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Journal of the Indiana Library Federation and Indiana State Library

Books at War: Indiana's Libraries During WW II

Noraleen A. Young
Indiana Division
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World War II marked a special time for libraries in Indiana as they went beyond their traditional services to activities that involved the library within the community through both state-wide events and locally needed services. The Victory Book Campaigns of 1942 and 1943; the Third, Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth War Bond Drives; and the work with the Indiana War History Commission in documenting the war effort in their communities brought librarians together on a state-wide basis. At the state and local level, librarians realized the importance of the dissemination of war information, and, through institutes and war information centers, then provided expanded reference service to the state's residents. Locally, librarians provided relevant book lists, displays and special activities for a great variety of users, from victory gardeners to returning veterans. Librarians also provided outreach services to local defense plants and military bases. Libraries, due to their viability in the community, served as community centers and even as bomb shelters in case of air raids. Indiana's libraries went to war along with the rest of the nation.

Victory Book Campaign

The Victory Book Campaign was the first major activity undertaken by libraries within the state. Patterned after the book drives of World War I, the campaign sought to collect books in good condition on a variety of topics for servicemen in camps, both in the U.S. and overseas, for hospitals, and for servicemen's centers. The drives, sponsored nationally by the American Library Association, the United Service Organization, and the American Red Cross, began locally when Florence Allman of the Indiana Library Association recruited Ethel Cleland of the Indianapolis Public Library to be the state chairman soon after U.S. entry into the war in December 1941. Temporarily released from her duties at Indianapolis Public Library, Ethel Cleland

established an office in the Extension Division of the Indiana State Library and attended the 1942 Midwinter Meeting of ALA for training sessions.

Organization for the collection drive was based at the local level. Ethel Cleland assigned all 235 public libraries as local collection sites, with the State Office coordinating the activities. The initial drive began on December 29, 1941 when a letter was sent to all the public libraries appointing the head librarian of each library as director for the local community and adjacent areas where there was no library service. The Extension division of the Indiana State Library sent a separate letter to encourage participation. Governor Henry F. Schricker endorsed the campaign with the following proclamation:

> *The nation-wide drive to procure books for soldiers, sailors and marines in hospitals, in camps, and on ships, is a very praiseworthy undertaking, and I wish to compliment the American Library Association, the American Red Cross, and the United Service Organization for sponsoring the Victory Book Campaign.*
>
> *It is important that the morale of our soldiers, sailors and marines be maintained. Nearly every person possesses books which he can very well donate to this cause. I am hopeful that citizens of our state will respond generously to this appeal.*[1]

The committee asked college and special librarians to assist the local directors. Each director received posters, sample news releases, and labels for shipping the books. Cleland had a small budget for the campaign, and most libraries requested five to ten dollars to cover publicity and shipping expenses. Many libraries either absorbed the cost or raised the money by selling the waste paper they collected along with the books.

Collection campaigns varied from city to city. In Gary, the "Books for Buddies" campaign was supported by the street car company who put signs on the cars and allowed passengers to leave books on the cars, which would then be dropped off by the company at the library. At the Indianapolis Public Library, staff piled collected books into a large "V" in the entrance hall of the building. Knightstown Public Library conducted a house-to-house canvass using cartons donated by local businesses and collected over 300 books.

Some smaller libraries were concerned about their participation in the campaign. As Louise M.

Hubbard of the New Harmony Public Library explained, "We put a notice in the local paper but did not get a very flattering response, but, as our library is so old and our community so small, the public have always depended upon us and the only books they have are precious ones they do not wish to part with."[2] They were still able to send about 300 books after weeding their own collection and accepting community donations.

Indiana's libraries collected over 200,000 books that were eventually distributed across the country. More books were actually collected, but many were deemed unsuitable for distribution due to their condition or their subject matter. Ethel Cleland called upon libraries to forward children's books that were collected to defense plant communities. WPA workers repaired some of the damaged books so they could be sent on.[3]

The second Victory Book Campaign began in March of 1943. Harold F. Brigham, Director of the Indiana State Library, served as chair of the campaign. More than 200 libraries participated and collected 145,512 books.[4] Many of these books were sent directly to local camps and military installations within the state. Librarians reported on the wide community support the drive received. Louise Warner, assistant director of the campaign, said in her report that at one library "one local group gave a benefit party and turned over money to buy twenty new books ... one donor gave nineteen of her new Book-of-the-Month Club volumes."[5]

Ethel Cleland and Harold Brigham were very pleased with the response of Indiana's libraries in both campaigns. Cleland praised the role of the librarians in the first campaign:

> *I can't express my appreciation of the intelligent, prompt reception you local directors have given to the call to conduct the Victory Book Campaign in your communities. I don't know which has been most helpful, your efficient organization, your enthusiasm, your cordial cooperation, or your patience under delays and difficulties. Since I know how busy all of you are and what extra work the Victory Book Campaign has meant for you, I think the way you have organized and carried on the Drive and what you have accomplished have been splendid. It all goes to prove what high ideals of community service librarians have.*[6]

There was praise for the involvement of the local community:

> *Remarkable support, practical and finan-*

> *cial assistance have been given the drive by all sorts of local groups and associations. This is cheering evidence of the high place the public library plays in the life of our Indiana communities. It has been a good experience for us all to be a part of such a big patriotic movement, to have done so well and to have been so cordially supported by our fellow townspeople.*[7]

Brigham had equally nice things to say about the participation of libraries in the second campaign. In his final report of the campaign, he stated:

> *It has been inspiring, however, to find many communities, even small ones, repeating the same fine job they did a year ago and getting remarkably good results in spite of slim pickings, and in spite of the serious personnel problems that all of us have faced this year.*[8]

War Bond Drives

The largest organized effort undertaken by Indiana's libraries was the promotion and support of the War Bond Drives. The State War Finance Committee in conjunction with the New York Authors Guild scheduled several "Book and Authors for Bonds" rallies across the state for the Third War Bond Drive in the fall of 1943. The Indianapolis rally had been scheduled during the Indiana Library Association's and Indiana Library Trustee Association's annual conference. As Harold Brigham explained to Esther Moore of Jennings County Public Library,

> *...in trying to adjust this conflict the State War Finance Committee asked us if we would not sponsor the Indianapolis rally and a state-wide library war bond campaign at the same time. The directors of the two associations agreed to do this, feeling it was a request that could not be refused in the midst of war and that such an effort would reflect credit on libraries in the public estimation.*[9]

Bonds purchased by librarians, library trustees, and the general public would be credited to a particular library. Libraries had two weeks, September 25, 1943 to October 7, 1943, to sell the bonds and as the Third War Loan Drive had already begun, bonds purchased prior to September 25th could not be credited to the library campaign. Those

librarians and trustees purchasing a bond would be given a ticket to the Indianapolis rally. Those purchasing one thousand dollars or more in bonds would be given a reserved seat. It was also decided that the libraries which sold the largest dollar amount of bonds per capita would be presented a prize.

Irene M. Strieby, Eli Lilly Company librarian, chaired the committee and J. W. Van Briggle of the Railroadmen's Federal Savings & Loan Association of Indianapolis directed bond sales and promotion. At the rally, authors Ilka Chase, Franklin P. Adams, Carl Van Doren and Cleo Dawson gave pep talks to the audience which encouraged additional bond purchases of $2,625.00. A draft manuscript of Booth Tarkington's Kate Fennigate was auctioned off for $27,500 and presented to the Indianapolis Public Library with the money given toward the campaign.[10]

Even though libraries had little preparation for the campaign, it was extremely successful. Harold Brigham in a letter to William Hepburn of Purdue University stated that "we are finding that the mere mention of the fact that the libraries are sponsoring a bond campaign is stirring people, not only librarians and trustees but friends of libraries as well, to buy an extra bond, and this is what the State War Finance Committee wants us to do."[11]

When the campaign was over, Indiana libraries had sold over two million dollars worth of bonds. (Indiana sold $118,000,000.00 worth of bonds during the Third War Bond Drive.[12]) Libraries from all over the state participated. (See Table 1) Jasper Public Library sold $77.44 per capita and won an Ilka Chase manuscript and autographed books by Franklin P. Adams and Carl Van Doren. Converse Public Library finished second and won a manuscript of James Whitcomb Riley's Bereaved. Third was Warsaw Public Library, which won a Van Doren manuscript; fourth was Anderson Public Library which was awarded a manuscript of Salten's Forest World. Muncie Public library was fifth and received a manuscript of Adams; Pennville, in sixth place, won an Ilka Chase manuscript and an autographed copy of a Van Doren book; the seventh place prize, to New Castle, was a manuscript of Hans Habe's Katherine; in eighth place was the Indianapolis Public Library which received a manuscript of Salten's Good Comrades. The participation of Indiana's libraries in the Third War bond campaign marked the first time libraries in the nation participated in a War Bond campaign.[13]

Libraries in Indiana did not participate again in the war bond drives until the Sixth Drive, which ran from November 20, 1944 to December 31, 1944. The drive was the first nationally organized effort for libraries, and Indiana was one of twenty states to participate. Louis J. Bailey, former director of the Indiana State Library, was the national director of the Library War Bond Committee.[14] By this time most communities had

become well organized for bond selling, and many librarians had realized even during the Third War Bond drive that they were not in a position to sell bonds. In a letter to Bailey, Brigham stated:

> *we recognized as a result of our maiden experience with a state bond selling campaign in 1943 that many libraries would not undertake actually to sell bonds and seek library credit for such sales. Our discussions at the annual library conference reflected a strong conviction on the part of many libraries that the injection of a library campaign into the general local campaign would be considered to disturb the already established organization for selling bonds locally and could hardly be expected to produce enough extra bond sales to justify the attempt all things considered. For this reason we encouraged all libraries to participate in the 6th War Loan Drive with publicity and educational undertaking, and we urged all to consider also participation in the bond selling campaign.*[15]

Even so, $142,312 worth of bonds were credited to libraries. Due to the smaller participation in actual bond selling but a larger role by many libraries in promotion, the awards committee gave two sets of awards: one set for selling bonds and the second for promotional activities. The winners were as follows*(Bond Selling; Amount Sold Per Capita):*

Converse-Jackson Twp. Public Library ;
$103,456.00 , $52.40.
Linton Public Library;
$9,116.75, $1.0.
New Castle Public Library;
$20,318.50, $.60.
Montpelier Public Library;
$150.00, $.50.
Promotion
Indianapolis Public Library
Seymour Public Library
Anderson Public Library

Awards included manuscripts of *My Friend Flicka, Jezebel the Jeep, No Other Road to Freedom*, and Pop Warner's *Book for Boys*, a packet of letters from Agatha Christie, Dashell Hammet and Vincent Sheehan, and two drawings: a Chinese drawing by Kurt Wiese and a pen and ink illustration by Kathern Milhous.[16]

The Seventh War Bond Drive occurred in the spring of 1945. Libraries were more involved in promotion of the drive than in the actual selling of bonds. Converse-

Jackson Township Public Library won for selling the most bonds with $14,475 or $7.32 per capita. Linton Public Library won for the greatest amount of educational and promotional work. Indianapolis Public Library won for the best exhibit promoting war bond sales. The report in *Library Occurrent* also mentioned a rally with Governor Schricker at Fortville, and the Scott County Public Library did a display on the history of the Marines.[17]

The Eighth or Victory Loan Drive was also supported by libraries but no awards were given or records kept of the participation of particular libraries. Overall, library participation in the promotion and sale of bonds throughout the war bond campaigns was successful. Libraries played an active part in a major community event and in many cases, the librarians drew upon personal contact to make it a successful project.

Indiana War History Commission

A smaller but important organized activity was the work of librarians with the Indiana War History Commission. Clarence A. Jackson, when appointed Civil Defense Director by Governor Schricker in March, 1941, tried to find a history of similar work during World War I. Although some work had been done, little had been preserved. Jackson called upon President Herman B. Wells of Indiana University to assist him with developing a plan to preserve the history of Indiana's participation on the home front. Initially a faculty committee handled the responsibilities, but in December 1943, the Indiana General Assembly established the Indiana War History Commission. The Commission, composed of forty-five members representing a broad spectrum of Hoosiers, created six divisions: the Division of Economic Changes, the Division of Agricultural Developments, the Division of Armed Forces, the Division of Government and Political Changes, the Division of Social Forces, and the Division of Libraries, Historical Societies and Museums.

Chaired by Harold F. Brigham, the Division of Libraries, Historical Societies, and Museums had a threefold mission: 1) guide local libraries in making collections for their own institutions; 2) assist the War History Commission in its task to collect the records of the war; 3) create a state-wide bibliography of the materials which record Indiana's part in the war and the effect of the war on Indiana. Articles in *Library Occurrent* described the types of records libraries were to collect. They included publications of local units of government, newspapers, local periodicals, military service records of members in the community, and records of groups and organizations of the community. The Division strongly encouraged librarians to make sure that the records of local government were also being preserved. Materials collected would be housed by the library or sent on to an appropriate agency. Librarians were encouraged to keep a running inventory of what

items were collected and to send a copy of that inventory to the State Library.

The April-June 1944 issue of *Library Occurrent* was devoted entirely to the Indiana War History Commission. It included a description of the other Divisions as well as a report on the activities and plans of Indiana's libraries. A survey sent out in April 1944 had limited response but found that most libraries collected local newspapers and maintained records of local men and women in the military. Librarians voiced several problems both in the questionnaire and in district meetings held that spring. Housing the records, financing the project, staff limitations, cooperation and duplication were all noted as concerns. The program continued through the rest of the war.

War Institutes and Information Centers

Amidst these special projects, many librarians believed the war created special information needs. War institutes held by librarians identified the issues and the way libraries could help the public to understand the war and to plan for the postwar period. A second response to the special informational needs of the period was the establishment of War Information Centers.

Sponsored by ALA first on a national level, then regionally and finally on a state-by-state basis, institutes on war and postwar issues sought to "stimulate and help librarians to undertake the most important adult education job of this generation, namely, helping the American people to clarify war and postwar issues by encouraging reading and thinking about these issues."[18] Institutes were held at Winona Lake and Spring Mill State Park in June of 1943 and a follow-up session was conducted at Indianapolis in October of 1943. The institutes were divided into three sessions, each with its own agenda: first, the issues and their importance and the problems of reaching people; second, the job libraries had before them and how to "bring out new ideas and new emphasis for library service that would be unhampered by traditional library thinking"; finally, putting the library to work at this job.[19]

Over 150 librarians met at the two June institutes. The results of the institutes included observations by lay leaders that many rural residents did not have access to a library, that libraries should use film, radio and public presentations and that libraries should train staff in the methods needed to make personal contact. The institutes provided librarians with the intellectual framework to assist their communities in dealing with the war and in planning for post-war recovery.

Libraries also served as War Information Centers. Indiana University, Purdue University and Notre Dame University served as the main centers for government information and collected publications and audio visual materials to distribute to the public as well as providing speakers and discussion leaders for meetings.

As the war came to a close, librar-

ians shifted their focus to help the returning veteran adjust to his new life and to assist their communities in post-war recovery and planning. In the September 1945 issue of *Library Occurrent,* Wilbur I. Nagley, Public Relations Director, Indianapolis Public Library, wrote,

> *the thunder of death-dealing bombs has ceased. It is quiet on the far-flung battle-fronts of World War II. Victory over the infamous Axis is ours, but only at an irreparable price.*
>
> *Today, in the wake of the world's most terrible holocaust, there is a great cry for a lasting peace. But before lasting peace is attained, many related problems must be solved . .*
>
> *. . . To the building of a lasting peace must be dedicated great work in which libraries are destined to play an important part. Now is presented the opportunity for libraries to show their true worth to the people and the causes they serve.*
>
> *Libraries are confronted with the great challenge of making people more conscious of the truths upon which their freedom hinges. Libraries must help create a better understanding and appreciation for one another among peoples of the world. This is essential to peace . . .*
>
> *. . . From now on libraries will probably be busier than ever. They should remember that friendly and courteous service during the war years enhanced their prestige and acceptance by the public. Such service must continue even in the face of heavier work..*
>
> *What will be the librarian's reward for greater service? It will be that of having helped to lay a plank toward of the foundation of "peace on earth, good will to men"* [20]

Indiana's libraries, like many other institutions within the community, supported war-related activities. Libraries provided valuable service in assisting patrons with their regular

and special informational needs during the war years. Librarians in many Hoosier communities went beyond their traditional roles to involve themselves and their libraries in the larger community.

3rd War Bond Drive Reporting Libraries

Library	Amount
Akron	$1,556.25
Anderson	$530,737.50
Aurora	$3,918.75
Bedford	$768.75
Bloomington, IU School of Music Library	$1,443.25
Columbus	$18.75
Converse	$37,844.50
Crawfordsville	$187.50
Decatur	$18.75
East Chicago	$393.75
Elkhart	$1,206.25
Fowler	$75.00
Francesville	$1,500.00
Franklin	$4,537.50
Greencastle	$750.00
Greenfield	$2,475.00
Hammond	$1,025.00
Huntingburg	$19,312.50
Indianapolis Public Library	$391,787.50
Indianapolis, Arsenal Technical High School	$3,093.75
Indianapolis, Broad Ripple High School	$450.00
Indianapolis, Crispus Attucks High School	$543.75
Indianapolis, Emmerich Manual High School	$581.25
Indianapolis, George Washington High School	$1,350.00
Indianapolis, Indiana Central College	$168.75
Indianapolis, Indiana Medical School Library	$1,500.00
Indianapolis, Indiana State Library	$8,572.50
Indianapolis, Indiana State Welfare Dept.	$7,706.25
Indianapolis, Indiana University Extension	$468.75
Indianapolis, Indiana War Finance Committee	$2,250.00
Indianapolis, Lukas-Harold Corporation	$2,062.50
Indianapolis, Shortridge High School	$450.00
Indianapolis, Thomas Carr Howe High School	$337.50
Indianapolis, Warren Central High School	$1,125.00
Jasper	$390,339.50
Jeffersonville	$562.50
Knightstown	$1,968.75
Kokomo	$23,037.05
Linton	$19,918.75
Logansport	$487.50
Madison	$25,293.75
Mishawaka	$150.00
Montpelier	$3,112.50
Mooresville	$1,631.25
Muncie	$364,730.00
New Carlisle	$543.75
New Castle	$27,425.00
Noblesville	$15,168.75
Pennville	$1,218.75
Plymouth	$100.00
Roann	$506.25
Rochester	$5,250.00
Rushville	$300.00
Scottsburg	$1,837.50
South Bend	$37.50
Thorntown	$337.50
Vevay	$37.50
Walton	$300.00

Wanmaker, Franklin Twp. School	$18.75
Warren	No receipts
Warsaw	$113,618.00
Westfield	$600.00
Winamac	$1,500.00
Theatre	$2,625.00
ManuscriptAuction	$27,500.00
Total	$2,059,926.05

1. Governor Henry F. Schricker to Ethel Cleland, January 6, 1942. Victory Book Campaign papers, Indiana State Library collection, Archives Division, Commission on Public Records. (Hereinafter referred to as the VBC papers.)

2. Louise M. Hubbard to Ethel Cleland, April 23, 1942. VBC papers.

3. Ethel Cleland "Report of the Director of the Indiana Victory Book Campaign" *Library Occurrent*, Jan. 1942, v.14 #1, p.14.

4. Harold F. Brigham Victory Book Report, 1943, VBC papers.

5. Louise Haworth Warner, "Victory Book Campaign, 1943" *Library Occurrent* April, 1943, v.14 #6, p.143.

6. Ethel Cleland to local directors, March 3, 1942. VBC papers.

7. Ethel Cleland to local directors, no date. VBC papers.

8. Report of Harold F. Brigham, April 12, 1943. VBC papers.

9. Harold Brigham to Esther Moore, September 25, 1943, War Service Records, Indiana State Library, Archives Division, Commission on Public Records. (Hereinafter referred to as War Service Records.)

10. "Book and Authors Bond Drive and Rally" *Library Occurrent*, October 1943, v.14 #8, p.212.

11. Harold F. Brigham to William Hepburn, September 27, 1943, War Service Records.

12. Friedman, Bernard *The Financial Role of Indiana During World War II*, Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1954, p. 196.

13. "Book and Authors Bond Drive and Rally" *Library Occurrent*, October 1943, v.14 #8, p.212.

14. Louis Bailey served as Director of the Indiana State Library from 1925 to 1935; he was national coordinator of the Victory Book Campaign, 1943-44 and was a member of the national Book and Authors War Bond Committee, 1943-46.

15. Hardol F.Brigham to Louis Bailey, January 11, 1945, War Service Records.

16."Library War Bond Campaign" *Library Occurrent*, March 1945, v.15. #1, p. 346.

17. "Indiana Libraries Win Bond Promotion Awards" *Library Occurrent*, September, 1945, v.15#3, p. 406.

18. "Institute on War and Postwar Issues" *Library Occurrent*, October, 1942, v.14#4 p.100.

19. "Indiana Institutes on War Issues" *Library Occurrent*, April 1943, v.14 #6, p.138.

20. Wilbur I. Nagley, "Peace", *Library Occurrent*, September, 1945, v.15 #3, p.491.

BOOK AND AUTHOR
WAR BOND RALLY

FRANKLIN P. ADAMS
of Information Please

CARL VAN DOREN
Historian and Critic

ILKA CHASE
"Past Imperfect"

CLEO DAWSON
"She Came to the Valley"

AND A GALAXY OF INDIANA AUTHORS

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 7, 8 P. M.

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Andrew Carnegie's gift to the citizens of Fort Wayne was this handsome library building, 1904. Photo courtesy Newman Studio, Fort Wayne.

Main entrance, Fort Wayne Public Library, 900 Webster Street, 1970. Photo courtesy of Allen County Public Library.

The Allen County Public Library Fort Wayne, Indiana

Dawne Slater-Putt
Periodical Source Index Supervisor
Allen County Public Library

The idea of a public library in Fort Wayne, Indiana, was conceived by a former Michigan journalist and his allies in the late 1870s, brought to fruition through the work of club women in the early 1890s, and born with a public meeting hosted by the mayor in City Hall council chambers on January 28, 1895. "What to Read. Our New Library Solves the Problem." proclaimed the headline on a story about the new library in the next day's Fort Wayne Journal.[1]

"Someone has said, 'All things come to him who waits,'" Mr. D. N. Foster said in his speech to the crowd gathered in council chambers the evening of the celebration. The former Grand Rapids, Michigan resident explained how he had left Grand Rapids and its public library in 1877 and moved to Fort Wayne, not then, as he termed it, "an ideal American city."[2] In 1877, Fort Wayne not only had no public library, but no sewers, no water works, no paved streets, and only a volunteer fire department.

In the summer of 1880, Foster and other residents interested in the idea of a public library approached local attorney Col. R. S. Robertson for aid. Robertson, without pay, authored an act that empowered all cities and incorporated towns of Indiana to provide a free public library in connection with the local school system, and the authority to levy a tax of not more than three cents on each one hundred dollars worth of property to establish and maintain the facility. The bill passed on March 7, 1881.[3]

In Fort Wayne, where the bill was authored, no public library appeared for fourteen more years, although the board of school trustees asked the city council for a tax levy for a library that very first year - Spring of 1881. The city council, which was described in Foster's speech at the library opening celebration as "dominated by persons who were hostile to the enterprise and who at once set about finding some way to evade the law,"[4] managed to do just that. The

council found what Foster termed a "loophole" in a late provision added to the library bill while it was before the legislature.

Evansville representatives at that time noted that their city was one of two in the state that already had a public library supported by taxation, and that it might prefer to follow its "old law," rather than adopt the policies set down by the proposed bill. The Evansville representatives suggested the following provision to Robertson's bill: "Provided: That in any city or incorporated town where there is already established a library open to all the people, no tax shall be levied for the purpose herein named."[5]

When Fort Wayne's board of school trustees requested a tax levy for the purpose of establishing a public library in 1881, the city attorney reported that the city already had "a library open to all our people," and the council denied the request. Foster, in his speech, described this "library" as "a back office and on the dust-covered shelves of our township trustee."[6] It probably consisted of the remnants of one of the old township libraries established by law in 1852, 1854 and 1855 and allowed to become defunct.[7]

This precedent of denial by the city council was followed until July of 1893, when the Woman's Club League approached the common council with a petition signed by hundreds of taxpayers asking that a public library be established in Fort Wayne. This time the council agreed and levied a tax of one and a half cents, which garnered $3,261.11 for Fort Wayne's first public library.[8]

The library's initial, temporary home was a room in City Hall. Fort Wayne residents got their first glimpses of the small library of 3,606 volumes when it opened its doors at 10 a.m. on January 29, 1895 in the charge of Susan Hoffman, librarian. The sources of these books were as follows: 117 from the Woman's Club League, 800 from the Allen County Teachers Association, 1,028 from the school board from the library of the high school, 247 from private individuals, and 1,414 purchased specifically for the new library. Of the books from the high school library, a portion had been part of the collection of the Working Men's Institute Library operated earlier in the city.[9]

Public interest and library use were great immediately; 1,477 residents held library cards by July and 4,461 had used the reading room.[10] Within the year, the board of school trustees chose to relocate it to larger quarters - the Sol D. Bayless property at the southwest corner of East Wayne and Clinton Streets.[11] Three years later, the library moved again, this time to a site it had purchased for $14,000 at the corner of Wayne and Webster Streets.[12] It opened its doors to the public on October 20, 1898, and has been in the same location for the past ninety-three years.

Librarians and library assistants to the turn of the century included Hoffman, Clara Fowler, Jennie

Evans, Margaret M. Colerick, Nancy McLachlan and a Miss Sturgis. Helen Tracy Guild, hired in 1897, was the library's first cataloger. Fowler followed Hoffman as librarian, and Colerick was appointed librarian upon Fowler's death in 1898,[13] a position she filled until 1934.

Andrew Carnegie's Gift

By the turn of the century, Fort Wayne's library had outgrown its building once again. The Woman's Club League, instrumental in establishing the library originally, again acted on behalf of the facility and, with the help of other interested citizens, requested the aid of national philanthropist Andrew Carnegie in 1901. Carnegie did not grant this first request.[14] But upon a second request, he gave $75,000, plus an additional gift of $15,000, toward the construction of a new public library building in Fort Wayne.[15]

The library occupied temporary quarters in the old Elektron building on East Berry Street while the Carnegie library was being constructed. It was there in 1901 that the library's first specialized department - the Children's Department - began.

On January 7, 1904, the new Carnegie library building of buff-colored Indiana limestone at the corner of Wayne and Webster Streets was dedicated. It was open from January 8 to August 18, then closed for decorating work and reopened permanently on October 13.[16]

Specialization

As the library grew, specialization within its collections developed. The Children's Department, already mentioned, was the facility's first specialized department. In 1912, the library opened the Business and Municipal Department,[17] now known as the Business and Technology Department. As early as 1905, the library was collecting material relating to the history of Indiana and Allen County in particular, which later became the Indiana Collection,[18] a complement to the nationally-acclaimed Historical Genealogy Department. The Historical Genealogy Department formally was established in 1961, but as early as 1935, librarian Rex M. Potterf said in an address before the Quest Club, "Genealogy and local history are favorite pursuits and the facilities (of the library) for such are good."[19]

The precursor of today's Art, Music and Audiovisual Department began during World War II as the Record Room, where patrons could borrow 78 rpm discs.[20] The Young Adults Department opened in 1952. Public access cable television was added to the library in 1981, with the advent of the Television Services Department. The reference desk became the Readers' Services Department in 1983.[21]

Projects and Experiments

Beginning early in its history, the Fort Wayne Public Library experimented with various services beyond the mere lending of books. These included renting books, open shelves for patron browsing and reference service.

In 1900, the library tried the

experiment of renting extra copies of popular fiction. Five works, *Richard Garvel, Janice Meredith, Gentleman From Indiana, To Have and To Hold*, and *The Light of Scarthey*, were rented a total of 586 times during a nine-month period and brought in monies slightly exceeding the initial cost of the books. To satisfy patrons' demands for the latest books, the library started a rental collection again in 1922. It contained fiction and non-fiction volumes that were duplicates of circulating books.

With the move to temporary quarters during the construction of the Carnegie building in 1901, the library initiated its open-shelf system, allowing patrons to choose books by browsing.

Early reference service practiced by librarians at the Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County was mentioned in an undated pamphlet titled "Equal Book Privileges for The Farm Home and The City Home," probably published between 1920 and 1931. The pamphlet described countywide library services and included this paragraph: "Farm clubs, community clubs, literary societies and women's clubs may get the help they need for papers, debates and discussions by requesting material on their special subjects."[22]

Librarians of this time period also provided at least some reader's advisory service, as evidenced by this passage from the same pamphlet: "Help will be given as to the best books on any subjects, and book lists will be furnished upon request." Also: "Through the County Librarian, reading lists and experienced help on the best books on specified subjects may be secured. For this service, reading lists already compiled by the Main Library, revised frequently and kept on file, may be drawn upon. New subjects will be considered and a list of recommended books submitted upon request."[23]

Another innovation was providing patrons with current newspapers from New York; Boston; Indianapolis; Springfield, IL; San Francisco; and St. Louis. These appeared in the reading room in the fall of 1901, when the library began subscriptions.

By 1902, citizens from Allen County who did not live within the Fort Wayne city limits were allowed library privileges if they paid a fee of $1 or showed proof that they owned property in Fort Wayne.

Also in 1902, the library began a program of lending books to schools that were considered too far away for students to use the library conveniently. Either for better service to school language classes or because of Fort Wayne's strong German heritage (or perhaps both), 150 German language books appeared on the shelves of the public library in 1902. Before this time the library had circulated only English language books. French language books were added to the collection in 1913 at the request of local French classes.

Interlibrary loan within the Fort Wayne and Allen County system began in the 1920s after the advent of county library service. County

residents had "the privilege of borrowing books of unusual interest or those on special subjects from the large resources of the Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County." Any circulating volume in its collection was available to be borrowed and was delivered to the library or person requesting it.[24]

County and Extension Services

Until 1920, the Fort Wayne Public Library's services were free only to residents of the city or those who owned property within the city limits. But in that year, a petition was circulated asking for county library service, a tax was levied, and the Fort Wayne Public Library became the Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County.[25] The Allen County Department was formed to meet the needs of residents outside the city limits. A pamphlet published shortly after the advent of county library service described the services of the Allen County Department, including library branches and deposits; reading and reference aids; interlibrary loan; and service to school libraries.[26]

Years before the advent of countywide library service, the idea of reaching out to patrons who were not convenient to the library's downtown location had blossomed. Wayne Knitting Mills, a local factory, was the recipient of the first extension project of the public library in Fort Wayne. A small collection of books was placed at the mills in 1909. In 1916, the library's Extension Department became official and began placing selections of books in factories, fire departments, and other locations. Hospital outreach service began in 1924 at Saint Joseph Hospital.

Schools also began to reap the rewards of the Extension Department with the establishment of the first public library high school branch at Central High School in 1917. A second high school branch opened at Southside High School in 1922. Northside High School's branch opened in 1927. With the expansion to county service in 1920, several of the rural high schools received library book "deposit stations." Jurisdiction of the high school branch libraries returned to the schools in 1930.

Branch libraries made their debut in 1912 with the opening of the Southside branch (now Shawnee) on South Calhoun Street. The Northside branch (now Little Turtle) opened at Wells and Sixth Streets in 1919. Since the change in 1920 from a city to a countywide focus, it has been a challenge for the public library in Fort Wayne to bring its services and materials within reach of patrons, not just in the city, but in all areas of Indiana's largest county. The library opened branches in Huntertown, Monroeville and New Haven in 1921 in an effort to meet this goal. The Harlan branch followed in January of 1922, and the Pontiac branch library was established later the same year.

In November of 1926, the Richardville branch opened on South Broadway, and the Tecumseh branch opened on State Boulevard in Janu-

ary of 1927. The Monroeville branch library opened in 1928. One source also mentions a "Maumee" branch but gives no details or dates. The library established a reading room with circulating books in the nearby town of Arcola in late 1929, as well as other "deposit stations" across the county. The year 1929 also saw the advent of the public library's bookmobile in Fort Wayne, then referred to as a "book-wagon." It was one of the first bookmobiles in the nation. In 1930, book-wagon circulation totaled more than 17,000 items.

By 1931, the Public Library of Fort Wayne and Allen County had a main library, five city branches, eighty-seven city deposit stations, four county branches, three reading rooms and 111 county deposit stations, as well as a book-wagon.[27] "Library centers" were located at Wilder's General Store in Aboite, More's General Store in Arcola, G.S. Myer's home in Cedarville, Grabner's General Store in Edgerton, the post office in Grabill, Moore's Filling Station in Hall's Corners, Barkley's Lumber Yard in Hoagland, Warner's General Store in Leo, D.L. Small's home in Maples, Linker's Filling Station in St. Joe, Townsend's General Store in Tillman, Farmer's Equity Exchange in Wallen, Noble's Grocery Store in Waynedale, opposite Village Hall in Woodburn, the post office in Yoder, and Knight's General Store in Zanesville.[28]

1930s-1950s

The period of growth and expansion in the 1920s was followed by the Great Depression of the 1930s. Allen County's library suffered through the Depression with increased business from the unemployed but with a budget barely large enough to remain solvent. The local newspaper described the hard conditions:

> *Valuable staff members were discharged, only a few books were purchased, rebinding was practically discontinued, points of contact with the public were eliminated or reduced in operation and the book stock (was) almost worn out by the hordes of unemployed who came to the library since they no longer had money to spend on amusements and entertainment.*[29]

Librarian Colerick died in 1934, and Rex M. Potterf took charge of the library in January of 1935. With his guidance, the facility was reorganized with a new approach that took into account the suffering economy.[30] Gradually the library, like the rest of the country, fought its way back. The Works Progress Administration aided in this process by making the repair of the main library and the branches one of its projects.

The library that suffered almost "an almost mortal blow"[31] during the Depression, began to thrive again during the 1940s and 1950s. Two new bookmobiles with some sixty-six stops began rolling on Fort

Wayne streets in 1949 and 1951, again reaching toward formerly distant patrons.[32]

1960s-1990s

By the early-1960s, when it was apparent that the facility had outgrown its Carnegie building, Fort Wayne's population - in effect the public library's "public" - had quadrupled.[33]

In 1952, 56,204 registered patrons had borrowed 1,352,307 books and 23,707 phonograph records, and by 1962, 86,122 registered patrons borrowed 2,446,230 books and 32,153 phonograph records, an increase of more than half over 1952 figures.[34]

Books and other materials were stored in 14 separate downtown locations because of a lack of space. Seven bookmobiles covered Allen County and made 250 stops per week. The system supported eight branch libraries. Seventy-two public and parochial schools were stocked with books and staffed by public library personnel.

"So we see that during the past ten years the faster pace of world affairs, business, technology and cultural writing, with the resultant flood of books from publishers, has brought to our Library a problem of containment. No place to put the books. The printed records is rapidly outgrowing our space for orderly arrangement. Books are of no value if not readily available," said a local newspaper advertisement, apparently a pre-bond issue plea, in 1962.[35]

When firm plans were made for a new library building, collections moved into cramped, temporary quarters in the Purdue Center. The Carnegie library was razed and the new modern-looking building of stark, white concrete went up. It was dedicated and opened in August of 1968.

An addition of 55,000 square feet that now houses the Historical Genealogy and Young Adults Departments was added to the building in 1981.[36]

The year 1990 saw a great deal of renovation and growth for the facility now known as the Allen County Public Library. The main library and its branches were renovated, expanded, moved or, in one case, completely razed and rebuilt. In addition, two new branches were opened in the Dupont and Aboite areas.

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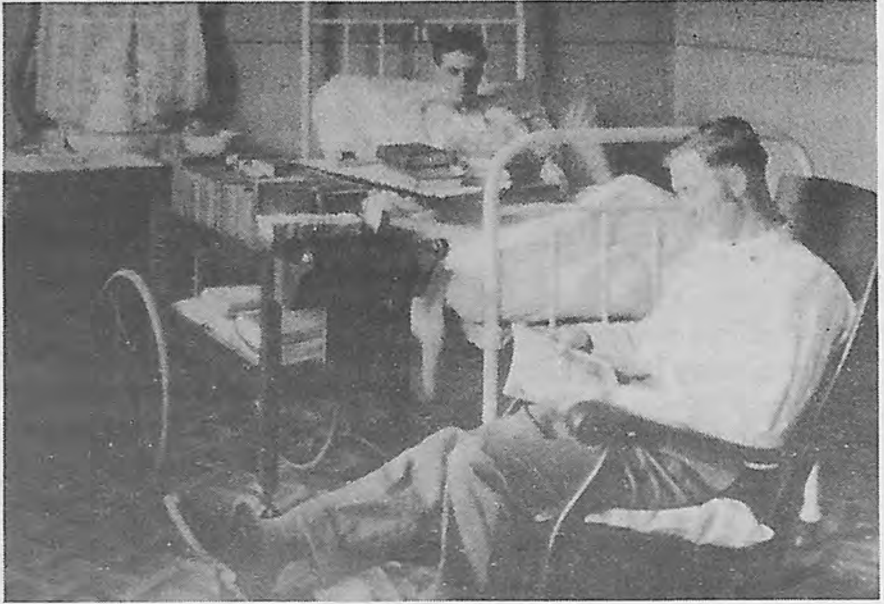
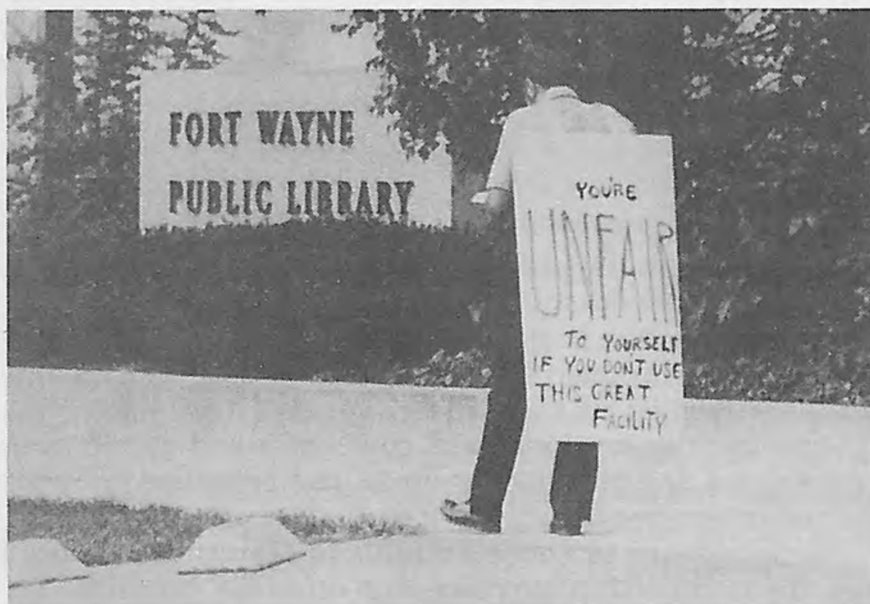
Fort Wayne Children's Department, 1911.
Photo courtesy of Allen County Public Library.



Fort Wayne Public Library Extension Department, Saint Joseph's Hospital, 1928. Photo courtesy of Allen County Public Library.

Fort Wayne Public Library Circulation Department, 1935. Photo courtesy of Allen County Public Library.

Fort Wayne Public Library Northside Branch, 1922.
Photo courtesy of Allen County Public Library.



An unknown man demonstrates in favor of the library, 1976.
Photo courtesy of *Fort Wayne Journal Gazette.*

An Invitation

Indiana Library Federation

The Indiana Library Federation invites you to become a member of the leading force in librarianship in Indiana.

The Indiana Library Federation (ILF) is a professional organization open to all library professionals, friends, and supporters throughout the state. The ILF offers its members a strong sense of unity along with a full range of services to promote career development and professional growth. Members can derive the maximum benefit from the services offered on district and statewide levles and through the liaison services offered by the American Library Federation.

Your Membership in ILF provides you with...

-an organization that speaks out for all types of libraries with a legislative program that protects the interests of libraries and informs librarians on critical issues

-special rates for the annual conference and district meetings with workshops designed to offer up-to-date programs on new technology and innovative library services

-subscriptions to **Focus on Indiana Libraries, Indiana Libraries**, the membership directory, and other ILF mailings

-scholarships to library science students

-the opportunity for participation in divisions and committees which enables members to meet and exchange ideas with others having similar interests and concerns.

Library Unionization and Its Ties to the Public Sector: History, Issues, and Trends

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Abstract

In the past twenty years, the economy of the United States has shifted from a manufacturing to a service orientation, particularly with the growth of the information industry, considered to be "pivotal to the efficient operation of (the service) economy."[1] As the number of service employees increases, and the membership of industrial unions decreases, organization and collective bargaining in the service areas, including libraries, has increased. This paper will focus on various aspects of library unionization: the history of library unions, including recent organizing and bargaining; the reasons why library employees seek to unionize, and the issues raised during bargaining; the outside factors which influence organization attempts and bargaining agreements, especially in public libraries; management's attitudes toward unions; the different perspectives and needs of librarians and support staff; and some of the perceived and actual effects of unionization. Because many of the issues and conditions of unionization are not unique to libraries, particularly those issues affecting support staff, this paper will also look at similar issues in public sector and white-collar organization.

Historical Background

The history of library unionization is as old as the modern labor movement in the United States, and its growth parallels the growth of industrial unions, albeit on a much smaller scale. [2] The first library to organize was the New York Public Library in 1917, followed by the public libraries in Boston, the District of Columbia, and Philadelphia.[3] These were "part of the general drive to organize workers"[4] during and immediately after World War I. Many of these unions either disbanded or became inactive not long after their inception, primarily because of administration opposition or staff apathy, and they are consid-

ered to have had a "minimal impact in respect to achievements." [5]

The second wave of unionization did not take shape until the 1930's, again coinciding with increased general labor activity as a result of the Great Depression.[6] As before, these unions gradually became inactive after World War II; "there was practically no library union activity during the 1950's and early 1960's. Data on total union membership in the United States show that membership declined between 1956 and the early sixties."[7] At the same time, professional salaries increased an average of 6 percent per year between 1951 and 1955, causing little interest in unions or collective bargaining.[8]

Most of the unions still existing and active in libraries today were established during the social activism of the 1960's and 1970's; some examples are Los Angeles and Berkeley Public Libraries and Yale University Library. These unions are different from earlier ones in two major respects: first, "while still showing an interest in economic matters, (current unions) also display interest in matters relating to library administration and personnel policies" and second, "the formation and success of current unions seem to have been aided by protective state and municipal legislation," legislation which protects the rights of public employees to organize.[9]

Recent organization has taken place in the past five years, most notably the unionization at Harvard University and four Ohio public library systems: Cuyahoga County Public Library (independent of Cleveland Public) and Stark County District Library (Canton) in 1985; Medina County District Library (Medina) and Cleveland Public Library in 1986. Harvard's clerical and technical employees voted to be represented by the United Auto Workers in 1987. The Ohio library employees chose to be represented by the Service Employees International Union (SEIU), "an organization founded especially for office workers,"[10] in coordination with 9 to 5, The National Association of Working Women, "the nation's largest membership organization for office workers."[11] Most currently organized library employees are represented by the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (AFSCME), but the range of national representation is wide. Other unions include American Association of University Professors; American Federation of Teachers; National Education Association (NEA); Service Employees International; Public Employees Union; International Association of Machinists and Aerospace Workers; International Federation of Professional and Technical Engineers; International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of American; and Hotel and Restaurant Employees.[12]

Why Unite?

Why do library employees organize? What do they want? According to Connie Metro, a library assistant and organizer at Cleveland

Public Library, the chief concern is to have "a say in the policies that effect us (library employees) and the community we serve at the library."[13] This broad statement can be separated into two major categories; Level I goals and Level II goals. Level I goals are defined as "bread and butter" issues involving money, such as salaries, benefits, vacations, working conditions and job security. Level II goals are more long-run issues; "autonomy, occupational integrity and identification, individual career satisfaction, and economic security and enhancement."[14] An Association of Research Libraries' survey listed several concerns: "in addition to salaries and benefits, union issues in ARL libraries typically included: 1) employee rights, 2) working conditions, 3) technological change, 4) job security, and 5) VDT-CRT environmental conditions."[15] While Level I goals are usually held by all library staff, support and professional, Level II goals are almost exclusively held by librarians. The goals are reached in the several stages of collective bargaining: "the first is winning the right to bargain; next, bargaining over basic economic issues; and finally, reaching agreements on policy issues. They (researchers in collective bargaining) refer to this third state as 'professional unionism' . . . Each is responding to the need to change the working relationships . . . and recommending collective bargaining as an appropriate vehicle for change."[16]

As stated earlier, other issues which primarily affect women, such as pay equity, child care, sexual harassment, and maternity/paternity leaves, are also factors in the decision to organize, as well as in any collective bargaining agreements. One of the difficulties employees, especially women employees, have in receiving equal pay for equal or comparable work is that "equity" is not always defined the same way. For example, a local government in Minnesota defined equity as "92 percent of the average of the male wage plus the female wage for any given job point value" because of the way the state law was worded. While the "concept behind pay equity and the fight for the economic equality of women is unarguable . . . it becomes extremely a difficult concept to translate into practical terms with a hostile city administration and an ambiguous law to back up enforcement."[17] Unions argue that only through collective bargaining can salaries be made equal, that professionalism does not work; "Salaries are political. The historic wage gap between female jobs and male jobs is well documented. Librarians are the lowest-paid professionals for the years of education required and length of service in the work force. Professionalism as a single route to raising library salaries is not effective. The professionalism argument does not seem to raise pay for women's professions. The professional argument is useful to enhance autonomy and foster shared decision-making. Collective bargaining raises salaries."[18]

Although many of these issues:

equity, child care, sexual harassment, minimum salaries, and environmental and technological changes, are being debated in legislatures and in Congress, it is still largely up to the "generosity" and discretion of administrations to deal with them. When employees feel these concerns are not being adequately addressed by management, it may be that the "only way that (library) employees may have a voice in setting the conditions of employment, under which they will work," as well as "how services are to be established and delivered," and "determining how crises will be met, how decisions are going to be made" is by having a "collective voice" through union representation.[19]

While the number of libraries whose workers are organizing has increased, it has not been an easy road. "Union membership as a proportion of wage and salary employment has been drifting down over the last four decades . . . the number of union members has been virtually unchanged since 1985, while the nation's employment has been increasing. Therefore, the proportion of the nation's wage and salary employees who are union members, . . . has continued to drift downward."[20] This proportional decrease has moved unions to increase their organizing attempts to white-collar workers, office workers, and public sector service employees, including library employees. A prime target of these organization efforts are women. When Harvard organized in 1988, 83 percent of the clerical and technical workers were women.[21] In 1984, women made up 41 percent of the nation's workforce; today it may be closer to 50 percent.[22] To attract these potential members, unions "have begun to take an interest in issues often perceived as women's issues such as child care and pay equity,"[23] which will be discussed at greater length later in this paper.

Library employees, because of their characteristics, are ripe for unionization; "library employees fit the profile of workers likely to favor collective bargaining. As a group, library workers are predominately female, work in bureaucracies, have relatively low paying jobs, and are uncertain about the potential for technology to routinize the work. Unions recognize the change in the labor force and that employees are concerned with the nature of their work, as well as their salaries."[24] This was not always so. Unions, in the past, have steered away from organizing where the majority of workers are women "because women are supposedly only temporary employees and secondary breadwinners in a family;"[25] however, research indicates that "among librarians, sex is not a determining factor in propensity to unionize."[26]

Environmental Factors

Whether or not workers will organize is determined by various environmental factors and worker characteristics. When researching the organization of clerical workers, it was determined that "clerical workers (were) more likely to vote for

union representation in states where the unions have a strong presence, particularly if the union movement is expanding."[27] Other surveys indicate that "public librarians who were pro-union were most likely to 1) be employed in larger libraries, 2) have worked less years as librarians, 3) command lower salaries, 4) be politically liberal, 5) have had less administrative experience, 6) be employed in libraries without staff associations or in libraries where union representation was nationally affiliated, and 7) be union members."[28]

The legal environment has also been an obstacle to the unionization of libraries. Because many employees work for public libraries or libraries in state-supported colleges and universities, they are considered public employees, and are subject to the laws regarding collective bargaining by public employees. In many states, collective bargaining by public employees has been restricted by state law; for example, the Ferguson Act in Ohio prohibited strikes in the public sector because of "numerous crippling strikes in the private sector following World War II."[29] The restrictions on public employees were considered necessary for the following reasons: "1) public employees provide unique and essential services; 2) private sector market forces are missing from the public sector; and 3) strikes may damage public health, safety, and welfare."[30]

Opponents to this kind of government interference presented the following arguments in favor of collective bargaining for public employees: "1) Public employees are entitled to the same rights accorded private employees; 2) The right of public employees to engage in collective bargaining is meaningless unless supported by some mechanism for clout such as a strike; and 3) Strikes are an effective extension of the collective bargaining process, do not occur frequently enough to justify their prohibition, and generally are not harmful to public health, safety, or welfare."[31] Under these statutes, unions felt they operated "from an unfavorable position because public employers often (were) under no statutory obligation to negotiate. Frequently, recognition and negotiation (were) voluntary or discretionary . . . employers could just say, 'No, we won't bargain.'"[32] In the past ten years, however, the laws have been changing; in Illinois and Ohio, laws have passed which permit public employees to bargaining collectively, "obligate school districts and officials on all levels of government to recognize duly authorized unions and bargain on union contracts . . . (and give) nonsafety workers a legal right to strike if negotiations reach an impasse."[33]

Professionalism

The issue of professionalism has also hindered union organization, especially of MLS-degreed librarians. "Because librarianship carries professional status, there is often a feeling that unions, with their blue collar overtones, are inappropriate vehicles for affecting change for

librarians."[34] This attitude has been coupled with the perception that librarians, "as white-collar professional employees, identify more with management."[35] Organizing is seen as "an expression of disloyalty, and by extension as unprofessional conduct."[36] There is also the perception that librarians are more concerned with the higher ideals of service and professionalism than with salaries and benefits. One author claims that this is a view perpetuated by employers: "by claiming this he (the employer) almost puts his employees on a pedestal, and I suspect that they are somewhat receptive to the idea. It puts a halo around their heads, and it sounds nice. It also makes a nice public appeal if the professional workers say they are more concerned about quality of service or how children learn than they are about the fact that they are still working for $4,500 a year."[37]

This attitude is changing as unions represent themselves as voices not only for money issues, but also for issues which would enhance the service and professionalism of librarians. As another author writes, "The effect of unionization on library professionalism, and ultimately library service, concerns both librarians and administrators. It is possible to negotiate contracts that enhance the role and authority of practicing librarians, as well as their salaries. At this moment in education, the union is in the vanguard of promoting professionalism. The challenge is to use the collective bargaining contract to include a process for collaborative decision making on policies, goals, service delivery, and a peer performance evaluation system of administrators, in addition to one of employees."[38] As unions are willing to take on larger issues related to professionalism and service, librarians may realize that unionization does not mean disloyalty to the system, but can present an opportunity for a greater voice in increasing the levels of service.

Opponents to unionization of professionals, including librarians, point to the plethora of associations which serve the interest of professions on a national scope, such as the American Library Association (ALA), and the National Association of Social Workers. In some areas, the "lines between unions and associations will become increasingly blurred."[39] Library staff associations also claim "the ability to represent the job and professional interests" of library employees. However, neither category of library organization can engage in collective bargaining, ALA because it chose not to, and staff associations because they are predominantly social organizations.[40]

ALA has chosen not to be a collective bargaining agent, even as other professional associations have become quasi-unions. Among these are the National Education Association (NEA), the American Nurses Association, and the American Association of University Professors. Conservatives in the 1960's sought

to make ALA a quasi-union believing it would "stem the tide of unions organizing librarians."[41] ALA foresaw problems with becoming a bargaining agent, which did occur with other quasi-unions. Primarily, "ALA is viewed by some members as an association run by library administrators. Although ALA has a great diversity of activities, it does have a preponderance of library administrators in leadership positions."[42] While ALA's membership is not exclusive to librarians, most of its members do have MLS degrees, and in 1979, 39 percent of ALA members were in management positions.[43] Because trustees and institutions can also hold membership, conflicts would arise. This is also true at the state level.

The Indiana Library Association (Federation as of 1991) shares its name with the Indiana Library Trustees Association—ILA/ILTA, severely hindering any collective bargaining power should this association choose to become a quasi-union. Professional associations which have taken on some of the duties and services of unions have also had difficulty keeping their voluntary status and projecting an image of protecting the common good as well as the desires of the profession. According to one author, associations/unions such as the NEA are "arrogantly political . . pawning itself off as an association in those states where monopoly bargaining is not authorized . . . in 34 states, public school employees can be required to accept representation they do not want and did not vote for."[44] While "being a special-interest group and being on the side of the public good is not necessarily a contradiction in terms . . . (they) are often portrayed by opinion makers—with some justification—as avaricious, egocentric, and holding the good of their members above the good of society."[45] "Unions (try) to control supply, exert market power, and enhance their own self-interest."[46]

The potential loss of tax-exempt status, challenges from other unions and state laws, and the weakness of state library associations could be seen as detriments if ALA should follow NEA and the others into collective bargaining status. While "ALA has not opposed unionization . . . it (has) chosen (not) to represent librarians in collective bargaining."[47] ALA's lack of bargaining status would seem to point to a need for union organization in libraries should the employees so desire.

Management Factors

Management's attitudes toward unions and collective bargaining, however, can be the major factor influencing whether or not a library union is formed, or, if formed, survives. As stated previously, earlier library unions became inactive or were eliminated partly due to the opposition of the administration. In the private sector and in some public sector organization efforts, management has used various tactics to oppose unionization. At Harvard, the associate vice-president for human resources, Anne H. Taylor, received "marching orders" from the

administration to "inform employees about the negative aspects of unionization without attacking the union or dividing the community . . . the administration felt the union might bring conflict and rigidity to what she (Ms. Taylor) describe(d) as a collegial and flexible relationship that existed between the university and its employees."[48]

Not all companies are so careful; "charges by unions against companies during organizing campaigns, including accusations of illegal surveillance of union sympathizers, discrimination against employees and refusal by the company to bargain . . . increased from 13,036 in 1969 to 31,167 in 1979."[49] Many of the charges are against people which the companies call consultants, but which unions call union-busters, who use "a sophisticated mixture of industrial relations and behavioral psychology."[50] One union, the Communications Workers of American (CWA) seeks to counter these moves in a brochure entitled "What are six things bosses always say when you try to form or join a union?", outlining some of the conversational tactics they feel hinder union organization: "1) Let's talk privately, 2) You can trust me, 3) I'm telling you for your own good, 4) We're just one big happy family, 5) Give us another chance, and 6) My door is always open."[51]

According to union organizers, these questions and the consultants "specialize in the manipulation of women . . . the consultants use tactics aimed at the fears and insecurities peculiar to women workers—that women don't trust one another, have a need to please and are more afraid of violence than men, for example."[52] An advertisement put out by one company presented a rather paternalistic approach to its opposition, using "Peanuts" characters and a "Happiness Is . . . Saying No to a Union" theme.[53]

In the library community, management voices its opposition to unionization in the literature. The research for this paper indicated that a majority of articles and research concerning the unionization of libraries dealt with the possible loss of management prerogatives, management flexibility, staff productivity, and management control.

Have Unions Made a Difference?

Despite the opposition, many libraries have chosen union representation. Has it really helped? Have salaries or conditions improved? Specific instances, such as the contract won by the Los Angeles Public Librarians Guild and the University of Connecticut professional employees in 1985, report "significant gains" in salary, equity, and working conditions.[54] Information in the literature is ambivalent about gains, particularly monetary ones. While one side concludes that "unions appear to have a positive impact on the salaries of those job positions they represent,"[55] the other side states that in situations where unions bargain aggressively and successfully for higher salaries, the outcome may not be good for all employees."[56]

The assertiveness of the bargaining unit may not be the deciding factor, especially in the public sector, where "pressures resulting from the budget deficit and funding cutbacks continue to challenge unions and management. These pressures have resulted in significantly lower wage adjustments in major collective bargaining agreements."[57] This has been especially true in the last ten years; when the average increase in wages from major settlements decreased from a range of 5.1 percent to 7.9 percent, to a range of 1.6 percent to 3.8 percent.[58] Even when salaries go up, hours may be decreased and positions terminated. There do exist union "utopias", such as Curry College of Milton, Massachusetts, represented by the American Association of University Professors, where collective bargaining agreements have provided significant gains. The librarians received faculty rank, including sabbaticals, research support, staff development, a cooperative day care center, generous maternity/paternity/adoption leave, and faculty pay.[59] When studying the overall monetary gains, the methods of research and the variables are so different, "there appears to be little consistency in findings."[60] Members, however, perceive improvement; "members are satisfied with the job the union does for them."[61]

Too often, it seems, unionization can bring conflicts between management and staff, between MLS-degreed staff and support staff, and between staff members of similar rank. Unionization can enhance the adversarial and political relationship between labor and management; "it formalizes the employer-employee relationship, and from the time of organizing onward, a person is on one side or the other—there are not neutrals."[62] According to McCahill, a former consultant for managers in collective bargaining, "the loss of management rights tends to happen rather gradually, but nevertheless these losses are real and will increase as the years go by . . . It is misleading oneself to assume that management's ability to manage will remain unrestricted."[63] It is the nature of collective bargaining to limit management rights; "in the place of unimpeded management rights is a contract which restricts both parties in the exercise of their respective rights and obligates both parties to act in responsible ways. As a subject of bargaining, management rights are regarded as both mandatory and permissive,"[64] and many times are itemized under a "list of permissive subjects".[65] Management view collective bargaining as a restriction of its "rights" to hire staff, transfer and promote, terminate, and reward merit,[66] although at the nine state universities in Florida, merit pay is included in the bargaining agreement, and is "specifically exempted from the grievance procedure."[67]

This opposition is not unique to the higher levels of management. A survey of middle managers at four academic library systems expressed many of the fears that accompany

unionization: increased paperwork; less control with more responsibility; less flexibility; and more time spent on personnel matters.[68] Department heads also expressed problems with the bargaining system: "brought up in a world of hierarchical authority, their adjustment to collegiality and peer processes (brought about by the bargaining agreement) seems to have been difficult at best."[69] However, although the managers had many complaints and fears, the study indicated that "middle managers do not seem to have been greatly affected by the arrival of collective bargaining for librarians."[70]

Much depends on the personalities and attitudes involved; negative attitudes foster negative responses. At the Fort Vancouver Regional Library in Washington, the poor relationship the union had with the director helped bring about votes of "no confidence," unratified agreements, and legal entanglements that lasted approximately two years.[71] The director of Cleveland Public Library, Marilyn Gell Mason, views unionization differently: "Clearly, the employees exercised their rights. We feel we can work well with the union representatives, and we are approaching the chapter in a very open and positive manner."[72]

Conflicts

Although unionization is based on collective goals and benefits for all workers, conflicts between members arises and can damage relations for some time. In 1985, Yale underwent a bitter "union struggle that pitted about half the support staff, who were on the picket line, against the other half, who stayed on the job. One result has been near-permanent damage to the human relations of the entire support staff, with repercussions for the professional staff, which was technically, at least, not involved . . . The aftereffects on individuals were many: marital stress, problems with children, even nervous breakdowns, the anger and the hurt persist."[73]

The conflicts between librarians and support staff can be derived from the difference in goals. In a study comparing three types of bargaining units; one with only librarians, one with only support staff, and one with librarians and support staff, it was determined that "there was not significant difference among the three types of bargaining units and their achievement of level one (bread and butter) goals;" but that there was a "significant difference (in) . . . their achievement of level two (higher) goals."[74] However, inter-member conflict must not be used as a reason against unionization; it can be used to increase awareness of the various employee goals and to establish a sense of mutual, long-term interest. The study concluded that "although librarians may not be as successful in negotiating professional-type working conditions in a mixed unit as they would be in a unit consisting only of librarians, the larger size and hopefully less divisive working climate (because librarians and support staff are in the same unit) can lead to successful negotiations for professional-type working condi-

tions."[75]

There is also conflicting research concerning unionization's effect on library productivity. The traditional view of unions states that "although unions may benefit their members by creating non-compensating wage differentials, they also cause allocative efficiency losses and thus have a negative impact on the economy as a whole."[76]

One study which supports this theory found "that librarians who were members of a union held less favorable attitudes toward service than their colleagues who were not members of the union . . . unionization may be causing a decrease in professionalism with the field . . . (it is) a negative and possibly destructive influence upon the profession."[77]

Opponents of this view argue that, in the private sector, "Unions may well increase productivity in a number of ways: by reducing turnover, increasing morale and motivation, and expanding formal and informal on-the-job training."[78] When testing this assertion and the methodologies involved, Ehrenberg, Sherman, and Schwarz found that, outside of the increase in interlibrary loans in unionized libraries, "collective bargaining coverage, on balance, does not appear to affect significantly library output . . ."[79] These conflicting findings seem to indicate that further study on how unionization affects output measures is needed.

Conclusion

In spite of all the conflicting data and the emotionalism, as in the rest of the economy, "unionization of librarians and library employees has become an accepted fact."[80] Despite the fears of management and the conflicts incurred by unionization, it is a force which is prevalent and which can be justified through the collective voice, for librarians and support staff, as well as for other workers in the public sector.

If nothing else, unionization can bring about changes in the way employees and managers communicate and develop. The "union experience," according to White, "teaches the skills needed to develop an idea, to work in coalitions to gain acceptance to the idea, and to use existing political or power structures to enact the idea. Employees can acquire leadership skills from the union experience, and by encouraging participation in the union, the potential exists for the employee to become more effective at changing existing library service conditions"[81]

The use of committees in collective bargaining can "generate a cooperative approach to shared concerns . . . and successfully ameliorate the traditional adversarial relationship between employees and management . . ."[82] The key to this communication is the collective voice which is associated with unionization, whether the relationship is adversarial or cooperative. Many of the issues affecting library employees and other service workers cannot effectively be addressed through one-to-one communication. Todd's

statement can be applied to all library employees: "(It) is certainly the case that librarians who are employees have common interests with librarians who are managers. In terms of these common interests, the professional association serves both. But it is also the case that in some areas the interests of these groups diverge, and the adversary relationship provided by unions may provide the best means for dealing with these issues."[83]

One member of the American Federation of Teachers, Albert Einstein, summed it up this way: "I consider it important, indeed urgently necessary, for intellectual workers to get together, both to protect their own economic status and also, generally speaking, to secure their influence in the political sphere."[84]

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Federal Copyright Law: How It Affects Academic Video Services

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Few people would argue with the statement that the role of professional media and library educators has changed drastically in recent years due to continual advances in technology which make available more instructional materials for classroom use than ever before. Although technology is providing access to a wealth of educational films and video, it is also providing one of the most troublesome areas of day-to-day professional functioning, as library media professionals try to respond to the growing number of questions about what is acceptable use of copyrighted audiovisual works in the educational setting. "Media professionals have increasingly been thrust into the roles of lawyer, judge and jury, as the problem of copyright has evolved into a situation where the development of technology has outstripped the capacity of our laws and legislature to keep up with current events" (F. William Troost, 1983, p. 211).

The scope of this review does not allow a complete study of all areas of what is a very in-depth and sometimes unclear copyright law. It will instead delve into the law as it affects the copying of video for academic use. Various segments of the paper will look at the law itself, pertinent guidelines for educational use, and recent court decisions - all designed to discover possible implications for media policy in academic libraries.

The 1976 Law

On October 19, 1976, President Gerald Ford signed Public Law 94-553, otherwise known as "General Revision of Copyright Law." The statute, which became effective January 1, 1978, marked only the second time in the 20th century that the U.S. copyright laws underwent a general revision. Due to the great technological innovations of the time, it was agreed that the laws were outdated and had not kept pace with technology. Two hundred years ago the framers of the Constitution,

in Article 1, section 8, granted Congress the power . . .

> ". . . to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries."

The 1976 law was an effort by Congress to protect creators of copyrighted work while also providing a reasonable means of serving the needs of users. The revised law also attempted to update the concept of "fair use," an idea that "had been part of our copyright case law since 1841, and is basically a rule of reason in using copyrighted work. It was left to develop as a judicial interpretation for many years, until the 1976 revision — when it was included in our present law in section 107" (W.Z. Nasri, 1986, p. 85).

The fair use doctrine is based on the assumption that if the use of copyrighted material is reasonable and contributes to the advancement of knowledge, then the use is likely to be fair and not in violation of the author's rights. Fair Use, i.e. section 107, reads as follows:

> Notwithstanding the provisions of Section 106, the fair use of a copyrighted work, including such use by reproduction in copies in phonorecords or by any other means specified by that section, for purposes such as criticism, comment, news reporting, teaching (including multiple copies for classroom use). scholarship, or research, is not an infringement of copyright. In determining whether the use made of a work in any particular case is a fair use, the factors to be considered shall include:
>
> 1. The purpose and character of the use, including whether such use is of a commercial nature, or is for nonprofit, educational purposes.
>
> 2. The nature of the copyrighted work.
>
> 3. The amount and substantiality of the portion used in relation to the copyrighted work as a whole.
>
> 4. The effect of the use upon the potential market for or value of the copyrighted work.

Since the copyright law itself is silent in respect to use of audiovisual works, other than works dealing with news, many questions arose as to use of audiovisual materials in classroom teaching and to off-the-air taping (by either teachers or librarians). The fair use clause is the section of the copyright law most often cited by

educators as granting "permission" for off-air copying of non-news shows, but the issue was never clear.

"During the final days of consideration of the copyright law revision by the House of Representatives, various educational interest groups argued that some relief under the fair use doctrine was necessary for off-air videotaping by teachers and media personnel as well as librarians for the purpose of using those videotapes in classrooms and in libraries" (I.R. Vender, 1985, p. 101). The need for more explicit rules brought about the establishment (by the House of Representatives) in 1979, of a committee made up of 19 individuals representing almost every conceivable interest group which might be affected by off-air guidelines. It was almost a year later that the committee informed Congress of the guidelines it had approved (see Appendix A). The guidelines were recognized in a House report accompanying a revision of the criminal penalties section of the law, but "the question has often arisen as to whether the guidelines have any legal standing. Most legal copyright authorities have taken the position that the guidelines would be taken seriously by a court faced with a claim of infringement based upon off-air taping for educational purposes" (Bender, p. 103).

The main thrust of the guidelines seems to deal with the idea of spontaneity, or the requirement of a prior request from a teacher rather than recording in <u>anticipation</u> of such a request. Also, the question has arisen as to whether the off-air taping guidelines are applicable to libraries, since the first numbered guideline indicates they were intended to apply "only to off-air recording by non-profit educational institutions." Even without a <u>specific</u> reference to libraries, it seems that school libraries and academic libraries/media centers were intended to fall within coverage of the guidelines.

Court Decisions

Several court cases have impacted the copyright law in recent years, but a difficulty in these cases is that decisions made are often limited to the specific circumstances that caused the legal action to be initiated, and many times the case cannot be generalized to other situations. One such case is known as the BOCES (Board of Cooperative Educational Services) case. BOCES is a single agency that serves approximately 100 schools in western New York state. The BOCES group was sued by Learning Corporation of America (LCA) Time-Life Films (TLF), and Encyclopedia Brittannica (EB). The agency was engaged in recording programs broadcast over the public airwaves, whose rights were owned by the above-mentioned companies. "The copying was apparently conducted on a massive scale, and until the lawsuit was filed BOCES made a practice of videotaping programs from all of the major networks and the local PBS station without regard to any request from the teachers and without obtaining permission from the copyright owners" (Bender, p. 104). In most

incidences whole programs were copied, and multiple copies were made of many of the shows and then distributed to member schools.

In the original court decision (by Justice John Curtin) the defendants were found guilty of copyright infringement, but the judge indicated that some limited or temporary use of the works might be legal. "After considering the potential harm to the markets —, the judge again sided with the filmmakers" (Phi Delta Kappan, 1973). The BOCES group had suggested a temporary-use period (during which time no royalties would be paid and works could be used and then erased) of one year or 45 days, the latter period recommended by the U.S. copyright guidelines (see appendix A). But, in *Encyclopaedia Britannica v. Crooks*, Curtin ruled that no temporary use of the works is allowed under federal copyright law. Among the criteria for judging fair use of copyrighted works is the effect of the use on the owner's potential market. The judge found it significant that all of the 19 works at issue in the case are available for rental or lease for short or long-term periods, in both film and videotape form and can be rented for as short a time as one to three days" (*PDK*). In addition, the firms offered many types of licensing agreements for schools, a factor Curtin said "would interfere with the marketability of these works, and the cumulative effect of this temporary videotaping would tend to diminish or prejudice the potential short-term lease or rental market for these works;—although distribution of copyrighted works may be in the public interest when the information is hard to get, in this case it is evident that copies of the plaintiffs' work may be obtained for short periods through normal channels" (Bender, p. 108). BOCES was fined a total of $63,500 in statutory damages and assessed court costs of $15,000.

The "Betamax Trial" is another major case impacting copyright in the area of video or off-air copying. In 1976 Sony Corporation of America was sued by Universal City Studios and Walt Disney Corporation for copyright infringement, "alleging that consumers purchasing the videotape recording equipment manufactured by the defendant were using it to record films owned by the plaintiffs and that these videotapes were illegal and violated the copyright statute both in terms of illegal copying and illegal performances" (Bender, p. 105). The case went through all levels of the federal judiciary, being first resolved in favor of the defendants by the District Court. It was finally decided by the Supreme Court in January of 1984. The Supreme Court ruled (5-4) in favor of Sony, finding that "the sale of videotape recorders by the Sony Corporation to the general public does not make the machines' manufacturers and marketers responsible for potential infringement..." (R.B. Williams, 1987, p.3). By the time the Sony case was finally decided by the Supreme Court in 1984, "time and technology had

changed the nature of the issues (original action began in 1976). The videotape recorder had become less expensive and more accessible to the consumer — Congress had failed in two attempts to create legislation regarding the VTR and copyrights" (Williams, p6).

In essence, the Sony decision ruled that off-air recording for time-shifting purposes is legitimate fair use, a major implication for school library use. the Supreme Court also made clear its overriding intent in their decision through two statements:

> "Sound policy, as well as history, supports our consistent deference to Congress when major technological innovations alter the market for copyrighted materials. Congress has the constitutional authority and institutional ability to accommodate fully the varied permutations of competing interests that are inevitably implicated by such new technology" (Sony, *supra note 5, at 431).*

and

> "...it is not our job to apply laws that have not yet been written. Applying the copyright statute, as it now reads, to the facts as they have been developed in this case, the judgement of the Court of Appeals must be reversed" (Id. at 456).

"Clearly, the Court refused to do what it saw as the job of Congress, to legislate policy related to a new technology. The Court accomplished this goal by narrowly defining the issues in place and time. Betamax was considered only on its merits as a single case" (Williams, p.8), not on the implications it could hold for the entertainment industry as a whole or on how it affects the academic world.

Most typical school or university library media personnel would probably be frustrated by review of the previous court case. All the information available in court decisions has been case-specific, with very little possibility for generalization. In addition, most of the specifics of video copying/usage are based on "guidelines" that have never been tested as having the weight of law. This requires an even more careful consideration of the law when school or university policy is being planned or written. William Troost, who is a college media consultant and Chairman of the Instructional Media Committee of the Los Angeles Community College District, lists several "techniques that have been successful in dealing with faculties —as far as practical functioning under current copyright regulations." All the techniques should be considered for adaptation to videotaping policy:

1. Assign one person the responsibility for delivering ongoing and current information about copyright to the faculty.

2. Develop written policies that establish procedures for the use of all video-related equipment.

3. Maintain a file of materials including copies of the law itself, pertinent journal articles, circulars from the U.S. Copyright Office, and make it accessible to all staff. Also include sample permission letters for contacting copyright owners. Copies of the print and off-air guidelines should be distributed to all staff members.

4. Update and educate staff members with a newsletter on copyright. Strive to assure that your staff is aware of current law and guidelines, as well as your local policies.

5. Invite an outside speaker to come and present a session devoted to copyright problems; this is especially helpful if there is discontent about copyright restrictions or newer guidelines.

6. Avoid violations or copying where there is obvious circumvention of payment to the copyright owner. Support of administrators should be enlisted, and all persons should be made aware of penalties if legal action is taken;

7. Communicate your feelings and experiences to your elected representatives if you believe the current laws need revision" (Troost, p. 218).

Copyright is a problem area that will always be with those library media professionals who are asked to copy off-air for faculty members. The issue is continually complicated as newer and more advanced technologies emerge, but so far the Congress has been unable to agree on a more specific law that would answer many of the questions with which educators are left. The current law makes no provision at all for emerging technologies, so in the event that more specific legislation is not forthcoming, certainly more litigation will be. There are also other areas that media administrators question - such as the legality of transferring "old, out-of-production" 16mm film onto video before the

film is no longer usable. The current law does not address this area, and it is difficult to develop a policy that will be both legal and at the same time reasonable for the real issues of today's Media Centers. The most important issue in policy-making at the university level is being conscientiously aware of the law as it is, including the fair use provision, and the guidelines for off-air taping. The best course of action, though also the most conservative, would seem to be that of giving all rules and guidelines the weight of law, if only to be sure of complete compliance (see sample policy in Appendix B). As far as activities that have no mention in federal law, it falls to the university and media administrators to decide the best course of action in an attempt to be fair to all copyright owners and at the same time provide instructional materials to both faculty and staff to the greatest extent possible.

Appendix A
Guidelines for Off-Air Recording of Broadcast Programming For Educational Purposes

1. An off-air recording, made at the request of an individual teacher, may be retained for 45 days, but then must be erased or destroyed immediately.

2. The teacher can use the recording once in a classroom or similar place devoted to instruction and repeat such use once during the first ten days of the 45 day period for instructional reinforcement, but for the remainder of the period the recording can only be used for teaching evaluation purposes.

3. A specific program can be recorded off-air only once for the same teacher.

4. Additional copies may be made but are subject to the same restrictions applicable to the original recording.

5. All recordings and copies must include the copyright notice as broadcast.

6. Programs need not be used in their entirety, but must not be altered, combined, or merged with other recorded material.

Appendix B
Sample Policy Pertaining to the Use of Copyrighted Video Recordings

1. Copyrighted video recordings are restricted to use in the Media Center or campus classrooms.

2. Copies of video recordings licensed by the copyright proprietor for private home use only and not for public display or for library use may be used only for teaching, research, and educational

purposes as permitted under Section 107 of the Copyright Law. Use of programs that are essentially educational in subject matter is considered educational use. Use of programs that were produced for entertainment purposes is considered non-educational use unless the user specifies otherwise.

3. Off-air recordings of broadcast programs may be used in the Instructional Media Center (MC) for educational purposes in a manner consistent with fair use. The "Guidelines for Off-Air Recording of Broadcast Programming for Educational Purposes" published in House Report no. 97-49, April 29, 1982, and summarized in the following attachment, offer some assistance in determining appropriate use. Questions should be referred to the President's Office. Off-air recordings copied for educational use with the permission of the copyright proprietor are not subject to these guidelines.

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Preservation In Indiana Academic Libraries

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Introduction

This project's purpose was to survey the preservation and conservation policies and procedures as well as the staff, facilities, and expenditures of nine representative academic libraries in Indiana as follows: Ball State University, Butler University, Indiana State University, Indiana University - Bloomington, IUPU at Fort Wayne, IUPUI, University of Notre Dame, Purdue University, and the University of Southern Indiana.

The goals were to inform each library of its strengths and weaknesses in the library preservation area and to give each a comprehensive view of what could be done to improve its own situation and possibly to cooperate with other academic libraries in preservation matters.

This Indiana preservation survey consists of two main parts. Part I is the *ARL* (Association for Research Libraries) *Preservation Statistics Questionnaire.* The ARL Questionnaire covers statistics on administration, personnel, expenditures, conservation treatment, commercial binding, mass treatment, preservation photocopying, preservation microfilming production, total library holdings of preservation microform masters, footnotes, and comments.

Each prospective academic library was originally sent two copies of the ARL questionnaire with a set of instructions and a cover letter. Later a phone call was made to establish a convenient date for a visitation, at which time Part II of the survey was done together with the participating preservation librarian (conservator or archivist) and several photographs were taken of the work areas. Each librarian was given a copy of Part II of the survey.

Part II of the survey was drafted originally in the Spring of 1989 and later modified to eliminate duplicating portions of Part I. Part II of the survey covered the following areas:

equipment, facilities, preservation supplies, mending and repairs, physical environment controls, security, remote storage, brittle books programs, survey of collection, non-book preservation and conservation, deacidification of paper, educational activities, preservation plans and programs, disaster/salvage plans, preservation committee, cooperative preservation activities, and five-year preservation planning. This part of the survey was mostly a yes-no format of policies and procedures and counting of preservation equipment, tools, facilities, and supplies.

Administration

One way to measure progress in presentation activities at Indiana academic libraries is to trace preservation units managed by a preservation administrator. The data show concretely that preservation programs are really a standard part of current academic libraries. Six out of nine libraries have appointed a preservation administrator and only two of the nine libraries have a preservation unit not supervised by a full-time preservation administrator. Five of the preservation administrators report
directly to the dean of libraries.

Personnel

The staff size under the preservation administrator is a key factor in indicating a library's level of preservation program development. A summary shows the number of professional staff and of non-professional staff and student assistants in preservation units. The administrator is included with the professional staff.

Ball State has a total of 4 FTE staff in preservation units; Indiana State has 5 FTE; Indiana University has 14.6 FTE; IUPU-FW has 3; IUPUI has 1.5; Notre Dame has 3.25 and Purdue and Butler gave no report.

As far as library-wide preservation activities were concerned, it was difficult to obtain complete or accurate figures because of the chain of command and decentralization of tasks under various departments. The organizational structure of these libraries is rather diverse. The other reason is several libraries provided data only on staff reporting to the preservation administrator. Indiana University has the most staff overall doing preservation work, namely 20.6 FTE library-wide, followed in descending order by Ball State - 5.5 FTE; Indiana State - 5.3 FTE; Purdue - 4.1; Notre Dame - 3.25; University of Southern Indiana - 2; IUPUI - 1.5; IUPU-FW-1; and Butler - .85 FTE.

Expenditures

Monies spent for preservation activities in the nine Indiana academic libraries range from $2,371 to $508,890 for fiscal year 1988-1989. Also these representative Indiana academic libraries spend less than 1% to as much as 5.7% of the total library budget on preservation activities.

Again, Indiana University leads the others in preservation expenditures with $508,890 for FY 1988-89, followed in order by Purdue - $181,810; Notre Dame - $171,888;

Indiana State - $168,500; Ball State - $132,834; Butler University - $33,910; IUPUI - $26,067; IUPU-FW - $18,075; and USI - $2,371.

Conservation Treatment

The totals below give the number of volumes that had minor treatment as well as the number of volumes given more work-intensive intermediate or major treatment. It is well-known that important differences exist in the type of work done and that comparisons are hard to establish. Purdue does the most conservation work with 17,144 volumes treated. In order by total volumes are the other libraries for FY 1988-89; Indiana University - 7,782 volumes; Indiana State - 2,024, IUPUI - 2,000; Butler - 1,550; Notre Dame - 1,293; USI - 892; IUPU-FW - 689; and Ball State - no report.

Commercial Binding

This activity consumes most of the preservation budget. The bulk of the money goes into contract binding annually and the remainder into in-house binding. Indiana University spent the most on binding for FY 1988-89 at $208,123, and 32,717 volumes bound, followed by Notre Dame at $127,868 and 10,280 volumes. Next in order: Purdue with $125,178 spent and 19,608 volumes bound; Ball State at $65,000 and 10,866 volumes; Indiana State with $50,000 and 6,678 volumes bound; IUPUI at $28,215 and 3,000 volumes; Butler with $19,000 spent and 3,565 volumes; IUPU-FW at $15,000 and 240 volumes; and USI at $2,071 spent with 400 volumes bound.

Mass Deacidification

None of the nine Indiana academic libraries surveyed is currently doing mass deacidification, although some are doing manual treatments by spraying or dipping on a production line basis.

Preservation Photocopying

Most photocopying is done in-house on alkaline paper. None of the pages were done outside from the nine Indiana libraries under commercial contract. 742 total pages were done in-house. Indiana State University led the group with 650 pages followed by the University of Southern Indiana - 31; Butler - 28; IUPUI - 23; and IUPU-FW - 10 pages. The rest reported zero or no report.

Preservation Microfilming

No uniform measure for counting is presently in place. Some libraries count titles; others count number of exposures; while others count only physical volumes. What is needed are agreed-upon standards of counting. The statistics gathered do not presently represent the current level of preservation microfilming production of the nine academic libraries surveyed. Indiana State was the leader with 60,400 total exposures, followed by Notre Dame with 31,868 exposures. The other seven libraries reported zero or not applicable.

The total library holdings of preservation microform masters is not particularly significant in Indiana. Most libraries surveyed, that is, 8 out of 9, are apparently not doing anything in-house and not much by contract either. Indiana libraries cannot afford it, so new funds are

needed in this category.

Equipment

Ideally the researcher may assume that if a preservation unit has the most equipment and hand tools, it probably has the personnel trained to operate them, and productivity is probably high or constant. Such is usually the case. The mending unit at Indiana University is the best equipped, yet turns out the second largest production in mending and repairs, while Purdue leads totally in this category with several mending workshops spread around the campus. Equipment totals, including hand tools, are as follows: Indiana University - 468; Indiana State - 153; Notre Dame - 127; USI - 108; Butler - 105; Ball State - 97; IUPU-FW - 69; Purdue - 67; and IUPUI - 43.

Facilities

The more facilities available, generally the better the preservation unit is. If the laboratory can accommodate more staff and student workers, it can do many more varied tasks in conservation. More work stations are in use, more space is available for brittle books, greater efficiency is realized in work production; and more ability to perform assembly-line book repairs is readily evident. The facilities surveyed included lights, desks, chairs, storage, drawers, floor space, windows, electrical outlets, water sinks, work benches, rest rooms, book cases or shelves and heat controls. The preservation facility totals of Indiana University were 537; next was Indiana State at 250; Butler - 205; Ball State - 165; USI - 137; Notre Dame - 95; IUPUI - 78; Purdue - 77; and IUPU-FW - 41.

Preservation Supplies

These supplies are the usual materials that are used in day-to-day mending and in-house repair operations. The more you have, the more operations you can perform. Also, the more staff and student assistants you can use during one or more work shifts. Twenty-three types of supplies were counted. The totals were as follows: USI - 19; Notre Dame - 18; Indiana University - 17; Butler - 16; Ball State and Indiana State - 14; IUPUI - 9; Purdue - 8; and IUPU-FW - 7.

Mending and Repairs

These are the most frequently performed specific tasks done in-house and reported on daily and monthly work tally sheets. The better equipped and manned preservation units will perform a greater variety and usually better quality work. Those schools doing the greatest variety of tasks are most outstanding. However, there are some repairs that are not done because it is more efficient to send materials out to have the work done commercially. Sixteen types of repairs were surveyed showing the following: Notre Dame - 15; Butler and Indiana University - 14; Ball State - 13; Indiana State, IUPUI, Purdue and USI - 12; and IUPU-FW - 11.

Physical Environment

This includes all the elements necessary in regulating the physical situation in any library such as temperature, relative humidity,

lights, insects, rodents, fungi, dust, smoke, food, drink and fire precautions. Most libraries are doing a good job in these categories. The biggest problems have been flat roofs that leak and controlling eating, drinking and smoking. Of the nine libraries surveyed, only one allowed food and drink throughout the building. Most libraries have signs on the entrances and throughout their premises, and rules on consumption and smoking are enforced by library personnel and/or student monitors. Nine specific areas of regulation were inspected. The results were as follows: Notre Dame and USI - 9; Ball State, Indiana State, Indiana University, IUPUI - 8; Butler and Purdue - 6; and IUPU-FW -4.

Security

This area is a matter of considerable concern to all Indiana academic libraries, and it is perhaps the best category in enforcement and compliance. The only area where most libraries fall short is a lack of all-night or late night study rooms, since these rooms were not built into the original plans of libraries. Many schools use empty dining rooms for this purpose. Theft and mutilation are usually caught at the circulation exists, but
occasionally are seen in the stacks or government documents units. Notre Dame has uniformed student guards at the front door and patrolling the stack areas. ISU has a student patrol on week-nights and weekends. All libraries surveyed except IUPUI (3) tied at 4 in this category.

Remote Storage

This category frequently does not apply at universities with new library buildings or a small book collection because no necessity exists. Recent book collections (less than 50 years old) or collections devoted to undergraduate or a few master's level programs, seldom if ever have a remote storage area. The larger schools with older, bigger collections and considerable research materials, offering many masters and doctorate programs, would be more likely to have remote storage facilities. In Indiana out of the nine libraries visited, Indiana, Purdue, Ball State, Indiana State, and the University of Southern Indiana have remote storage areas.

Brittle Books

Brittle books programs are now more prevalent, and in many cases the brittle books are either returned to stack area encased in phase boxes, sent to remote storage, or housed in a special area such as Special Collections or Archives. The preponderance of libraries visited do have a brittle books program, although those with newer book collection and bound periodicals do not presently need one. In Indiana seven of the nine libraries surveyed do have active brittle book programs.

Collection Survey

The procedure of surveying the condition of books in the collection has not caught on yet. Older collections need more attention to mending and binding as well as brittle book culling. Only two procedures manuals were written and used in Indiana at the time of this survey. Books

pulled for repair or mending are not always checked out internally to the preservation unit so one would not necessarily know the book's location. Computer listings by author, title or date groupings are seldom used, although seven of the schools surveyed have taken advantage of this invaluable library tool. Six of the nine schools have surveyed the condition of the collection.

Non-Book Materials

The non-book materials preservation and conservation category covers such items as sound recordings, microforms, video discs and tapes, motion pictures, film (slides and reels), photographs (positives and negatives) and fine arts and lithographs. These formats do need preservation and conservation attention in any modern academic library. In three out of nine Indiana libraries surveyed, the preservation tasks are not applicable because they are under the purview of the audio-visual, archives or some other unit outside the library. In some cases, the library does not take care of a particular format.

Deacidification of Paper

Because no American library is using mass methods of deacidification, it was prudent to learn how many Indiana libraries were using manual methods. Some libraries have few or no older books, so they did not need to deacidify their holdings. Others had more older books, manuscripts, and scores which needed treatment and repairs. Butler and Indiana State were active in using either spray or dipping to deacidify paper.

Educational Activities

In-house classes are designed to educate all library users: faculty, staff, students, student workers and the general public on preservation and conservation practices to protect books and non-book library materials. These activities are by lecture, brochures and pamphlets, films, TV programs and slides. Such programs get the message across with emphasis and entertainment. Most of the nine libraries did not feel it prudent to proselytize their teaching faculty on these matters—only 3 out of 9 did so. For the library staff—5 out of 9 orientated their staff in preservation of books. For students and the public, 6 out of 9 academic libraries prepared conservation instruction and orientation programs. Butler and USI are the two most active academic libraries in this area.

Preservation Plans

Usually a formal written document on preservation policy is written by the preservation librarian, archivist, or the faculty preservation committee for the university library and approved and modified by the administrators. Five out of nine Indiana academic libraries in this survey have done so. These plans generally cover all aspects of preservation and conservation such as goals and objectives, environmental controls, binding, mending and repair, brittle books program, fumigation and deacidification preservation microfilming, remote storage, library security and a disaster plan.

Disaster Salvage Plans

Such plans are essential to save as many books and non-books as possible in libraries from destruction and to salvage whatever can be restored after a flood, fire, tornado, earthquake, stack or wall collapse, leaky roof or boiler explosion. Emergency plans for evacuating personnel and patrons are under a different jurisdiction in the library. Five out of nine Indiana academic libraries surveyed have a disaster/ salvage plan. With such a plan in place actions become routine because all procedures were written in advance.

Preservation Committee

The establishment of a preservation committee composed of teaching faculty, professional librarians, and library staff is considered a positive step by most academic libraries in order to advise the library administration of real needs and problems as well as solutions in preservation and conservation matters. However, not all libraries concur on this point, nor do they give preservation concerns much attention or support. In this survey only three out of nine Indiana libraries responded positively.

Cooperative Preservation Activities

This category deals with workshops and conferences in cooperation with other academic libraries or public and school libraries in matters of proper preservation policy and standard conservation procedures and practices. These activities are popular and widespread in Indiana as indicated by the survey with all nine academic libraries active. As these practical workshops have become more widespread, preservation information and procedures reach not only our academic colleagues, but into the grass roots of librarianship.

Five-Year Plans

Five-year preservation plans project incremental planning in preservation and conservation into the future, always dropping the last year and adding more ideas as each academic year commences. Also, a review of each year's achievements and shortcomings in preservation is conducted in a follow-up study. Not all academic libraries engage in strategic planning when it comes to preservation policies and conservation procedures. Of the nine libraries surveyed, only four, Indiana University, Indiana State, Butler and USI wrote five-year plans.

Finally, it should be emphasized that each of the nine representative academic libraries surveyed is constantly striving to improve its preservation operations by acquiring more equipment, supplies, personnel and facilities to provide greater service in conserving books for future generations of Indiana students and scholars.

The Evolution Of Bibliographic Instruction In College Libraries

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In the beginning, there was chaos. And the students moved aimlessly upon the face of the library. And the reference librarians said, "Let there be instruction." And there was instruction. The reference librarians brought forth the workbook, and the fifty-minute lecture; and the students no longer moved aimlessly about, but searched purposefully through the card catalog and the journal indexes and the serials catalog. And the reference librarians looked upon what they had wrought and they found it good.

In spite of the fact that the number of academic libraries and the size of their collections and staff have grown many fold and the student body has changed from a predominantly homogeneous group to a heterogeneous one, the philosophy of librarians who are proponents of library instruction has not changed. In 1880, Otis Hall Robinson, Professor of Mathematics and Librarian at the University of Rochester, wrote that, "The time is passing also when the chief duty of a librarian was to collect books and preserve them. How to get them used most extensively, most intelligently, and at the same time carefully, is becoming his chief concern."[1]

Librarians of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries faced the same problems and barriers in pursuit of their goal to educate the library user as librarians in academic institutions today. The constantly changing technology developed to handle the information explosion has lent an added dimension to the complexity of the library instruction. Terminology has changed from library use instruction to bibliographic instruction to information literacy (the ability to effectively access and evaluate information for a given need - Tessmer, 1985).[2] Yet the ultimate goal of all library instruction has remained the same and it is "...to enable all recipients of the instruction to use any library..."[3]

Throughout the library instruction movement in the United States, the conviction has been that the ability to find and evaluate information is as important as the information itself.

The following survey of the history of bibliographic instruction will be divided into time frames much as Hardesty, Schmitt, and Tucker organized their *User Instruction in Academic Libraries.* Emphasis will be placed upon the writings of leaders in field of bibliographic instruction, how professional organizations have reflected the increased awareness of bibliographic instruction, and the importance of the faculty in the successful pursuit of library instruction. In almost all instances the focus will be on undergraduate or college libraries as opposed to graduate, research, or university libraries.

Pre 1880

"Although reports on instruction about the library's 'most rare and valuable works' date from the 1820's, substantial, continuous course offerings and course-related lectures came about only as a result of major developments in the library's academic environment in the latter part of the nineteenth century."[4]

"Despite repeated calls for reform, higher learning in 1865 remained much as it had been decades earlier. Through the traditional methods of memorization and recitation, the colleges fulfilled their purpose of training young men to meet their professional and civic obligations."[5] Mark Hopkins, president of Williams College from 1836 to 1872, typified the educational philosophy of the era when he said, "I don't read books, in fact I never did read any books." President James Garfield stated that the 'ideal college was Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a student on the other."[6]

Following the Civil War the old-time college philosophy of reconciling reason and natural law with Christian theology was replaced by the adoption of original research, the introduction of the seminar method of instruction, and the new curricula in the social sciences and in professional and technical education.[7] "All these trends resulted in unprecedented growth in the production of knowledge as well as faculty and student demands for library resources and services."[8] Between 1870 and 1890, the number of academic institutions grew from 563 to 998."[9] Library collections grew dramatically - Pennsylvania's and Columbia's quadrupled while Cornell's grew tenfold. Library hours were extended as librarians became aware of the need to make their collections more accessible.[10]

1880-1900

"Significant growth in library use instructions during the 1880s and 1890s followed naturally from the dramatic changes occurring in higher education in the same period."[11] The optional credit course usually taught by the college librarian not only stressed bibliography, the history of books and printing, or even history of libraries but also contained a solid library-use compo-

nent. Book talks, bibliographical lectures, and orientation tours were also given by librarians, but no established structure or accepted method for effective instruction was created. However, they did call for "...clearly stated objectives for their instructional programs, they sought conceptual models for the library,...and they caught a vision of the educational potential of the library in the academic community."[12]

Amongst the leaders of this movement, Justin Winsor, the first president of the American Library Association, (1876 to 1885) and head of the Harvard University Library (1877-1897) stands out. Ernest Cushing Richardson of Princeton described "...Winsor's appointment as 'professor of books' and his work at Harvard as watershed events in the history of bibliographic instruction.[13] While at Harvard, Winsor "...enlarged the reserve book collection, authorized stack privileges for students, brought a number of small libraries into the main building, encouraged interlibrary loan, and...installed electric lights, new furniture and better ventilation."[14]

In an article written in 1880 Winsor expresses his ideas on the role of the college library and librarians when he writes:

> To fulfill its rightful destiny, the library should become the central agency of our college methods...the librarian becomes a teacher...not with a text book, but with a world of books. The proposition then is to make the library the grand rendezvous of the college for teacher and pupil alike, and to do in it as much of the teaching as is convenient and practicable...As he (the librarian) needs the cooperation of his colleagues of the faculty, his first aim is to make everything agreeable to them and himself indispensable, if possible...In this way suavity and sacrifice will compel the condition of brotherhood which is necessary and is worth the effort.[15]

Otis Hall Robinson, credited by Holley in the *Dictionary of American Library Biography* as having done "as much as anyone in the American library profession to push the idea of the educational role of the college library"[16] wrote in 1880

> "that next to the acquisition of knowledge itself is the learning where and how it may be acquired. The range of knowledge is rapidly increasing. We believe, therefore, that the demand can be met best, not by making the curriculum cover everything, but by giving special attention to the where and the how of acquisition.[17]

He also believed that professors working with students on a voluntary, personal basis in the library would do more "...to encourage

broad scholarship and to make men independent in their investigations than any amount of class lecturing."[18]

Raymond C. Davis, librarian at the University of Michigan from 1877 to 1905, is credited by Arthur Q. Hamlin in The University *Library in United States as teaching the first course in bibliography in an American university in 1879.*[19] The Board of Regents of the University of Michigan approved the course for credit in 1881. Davis justified his request for the course by stating, "The book is the student's chief tool, — his *sine qua mon.* Has he mastered the *Literae humaniores*, if on the day of his graduation he knows little or nothing about this tool with which he wrought — either its history or its workmanship?"[20] Davis's course does remind one more of a course for librarians that one designed for library use instruction.

In addition to creating the Dewey Decimal Classification and founding the first library school in America, Melville Dewey was also a great advocate for bibliographic instruction. In the inaugural issue of *American Library Journal* (1876), Melville Dewey wrote "The time is when a library is a school, and the librarian is in the highest sense a teacher."[21] In 1891 Dewey spoke in Philadelphia to the College Association of the Middle States and Maryland. He expounded upon the importance of the college library calling it the "laboratory library" and the "college well". He stated that the purpose of a college education was to provide tools for further study, "the most essential (tool) of all being the ability to use libraries effectively."[22] Thus by 1900 the modern day philosophy of and justification for bibliographic instruction had been written about, spoken of, and put into practice in several academic libraries. It is interesting that these early instructional librarians wrote of the same problems in dealing with faculty, limited budgets, changing student bodies, and increased and more complex resources that plague instruction librarians today.

1901-1917

The changes which began in higher education during the last decades of the nineteenth century stabilized during this period. "The libraries themselves emerged at once both more bureaucratic and more service oriented."[23] In spite of the fact that these years marked the integration of reference services into the permanent administrative staff of academic libraries, "library use instruction failed to in its efforts at full integration in to the personnel, service, and bureaucratic structures of academic libraries, perhaps because of its inadequately developed conceptual and theoretical foundations."[24] "As if to quell their uncertainties, librarians conducted a number of surveys in their attempts to verify the supposed popularity of user instruction."[25] An ALA survey conducted in 1912 found that 57 percent of 149 institutions surveyed offered required or elective courses in library instruction.[26]

Several academic librarians, at the time, continued to emphasize the importance of library instruction. "In 1905, William Harper observed, 'The equipment of the library will never be finished until it has upon its staff men and women whose sole work shall be, not the care of books, not the cataloging of books, but the giving of instruction in their use.'"[27] Joseph Schneider, library director at Catholic University, philosophically followed Davis in his belief in "...the necessity of making the study of bibliography a part of the curriculum in our colleges and universities."[29] William Warner Bishop recommended the training in the use of books to help students and professors deal intelligently with the deluge of new materials published each year. Successful bibliographic training will enable the student to "...use easily bibliographic tools of all sorts from the simple check list to the erudite works of Fabricuis and Poggendorf."[29]

Lucy M. Salmon, a history professor at Vassar College from 1887 to 1927, felt that bibliographic instruction should be "...definitely planned, systematically carried out, (with a) definite progression from year to year in the kind of bibliographic work required, and directly related to the specific and individual work of every student."[30] Interestingly, Salmon feels that professors and not librarians should be responsible for their students' library instruction as their course work requires.

1918-1940

In spite of the fact that higher education was plagued by an era of social discontent, academic libraries entered a positive phase which benefitted from private philanthropy. "The educational climate of this period proved most hospitable to user instruction, which advanced both conceptually and programmatically."[31] As curriculum innovations were developed and defined by educators such as John Dewey and Robert Hutchins, so too were thinkers in the field of library instruction defining, rethinking and clarifying library instruction programs. Charles B. Shaw, creator of the "Shaw list" developed three proposals to alleviate the "haphazard, unscientific" teaching which characterized bibliographic instruction. He proposed: 1) eliminating library lecture and replacing them with a required course taught by professors of bibliography, 2) that colleges should establish a department of bibliography, and 3) colleges "evolve and train" a group of bibliographic instructors who would have the librarian's knowledge of books with the teacher's ability to teach.[32]

Lamar Johnson, who was dean of instruction and librarian at Stephens College, was able to establish a library use instruction program throughout the curriculum. His program had three objectives: "1) to teach students how to use reference sources effectively, 2) to teach them good study habits, and 3) to make the library function as the center o the instructional programs.[33]"

This era also witnessed the creation of the concept of Louis Shores'

"Library Arts College." "Patricia Breivik sees the 'library college' as offering the only clear-cut philosophical statement of service with accompanying objectives of how academic libraries can support the educational trends of this century."[34] The Library Arts College differs from the conventional college in five essentials. 1) Regular class attendance is supplemented by voluntary and irregular library reading. 2) All instructional quarters are in the library. 3) Upper-class students will tutor lower-class students. 4) Faculty members will be library-trained, subject-matter specialists. 5) The curriculum will represent a carefully planned reading program intended to acquaint the student with man's accomplishments of the past and problems of the present.[35]

In 1940 Harvie Branscomb took a more pragmatic approach than Shores to the study of the college library's educational effectiveness and its integration into the institution as a whole in his book *Teaching With Books: A Study of College Libraries*. In summary, Branscomb sees "...the primary task of the college library is to provide certain facilities for and to aid in carrying out the instructional program of the faculty."[36] Branscomb emphasizes the relationship between the librarian and the instructor as one of cooperation with the reference librarian attending classes and the instructor entering the library to assist the librarian. He also suggests the use of a test (Miss Lulu Ruth Reed's test) during the freshman year to determine which students need extra library instruction.[37]

1941-1968

> Activity without progress characterized library use instruction during this period. Numerous programs existed at the freshman orientation and basic instruction levels, but the increasing number of students overwhelmed many of even the well-established advanced efforts. As early as 1949, Erickson reported insufficient numbers of library personnel as the most serious deterrent to successful library instruction programs.

In 1956 Patricia Knapp outlined her proposals for a user instruction program which provided the foundation for many programs which followed including the Monteith Library Project at Wayne State University and the Earlham College instruction program. She summarizes her thoughts as follows:

> Competence in the use of the library is one of the liberal arts. It deserves recognition and acceptance as such in the college curriculum. It is, furthermore, a complex of knowledge, skills, and attitudes not to be acquired in any one course but functionally related to the content of many. It should, therefore, be integrated until the faculty as a whole is

> ready to recognize the validity of its claim and to implement this recognition through regularly established procedures of curriculum development.
>
> For these reasons, the librarian should accept the responsibility of initiating the program, remaining constantly aware, at the same time, that ultimate implementation must come through the teaching faculty. In other words, the librarian must convince the faculty that library instruction is necessary; he must educate the faculty on the potential role of the library and assist it in planning instruction.[38]

Louis Shores's Library-College movement reached its height of popularity during the 1960's, but few of the examples cited by Shores were extensive implementation of his ideas. "Patricia Breivik concludes that the enthusiasm that served as the strength of the Library-College also blinded its followers to the obstacles they needed to overcome and alienated many librarians and teaching faculty."[39]

All librarians were not then nor are they now convinced that bibliographic instruction should be a function of the librarian. Anita R. Schiller thinks that user instruction impedes the "...effectiveness of information service to the extent that it serves as a substitute for it, offering less service instead of more, and leaving the library clientele unsure of just what kind of service is being offered."[40] "The real future of library reference service lies in the direct provision of comprehensive and accurate information to satisfy user demands; instructing the user in the technique of information-searching is an important, but secondary, goal and is not necessarily a reference function."[41]

Library use instruction programs during the 1940s and 1950s were analyzed by Tom Kirk, and he reached the following conclusions.

1. Those involved failed to distinguish orientation from instruction and, therefore, provided only the former;
2. The instruction or orientation was not given in a context of the student's need to know how to use the library;
3. The instruction when it went beyond orientation tended to take its scope and content from the reference training which librarians had received;
4. Librarians were not sensitive to educational changes that were occurring.[42]

1968-1970s

For one unfamiliar with the history of library use instruction, one might assume that the 1960s marked the beginning of library use instruction.

"The number of articles on library use instruction indexed in Library Literature doubled from 35 in 1958 to 70 in 1971"[43] The instruction renaissance of the 1970s was facilitated by:

> 1) the changing nature of higher education, along with a rapid growth of library collections and the construction of newer library buildings that gave emphasis to a book-centered educational philosophy; 2) technological developments and their effects on libraries, especially in the area of computer applications; 3) changes in the nature of reference service: 4) grants from governmental agencies and foundations; 5) the proliferation of published articles and books on the topic of bibliographic instruction; 6) the support and activities of professional library associations; 7) numerous conferences, workshops, and similar meetings dealing with the topic; 8) the establishment of clearinghouses, along with their bibliographic instruction-related newsletters and directories; and 9) standards established by various professional groups and accrediting agencies.[44]

Professional organizations began to formally recognize library instruction as a part of the librarians's job. "In 1967, the American Library Association formed the Committee on Instruction in the Use of Libraries."[45] "In 1971, the First Annual Conference on Library Orientation was held at Eastern Michigan University."[46] Out of this conference evolved in 1972, Project LOEX (Library Orientation Exchange) which was formed to collect, organize, and disseminate library-instruction materials to interested librarians. In 1971 the Bibliographic Instruction Task Force was formed by the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL). The task force issued guidelines for library use instruction in academic libraries. The task force also recommended the establishment of a bibliographic instruction section with the ACRl and the section was approved in 1977. Interestingly, the Bibliographic Instruction Section became the most active section within the ACRL. At the 1977 midwinter meeting, the ALA Council voted to establish the Library Instruction Round Table to provide a means of communication among divisions and committees of ALA and state clearinghouses.[47]

"The dominant influences of the 1970s were the instruction programs at Earlham College, the University of Wisconsin-Parkside, Sangamon State University, the University of Michigan, SUNY College of Environmental Science and Forestry, the University of Texas-Austin, and UCLA.[48] The writings and presentations of Tom Kirk, Hannelore Rader, Evan Farber, John Lubans, Miriam Dudley, Patricia Breivik, Jacquelyn

Morris, Sharon Hogan, Anne Roberts, Nancy Fjallbrant, Carla Stoffle, and Richard Werking forged the shape and direction of library instruction for the decade.[49]

> For the most part, instruction librarians in the 1970s were concerned with the mechanics of developing local instructional programs and materials and all the issues attendant with that, including how to gain faculty interest and support, organize and administer programs, market or sell programs, and plan and evaluate activities. Other major concerns centered on developing definitions and trying to appropriately label the activity; justifying the need for programs and "proving" that the instruction was effective, that is, demonstrating that instruction improves the academic performance of students; creating an underlying philosophy or foundation; developing idealized models, such as the Model Statement of Objectives; creating a history or sense of tradition for those engaged in instructional activities; and gaining recognition and acceptance for instruction as a basic library service.[50]

Yet in spite of the library instruction activity taking place across the United States, the writings of well-respected librarians in the field and the recognition of bibliographic instruction by the AlA and the ACRL, fewer than ten library schools were offering courses on bibliographic instruction in 1979 according to a survey conducted by the ACRL.[51]

A review of the research presented in Lubans' *Educating the Library User* does not support the idea of a positive correlation between library instruction and academic success. "Research on the relationship between library use and class level, academic achievement, and scholastic aptitude has failed to identify any causal connection."[52] Nor was any "evidence found that the level of library service was positively correlated with college grade-point averages."[53] Research does substantiate the dominate role of the instructor in influencing library use.[54]

Four years later in 1978, Lubans edited another collection of essays entitled *Progress in Educating the Library User*. Salient points from some of these authors will indicate the way library instruction was heading in the 1970s and into the 1980s. In the forward Lubans characterizes the change in libraries and librarianship as moving "...away from an almost exclusively materials-centered orientation and toward a client-centered mode of operation...The overriding objective of the client-centered library is to make the universe of recorded information effectively accessible to its clientele...Thus, to inform or educate the library user becomes a matter of critical importance to

librarians."[56]

Lubans is critical of librarians' "missionary-like zeal" in "convincing the converted" of the need for library instruction and failing to convince those in power - most importantly teachers -f the crucial need for library instruction. He feels that unless teachers change their existing curriculum to include information use and unless information use skills are seen as being as important as literacy, then the progress of library instruction has reached an impasse.[57]

John Talley explored library instruction in junior and community colleges and found that the majority of instructional programs fell into the category of library orientation. However, he also found that research shows these students to be desperately lacking in entrance-level library use skills - 74 percent did not understand the use of call numbers, 98 percent could not identify a book review source, 67 percent did not understand the basic author, title, and subject entries in the library catalog.[58]

John Lindgren in 1978 sent out a questionnaire to 220 college libraries to determine the perceptions of the instruction librarians on their own effectiveness, problems and needs. Lindgren found that the myth that "libraries are easy to use" persists for several reasons, two of which are: 1) users seldom ponder what resources they may have missed in the library and 2) library research is always auxiliary to other enterprises, and is, therefore, never the final object (nor should it be) of the user's attention.[59] In summary, Lindgren believes that at "the heart of the user instruction matter is the belief that the ability to use libraries effectively ought to be viewed as one of the classic resources of the educated person, that it has hitherto been much neglected in formal education, and that a corrective is badly needed."[60]

On a more positive note, Allan J. Dyson, in a 1978 study of the 25 largest undergraduate libraries in the United States and Canada, found:

> "...an almost radical expansion of library instruction progress in undergraduate libraries during the last five years. Several elements have contributed to the expansion - a sense of professional duty, a need to cope with an enormous user population, (in 1976-1977 there were an average of 5,416 undergraduate students per undergraduate librarian) a move toward a more visible teaching role, and a sense of self-preservation.[61]

An area of library instruction which had been neglected in the past and which proponents and critics had been urging library instructors to address was evaluation of their programs. brewer and Hill observed in 1976 that until very recently references to evaluation in the literature of library instruction had been virtually non-existent.[62] One of the reasons for a lack of evalua-

tion is the scarcity of adequate, valid tests. Some institutions were still using the Feagley Test developed in 1955. The survey is the most widely used method of determining systematically the effects of bibliographic instruction on the student. The real problem lies in the fact that "without standardized measuring tools and agreement on objectives, instruction librarians lack norms, whether for assessing a student's bibliography, answers on an objective test, or ratings tabulated from a questionnaire."[63] All librarians are not in total agreement with the need for statistical data to provide proof of the legitimacy and effectiveness of library use instruction. Miller, in citing the Earlham College's program, says that it has demonstrated it worth but not in a quantitative manner.[64]

1980s

> By 1980, after a decade of ferment and development, instruction became an accepted basic public service activity in most libraries; it overcame most of the problems of splintering; and it gained recognition from the profession at large as evidenced by its inclusion in the various guidelines and standards issued by ALA units and by the adoption of the "Policy Statement: Instruction in the Use of Libraries" by the ALA Council. Attention now shifted to issues such as the "personality" or personal characteristics of successful instruction librarians; the high burnout rate among instruction libraries; how to develop tests to measure skills; and the lack of sustained growth of most instruction programs, which was partly attributed to the growing realization that programs were being based on the talent of individuals rather than on educational principles. Also about this same time, a number of instruction librarians began to feel that the movement had reached a plateau and was in danger of becoming stagnant. To identify new directions, challenge what had now become dogma, stimulate discussion and perhaps a little controversy, raise consciousness, and in general, create a "new" agenda and focus for the 1980s, a Think Tank was proposed and then held.[65]

The Think Tank, which was sponsored by the ACRL/BIS, was held in 1981. From this meeting six sections of focus were identified and elaborated upon with an "...introduction, recommendations, and a few statements or concepts which the participants agreed should be accepted as fact and no longer debated."[66] The six sections were:

1. Integration of bibliographic instruction and library profession.

2. Integration of bibliographic instruction and the whole of academic librarianship into higher education.
3. Integrating library use skills, bibliographic concepts, and available technology.
4. Relationships with schools of library science.
5. Importance of research.
6. Importance of publication.[67]

"The creation of a high-quality journal was stressed by the Think Tank report. Within eighteen months of the Think Tank meeting, the first issue of *Research Strategies: A Journal of Library Concepts and Instruction* was published."[68]

Library schools should play a critical role in the training of instruction librarians yet the "deans of library schools are, at best, lukewarm to the idea of separate BI courses."[69] In 1980, 11 out of 67 ALA - accredited library schools offered a separate course and four years later the number remained the same.70 Library schools argue that in a one year program it is difficult to add new courses and maintain the necessary focus of the curriculum. Another problem is the lack of staff qualified to teach a BI course because much of the course must deal with learning and instructional design theory.[71] Aluri and Engle suggest that BI concepts can be integrated into the existing library school curriculum successfully if: 1) the faculty is aware of the competencies needed by BI librarians, 2) BI concepts are included in course content where feasible, and 3) faculty are alert to the potential for students to use the various course options to develop BI proficiencies.[72]

Even though bibliographic instruction courses are not common in library schools, in the Chadley and Gavryck survey of 72 ARL libraries from 1983 to 1988, BI has become part of the mainstream library service. "Provision of instruction in these libraries increased in scope and reached a larger percentage of the student body with more types of instructional programs in 1988 than in 1983."[73] In an often sited survey by LOEX in 1987 of academic libraries to determine which types of instructional methods and materials were used in bibliographic instruction, it was found that fewer credit courses, term paper clinics, and audiotape programs were offered in 1987 as compared to 1979. "In general, the amount of publicity, evaluation, and use of print and nonprint material has increased. Of particular interest is the increase in the number of libraries in which required BI sessions (primarily required by the faculty) and/or tours are offered."[74]

Future

"The disparity between library services, including user education, on the one hand, and the information

- seeking patterns and problems of the academic community on the other represents the single most important and difficult challenge facing libraries and librarians today."[75] Stoffle and Bernero have broken down this broad challenge into several more specific areas when presenting the challenges of the future to the "Second Generation" of instruction librarians. Some of the challenges they see for future instruction librarians are as follows:

1. To be able to clearly label and articulate the characteristics of the successful product of instruction programs - identify the characteristics of the independent user.
2. Performance standards for instruction librarians themselves must be created, certified, and disseminated - criteria for assessing the suitability of librarians for the instruction role need to be identified.
3. Librarians should take the lead in initiating a more thorough review of the role and philosophical base of the academic library - librarians should lead the colleges and universities through the technological changes ahead.
4. Librarians need to develop a better understanding of the faculty.
5. Developing research skills to facilitate program evaluation and identify more effective learning environments for users should be of prime importance.
6. Instruction librarians must not let activities become "ends in themselves, but must remain committed to broad goals and objectives based on the environmental context, user needs, and available resources, if the educational role of the library is to be successfully implemented.[76]

Clyde Hendrick, dean of the graduate school of Texas Tech University, spoke in 1985 about the role of the librarian in the twenty-first century.

> The growth of knowledge will lead to ever greater complexity of knowledge. Therefore, organization of that knowledge is likely to become more complex, and the physical media for storing and, sorting information will become more diverse. The user's task, therefore, will become more difficult in two ways: a) mastery of the

physical means of getting at the information and b) mastery of the conceptual systems for the organization of the library's store of knowledge. Once the physical and conceptual systems of organization are mastered, utilization will be enormously more efficient than it is today. Thus "entry difficulties" into the library will increase, while "utilization difficulties" will decrease. Solution of the entry difficulties will require teaching by the librarian, and this teaching will need to be systematic and sustained. From the user's point of view, solutions to the entry problems of the machines and the abstract organization of knowledge will be high-level technical skills that must be mastered in order for students to succeed in college. As a matter of fact, in the next century, I expect that one or more courses on library instruction will be required for every college student, much like freshman English is required of all students today. Faculty will also need comparable systematic tutoring.

This development implies that one major role change for the professional librarian will be uniform movement to faculty status. Such faculty status, probably with tenure, will be of a special nature. It follows that the library profession should move as rapidly as possible toward the Ph.D. as the terminal degree.77

Conclusion

"The concept of library instruction in academic libraries is not new. College and University librarians have long accepted the notion that in addition to assisting users with the identification of specific needed information, they also have an obligation to teach searching skills which could enable their users to function more independently."[78]

An examination of the records of the past century reveals that library use instruction has had an uneven and uncertain history. During the past hundred years, library use instruction clearly has been influenced by it surrounding environment of higher education. At time instruction programs have flourished because preeminent and farsighted individuals, such as Justin Winsor, have recognized changing currents in higher education and employed library use instruction to propel the academic library into a more intellectually useful direction. At other times, these programs have waned because of the inability of individuals to capitalize on the advances of their predecessors or because of the willingness of librar-

> ians during a given period merely to acquiesce to conditions rather than to anticipate and lead.
>
> Given the history of its growth and development, library use instruction could be entering a "golden period." Advocates may have anticipated the renewed interest in under-graduate education of the 1980s, as evidence by the recent publication of numerous books and reports on the subject. Moreover, proponents of instruction currently occupy many of the leadership positions in academic libraries and professional library associations. In addition, the continuing adverse economic conditions of higher education may discourage the complacency of the more prosperous periods and encourage the innovation and creativity characteristic of user programs in the 1930s and 1970s.[79]

"It seems that librarians shall always be in pursuit, because library instruction must be dynamic to be relevant and must always strive to meet the current needs of students."[80]

"How index-learning turns no student pale yet holds the eel of Science by the tail"
Pope, *Dunciad*, I, 279

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Establishment of the Knox County Records Library

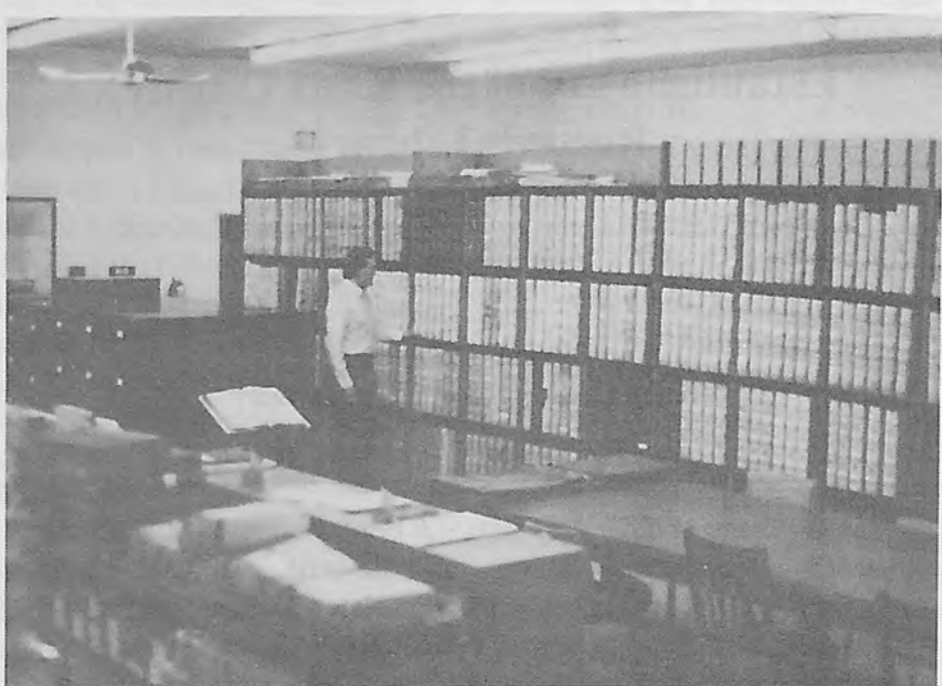
Brian Spangle
Knox County Records Librarian

The proper storage of older, less active records is a problem faced by most county governments. Inadequate space, lack of funds to properly maintain records, and apathy on the part of public officials are the major factors leading to the poor state of these materials in county courthouses. Records are often relegated to inaccessible storage areas under conditions that contribute to their deterioration and limit their use by genealogists and historians.

Knox county, which was organized in 1790, easily had one of Indiana's worst scenarios regarding record storage, a particular shame given the county's rich history. Happily, conditions that persisted for so many years have been eliminated in a dramatic way. Thanks to efforts of the local government and the Knox County Public Library, Knox County has observed her bicentennial year with a new facility, the Knox County Records Library, created for the purpose of housing these long neglected treasures.

A brief overview of the situation, as it did exist, is required to fully appreciate the change that was instituted. A large portion of Knox County's records, after being subjected to more than one move, came to be stored in a dilapidated old house on the block east of the courthouse. This structure had no controlled temperature and suffered from a badly leaking roof. Materials were piled with little organization in filthy surroundings. Some individual documents were even strewn on the floor. Others had been exposed to moisture and were molding. Perhaps worst of all, anyone wishing to use the records was allowed to obtain a key to the house, enter on their own, and work unsupervised. This lax policy not only contributed to the disorder, but most likely led to the theft of records. Only a portion of these materials had been microfilmed.

The records involved here that were so poorly managed included both those of permanent historic value (court case files dating from



Librarian Brian Spangle in the new Knox County Records Library

Knox County Records Library, 1991

1796) and records only a few years old (commissioners' claims and tax receipts) that were still used for county business. These latter records are examples of those that have to be retained for a specified period based on a statute of limitations. Many had been retained needlessly and were merely taking up space. A time consuming search by county personnel, who often had to sift through mounds of loose files or reach a ledger on the bottom of a waist-high stack, was far from an effective means of information retrieval. The library was conceived as a repository for both categories of records, but salvaging the oldest was of highest priority.

Records were also stored in other locations, including the courthouse attic and the basement of the jail. Such a lack of consolidation made it even more difficult for specific records to be found. To the county's credit, some records of particular interest to genealogists, among them the marriage records, were moved to Lewis Historical Library on the Vincennes University campus some years before the new facility was contemplated. A number of these currently remain at that library.

Obviously, the need for change was great and many interested local persons had long rallied for a solution to the problem. Positive change finally commenced approximately four years ago with a very unique arrangement involving the Knox County Public Library. The president of the board of county commissioners, who also served as president of the public library board of trustees, proposed a project aimed at preserving the records. An agreement was made between the commissioners and the public library board, whereby the county would set up a record storage facility, and a public library employee would act as staff, being directly involved with the initial work and later maintaining regular hours. Thus, the interest and initiative of one commissioner and the commitment of the public library, whose aid went well beyond supplying staff, were both key to establishing the Knox County Records Library.

The project was carried out in a very cost efficient manner. A section of an old warehouse, the interior of which was completely renovated, was used for the library. This building was already owned by the county and had been rented to a local business. It stood directly behind the house where the records had been held. County employees played a major role in the renovation, the bulk of which was completed in early 1987.

Not only was existing space used, but with the exception of lumber for shelves and some new file cabinets, the library was furnished almost exclusively with used items moved from other county buildings or taken out of storage. These included a massive twelve foot long work table. The metal shelves and cabinets that were holding records in the old house were, naturally, moved and utilized again. The public library assisted in this area as well, provid-

ing old shelves, lumber for new shelves, and other miscellaneous materials. All of these factors helped make the physical structure itself economically feasible.

It should be noted that the enterprise was not entered into blindly. Experts were consulted concerning correct procedures. Former Indiana State Archivist John Newman visited the site several times, offering guidance in many areas throughout the early stages of the effort. Mr. Newman drew a proposed floor plan for the new library and inventoried records, noting whether they were to be moved or destroyed. His help proved to be invaluable.

The first records were moved as soon as the basic work on the building was finished. These eventually came not only from those places already mentioned, but also directly from county offices. This helped unify records and freed up valuable space in the courthouse. Part of the warehouse adjoining the library was used as a point of transition. Files and ledgers were stacked there before being placed in their new home. County maintenance was responsible for constructing shelves and moving records, and public library staff (several in the beginning as their time allowed) cleaned the badly soiled records. One public library employee even helped with some of the carpentry. This illustrates the degree of cooperation that was evident as the project progressed.

Initially, the records were wiped with dry cloths in order to remove years of collected dirt. Cleaning quarter-folded court case files was an agonizingly slow process since the contents of over 1700 4 1/2 x 13 1/2 inch file drawers (variations of the old Woodruff file drawers) had to be removed and dusted, and the drawers washed. The cleaning of ledgers offered its own problems. Persons working with these would soon find themselves covered with the brown dust of decayed leather bindings. There was neither time nor money to engage in precise preservation techniques at this point. More deliberate steps toward preservation were seen as long-range goals. What was important was to clean the records and situate them in a secure area.

Despite the tedious nature of the work, shelves and cabinets were gradually filled and a sense of organization did emerge. The moving, cleaning and organizing of records continued for over a year and a half. In that time the old house was also demolished and the ground in front of the building was leveled out for a parking area.

The library itself is made up of one large room measuring 46 x 48 feet, with a 12 foot ceiling. A small office and restroom are separate from this. Wooden shelves reinforced with steel, with four levels of compartments that are approximately 2 feet wide and little over 1 1/2 feet high, line the north and east walls. One freestanding shelf of similar dimensions runs parallel through the room. These were built to accommodate heavy ledgers and storage

boxes and are deep enough to hold long tax duplicates. Metal roller shelves hold ledgers horizontally on the west wall. Metal shelves, standard file cabinets, and a case of metal file drawers stand against the back or south wall. A combination of all of the latter, plus short wooden shelves and the large work table, are also placed in parallel rows through the room. Most metal furnishing were put on treated lumber platforms up off the painted concrete floor. Heat and air conditioning were, of course, installed and overhead fans provide air circulation.

The records are organized chronologically by series in five sections, based on the five major county offices that are represented in the library. These are recorder, treasurer, clerk, auditor and assessor. The wide variety of records from the office of county clerk consume the most space, while those from the county assessor require little room at all. Examples of some of the permanent records housed in the facility, with the dates they cover, include the following: deed records, 1814-1909; miscellaneous records, 1862-1933; tax duplicates, 1846-1987 (many missing volumes); probate records, minute/order books from 1790-1980 and varying dates for case files; civil and criminal court records from the 1790's through the mid twentieth-century; commissioners' records, 1823-1985; and county council records, 1899-1982. The most recent date for each type of record differs based on the preference of the officeholder. Those more recent than the latest dates shown remain in the courthouse.

The project brought to light many interesting and long forgotten Knox County records. Among these are the following: tax lists and appraisements for the years 1802, 1804 and 1805; Register of Negroes and Mulattoes, 1853-1858; Record of Patent Rights Certificates, 1882-1920; and Enrollment of Soldiers, Widows and Orphans 1886. The location of the county's Negro register (in which Blacks were required to register as a means of enforcing the notorious Article XIII of Indiana's 1851 Constitution) benefitted one researcher early on. A gentleman from Bloomington came to Vincennes with the hope of finding this singular volume shortly after it had been discovered.

By October 1988, the majority of the records were in place and a complete list of holdings had been compiled. That month, an open house was held to mark the Knox County Records Library's formal opening. After the opening, regular business hours were started, roughly corresponding to those of the courthouse. Hours are 8:00-12:00 and 1:00-4:00, Monday through Friday.

Genealogists and historians have taken full advantage of the environment the library offers them. For Knox County researchers, cramped courthouse offices and officials too busy with daily responsibilities to give them needed attention, are virtually a thing of the past. County personnel also refer to the records frequently, as do local abstractors.

The first year saw over 600 individuals use the library.

Patrons may obtain photocopies of records at a cost of $ .25 per usage. The public library had purchased a new copier, so their old machine was put into use at the new building. This deferred another major expense. Public library funds also cover copier maintenance and a small amount was budgeted for supplies. Further, the library board has assumed a lead role in setting policy for the Knox County Records Library. For instance, the board requested that patrons use only a pencil when working with the records. The county commissioners, on the other hand, are responsible for utilities, general maintenance and other major operating costs, excluding staff salary.

While the county's most pressing needs were met when the new facility opened, work is ongoing today directed both at better preserving the records and making them easier to use and at improving the building itself. One future goal is to flatten the oldest quarter-folded court case files, so that they can be indexed and placed in acid-free folders and boxes. Other indexing projects have been completed or are in progress. The early court minute books and some documents dating from the territorial period have already been tucked away in acid-free boxes.

In addition, records continue to be brought over from the courthouse. Nearly 100 more court order books were moved from the clerk's office earlier this year. There has been no problem at all with officials being overly possessive of their records. On the contrary, officeholders have been so anxious to create space that it has been hard to keep the library from becoming a dumping ground. Batches of obsolete records are also being destroyed each year, following proper guidelines and another year's worth are moved in to replace them.

Plans are currently in the works to pave the library's gravel parking lot and side the front of the building. Nothing had been done previously to alter the appearance of this extremely unattractive tin facade and it contrasts sharply with the clean, well lighted and very modern interior. New patrons are always pleasantly surprised upon entering. Genealogists, who are more often exposed to the neglect local records suffer and perhaps have a better appreciation for their value than the average person, are always extremely impressed. Many of them proceed to relate horror stories about the condition of records in other counties where they have done research.

Knox County was only the second county in the State of Indiana to create a facility specifically designed to house its records and make them accessible to the public. The first to do so was Bartholomew County. A Knox County delegation traveled there in 1988 to make comparisons. There are many differences between the two, as well as in the way they came into being. The fact that county officials and the public library board worked together, each assuming a

share of the burden, makes the Knox County venture totally unique. It very much shows what can be accomplished through a coöperative endeavor and reveals that libraries can make an enormous contribution where the care of local records is concerned.

Some may see this as an awkward arrangement, but if so it is one that got the job done. The Knox County model is not necessarily a model for record programs in other counties. Each county must use its own available resources in embarking on such a project. The first and foremost requirement is a resolve on the part of elected officials to implement change. Hopefully, initiative will be taken in more counties, regardless of how the final product is achieved, so that local history is preserved.

The Knox County Records Library is located at 819 Broadway Street in Vincennes. Group tours of the library are available during regular business hours, or at other times by prior arrangement. For further information, call (812) 885-2557.

An Experiment With Electronic Pagers

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High technology and libraries—we immediately envision automated catalogs, optical bar code checkout, CD-ROM indexes, telefacsimile machines, online databases, etc. This paper is a report of one library's usage of yet another product of technology which originated outside the library world but which might have a place in it. At Krannert Memorial Library of the University of Indianapolis we have experimented with an electronic paging system for over a year and are in a position to comment on its installation and effectiveness.

Our background scenario was simple (and typical)—a library with too few staff and too many hours and librarians harboring a deep-seated service attitude trying desperately to find ways to overcome the former problems. Our small library has only one reference librarian who, obviously, cannot work every hour during the long academic week. Even when she is on duty, it is impossible for her always to be at the reference desk due to collection development and interlibrary loan responsibilities, not to mention the frequent need to take patrons to find books in the reference stacks or to help them use library equipment. At these times, other patrons needing reference assistance gravitate to the circulation desk where the staff are put in the awkward position of trying to locate the Reference Librarian themselves or, if unsuccessful, to find another professional to deal with the patron.

In order to maximize reference service to a campus constituency becoming increasingly library and information oriented, the other three professionals join the Reference Librarian in working late shifts Monday through Thursday evenings. All staff members participate in a rotation of weekend hours and provide reference assistance to the best of their abilities. However, while on duty during evening or weekend hours, staff members must balance the need to do their own

work at their regular desk with the need to be available for a reference call.

The problem, then, was twofold: how to keep the Reference Librarian apprised of patron needs during her time away from the public desk; and how to provide backup reference assistance when she was busy or at times when she was not in the library. The makeshift system, as outlined above, which had grown up to meet these needs consisted of a physical search for the Reference Llibrarian if she was in the building followed by a search for another professional if she could not be found. The basic goal of finding an answer to a reference question was usually met, but the frequent slowness in finding a reference person to work with the patron became the impetus to try something new.

One day, when the problem of locating a reference person was being informally discussed, someone jokingly suggested that we needed a "beeper." My immediate reaction was that librarians would probably consider such a device unprofessional or a nuisance. However, the more I thought about it, the more I wondered if perhaps an electronic pager might, indeed, be a solution, not only to the reference dilemma but also to problems my staff sometimes have in finding me, the Library Director, when I am "roving" about in various departments and not in my office.

I visited my local Radio Shack store and decided to purchase an inexpensive paging system to see whether the concept would work. Not wanting the monthly expense or inconvenience of a telephone paging service, I selected the Realistic brand PG-80 "8-Channel Digital Paging System" which retails for $99.95. The basic set-up includes a base unit and one pager receiver, and I purchased an additional receiver for $29.95. The base unit is a radio-sized box (6 1/2" x 4 1/2" x 1 1/2") with a large, extension antenna, and it has eight buttons on top for paging up to eight different receivers. In addition, there is an "All Paging" button, a "Store" button (for programming codes), and a "Paging" light which blinks when a receiver button has been pushed. The pager receiver unit which is a matte black plastic is lightweight and compact (4" x 2" x 3/4"), and it has a large clip for fastening to belts, pockets, etc. When the codes between the base unit and the receivers have been coordinated (a five minute job), pushing a base unit button causes the pager to beep and a light on it to flash. The beeping and flashing are canceled with the touch of a button on the pager, or in the event of an unattended pager they will cease after a minute or so.

The system is advertised to have a range up to two miles, but within our library building its extent is two floors. The third floor which is accessible only by elevator or stairwell is not within range of the base unit on the circulation desk, but the second floor and basement can be reached by the pager. The base unit plugs into an ordinary electrical

outlet, and the receivers use three AAA batteries each. I was initially concerned about having to replace batteries frequently but experience has shown that we get several months of service from a single set. The possible longer term solution of purchasing rechargeable batteries and a recharger unit does not really seem necessary.

The electronic paging system has permitted more flexibility of movement by both myself and whichever staff member is covering reference responsibilities. I find that I can move about the library without being out of touch for telephone calls or unexpected visitors who need me personally. Likewise, the Reference Librarian can move about the reference collection or in and out of our technical services area and still be reached for a patron who has asked for help at the circulation desk. In the evening and weekend hours, the staff members on call for reference questions can work at their own desks and still be available when needed. I believe that the quicker response for patrons encourages them to ask for help more often than when they knew they would have to wait for assistance. Another advantage of the reference pager is that when the Reference Librarian is not in the library, or is leaving for the day, the "torch" of reference responsibility is tangibly passed on to another staff member by the transfer of the paging receiver instead of verbal notification alone. We have a rule that the reference librarian's pager will always be in someone's hands, and that person is, essentially, "on-call" to help patrons. Thus, from the circulation staff's perspective, a simple push of the button will summon a reference person, whomever that might be at the time. In addition, we have adopted a backup procedure in case the "Reference Librarian" button does not get assistance quickly. At these times, the circulation staff member can push my button so that I can come to help the patron. This situation might occur if the Reference Librarian were already busy with a patron or otherwise too occupied to respond to the call.

Another important benefit of the electronic paging system is that the circulation desk person does not have to physically leave the desk area to search for assistance, as he or she did in the past. Leaving the desk unattended is a violation of a cardinal rule of the library, but it was sometimes necessary when other circulation staff were away from the desk (e.g. shelving or servicing equipment.) The pager permits a discreet call for assistance while keeping the desk covered. This electronic connection to assistance is also a benefit for student workers at the circulation desk who may have lost track of where their supervisor has gone just at the time when some dilemma arises which they cannot handle.

It would be incorrect to imply that we have not had some problems with the implementation of an electronic paging system. When we first installed it, we discovered that pushing

a paging button not only sounded the pager but also set off our circulation security alarm system. After experimentation, I found that plugging the base unit into an outlet on a different electrical circuit from the security system stopped this annoyance. The other problems with the paging system have been due to human factors, especially failure to pass the pager to another librarian when going off duty or failure to keep the pager on one's person while on duty. It is true that the receiver unit, while small, is still somewhat of a bother to keep about one's clothing. I find that it fits well in my sport coat pocket, but my female librarian colleagues have a harder time finding a pocket or belt on which to place it. However, when these problems are overcome, the system works well.

Paging systems are becoming increasingly popular in business for executives and other people with whom immediate contact is required—why not librarians? We are bringing technological developments into the library in other areas, such as computers, optical data storage, telecommunication linkages— why not borrow the electronic pager too?

Statement of Opinion
To "Degree" or not to "Degree": Academic Librarians and Subject Expertise

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Library literature is replete with discussion of issues of professionalism, the M.L.S. degree as professional qualification, and the professional image of the practicing librarian. These sometimes heated discussions are all for the better and probably attest to the vitality, if not strength and resiliency, of the profession. Just what criteria constitute the possible definitional parameters of the professional librarian are often debated and vigorously defended or criticized.[1] If the professional value of the M.L.S. degree is generally upheld as the *sine que non* of the library profession for academic, public, and special libraries, the value of additional "paper" qualification is not.

Formal educational attainment in the world of academia is a given; where terminal degrees are often research-oriented, their acquisition and inclusion in professional portfolios is vitally important, if not a necessary, minimal requirement. Being members of the lower species in the academic pond, academic librarians are exposed to the pressures of faculty status as defined by the higher Darwinian orders, and by their own professional duties and roles. Where faculty status does not exist, academic librarians, are still prey to the subservient roles assigned to them in the minds of higher orders, i.e. teaching and research faculty. For the academic librarian, the state of mutual respect can indeed be wanting.

One major measure of academic respectability is the attainment of intellectual pedigree *via* trial by fire. This normally takes the form of having taken holy orders in the life of the mind, through the exposure to substantive and research elements in graduate work in a subject discipline. Disciplines by their nature are highly refined fields of investigation and professional acculturation. Even in professional programs such as the M.S.W., M.B.A., M. Arch., or M.L.S. certain psychological and sociological habits of mind are cultivated, nurtured, and projected as sustainable and viable professional

traits to hone and maintain as part of one's professional repertoire. Indeed, in some professions (law, medicine, nursing), codes of proper professional conduct guarantee the formal training and education first experienced in a given disciplinary or professional program.

Given the condition of the academic librarian, various roles and expectations must be met, often with little institutional support. This is not unusual, for even teaching faculty decry the state of inadequate facilities or financial support—an accepted state of higher education as it exists today. The problem confronting the academic librarian is a difficult and peculiar one. One salient but crucial aspect governing the academic librarian's professional cachet as viewed by others in the academic community is the real factor of formal academic credentials. According to some, the lack of formal credentials in subject disciplines allows one to trade in the academic economy with less currency.[2] Of course, an effective librarian need not have a subject masters, let alone the doctorate, to be a major contributing member in the academic community, but it may help in enhancing professional currency with others and certainly provides a profound sense of the scholarly mission *vis-a-vis* pedagogy and research. A subject background may very well provide that exposure which the practicing academic librarian could meld with his/her own professional mission in academic librarianship.

The case of the subject bibliographer is a good if not striking example of the desirability or even necessity of an additional subject background. Although a subject bibliographer's role is substantially different from teaching faculty in the same discipline, their mutual support is conducive to solid collection development. Knowledgeable appreciation of the nuances and parameters of a discipline's mission and growth is very crucial to the collection development efforts in support of an institution or department's research and instructional vision. Balance in approach and a sense of identification with the discipline's substantive and methodological life is indicative of a commitment to a form of academic librarianship and to the discipline it supports.

Disciplinary expertise for subject bibliographers and for academic librarians is the underlying assumption motivating the argument for additional education, whether it culminates in degree or not. Pragmatic factors, pecuniary and political, make additional degree attainment preferable. Questions of credentialism as a negative force in society at large, and in academic libraries in particular, should be addressed critically. Paper qualification alone without attendant qualities of service and scholarly librarianship should not subsume the efforts and talents of those academic librarians lacking the additional pedigree. Additional subject backgrounds can only enhance the efficacy and services provided by a librarian,

subject bibliographer or not. Dual masters degrees are a case in point and have been an option for some time in library schools.[3] Moreover, in-depth acquaintance with the intellectual agenda of a given discipline sensitizes the academic librarian to the myriad world of disciplines, fields of research, and their sociology of knowledge.

Given that a majority of academic librarians do not possess additional graduate backgrounds, several reasons come to mind: institutional support may be lacking; financial or academic constraints prove insurmountable; and insufficient desire or "opportunity costs" are greater than the effort put forth. These very real factors need further explanation. Some colleges and universities do not permit faculty or professional ranks to pursue "in-house" degrees and the logistics of attending another institution may hinder attendance. Rising costs of graduate education have and will present a financial constraint upon librarians' motivations. Finally, the time, effort, and acculturative requirements attendant to graduate programs demand serious attention. For the librarian, bifurcation of roles as librarian and as embryonic scholar is delineated and sometimes exacerbated by the demands of disciplinary acculturation which the librarian must balance with the professional acculturation of librarianship. Most important, this process is perhaps the most difficult to reconcile, especially if the latter degree is a doctorate.[4] These are but some of the major factors impacting upon the academic librarian's pursuit of graduate subject studies.

Unlike many other disciplines, in librarianship, the doctorate is not the terminal degree; the M.L.S. qualifies as such. Certainly, other professional programs culminate in masters degrees (social work, urban planning, engineering, public administration, etc.), but the inter-active intellectually rich world of higher education demands disinterested knowledge of and pursuit of rarified agendas which push back the bounds of human knowledge, not just information, which is rudimentary and forms the basis of knowledge. Subject expertise cultivates that necessary quality of mind and controlled reflection inherent in a discipline. When such expertise is combined with a background of practice in librarianship, the academic librarian becomes a translator in the "no-man's" land between scholar, student, and the collections. Public services and bibliographic consulting can then become even more enriching in the library as educative process.

It must be emphasized that there are costs attached to additional graduate subject degrees. What subject to pursue, if it does not support collection development of public services, may depend upon individual interests as well as abilities. The difference between a masters and a doctorate in any discipline is not only a difference of time and effort but in kind; different qualities of expertise and intellectual expectations are involved (especially

since the masters reflects a very broad definition of accomplishments while the doctorate is uniformally defined)[5] Timing is another factor which affects an academic librarian's career. Whether subject degree attainment precedes or follows the M.L.S. is crucial for several reasons.

Graduate training is difficult at best—while pursuing a career full-time it becomes even more so. Prior graduate experience is easier to manage, but most academic librarians do not embark upon librarianship with prior graduate degrees in hand. Former graduate socialization must be "un-learned" or successfully integrated into library school and later as a professional, making for cognitive dissonance.[6] Perhaps the most telling factor is the problem of remuneration—the fact is, an academic librarian will never recoup the effort in time or the emotional and financial investment. Intrinsic interest and career enrichment are not always as satisfying when confronted with the prevailing condition of financial and professional compensation or remuneration in librarianship. These factors militate against earning additional formal graduate degree credentials.

If the desirability of possessing a two-year M.L.S. is problematical, the added significance of a subject qualification appears less so.[7] As the nature of academic work is qualitatively different from the concerns of society, so is academic librarianship. Again, although it is debatable what formal qualifications an academic librarian should ideally possess, certain knowledge bases tempered by sound appreciation for higher education should be accepted and maintained.

Subject graduate experience provides useful tools, i.e. languages, statistics, and methodologies, and instills a research and scholarly ethos. The latter is difficult to define, but is evident in its relationship to knowledge. Lacking in the M.L.S., a pronounced and extended socialization in a discipline is vitally important for the academic librarian, since it reinforces the ethos of intellectual commitment to the goals of scholarship. A period of guided intellectual effort indelibly affects those who undergo an educative process in a subject discipline. The benefits translate into social and intellectual cachet in a community which is enriched but impoliticly maintains that to be even equal and different, academic librarians should perform this rite of passage.

ENDNOTES

1. Holley, Edward G. "Defining the Academic Librarian" *College and Research Libraries*, 4(November 1985): 465-466.
2. Ibid: 468.
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5. Glazer, Judith S. *The Masters Degree: Tradition, University, Innovation ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 6*. Washington, D.C.: Association for the Study of Higher Education, 1986.
6. Cooper, Jeffrey, Gertz, Janet, and Mark Sandler. "From Ph.D. to M.L.S.: Retraining in Librarianship." *Library Journal* 112 (1 May 1987): 41-42.
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CALL FOR PAPERS

Practitioners, educators, and researchers are invited to submit manuscripts for publication in the Indiana Library Federation sponsored journal *INDIANA LIBRARIES.*

If you have an idea for a paper or you want to discuss a possible topic, contact Daniel Callison, School of Library and Information Science, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405; or call (812) 855-5113, or 855-2018.

Most manuscripts need not exceed ten double-spaced, typed pages, although longer manuscripts are welcome. Manuscripts may concern a current practice, policy or general aspect of the operation of a library system in Indiana. Editorials or opinion papers are also welcome, and should not exceed five, double-spaced, typed pages.

Specifically, ideas and manuscripts associated with the following topics are welcome, although any aspect of library practice in Indiana will be considered.

CENTRAL TOPICS FOR 1991

- **PUBLIC RELATIONS.** Examples of strong public relations efforts which have increased or changed public services of the library should be covered. Examples of flyers, news articles, or special campaigns to win over public opinion can be included.
- **WRITING THE ANNUAL REPORT.** Examples of unique reports to supervisors, governing boards, or organizations should be given. What message do you need to convey, and how do you do it?
- **WEEDING THE COLLECTION.** What are the policies and procedures for evaluation of the collection and determining those titles which must be removed? What happens to those titles after they leave your collection?
- **NEEDS IN LIBRARY EDUCATION.** What are the areas of library education which the library schools and/or continuing education fail to address? What programs need to be developed for education of professionals in library management?
- **NONPRINT CORE COLLECTIONS.** What are the basic nonprint needs of the public and academic library? What nonprint services can the school libraries provide to the community? What sources are best for the current video and audio compact disc revolution?
- **CIRCULATION WITH THE COMPUTER.** What has been your experience with the use of a computerized circulation system? Have the records you keep and the collection development questions you ask changed since the system was placed into operation?
- **HISTORY OF LIBRARIES IN INDIANA.** We are always seeking a good historical sketch of a library in Indiana. Who was responsible for founding the library? What has been the evolution in services? Photographs from all time periods are welcome.

MANUSCRIPT SUBMISSIONS

Preparation: All manuscripts must be double-spaced throughout with good margins. Writers are encouraged to use the format described in Kate L. Turabian's *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses and Dissertations,* 4th ed., with footnotes at the end of the manuscript. They may, however, use another style manual with which they are familiar. Writers should be identified by a cover sheet with author's name, position and address. Identifying information should not appear on the manuscript.

Photographs or graphics are welcome and should accompany manuscript if applicable.

The editor reserves the right to revise all accepted manuscripts for clarity and style. Upon publication, the author will receive two complimentary copies.

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