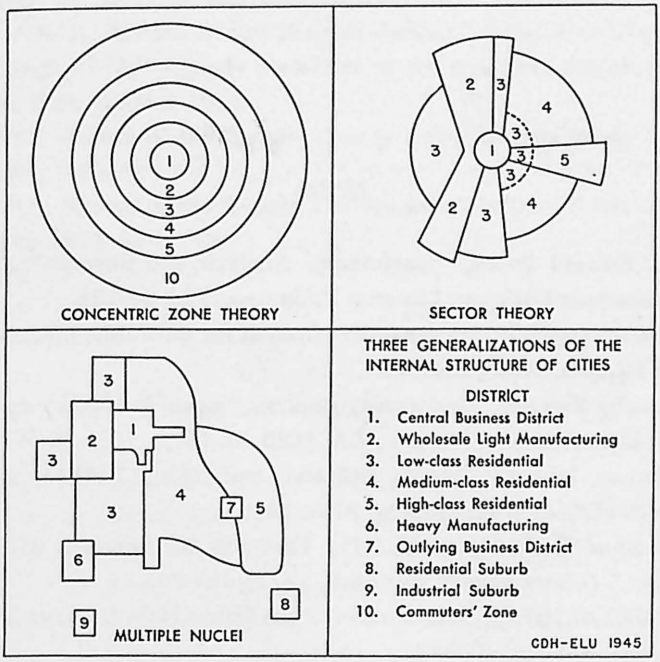

Table I —Generalizations of internal structure of cities. The concentric-zone theory is a generalization for all cities. The arrangement of the sectors in the sector theory varies from city to city. The diagram for multiple nuclei represents one possible pattern among innumerable variations.

Reprinted with permission from Chauncy D. Harris and Edward L. Ullman, "The Nature of Cities," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 242 (November, 1945), 13.

Table II

City	Total Population of City in 1975	County	Net Migration (% of County, 1960-70	Change) 1970-75
Evansville	133,566	Vanderburgh	-6.6%	-5.4%
Fort Wayne	185,299	Allen	5.4	-1.7
Gary	167,546	Lake	-8.3	-5.3
Hammond	104,892	Lake	-8.3	-5.3
Indianapolis	782,139	Marion	- .1	-5.1
South Bend	117,478	St. Joseph	-7.4	-4.7

Notes

[1] G. Edward Evans, "Community Analysis and Surveys," *Developing Library Collections* Littleton: Libraries Unlimited,1979. 97-121.

[2] Herbert Goldhor, "Community Analysis for the Public Library," *Illinois Libraries*, 62 (April, 1980), 296-302.

[3] Douglas Zweizig, "Community Analysis," *Local Public Library Administration*, ed. Ellen Altman. Chicago: ALA, 1980, 38-46.

[4] Vernon Palmour, Marcia Bellassai, and Nancy DeWath, *A Planning Process for Public Libraries.* Chicago: ALA, 1980.

[5] Thomas W. Shaughnessy, "The Emerging Environment of the Urban Main Library," *Library Trends*, 20 (April, 1972), 757-768.

[6] Lowell A. Martin, "The Future of the Urban Main Library: II," *Library Trends* 20, (April, 1972), 774-787.

[7] Ralph Upshaw Blasingame, Jr., "The Public Library as an Urban Phenomenon," diss. Columbia Univesity, 1973.

[8] Blasingame.

[9] Ernest W. Burgess, "The Growth of the City," *The City*. Robert E. Park, Ernest W. Burgess, and R.D. McKenzie, ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925, 47-62.

[10] Homer Hoyt, *The Structure and Growth of Residential Neighborhoods in American Cities.* Washington: Federal Housing Administration, 1939.

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12 John Friedmann and John Miller, "The Urban Field," *Journal of the American Institute of Planners*, 31 (November, 1965), 312-320.

13 R.D. Norton, *City Life-Cycles and American Urban Policy*. New York: Academic Press, 1979.

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15 Arthur P. Solomon, *The Prospective City*. London: MIT, 1980.

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17 Solomon, 13.

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19 George A. Hillery, Jr., "Definitions of Community: Areas of Agreement," *Rural Sociology*, 20 (June, 1955), 111-123.

20 Willis A. Sutton, Jr. and Thomas Munson, "Definitions of Community: 1954 Through 1973," a paper presented to the American Sociological Association, New York, August, 1976.

21 U.S. Bureau of the Census, *County and City Data Book, 1962*. Washington: GPO, 1963, 633.

22 U.S. Bureau of the Census, *County and City Data Book, 1977*. Washington: GPO, 1978, 138, 150.

INDIANA COMMUNITY ANALYSIS PROJECT

Choong H. Kim

The word planning has become fashionable these days in the public library field. Library planning requires setting up measurable goals and objectives and assigning priorities to them. The ability to make realistic projections of future library demands and use by local people requires that such projections and policy decisions be based on community analysis. Community analysis also can generate data for library planners to use in evaluating existing facilities, resources, and services.

Most of the conventional community analysis efforts suffer from the lack of compatibility among the findings. In other words, findings of one community generally are not applicable to other communities, and therefore are not directly useful to help determine local goals and objectives. Community analysis can generate a lot of unfocused data that may be partically or indirectly useful to the planner, especially when the problems are not well enough defined. The Indiana Community Analysis Project (ICAP) is an effort to develop a common framework so that the findings of one community can be used to guide other communites.

Dr. Kim is currently a professor of Library Science and Project Director at the Department of Library Science, Indiana State University, Terre Haute, Indiana.

The ICAP is a LSCA grant project.[1] It began with a two day workshop, the Indiana Community Analysis Institute, held September 25-26, 1980, at the State Library auditorium in Indianapolis.[2] The workshop was followed by a year-long demonstration project which continues until the fall of 1981. The final phase of the project will be the compilation of the project data and data model into a handbook for reference use by public libraries throughout the state and the nation. The projected completion date of the handbook is June 1982. At this writing, fourteen public libraries in Indiana ranging from very small to very large are participating in the demonstration phase.[3]

In constrast to conventional ways of community analysis, the ICAP defines its own problems, develops its own analytical methods or framework (or model), and generates its own data. It creates a permanent numerical data base at each of the demonstration libraries. It does not intend or plan to evaluate or compare libraries on a certain set of norms or criteria. Instead, it seeks reasons to explain why a certain library functions the way it does. It will pool and correlate the data from various libraries to find these explanations. It will also test and demonstrate practical ways to conduct community analysis.

The ICAP defines its problems in the following questions: (1) what are the definable and measurable library outputs and what interrelationships are there between them? (2) what are the intra- and extra-library factors that influence these outputs, and how do they influence them? (3) how is the information need profile of a community developed? (4) how is the information need profile of a distinctive library clientele developed? These problems are discussed in this paper.

CHARTING AND EXPLAINING LIBRARY OUTPUTS

Fortunately, most libraries dutifully collect various library use statistics to report to various authorities. They commonly include the number of visitors or facility users and uses, number of borrowers and borrowing of library materials, number of reference/information inquirers and inquiries, use of library staff produced data (e.g., local community data file), use of special collections and archives, and contract research/information services.

All library uses by the public are defined as library outputs: ICAP is developing a practical way to monitor the local library outputs while creating simultaneously a numerical data base.

All of the demonstration libraries have started charting weekly and/or monthly library use statistics on a number of graph papers so that: (a) one can see interrelationships between various outputs as well as seasonal movements from month to month and from year to year, and (b) one can explain the movements in terms of what the library staff did in and outside of the library and in terms of what happened outside the library during the week or month.

In order not to forget what happened during each week, library staffs are asked to keep a weekly log or diary of significant happenings in and outside the library. For example, even though there might be bad weather, a new library building, socioeconomic conditions of a community, and other factors such as local topography, all can have an influence on library use. In addition, library policies and service activities are largely responsible for most library output. It is hoped that this new practice will force the librarian to rationally consider the movements or trends in his/her library so that s/he can evaluate the program and/ or collections and can better plan future activities. Thus, one need not wait a year or more to ascertain the general trends in the local community.

DEFINING AND DETERMINING LIBRARY CLIENTELES: LOCAL COMMUNITY PROFILES

The term library clientele has been used to designate library users in general. However, the word clientele may be used to define a distinctive group of people whether they use libraries or not. Thus, a community profile may be constructed based on the aggregate of a number of distinctive population groups or clientele(s). Each community is different from others in the sense that it has a unique mixture of various distinctive population groups that are more or less commonly recognizable in modern societies. Even in a small town of a few hundred residents, one can readily recognize a variety of occupations common to U.S. communities. For example, a town may have a grocery store which doubles as a drug store and a coffee shop, a dime store, a barber shop and a hair dresser, a bar (where locals can get together after work for a drink); a church or churches, an elementary school, a library, a lawyer, an accountant(s), insurance agents, a post office, a gas station, firemen and policemen. In a rural community, the bulk of the work force may be farmers, many of whom also work at factories in nearby cities. One can readily recognize these as common varieties of basic occupations. Thus, a community's economic character may be determined by its size and by its main industry.

All of the demonstration libraries have started to compile local demographic, occupational, socioeconomic profiles. The first step is to find out (or estimate) how many people belong in each distinctive occupational group (school children, non-working housewives, and the retired are distinctive groups). For example, estimates are made as to the number of teachers, lawyers, clerical workers, salespersons, preschool children, high schoolers. The U.S. census will provide most of the necessary data. Thus, the library staffs have started to organize data on: (a) how many, (b) where they live and work, (c) likely handicaps,— such as one-car families, old age, physical, psychological, cultural, or language barriers, (d) the composition of household, and (e) where and how often they congregate (e.g., church, social or fraternal organizations). Knowing

about the information problems of each distinctive occupational group (e.g., teachers), one can construct an aggregate information need profile of a community. Rationale for singling out occupation as the distinguishing factor will be discussed later.

CONNECTING LIBRARY OUTPUTS TO SPECIFIC CLIENTELE

As librarians we should know A/P ratio (active/potential user ratio) which will indicate user/nonuser ratio of each clientele. For example, an earlier survey indicates that blue-collar users represented only 4.9 percent of the users sampled while they constituted 17 percent among the local adult population. In other words, only 26 percent (4.9/17) of the blue-collar clientele were using the library at that time.

We also need to know which clientele is using which service output and to what extent. This information is directly useful in allocating resources and planning future activities. For example, the earlier survey indicates that the blue-collar users were responsible for 6.2 percent of adult book circulation, 5.4 percent of AV materials circulation, 6.9 percent of program attendance, etc. This also represents a cross-section at that time of the output chart indicating which clientele has contributed how much to a specific output (be that reference/information inquiries or inter-library loans).

This kind of anlaysis has required a walk-in user survey. If the occupational data is incorporated in the borrower card and if the circulation routine is computerized, the computer may be programmed to produce this kind of analysis at any time. That will certainly eliminate the need for laborious and expensive manual surveys such as walk-in user surveys.

LIBRARY SERVICE HOURS, LOCATION OR SITE: INFLUENCING LIBRARY OUTPUTS

When budget cuts were made, the typical solution would be to reduce library hours at branches and even at the main library. A branch library study by M. Getz suggests that this could worsen the already depressed branch usage even further, and that a better solution would be to consolidate some of the branches that are located only a mile apart from each other and extend the hours since little negative impact should result because of the increase, albeit slight, in the distance users must travel.[4] Another study of bookmobile service by Hu et al suggests that it would be more cost effective if the number of stops were reduced and the number of hours at each stop increased.[5]

Distance by itself is not a good indicator of library use. It is already clear at a large demonstration library that a majority of working adults, most notably professional, managerial, and sales groups, use the library (usually downtown

main library) where they work for a variety of purposes. Local library staffs know this through their daily experience, but little is done locally, let alone nationally, to document and systematize (or quantify) this knowledge. The ICAP is a beginning of such an effort.

LIBRARY COLLECTIONS

If asked what they want most from the public library, the user's answer would be quite predictable: books and more books! Obviously books and other information/media materials are the primary reason people use the library. Therefore, the more we know about the use of local collections, the more astute we become in the acquisition and selection of materials for the local collection. For example, it is generally observed that among other variables, the publication date of the material is a significant one affecting its use. In other words, the newer the material, the more likely it will be used. This general knowledge, however, has never been measured and quanitified. Without quantification, this theory cannot be totally accepted.

The ICAP libraries are studying the circulation patterns of local collections for the purpose of determining: (1) the age of materials that are being checked out and the subject variations, if any, (2) the age of the local collections, (3) the subject matters or topics that are in demand, and their variations by seasons and by clientele. By pooling such data from various demonstration libraries, we hope to establish or determine (1) the useful life of a collection, (2) variable collection retirement plan or formula, and (3) the long term reading interests of various clientele.

REFERENCE WORK

The ICAP regards reference work as a library output. In fact, it is one of the most expensive library outputs because it requires complete occupation of the staff time and a fully reserved reference collection beyond the general information resources within the library. Obviously this must be taken into consideration in weighing various output options in planning future allocations for activities and resources.

Many public libraries, especially very large resource—rich ones, have found their information/reference service outputs growing faster than the circulation of materials. With the rising costs of transportation and time, people (mostly library users) increasingly call for help from the librarian, thereby making full use of the library with minimum effort on their part.

It is quite conceivable that the potential demand for a specific kind of information can be determined and that the demand varies with different clientele. It follows that a way should be found to determine such demands as well as clientele. Based on such knowledge, we should be able to determine which kinds of information or materials should be provided or not provided in

the library. This will help avoid needless frustration over the inability to provide ready answers to all queries. Users, also, would not be frustrated if they knew what to expect from the library.

DEVELOPING CLIENTELE PROFILES

Librarians are by tradition catalogers and enumerators of information materials, and their professional knowledge and skill concerns handling these materials rather than people's use of materials. Even with the large scale computerization of library catalogs, bibliographies, and indexes, the basic approach is still enumeration of materials rather than use of information itself. In other words, information is handled as a matter of deciding or assigning appropriate subject headings or topics rather than as a problem by itself. The ICAP is an effort to look at information as our professional problem and as the subject of intense and continuous study. The ICAP began a new task to develop "Clientele Profiles" so that we can develop our professional knowledge as well as information practice.

Efforts are being made by a number of people to define or determine "information needs."[6] The ICAP is an effort to determine if "information problems" (not needs because the term needs describes the information as a subject matter rather than to explain the problem underlying the expressed request) could be explained for the library's practical purposes by one's occupation and by one's stage in life, an idea which has been espoused by a number of people, most notably by Professors M. Monroe and R. Vainstein.[7] By developing a clientele information profile by occupation, age, and sex, we would be able to describe, explain, and even estimate, one's information problems. Obviously, this knowledge is essential in anticipating what people want and in preparing materials for them.

Occupation is singled out as the most meaningful variable because it combines in it three other variables each significant by itself: education (necessary qualifications) and income (necessary livelihood, motivation, or incentive) and lifestyle (standard of living or the degree of physical, intellectual, and social activities and involvements). A study by Coughlin et al found occupational status to be a more significant indicator of the amount (not kind) of library use than either income or education.[8]

Morris Janowitz, a noted sociologist, observed that today people, including the growing majority of women, tend to identify themselves in terms of occupation (or career) rather than in terms of the traditional broad social classes.[9] It has been well known for some time that the increasing majority of occupations today are in the service sector which deals with information and technical knowledge or skill. Clearly, it behooves professionals in the public library to serve as active agents helping working people to maintain and improve their effectiveness and productivity in their trade or works, and to help to directly

increase the total wealth for everyone to share. Thus, occupation deserves a serious study as a very important factor.

All of the ICAP surveys are designed to develop various aspects of information seeking habits of various clienteles. One of the surveys is specifically designed for that purpose. Called the "clientele survey," this data collection is to be done by a combination of interview and questionnaire. The telephone may be used to secure the consent of those who will receive the questionnaire form, complete, and return it. Since the questions asked are quite involved, data gathering by telephone has been ruled out. In a large community, one specific group may be targetted at a time so that an adequate picture (or profile) may be drawn about that group. In a small community, only one general random sample may be taken. However, by pooling and correlating samples from a number of libraries, adequate data may be obtained to develop or strengthen the profile.

The clientele survey asks ten major questions. The first two (or three) are occupation related, and the remaining ones are related to the problems of daily living and leisure activities. This division may be designated as Type 1 and Type 2 problems. While the Type 1 problems are occupation specific, the Type 2 problems plague everyone as a layperson. The ten (or eleven) problem areas are as follows:

Occupation/business related:

Specific information/data needed frequently for one's work or business. Background knowledge and/or skill needed for one's work or business. Materials used as part of one's work or business (e.g., children's books and/or audiovisual materials for elementary teachers).

Daily living and leisure activities:

Recreational reading, leisure activities, personal finances, taxes, govt. benefits, investments, etc.; personal health and health care, housing and homemaking, transportation, private vehicles, public transportation schedules; legal and public safety questions; child raising and education of the young.

Respondents (both library users and nonusers) are asked to describe problems more specific than the topical headings, and to rate each problem on a 5-point scale (0 to 4, 4 being the highest rating or the most urgent). They are also asked to indicate how often they have the problem, what sources they usually use (library is one of several sources), what difficulty, if any, they have with the sources, and what suggestions, if any, they have for the local library.

REVIEW OF GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Goals and objectives should be reviewed regularly. The output distribution and performance as well as A/P ratios among various local clientele over the past months or years could be used as a basis for determining or adjusting the library goals or directions as well as for planning future activities. With such factual data

bases, achieving a consensus among staff will be greatly facilitated.

It is generally recommended that planning should start with goal setting.[10] In reality, however, the goal setting comes as the end product of the evaluations of various options open to the library. The evaluation requires a lot of data, and the data gathering requires community analysis. Thus, one's goal setting is as good as one's data and the insight gained from it.

Notes

[1] The projected total three-year grant is $46,511.

[2] The Institute was conducted by Dr. Roger C. Greer and Ms. Hartha L. Hale, both from the Community Analysis Research Institute, University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

[3] The demonstration libraries include: Indianapolis-Marion Co., South Bend, Muncie, Bloomington-Monroe Co., Mishawaka, Michigan City, Portage (Valparaiso), Crawfordsville, Huntington, Speedway, Petersburg, Brazil, Liberty-Union Co., and Covington.

[4] Malcolm Getz. *Public Libraries, an Economic View.* Baltimore & London, The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1980.

[5] Teh-wei Hu and others. *A Benefit-Cost Analysis of Alternative Library Delivery Systems.* Westport, CT & London: Greenwood Press, 1975.

[6] Readers are referred to works by Douglas Zweizig, Brenda Dervin, Carol Kronus, Thomas Childers, Vernon Palmour, Edward Warner, et al.

[7] Unpublished papers by the Feasibility Study Panel entitled: Approaches to the Study of Public Library Services and Users: A Report to the Learning Resources Branch, National Center for Educational Statistics. May 1979. The panel members include: Rick J. Ashton, Thomas Childers, W.L. Eberhart, Joseph Green, Jan Keene, Robert Little, Mary Jo Lynch, Jean Barry Molz, Margaret Monroe, Peggy Sullivan, Florence Wilson, Douglas Zweizig (Chair).

[8] Robert E. Coughlin and others. *Urban Analysis for Branch Library System Planning.* Westport, CT & London: Greenwood Press, 1972.

[9] Morris Janowitz. *The Last Half Century: Societal Change and Politics in America.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1978.

[10] Readers should read the PLA's *A Planning Process for Public Libraries.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1980.

LIBRARY SELF-STUDIES: THE INDIANA EXPERIENCE

Larry Hardesty

INTRODUCTION

A higher percentage of Indiana academic libraries have participated in various self-study programs conducted by the Office of Management Studies of the Association of Research Libraries than academic libraries in any other state in the nation. This shows the interest that academic librarians of Indiana have in planning, and the generosity of the Lilly Endowment in supporting many of these self-studies.

When planning the program for Fall 1981 ILA conference, the College and Universities Libraries Division, those of us on the program committee felt that a number of college and university librarians would be interested in learning more about the self-study experiences in the Hoosier State. We tried to gather a number of distinguished panelists who had a wide variety of experiences with the OMS self-studies in order to enlighten Indiana libarians about the planning process. The papers which follow are spinoffs from the ILA program.

Grady Morein provided us with an overview of the self-study process and an insight into the underlying philosophy.

Nyal Williams served as chairman of the self-study team at Ball State; from this he shared the perspective of a management review and analysis (MRAP) self-study in midstream at a medium-sized university.

Rowan Daggett served on the self-study team at Manchester College and spoke from the point of view of an administrator rather than a librarian viewing the immediate results of a self-study at a small liberal arts college.

Betty Jo Irvine represented the perspective of one who had more time to reflect on the results of a self-study.

Both the panelists and those of us who served on the College and Universities Division Planning Committee have been pleased by the response to their papers. We are grateful to INDIANA LIBRARIES for making it possible for the papers to reach a wider audience.

Editor's Note: **Due to lack of space Dr. Daggett's remarks have not been included.**

THE INDIANA EXPERIENCE WITH SELF-STUDIES

Dr. Grady Morein

Self-study is essentially a type of planning and, to me as a practitioner and student of Library Management, planning has become and will continue to be the most significant element of management. Planning has moved to the forefront of management and will remain there for several reasons, most of them readily apparent to each of you. The primary reason planning has become so important is that our world has become so incredibly complex that conditions and situations can suddenly change rapidly.

The one exception that I would take regarding Alvin Toffler's magnificant book FUTURE SHOCK[1] is with the title. To me the book clearly demonstrates that the shock is not in the future, but is here now. A more appropriate title, then, would have been PRESENT SHOCK.

All of us are acutely aware of the tremendous rate at which change is occurring. Rapid change is a fact of life. But in many respects, change has gotten away from us and has seemingly gotten out of control. In actuality, there are many occasions in which change is out of control and needs to be brought back into control. This is where planning comes into the picture. Change can be brought into control only through planning.

There are some who would ignore or resist change. Without recognizing change, the professional loses control. Control exists only when definite actions are designed and implemented to bring about desirable change.

We can, for example, ignore and/or resist the energy crisis and the depletion of certain natural resources, but this will not allow us to control it. We can ignore the spiraling book and periodical price increases, but this will not allow us to control them. Control results from planning, and the use of self-study is a means to plan for change, plan for progress, plan for our individual and collective library development.

Indiana has contributed more toward the development of academic library self-study programs than any other state. Colleges and universitites in the state of Indiana participated in the design and testing of two of the Office of Management Studies' self-studies. In 1972, Purdue University cooperated with two other Association of Research Libraries (Tennessee and Iowa State) to assist in developing and applying the Management Review and Analysis Program—the first of the OMS self-studies. In 1979, six small private liberal arts colleges and universities from Indiana[2] assisted in the development of the Planning Program for small academic libraries.

In addition to contributing toward the development of these self-studies, Indiana colleges and universities have intitiated and conducted self-studies to a larger extent than any other state. Eleven other libraries have participated, are participating, or will participate in a self-study.[3] That is an incredible 18 institutions in one state alone, the most positive statement of commitment to planning that can be made.

Assisted self-study is a term more or less coined by the Office of Management Studies to describe its particular approach to planning. OMS began developing this approach in 1972 with a program called the Management Review and Analysis Program. It consists of a self-study with analysis and planning conducted by task forces composed primarily of librarians. The library also receives resources in the form of study manuals and guidelines, survey instruments, and other prepared materials, as well as consultation assistance from OMS.

That first program, the Management Review and Analysis Program, was designed expressly for large university libraries holding membership in the Association of Research libraries and was initially available only to them. The program's success however, led other academic libraries to request that it or a similar program be developed and made available.

In 1976, the Council on Library Resources responded to these requests by funding a project at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte to design and test a self-study procedure for mid and small sized academic libraries. The Office of Management Studies was consulted on the project; it played a large role in the design known as the Academic Library Development Program.

In 1977, the Office of Management Studies received a grant from the Andrew Mellon Foundation to develop a self-study process for universities to use in assessing and developing their collection resources. This program was

named the Collection Analysis Project. In 1978, the OMS received support from the Lilly Endowment to provide a program for small private liberal arts colleges and universities in Indiana and neighboring states. A fifth program is currently in final stages of development. This will focus on preservation of materials and improvement of preservation practices and management. It is being funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities. Two additional programs are in the planning stage, a service analysis procedure, and a program for community colleges.

All of these programs have certain elements in common. Each program however, focuses on specific needs and conditions. The common features basically involve the philosophy behind the assisted self-study approach and the overall strategy employed by the programs.

This basic strategy consists of analysis conducted by the study team and task forces. In the planning program for small academic libraries, faculty and administrators are also included on the study team. All have been developed around systematic analysis. All programs specify explicit steps which essentially involve data collection, analysis of data, and development of action-oriented programs in that order.

These should effect improvements and influence change positively. While the self-study is a significant element within all the OMS programs, it is the philosophical foundation that provides the basis for the approach. The six basic assumptions which underlie the OMS programs are:

1. that the library and the institution are interested in managing and directing change
2. that the library and the institution are committed to improvement and recognize that planning is essential to generating effective improvements
3. that the librarians, faculty, administrators, students, staff, possess the necessary knowledge and skills to assess needs and develop improvements
4. that widespread involvement will produce the best results-that is, the best analysis—because it taps many resources and generates innovative ideas
5. that meaningful involvement in the analysis of issues and in the development of improvement programs will generate commitment to implementation and thus enhance the probability of successful results
6. that planning must follow a systems approach and focus on achieving results

The systems emphasis and results-orientation within the study are based upon Kurt Olmosk's patterns.[4] Olmosk defines eight approaches to effecting change. These are:

1. *Fellowship*
   Assumption: good, warm relationships will enhance agreement and promote problem solving.
2. *Political*
   Assumption: if all the 'really' influential people agree that something should be done, it will be done.
3. *Economic*
   Assumption: with enough money, most things can be changed.
4. *Academic*
   Assumption: people are rational; if the facts are presented, changes will be adopted.
5. *Confrontation*
   Assumption: it is sometimes necessary to take a hard stand to see that the problem is recognized and acknowledged. This will eventually produce results.
6. *Engineering*
   Assumption: if the environment or surroundings are changed people will have to change.
7. *Military*
   Assumption: physical force produces results; threats, sanctions, and coercion are sometimes necessary.
8. *The Applied Behavioral Science*
   Assumption: different problems require different approaches and many problems require a combination of several approaches.

The OMS self-studies employ the Applied Behavioral Science Approach. That is, they recognize that all seven basic approaches have a place and that frequently several approaches are needed to bring about results. Thus, the programs utilize groups to promote fellowship and to provide opportunity for developing political influence. The programs also acknowledge the importance of economics as well as the significance of rational, factual analysis. In addition, the programs recognize that it is frequently necessary to confront the issues head-on and to take a stand. Finally, the OMS programs realize that in some instances change will result only if the situation is restructured or if sanctions are applied.

Notes

1 Toffler, Alvin. *Future Shock*. N.Y.: Random, 1970.

2 The six schools involved were Anderson, Manchester, St. Mary's, St. Meinrad's, Taylor, and Valparaiso.

3 The eleven are Indiana University, Ball State, DePauw, Earlham, Franklin, Goshen, Hanover, Huntington, St. Joseph, the University of Evansville, and Notre Dame.

4 Olmsk, Kurt E. "Seven Pure Strategies of Change," *Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators*, LaJolla, Calif: University Associates, 1972.

MRAP: THE INDIANA UNIVERSITY EXPERIENCE FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF A FORMER STUDY TEAM CHAIR

Betty Jo Irvine

The Indiana University Libraries, Bloomington, participated in the Management Review and Analysis Program (MRAP) from September, 1974 until January, 1976 when the final report was submitted to the Dean of University Libraries. This paper summarizes (1) IU's reasons for participating in MRAP, (2) the objectives of MRAP for the University Libraries, and (3) the impact of MRAP.

(1) A number of factors both internal and external to the university libraries influenced IU's participation in MRAP. The internal factors were related to the creation of a new chief executive officer's position entitled Dean of University Libraries, the recent implementation of library faculty status for librarians, the systematic review of all personnel policies and clerical grades during 1973-74, and related activities to improve internal communications within the libraries. Appointed in the fall, 1972, the Dean of University Libraries arrived in January, 1973 filling a newly created post with administrative responsibilities for the entire IU system including Bloomington (IUB), the Regional Campus libraries, and the Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI) libraries. The MRAP vehicle provided a process whereby all top administrative and middle management functions, relationships, responsibilities and authority lines could be reviewed and analyzed by the IUB staff, including professional and support members. The result of this process was a

final report which would provide the new Dean with a historical perspective regarding the growth and development of the present organizational structure of the libraries, an overview of recent changes in the libraries, and guidelines for future improvements as perceived by the professional and support staff.

By the middle of 1974, faculty status was fully operational but also in need of review, i.e., committees were proliferating, and there was confusion in the relationships among unit or department heads, the chief administrative officers, and the Bloomington Library Faculty Council (BLFC). In short, it was time to review the administrative advisory role of the BLFC. The appointment of a Personnel Librarian by July, 1973 resulted in a systematic review of all personnel policies, procedures and clerical grades, which was completed during 1974. In addition, a Support Staff Organization was formed and a flexible work-week policy was implemented for support staff. Within a relatively short period of time, many accomplishments had been made in the operation of the libraries' personnel functions. It was appropriate to review the implications of these actions, to modify or improve upon what had been accomplished, and most importantly, to recognize the value of our accomplishments. With the establishment of formal library faculty and support staff organizations, internal library communications had substantially improved. The establishment of a library newsletter increased horizontal and vertical communications within the library. The professional and support staff now had several vehicles for communicating with and advising the libraries' chief administrative officers. It was time to review the role the staff played in participatory management.

External factors which influenced IU's participation in MRAP related to the various economic pressures facing institutions of higher education at the beginning of the 1970's. Limited resources imposed a need for fiscal constraint and for long-range planning to optimize organizational structure and attendant library functions. MRAP represented a formalized system for review and analysis that could make the library more responsive to faculty, students, and the university and public communites.

During MRAP, interviews were held with the chief executive officers of the university. These interviews allowed a cross-section of the library staff to share library concerns and needs with university administrators. The university had recently completed a major long-range planning document and MRAP represented a planning tool for the libraries.

(2) The specific objectives of MRAP for IUB as defined by the Dean of University Libraries were: to examine the present managerial structure with a view toward possible change; to examine organizational relationships with a view toward possible change; to foster improved communications throughout the libraries; to formalize departmental objectives; and to recommend better utilization of personnel. With newly redefined administrative officers including the Dean, the Personnel Librarian, an Associate Dean, and other positions,

MRAP provided an opportunity to review how the management team functioned, how they related to each other and to middle management, and the span of control of each administrator. Overlapping functions between departments or library units, the division of reporting lines between related units or departments, and the relationships among the various administrative councils, the department heads, and the library faculty and support staff organizations were reviewed. The Study Team also considered whether or not additional administrative officers were needed to improve library management.

(3) MRAP's greatest impact was the process itself. Participation in MRAP forced all administrative officers, department heads and other middle management level staff to review their responsibilities, functions, and interrelationships with other library units. The MRAP process stressed improved communications throughout the libraries. Nearly one-third of the entire staff was directly involved in MRAP, and at least fifty percent of the staff was involved at some point. Certainly, after MRAP there was an increased understanding of each unit's objectives.

As issues were raised during MRAP, changes were often made *before* MRAP could take credit for such changes. Changes which occurred during the MRAP process and which could be related to the process were numerous and often represented completed actions by the time the final report was submitted. For example, in a review of the 145 recommendations which were made in the final report, seventy-four percent of these recommendations had received a positive response and/or specific library administration action taken prior to the writing of the report. By the end of the MRAP period, twenty-six percent of these recommendations would be identified as completed actions or actions in the process of completion and/or review. Since the completion of MRAP in 1975, about ten percent of the original recommendations have been acted upon by members of the administrative group.

MRAP provided the libraries with a historical document on the administrative and organizational evolution of the system. The final report summarized a vast amount of information about the libraries which might otherwise be inaccessible or possibly unavailable in the future. Thus, the final report was intended not only to document a pattern of change but also one of accomplishment for the IU Libraries.

Immediately after completion of MRAP, the initial reaction was one of fatigue and a desire not to discuss the report; however, IU did hold open hearings on the final report, and it also routed through all units of the library. Although a great many changes had already taken place within a relatively short period of time, it would be unreasonable to expect MRAP to alter a system which had evolved over more than 150 years.

Numerous benefits can be derived from MRAP, not the least of which include the evolution of an environment for constructive change within the

library, improved communications within and without the library, and an awareness of library priorities based upon diverse staff input. Although designed as an internal study, MRAP forces a library to relate to, and to justify its operations as they affect users. By improving the internal organization and management of the library, improved services should result.

MANAGEMENT REVIEW AND ANALYSIS PROGRAM AT BALL STATE UNIVERSITY

Nyal Williams

Ball State University's Department of Library Service is approximately two-thirds through the projected MRAP time schedule. As Study Team Chairman, I am relieved with the knowledge that all libraries have similar problems. Indeed, when our group interviewed other librarians who had conducted similar studies, we began to feel that we might just adopt their reports and recommendations and consider our problems solved. You will recognize your own profile when you read any MRAP report.

Until 1965, Ball State was a teacher's college with an enrollment of roughly 2500 students. Since that time it has become a university of five colleges with enrollment exceeding 18,000. There is a new thrust in the institution. Teacher training receives less emphasis, and two colleges, architecture and business, are gaining attention from both students seeking these majors and budget officers supporting their burgeoning programs.

The economic outlook across the country and in Indiana calls for increased efficiencies in the use of all resources, including material and personnel. Those who were already efficient will most probably be strained in their adaptation to the new realities.

Our library reached its peak in staffing two years ago. At that time we had forty-five librarians and ninety-five support staff members. We are now beginning to lose positions through attrition. The library was moved into a new building in 1975. Our present structure has five floors, each the size of a football field. In 1979 we celebrated the acquistion of our millionth volume. The

library has five specialized collections within the main library building, and an exceptionally large media collection; there are three physically separate branch libraries.

Ball State has recently experienced a change in the administrative guard. We have a new president, a new provost, two new vice-presidents, and three new deans. Most are new to Ball State. These officers have brought new ideas about university management and about the function of the library within the university. In addition, the current organizational structure was created to fit the needs of the old, improperly arranged building. The new building contains the collection and uses the personnel differently. Although reorganization has been discussed since the move into the new building, nothing has been done.

In 1969, seven divisions were created; these are Information Sources, General Collections, Collection Development, Processing, Continuations, Educational Resources, and Branch Libraries. During the past five or six years there has been a growth of divisional autonomy. Each division has developed its own stance concerning such matters as organization, automation, work flow, internal management style. Since these were in conflict at times, negotiation has been difficult and painful. The communication across divisional lines concerning policies, operational decisions, and other matters has become a constant source of difficulty and irritation.

The introduction of automation requires examination of assignments, job descriptions, and job classification. Staff lines which have been eliminated through attrition may not be the proper ones to abandon. Librarians at Ball State have faculty status, nine month contracts, and, up to this point, summer employment options. While faculty status has many benefits for librarians, including professional prestige with the teaching faculty, more opportunity for academic discussions, and more involvement in campus politics, it also creates problems. Monies for summer salaries have been cut back to the point that summer staffing is a problem. Supervision of the support staff is inadequate during that time, and the lack of reference librarians and other librarians serving library functional needs is felt.

The teaching faculty's role has been unclear in our library, and the management control has not been resolved. This has led to a hazy notion concerning authority and responsibility and has created an uneasy feeling that the two might not coincide. Occasionally, decisions are wrangled over, or sometimes they are made by or attributed to the wrong party.

Our study team completed a general analysis that includes a study of trends in higher education and in libraries, an environmental study of the library in its institutional setting, and issued an Interim Report. As a result, six task forces on organization, leadership and supervision, communication, planning and budgeting, personnel, and automation and technology have been established. The first three task forces have completed their work, and the remaining three

are in the midst of their assignments. When all the reports are in, the Study Team will correlate the findings in a Final Report. Included will be a set of recommendations for change.

The Office of Management Studies has emphasized repeatedly that the greatest benefit from this exercize will be learning to use the method for continued improvement, that the process itself will be more important than any recommendations the Study Team might make. Our librarians expect the recommendations to solve Ball State problems; they perceive the recommendations to be the only benefit to be gained by the library from the MRAP.

I have seen the process at work. Librarians must be willing to develop lists of alternatives and to analyze them carefully before settling on a solution. They must be willing to discuss alternatives deemed impractical and to hold objective discussions with much less emotion. These skills are necessary to any real planning effort. Self-study is a difficult task, but significant educational benefits can be gained from the process. In the long run this can be far more important then specific recommendations which come out of the study.

Note

Johnson, Edward R. Stuart H. Mann. *Organization Development for Academic Libraries: An Evaluation of the Management Review and Analysis Program*, Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Press, 1980, 62.

Larry Hardesty is Head of the Reference Department at the Roy O. West Library, DePauw University.

Dr. Grady Morein has a Masters in Library Science, a MBA, and a PhD in management. Currently serving as University Librarian at the University of Evansville, Dr. Morein had previously worked at the Office of Management Studies.

Mrs. Betty Jo Irvine is currently Fine Arts Librarian at Indiana University. From 1974-75 she served as Assistant Director in charge of the Management Review and Analysis Program at I.U. She is completing her PhD at Indiana University School of Library and Information Science.

Dr. Nyal Williams, Music Librarian At Ball State University, has an MSLS and a doctorate in Musicology. He served as chair of the Ball State Self Study Team.

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