

# Supporting Diverse Communities

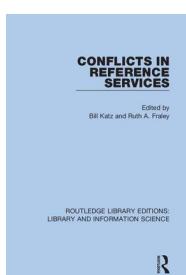
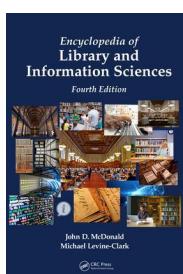
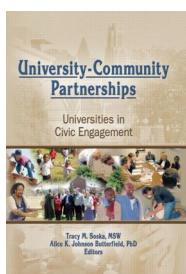
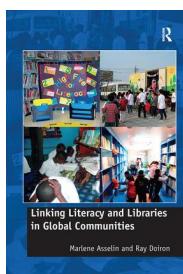
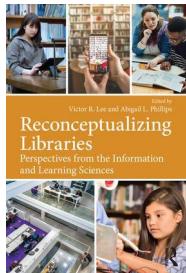
*Improving Community Partner Engagement with  
Libraries as Agents of Social Change*



Taylor & Francis Group  
an **informa** business

[www.taylorfrancis.com](http://www.taylorfrancis.com)

# Contents



- 1. Unrecognized roles of libraries in collaborations to improve communities**  
Fannie M. Cox  
*Library Collaborations and Community Partnerships Enhancing Health and Quality of Life*
- 2. Makerspaces in Libraries: Social Roles and Community Engagement**  
Kyungwon Koh, June Abbas, Rebekah Willett  
*Reconceptualizing Libraries Perspectives from the Information and Learning Sciences*
- 3. Libraries as Agents of Social Change**  
Marlene Asselin, Ray Doiron  
*Linking Literacy and Libraries in Global Communities*
- 4. University-Community Partnership Centers: An Important Link for Social Work Education**  
Mary E. Rogge, Cynthia J. Rocha  
*University-Community Partnerships Universities in Civic Engagement*
- 5. Social Justice in Library and Information Science**  
Bharat Mehra, Kevin S. Rioux, Kendra S. Albright  
*Encyclopedia of Library and Information Sciences*
- 6. Yours, Mine and Ours: Reference Service and the Non-Affiliated User**  
Debbie Masters, Gail Flatness  
*Conflicts in Reference Services*



Taylor & Francis Group  
an Informa business

# 2

## UNRECOGNIZED ROLES OF LIBRARIES IN COLLABORATIONS TO IMPROVE COMMUNITIES

*Fannie M. Cox*

### Introduction

Is it safe to say that librarians like to share? This author thinks it must be second nature for librarians to share. At the Annual Conference of the American Library Association (ALA), there is a PR Xchange Event, along with the PR Xchange Awards Competition all focused on communication. Then, if you are on any one of ALA's CONNECT community listservs, of which there are over 300, it is rare that a week will go by without someone asking a question and a variety of responses pop-up, to share knowledge and/or experiences. Going back to library graduate school, all librarians are taught what it means to create new knowledge and how it allows librarians to add or share new knowledge to the profession, especially when there is a gap in the literature. Even with all these avenues for sharing, innovative programming, creative problem solving, new ideas, tools, and processes do not always get beyond the doors of the library. Because this is so, the exemplars in this book are being shared to highlight library's innovative use of existing assets through community partnerships and collaborations between diverse professions to broaden access to resources, programs, and information for those in need in a variety of settings and circumstances.

While there are books that discuss community engagement and outreach, this book will not only discuss those aspects, but it will describe strategies, challenges, outcomes, and lessons-learned with application for low-, middle-, and high-resource settings for a variety of populations. It will also serve as a resource that identifies how librarians and others have collaborated to make a difference to affect community health and quality of life. The work of libraries has evolved over time and has a rich history of responding to their user's needs in ways that enhance the lives of those who use them.

## Library's history

Although libraries have existed for centuries, ancient libraries such as the Library of Ashurbanipal with its clay tablets during the 7th century BC in Iraq, the Libraries of Trajan's Forum around 112 AD in Rome, the House of Wisdom in the 9th century AD in Baghdad among others with their scrolls, each existed to serve their learned scholars and were not focused on use by the public.

The term public library had been used widely from the 17th century to refer to libraries open to the public that had been endowed by each of their benefactors. The first public library in the United Kingdom that was freely accessible to the public has been identified as one set up in the Free Grammar School in Coventry in 1601. The first library for public use in the United States is a topic of some discussion in the history books. Some have identified it as the Sturgis Library in Cape Cod in 1644. All libraries as we know them were enhanced by Johannes Gutenberg and his development of movable type which took the production of books into a new era. This new era in the United States was most commonly identified with Benjamin Franklin.

In 1731, the United States was a very young country with forward thinking leadership and very few resources including books, which were still being imported and were very expensive. Benjamin Franklin and several of his contemporaries joined together to establish the first subscription library, The Library Company of Philadelphia. Each member made monthly contributions to bring books to the colonies on a variety of subjects: politics, economics, social sciences, philosophy, religion, and the sciences to have intellectual discussions, address issues, and solve societal problems of that time (Wolf, 1976, p. 1). Thus began America's first formal library.

Since that time, the value of books and libraries has been well established in this country and their role in supporting all aspects of community and academic life is well documented. The first medical library, a special library, opened its doors in 1762 in the Pennsylvanian Hospital Library at the University of Pennsylvania. It is known as the Historic Medical Library. In 1847, it received the designation as the "first, largest, and most important medical library in the United States" by the American Medical Association (Historic Library, 1751). It preceded the United States Library of Congress (LC), which was founded in 1800. The oldest law library in the United States is the Jenkins Law Library, formerly known as the Law Library Company of the City of Philadelphia. It was founded in 1802 by its membership and continues to serve the legal community. Then in 1876, at the first American Library Association (ALA)<sup>1</sup> conference Samuel S. Green shared his idea of what makes the library a "useful institution". He stated that "personal relations between librarian and readers are useful in all libraries." Green described four functions that represent the core of what has become known as Public/Reference/User Services. Tyckoson's (2003) describes Green's four functions as:

- Instructing the reader in the ways of the library;
- Assisting the reader with his queries;

- Aiding the reader in the selections of good works; and
- Promoting the library within the community.

Within the four types of libraries: college and university, public, special, and school kindergarten thru 12th grade, only reference services are essentially unchanged. However, many other duties of librarians have expanded and evolved due to changes in the following areas: culture, economics, and social changes; the Internet and technological advances; and social media which have created new and exciting opportunities for libraries and their primary communities.

## Opportunities for libraries

Outreach and community engagement have become embedded within the mission statement of many libraries and institutions of higher education, to collaborate and develop partnerships with communities and organizations outside the library and external to the University. For higher education, the objective is also to enhance the town-gown relationship between faculty and public communities through teaching, research, and service. Far too long, libraries have been an untapped resource. But the tide has begun to turn, because now many libraries are going beyond the traditional lending of books, videos, CDs, braille talking books, providing computers to apply for a job, and genealogy assistance to collaborating and forming partnerships to expand their reach locally, regionally, nationally, and internationally. In an information-rich environment, librarians are reinventing themselves to keep pace with users' needs and to justify their existence, especially when many libraries are experiencing budget shortfalls. Librarians are using data to drive decision-making, assessing their impact; demonstrate accountability, to justify why they are an asset to the communities they serve including academia. According to Bell's, "Staying True to the Core: Designing the Future Academic Library Experience" (Bell, 2014, p. 370),

As technology advances, academic librarians must keep the [user] experience focused on the human elements of their relationship with community members while adapting it to a digital world of connected learning, artificial intelligence, and an Internet of Things, a future where every day physical objects will be connected to the Internet and able to exchange information with other objects.

(Bell, p. 370)

The library has become much more user-centric and service oriented. These types of changes require librarians to meet their users where they are. While this is nothing new, it too requires librarians to continuously think about how they can meet the information needs and expectations of the communities they serve, and those communities that are in their service area, but have limited resources and broadband, yet need access to information. With this changing landscape,

librarians continue to make the library “useful” (Green, 1876). The Library as place serves as both an anchor in the academic and the public community. So, how does the library transform itself to continue to support the information needs of its community and measure its impact on the community it serves?

## **Library communities, partnerships, and collaborations**

The library is the “only centralized location where new and emerging information technologies can be combined with traditional knowledge resources in a user focused resource rich environment that supports today’s social and educational patterns of learning, teaching and research” (Freeman, 2005). For academic libraries the term “community” has broadened to include not only students, faculty, and staff, who are the internal members of the academic community of the institution, but also the neighboring communities that surround the physical space of the library setting. Using Information Literacy as an outreach tool, libraries can transcend their university community to collaborate to exchange knowledge and resources through mutually beneficial and reciprocal partnerships to produce “engaged scholarship,” “engaged teaching,” or “engaged research,” as an approach to align itself with the University’s Community Engagement mission (Boyer, 1990). Information Literacy is defined as the “set of integrated abilities encompassing the reflective discovery of information, the understanding of how information is produced and valued, and the use of information in creating new knowledge and participating ethically in communities of learning” (American Library Association, 2015a).

## **Public libraries**

In 2012b, ALA received a grant from the Institute of Museum and Library Services (IMLS) to advance library-led community engagement, “The Promise of Libraries Transforming Communities” (Bullard, 2012). Then in 2013b, ALA collaborated with the Harwood Institute, a leader in civic engagement to build a national plan and aligned it with the ALA’s 2015 strategic plan, known as Transforming Libraries. The Urban Libraries Council (ULC) (2017, p. 2) analyzed survey data that identified an intersection between the last Great Recession which started around 2008 and the libraries becoming a “hub for economic opportunity.” In addition, the ULC identified collaboration as one important strength of libraries: “Libraries are adept at building partnerships to support education goals. Partnerships include schools, workforce centers, colleges, federal agencies, high tech companies, civic organizations and nonprofits. Never the ‘Lone Ranger’, libraries seek out and thrive on partnerships that broaden impact” (Urban Libraries Council, 2015, p. 3). The library has become a place where one can also check out an outfit for an audition, graduation, prom, job interview, or some other formal event at the Grow Up Work Fashion Library of the New York Public Library (NYPL) Riverside Branch. At the NYPL Branch, library patrons

can also checkout briefcases, neckties, and bowties from the, “Work Accessories Collection” and because of the library’s social networking, patrons have access to professional stylist for assistance with clothing. In Pennsylvania, the University of Pennsylvania (Penn) reached out to the Free Library of Philadelphia to develop the partnership, the *Healthy Library Initiative*. The goal of the initiative was to “integrate evidence-based health efforts” (Morgan et al., 2016, p. 2030) using the library’s existing structure of 54 branch libraries to promote and implement ten health programs in South Philadelphia’s Community Health and Literacy Center. Penn recognized that working with public libraries provided an opportunity to promote and improve population health through the broad and diverse reach of Library patrons that frequent the libraries’ many branches. Their collaboration produced an “engaged scholarship” product, a research article, *Beyond Books: Public Libraries as Partners for Population Health* (Morgan et al., 2016). Penn’s study evaluated the ten programs implemented during the partnership. During the study period, there were “5.8 million in-person visits and 9.9 million online visits” recorded (Morgan et al., 2016, p. 2030), with 500,000 of those visits for specialized programming (Morgan et al., 2016, p. 2031). Patrons from different socioeconomic backgrounds, ages, educational level, immigrants, children and families, the homeless, those seeking information on mental health and substance use visited this library. More and more libraries are being called upon to form partnerships to assist in addressing societal issues of social justice, health, homelessness, and immigration. The next example of a partnership was a win-win situation both academically and for the public library. It provided an opportunity for students working towards the Masters of Social Work (M.S.W.) degree to set up shop at the library to hone their skills by fulfilling 900 hours of required fieldwork. According to Johnson (2019), the library is already known as a trusted and safe place in the community and the reported partnership allowed anyone to seek the services that MSW students could provide. For the library, it advanced its efforts to promote social justice, diversity, inclusion, and equity, while expanding its social service programming.

## **Universities and academic libraries**

Libraries focused on higher education have also been on the cutting edge of innovation and experienced significant success through their partnerships in the areas of arts and humanities, business, the sciences, technology, health, and law. After all, Librarians as scholars “are the original collaborators in higher education” (Wilson, 2000). The literature clearly demonstrates that libraries are faced with a number of challenges affecting decisions related to budget, the design, delivery, and assessment of programs, and how best to use limited resources to address priorities focused on multiple stakeholders and consumers. In *Stormy Seas: The State of Library Budgets*, Scardilli (2015, p. 25) writes, “...libraries of all types have struggled in recent years to operate on limited budgets and redefine their roles as the world goes digital. The Great Recession that started in 2008

put many libraries on a downward slope.” The demands of accreditation and standards have forced academic institutions to recognize Information Literacy (IL) more fully within the context of the broader educative community as vital to student learning. While students’ and academic changing needs and expectations compound the difficulty, librarians have sought to develop more dynamic and diverse approaches in collaboration with other disciplines (Brasley, 2008; Miller et al., 2010; Travis, 2008).

## **How library collaborations can contribute to communities**

Collaboration is an important learned behavior. Librarians have long understood the importance of relationship building due to their long history of providing programming, working with communities they serve and support, and building cooperative relationships amongst each other. Diverse talents and a wide array of resources are brought together to solve a problem, build a program, or create something entirely new (Boyer, 1990). The goal is to build and bridge relationships to form social networks that not only strengthens our society, but enhances quality of life and improve communities. In many library collaborations, the transdisciplinary approach often occurs organically to solving social civic, economic, and moral problems when more than two types of knowledge/disciplines converge to create new knowledge and/or solutions. Collaboration is discussed further in Chapter 3.

Hang Tat Leong’s article, *Community Engagement – Building Bridges between University and Community by Academic Libraries in the 21st Century* (2013), examined 18 large academic libraries in the United States, Canada, and China and found that academic libraries primarily focused on four types of outreach: (1) community access; (2) information literacy; (3) cooperation, exchange, and partnership; and (4) exhibitions and scholarly events. The author also reviewed each university’s mission statement for evidence of outreach or community engagement and found that community engagement and outreach is emphasized by universities around the world. Serials management provided an opportunity for an international institutional exchange partnership between Appalachian State University (ASU) in Boone, North Carolina, USA and libraries in China. They participated in discussions, found their common interests, and worked out a plan to assist the other on serials staffing, collection development, and budgeting (Leong, 2013, p. 227). Similar exchange programs have occurred between the American University in Afghanistan (AUAF) and universities in Qatar’s Education City, where the librarians met with their counterparts and shared experiences. Academic libraries build bridges, by using the library’s resources, its collections, space, service-oriented staff, and technology, to build partnerships with scholars and the public community as a means of fulfilling the university’s emphasis on community engagement and outreach.

Louisville, Kentucky USA is home to the Wayside Christian Mission’s (WCM) Hotel Louisville facility. This facility is a working hotel that receives

guests from all over the country. It is also a homeless transition shelter for families working to become self-sufficient. Within Hotel Louisville, two floors have been set aside to house homeless women and their children as residents of this program. These families who reside and work within the hotel learn hospitality employment skills and are provided wrap-around family services to support their ability to be self-sustaining and independent members of the community. With its multiple programs and facilities, WCM utilizes a holistic approach to get to the fundamental causes of homelessness experienced by men, women, and children of metropolitan Louisville, Kentucky. Several unique projects occur simultaneously within this setting. One library-led collaboration focuses on increasing resident literacy – *Using Technology and Information Literacy to Engage the Homeless* (Cox, 2013).

Wayside residents were participants in Wayside's College and Career Program and were preparing to begin an orientation to technical college class. As preparation, Wayside 100 was developed and implemented as a basic computing and information literacy skills class to help the students reach the needed college-level skills. The class included internet basics, keyboarding, beginning word processing, opening an email account, creating or updating a resume, and applying for employment online. The library – Wayside collaborative was both unique and innovative.

### **Library challenges: new jobs, new duties, new realities, and community engagement**

Historically, anyone who needed something from the library had to go into the physical setting for assistance to access many of the libraries resources and collections. Today, access to many of the library's resources is available digitally, conveniently in the privacy of one's home, office, or mobile device. Vast amounts of information are available on the Internet. Now more than ever, especially in an era of "fake news," information literacy (IL) should be mandatory throughout the educational process. As change occurs, libraries regardless of setting are reviewing their roles and reflecting on their contributions to determine their importance, relevance, efforts, and outcomes with less funding, staff, space, etc., while competing with other entities (i.e. public/private businesses, non-profits, politics, the market place, etc.) for respect, acknowledgment, and financial support. New roles that were once uncommon in Librarianship have now become commonplace.

The library landscape has changed in all manner of ways – job titles and expectations, responsibilities, access, and delivery of services, to name a few. However, the Digital Divide is alive and well with, many people facing additional barriers to educate and equip themselves with life's basic necessities. For the librarian, it can mean updating one's skill set(s) to stay current with the ever-changing backdrop of the community they serve. Many libraries have development positions for fund-raising; public relations positions to create a "brand" for marketing

purposes; research data management (RDM) and data curator positions to assist the professions such as STEAM (science, technology, engineering, arts, math), medical professionals, and academicians with their data management plans, digital repositories, and open access (OA) publishing.

The library is where many things are possible. When challenges arise, the place to turn can be the library. In 2015, Baltimore, Maryland's Pennsylvania Avenue Branch of the Enoch Pratt Free Library was ground zero when a massive protest broke out against police brutality. A CVS drugstore across the street from this library was looted and torched. Nevertheless, the Branch remained opened and served its community. The library was untouched by the hostility (American Libraries, 2015). Community members recognized the library as a safe haven – the place where one can go for assistance to find traditional services, such as learning how to read, printing, to find information about a job, or use the computer; and non-traditional services where people can go during a community crisis, find health services, a social worker, clothing and accessories for an interview, or the prom.

### **Libraries contributions to the academy, community, and global impact**

To conclude, society has not realized the full potential of libraries. Libraries are an asset to any community. Through community engagement and outreach, opportunities exist for partnerships and collaborations with unimaginable and infinite possibilities. While crises and challenges are barriers for some, they can be opportunities for libraries to develop non-traditional programs, even with limited budgets, personnel, and space. Libraries persevere.

### **Note**

- 1 As the largest and oldest professional membership-driven library association in the world, the America Library Association (ALA) was founded in 1876. The organization represents libraries according to type and/or function through its 11 divisions and networks of library community supporters, chapters, affiliates, schools P-16, academic, government, corporate and public organizations. It has more than 55,000 members.

### **References**

- ALA. (2012a). ALA Midwinter conversations: Community engagement and the promise of libraries transforming communities. Retrieved from <http://www.ala.org/news/press-releases/2012/11/ala-midwinter-conversations-community-engagement-and-promise-libraries>
- ALA. (2012b, March 5) Empowering voices, transforming communities: An initiative of ALA President Molly Raphael. Retrieved from <http://www.ala.org/advocacy/advleg/empoweringvoices>
- American Library Association (ALA). (2013a). ALA President Barbara Stripling unveils 'declaration for the right to libraries'. Retrieved from <http://www.ala.org/news/>

- press-releases/2013/07/ala-president-barbara-stripling-unveils-declaration-right-libraries
- ALA. (2013b). The promise of libraries transforming communities: A presidential initiative. Retrieved from <http://www.americanlibrariesmagazine.org/inside-scoop/promises-libraries-transforming-communities-presidential-initiative>
- American Library Association. (2015a). About: ACRL releases new roles for the road ahead (<https://www.jenkinslaw.org/about>). Retrieved from <http://www.ala.org/news/press-releases/2015/03/acrl-releases-new-roles-road-ahead>
- American Library Association (ALA). (2015b, February 9). Framework for information literacy for higher education. Retrieved from <http://www.ala.org/acrl/standards/ilframework>
- Bell, S. (2014). Staying true to the core: Designing the future academic library experience. *Libraries and the Academy*, 14(3), 369–382.
- Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- Brasley, S. S. (2008). Effective librarian and discipline faculty collaboration models for integrating information literacy into the fabric of an academic institution. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning*, 2008(114), 71–88. doi:10.1002/tl.318
- Bullard, G. (2012, October 5). The promise of libraries transforming communities. Press Release, Washington, DC: The Institute of Museum and Library Services. Retrieved from <https://www.imls.gov/news/imls-awards-ala-grant-advance-library-led-community-engagement>
- Cottrell, M. (2015, May 1). Baltimore's library stays open during unrest: Q&A with CEO Carla Hayden. *American Libraries*. Retrieved from <https://americanlibrariesmagazine.org/blogs/the-scoop/qa-carla-hayden-baltimore/>
- Cox, F. M. (2013). Engaging the homeless through technology and information literacy. *Metropolitan Universities: An International Forum*, 24(3), 1–124.
- Freeman, G. T. (2005). Libraries as place: Changes in patterns, collections, technology and use. In *Libraries as place: Rethinking roles, rethinking space* (pp. 1–10). Washington, DC: Council on Libraries and Information Resources.
- Freeman, G. T., Bennett, S., Demas, S., Frischer, B., Peterson, C. A., Oliver, K. B., & Council on Library and Information Resources, W. D. (2005). Library as place: Rethinking Roles, rethinking space. Council on Library and Information Resources, Washington, D.C.
- Green, S. S. (1876, October 1). Personal relations between librarians and readers. *Library Journal*, (1993), 118(11), pS5, 2. Retrieved from <http://echo.louisville.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=llf&AN=502787199&site=ebook-live>
- Johnson, S. C. (2019). MSW interns and public libraries: Enhancing services through interdisciplinary collaboration. *Public Services Quarterly*, 15(1), 13–23. doi:10.1080/15228959.2018.1541332
- Leong, J. H. T. (2013). Community engagement – Building bridges between university and community by academic libraries in the 21st Century. *Libri*, 63(3), 220–231. doi:10.1515/libri-2013-0017
- Miller, L. C., Jones, B. B., Graves, R. S., & Sievert, M. C. (2010). Merging silos: Collaborating for information literacy. *Journal of Continuing Education in Nursing*, 41(6), 267–272. doi:10.3928/00220124-20100401-03
- Morgan, A. U., Dupuis, R., D'Alonzo, B., Johnson, A., Graves, A., Brooks, K. L., ... Canuscio, C. C. (2016). Beyond books: Public libraries as partners for population health.

- Health Affairs (Project Hope)*, 35(11), 2030–2036. Retrieved from <https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=cmedm&AN=27834243&site=ehost-live>
- Scardilli, B. (2015). Stormy seas: The state of library budgets. *Information Today*, 32(10), Cover-27. Retrieved from <http://echo.louisville.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=c8h&AN=111720016&site=ehost-live>
- Travis, T. (2008). Librarians as agents of change: Working with curriculum committees using change agency theory. *New Directions for Teaching & Learning*, 114, 17–33. doi:10.1002/tl.314
- Urban Libraries Council. (2015). Libraries and economic opportunity. White Paper. Retrieved from [https://www.urbanlibraries.org/files/ULC\\_White-Papers\\_LIBRARIES-AND-ECONOMIC-](https://www.urbanlibraries.org/files/ULC_White-Papers_LIBRARIES-AND-ECONOMIC-)
- Wilson, B. (2000). The lone ranger is dead. *College & Research Libraries News*, 61(8), 698. Retrieved from <http://echo.louisville.edu/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=lxh&AN=3735690&site=ehost-live>
- Wolf, E. (1976). *"At the instance of Benjamin Franklin": A brief history of the library company of Philadelphia 2nd Ed, 1731–1976*. Philadelphia, PA: Library Company of Philadelphia.

# 2

## MAKERSPACES IN LIBRARIES

### Social Roles and Community Engagement

*Kyungwon Koh, June Abbas, and Rebekah Willett*

#### Introduction

The maker movement—a community of people who tinker, create, and share personally meaningful projects—is increasingly prevalent in contemporary libraries, offering people an opportunity to access technologies, interact with mentors and peers, and engage in creative projects. Since the first public library makerspace in the U.S. opened at the Fayetteville Free Library in New York in 2011, makerspaces in libraries continue to develop across the country (Good & Doctorow, 2013). A growing number of libraries now offer a dedicated space for creation or programs to promote making. The American Library Association (ALA) Center for the Future of Libraries (2014) identifies the maker movement as one of the key trends in contemporary libraries. However, there is little consensus about the social roles that library makerspaces assume in the contemporary society.

Community is a central concept to both librarianship and the maker movement (ALA, 2004; Remold, Fusco, Vogt, & Leones, 2016); successful makerspaces recognize community engagement is key (Koh & Abbas, 2016). The term *community*, however, is being used in different ways across the literature, often without defining the concept. This chapter discusses how libraries promote active community engagement through makerspaces and what roles library makerspaces play in today's society, addressing the following overarching questions:

1. What social roles do makerspaces in a library assume in the contemporary knowledge society?
2. How might we conceptualize “community” in relation to library makerspaces?
3. What are the implications for educators and researchers to promote community engagement and social roles in and through library makerspaces?

This chapter first outlines theoretical perspectives on libraries and community and then addresses each of these questions with reference to professional and scholarly literature and empirical data from research projects.

## **Perspectives to Conceptualize Library Makerspaces**

Different perspectives on libraries and community describe the library as a place for community members to create and learn. Historical research shows that libraries have long promoted making experiences and a sense of community (Good & Doctorow, 2013; Wiegand, 2015a). The following is a brief overview of selected perspectives that inform researchers and practitioners regarding the social role of library makerspaces and the meaning of community in the context of library makerspaces.

### ***Library as Place***

The public space that libraries provide is one of the central values of libraries in the life of their users, suggesting libraries as public places that promote and maintain community (Buschman, Leckie, Wiegand, & Bertot, 2007). Historical analysis of American public libraries shows the role of libraries is more than providing useful information and reading materials. A variety of meaningful experiences occur in library spaces, giving millions of individuals a sense of belonging (Wiegand, 2015a, 2015b). History shows libraries have continuously adapted to serve the needs of their communities, and a library makerspace is an exemplar of library as place in this contemporary, technology-rich society. Frequently a makerspace is defined as a community of people who gather to create, learn, and socialize rather than as a physical space. Beyond the tools and programs they provide, library makerspaces play a role of public place determined by meaningful participation experienced by community members. A few concepts are useful in discussing the role of library makerspace as place. The notion of “public sphere” explains the social space, in which individuals come together to discuss freely different opinions and public affairs and communicate to develop collective solutions (Habermas, 2014). Library makerspaces can also be considered as “third space”—one of the core settings of informal public life—places of escape from the home (first place) and work setting (second place)—characterized by its leisurely and inclusive nature (Oldenburg, 1997). Similarly, “affinity space” indicates a social place—virtual or physical—where informal learning occurs while people voluntarily participate based on a shared interest (Gee, 2005).

### ***New Librarianship***

Lankes (2015) suggests the mission of librarians is “to improve society through facilitating knowledge creation in their communities” (p. 17). Community engagement is the core of librarianship, as he defines a library as “a mandated

and facilitated space supported by the community, stewarded by librarians, and dedicated to knowledge creation” (p. 96). Lankes’s view on new librarianship, which focuses on communities and knowledge over collections and buildings, supports integrating the maker movement into librarianship, because a makerspace is essentially a community place for learning and creation. His definition of “knowledge creation” is based on constructivism, in which knowledge is created by an individual and through conversations, whether internal or social discourses. To facilitate conversations, librarians connect people around common activities or interests, for example a group of people who gather to quilt, knit, sew, craft, or build more complicated fabrication projects. Librarians also facilitate people’s learning and knowledge creation through providing access, knowledge, environment, and motivation.

### ***Radical Change Theory***

According to the theory, “Radical Change” indicates fundamental changes in this digital age, departing from the usual or traditional in information resources or behaviors, although still grounded in the foundational meanings (Dresang, 1999, 2013; Koh, 2015). Makerspaces look radically different from a traditional library space; yet they are rooted in the core of librarianship—resources, inquiry, creativity, and discovery that follow patrons’ passion and interests. The theory explains that contemporary information resources and human behaviors represent three core characteristics—*connectivity*, *interactivity*, and *access*, which are frequently observed in library makerspaces. As community learning centers, makerspaces provide *access* to a range of resources and technology as well as a place to *connect* with other community members. The way people learn and create in a makerspace is *interactive*; it is dynamic, user-initiated, nonlinear, and not always sequential.

### ***Communities of Practice***

Emphasizing the social nature of making and makerspaces, Halverson and Sheridan (2014) write, “makerspaces are the communities of practice that are constructed in a physical place that is set aside for a group of people to make as a core part of their practice” (p. 502, original emphasis). Communities of practice are a widely used concept in library and information studies, with projects aiming to develop learning communities in various contexts, facilitate collaboration and knowledge sharing, and strengthen the role of libraries in communities. Communities of practice are also of interest to researchers conceptualizing social aspects of learning. Lave and Wenger (1991) developed the theory of communities of practice by studying ways learning occurred amongst groups of people who were involved in a common activity that centered on a particular area of knowledge. Their theory takes account of the development of practices as well as ways relationships and identities are fostered in connection to the community. According to Lave and

Wenger, as learners become involved in the practices of a community, they take on particular identities associated with that community.

## The Social Roles of Library Makerspaces

The earlier perspectives explain that making in libraries is not new but rooted in the fundamentals of libraries, suggesting libraries are appropriate community places for integrating the maker movement. This section discusses social roles library makerspaces may assume in today's society, based on the ALA (American Library Association) core values of librarianship and existing literature on the maker movement in libraries and education.

Among the social roles libraries play, library makerspaces promote *knowledge creation, access, learning, and equity and diversity* with and through their *community*. Grounded in the core values of librarianship, these concepts are further pronounced in library makerspaces and require a new understanding of the role of libraries in the contemporary knowledge society. Above all, library makerspaces represent a shifting role of libraries as an institution for *knowledge creation*. The ALA Center for the Future of Libraries explains “libraries, traditionally collecting institutions that provide access to materials created by others, may now adopt new functions, providing communities with opportunities to create or cocreate content for an individual’s own use, for use by the community, or for inclusion in the library collection” (2014, n.p.). Library makerspaces support the creation of knowledge by providing community members *access* to a range of resources, technologies, programs, experts, and peers.

While access has been one of the core values of librarianship, a traditional view of access is limited to providing existing resources, predominantly in print formats. In reconceptualizing libraries as an institution to facilitate learning and creation, a library collection is not restricted to books and other written materials, because people learn from a range of resources (e.g., arts, fiction, or entertainment sources) through different ways, such as hands-on experiences. Envisioning library makerspaces includes not only providing access to existing knowledge and fabrication resources but also making community expertise and knowledge produced by their members available to the world, what Lankes (2015) calls “two-way access,” or access as two-way conversations between the community members and the world. By doing so, libraries play a role of “platforms and publishers of the community as much as . . . consumers of publications” (Lankes, 2015, p. 45). More work is needed, however, to advance theories and practices on how librarians can document and preserve maker processes and products developed by community members and how to make community knowledge and expertise available to people outside specific maker communities.

The maker movement assumes people learn by making, which has roots in learning theories of constructivism, constructionism, or experiential learning; and

makerspaces are considered learning environments (Peppler, Halverson, & Kafai, 2016). Therefore, makerspaces in libraries manifest library as a community *learning* center. Libraries have long been places to learn and advance knowledge. Since American public libraries emerged as part of the public education movement in the nineteenth century, librarians have supplemented the public education system in different ways—whether through cataloging learning resources or offering information literacy instruction, reference services, and spaces for study and meetings (Lankes, 2015; Wiegand, 2015a). What and how people learn in a library makerspace, however, may look different from learning often observed in the dominant formal education system (i.e., direct instruction, specified curriculum, standards, and assessments).

The Maker Education Initiative—a national nonprofit organization that promotes maker-centered education—affirms their focus on the *process* of learning, recognizing a diversity of approaches (Maker Education Initiative, n.d.). Literature suggests the desired outcomes of learning in a makerspace include maker empowerment, self-efficacy, and twenty-first-century skills, such as creativity, inquiry, computational thinking, critical thinking, and social skills (Clapp, Ross, Ryan, & Tishman, 2017; Dubriwny, Pritchett, Hardesty, & Hellman, 2016). People may acquire those qualities without recognizing that learning occurs, and learning in a library makerspace may not always be explicit. Therefore, the role of librarians working in a library makerspace requires more carefully designed learning facilitation. For example, the Exploratorium Tinkering Studio develops dimensions of learning (engagement, initiative and intentionality, social scaffolding, and development of understanding) and suggests educators can promote these learning dimensions through three facilitators: sparking interest, sustaining participation, and deepening understanding (Gutwill, Hido, & Sindorf, 2015).

To facilitate learning, it is critical for librarians in makerspaces to establish and maintain partnerships and connect with people and organizations across the community. ALA affirms the value of education and lifelong learning through coalitions and partnerships in the community, stating

ALA promotes the creation, maintenance, and enhancement of a learning society, encouraging its members to work with educators, government officials, and organizations in coalitions to initiate and support comprehensive efforts to ensure that school, public, academic, and special libraries in every community cooperate to provide lifelong learning services to all.

(ALA, 2013)

Makerspaces embedded in libraries inherit this heavy emphasis on engaging communities and building networks.

Library makerspaces hold their promise for *equity and diversity*. Libraries have the potential to democratize and diversify the maker movement by making a

range of resources, tools, and processes more readily available to community members, which otherwise would not have been available to them, at little or no cost. Equity is one of the core values of librarianship; as ALA states, “all information resources that are provided directly or indirectly by the library, regardless of technology, format, or methods of delivery, should be readily, equally, and equitably accessible to all users” (2004, n.p.). Further, ensuring equity and diversity in a makerspace is not limited to equal access to certain tools and programs. The initial maker movement that emerged from independent organizations has been criticized for its white-male-dominant culture. The majority of makers consisted of men and boys, and the range of making activities was somewhat narrow, including primarily electronics, robotics, and vehicles. As makerspaces spread to nonprofit organizations such as libraries, schools, and museums, the maker landscape has been expanding, engaging people who may not self-identify as makers, including children, women, and families, in a variety of making activities (Halverson & Sheridan, 2014). Makerspaces in libraries regularly embrace low-tech and artistic projects and result in broadening the maker horizons from STEM to STEAM (science, technology, engineering, art, and math), with the addition of art. More efforts are needed, however, to place equity at the center of making and support maker learning for all (Vossoughi, Hooper, & Escudé, 2016), such as embracing the culture of individual community members from diverse backgrounds, beyond a narrow set of tools and activities (e.g., 3D printing, robotics, and electronics). Diversity efforts should also extend to providing makerspaces that are accessible to differently abled individuals of all ages (Brady et al., 2014).

Finally, the roles and values discussed here are not separate practices in reality, and library makerspaces perform these roles *with and through their community*. The concept of community, however, needs to be clarified, and it is to this concept we now turn.

## **Conceptualizing Community in Relation to Library Makerspaces**

According to the Oxford American Dictionary (OAD), the term *community* is defined as:

1. a group of people living in the same place or having a particular characteristic in common.
2. a group of fellowship with others, as a result of sharing common attitudes, interests, and goals.

In this chapter we use the term *community* to refer to both meanings. Community is a group of people whom libraries serve; a library itself is an integral part of their community. Community also refers to a sense of belonging and support.

Across the literature about library makerspaces, the term *community* reflects these two definitions: library makerspaces have the potential to serve local communities, engage with wider communities, include communities of interest, foster a sense of community, and develop new communities of practice. In these varying uses, community sometimes refers to the geographic area—for example, working with people from the neighborhood surrounding a local library or developing partnerships with organizations within a larger geographic community, as in the OAD's first definition. Other times community refers to a sense of solidarity and/or to a specific group of people with a shared common goal and identity, regardless of geographic location, as in the OAD's second definition.

### ***Geographic Community Makerspaces***

Most often, advice about developing makerspaces and related programming in public libraries refers to geographically based definitions of community. Many guidelines emphasize the role of the local community and suggest ways to develop community connections as part of a library maker program (e.g., Burke, 2014; Hamilton & Schmidt, 2015; Remold et al., 2016; Willingham & de Boer, 2015). Advice includes drawing on community experts, developing partnerships, gathering information from community members about their needs and wants, and designing specifically for the local community.

A common response to concerns about how to skill up librarians in order to run a makerspace is to turn to the community to find experts whose skills can be employed in the library, thus building a program on a base of volunteers to complement the skill sets of librarians. In addition to individual experts, advice to librarians includes finding groups in the community, for example, hobby associations, who might be interested in assisting with makerspace programming. There is a broad spectrum of volunteer and paid positions in public library makerspaces, including different tiers of volunteers, paid experts, and artists in residence. Some libraries have systems in place to ensure goals of community experts and the library are both being met through makerspace programming, such as carefully structured planning processes that require community experts to apply to makerspace programs and to identify goals and objectives for themselves and for participants. In these geographically based conceptions of community, libraries are seen as community places for the cocreation of knowledge, as in Lankes's discussion of new librarianship. However, there are also portable library makerspace programs that move to spaces such as community centers, schools, and parks. These align with Dresang's ideas about connecting with a variety of communities and providing access in a myriad of ways. The following case study illustrates how a makerspace program can be designed to meet the needs and interests of a specific geographic community and draw on the resources within that geographic area.

## Case Study 1 Meteorology Makers' Club at Irving Middle School Library in Norman, Oklahoma

The Meteorology Makers' Club began at the Washington Irving Middle School Library in Norman, OK, in fall 2014. In collaboration with the University of Oklahoma School of Library and Information Studies, Norman Public Schools, and the Oklahoma Climatological Survey, the project team was comprised of a middle school librarian, a science teacher, a school library supervisor, a meteorologist, a library and information studies (LIS) professor, and graduate research assistants. The middle school is located in a mid-sized suburban community in Norman, Oklahoma, a geographic region where tornadic activity is predominant and is also the home of internationally acclaimed weather facilities and meteorologists. Meteorology is a relevant and authentic theme for young Oklahomans, who are faced with severe weather such as tornados and hail in everyday life. For example, one eighth-grade boy, who experienced the devastating tornado in Moore in 2013, applied for the club because he wanted to study meteorology and share what he learned with his family and friends to help them predict the weather and storms. Students felt personally connected to different weather issues and had insights into the scientific and social ramifications of weather.

The goal of this program was to promote students' STEM interest, knowledge, and skills, with particular emphasis on meteorology and technology, as well as twenty-first-century skills, such as inquiry, critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, and digital information literacy skills. Ultimately, the program aimed to provide a supportive and creative social environment that enhanced students' sense of agency by increasing their capacity to learn and create. Club activities varied, including skill building (e.g., 3D design, video editing, graphic design, and music production), learning basic meteorology concepts through presentations and experiments, field trips, creating different weather-related projects, and the Makers' Club Fair at the end.

As the school library offers a welcoming environment for all, the Makers' club attracted and engaged even students who are not particularly interested in STEM, meteorology, or making. A seventh-grade girl, who did not identify herself as a "sciencey" student, came to the club and decided to create weather goddesses as her making project. She drew six weather goddesses, each personifying a weather-related phenomenon; scientific principles behind wind, rain, snow, tornado,

hurricane, and lightning were creatively expressed in her art project. Students with different interests collaborated to record forecast videos, edit the videos, create music for the forecast, and perform as forecasters. Each student used their personal experiences and talents to inform their projects.

As a result, the final projects addressed a variety of meteorology-related topics including a kid-friendly weather website, forecasts, severe weather survival guides, scientific demonstrations on soil moisture and pH for gardening, 3D design/prototypes of storm shelters for pets, and 3D hail models of different shapes and sizes and their relative effects. At the end of the semester the library hosted a Makers' Club Fair to showcase student creations to community members. Students shared their successes, challenges, and collaborative efforts with guests, which included their families, teachers, school administrators and board members, university professors, and local librarians. Students expressed genuine excitement and pride over their accomplishments, conveying a desire to see their efforts sustained and developed in the future. The Makers' Club Fair reflected the extent to which young people are aware of community needs and resources and are integrated into their communities. Students sought to meet needs they self-identified in order to improve lives beyond their own. Partnering with local agencies and institutions also made students more aware of community needs and able to feel more like a part of the community. This case study shows that the library can play a leadership role in community partnerships to promote students' learning and making opportunities.

### ***Makerspaces as Communities***

Library makerspaces are also discussed in terms of developing a sense of community both within the library and in the geographic community. The broader makerspace movement is founded on a model of shared skills and knowledge within a community of makers, and the development of a community of learners is a key component of individual makerspaces. However, advice concerning library makerspaces rarely refers to this type of community development, that is, the development of a sense of community within a makerspace. In contrast, in literature about the broader makerspace movement (e.g., Anderson, 2012; Hatch, 2014), discussion of geographic communities is not often the focus; rather, community is conceived of in terms of communities of practice. As described in the introductory section of this chapter, the theory of communities of practice (CoP)

considers the roles of experts and novices in the community and ways that identities related to the community are defined and modeled. The following case study illustrates ways a library system's consideration of geographic community works hand in hand with the development of a sense of community to provide a feeling of belonging and support. The case study also describes an example of a CoP that developed through the library's makerspace program.

## **Case Study 2 The Bubbler at Madison Public Library in Madison, Wisconsin**

Madison Public Library's makerspace program, the Bubbler, spans across nine libraries as well as various community spaces and has a focus on people, community connections, and skill sharing. For example, the program includes an artist-in-residence program to which local artists or makers can apply with the understanding that the program involves training the artist to work with members of the public in a variety of settings. For their artist-in-residence program, the library specifically recruits Latino and African-American artists to work with teens on projects such as music production, photography, and murals. The Bubbler also includes expert-led programs for children and adults in areas such as sewing, cooking, screen printing, animation, and video production. In the broad description of the program provided here, community might be seen in terms of a geographic area; people from the community of Madison participate in the Bubbler in different ways. However, the emphasis on skill sharing and diversity implies that community is more than the square miles of the city. A community consists of people; and people have diverse interests, needs, and identities.

There is evidence that some regularly offered Bubbler programs are creating a sense of group identity and belonging around the Bubbler, that is, a sense of community. For example, a Bubbler program called Making Justice involves work with court-involved teens in three different locations. The teen services librarian leading Making Justice, Jesse Vieau, reports that teens in these programs are asking when Bubbler programs are running, they refer to themselves as "group" when in Bubbler sessions, and they use "Bubbler" as a verb (e.g., "we are Bubbler-ing today"). The library supports Jesse Vieau's prioritization of going into community spaces to offer programs rather than running programs at a library. This consideration of the geographic location of makerspace programming works hand in hand with the development

of a sense of community. One of the mantras for all Madison Public Library (MPL) programming is “there’s no one-size-fits-all program.” When a program is being offered, there are questions about what might work in a specific community space and what adjustments might need to be made. For Making Justice programming with teens in the Juvenile Detention Center, a Juvenile Shelter Home, and a court-mandated neighborhood intervention program, Bubbler staff ask what these teens need and what will work in these different settings.

One example of the way the needs of a specific community were considered was a Making Justice program run by a seamstress who was an artist in residence at the Juvenile Shelter Home. One of the requirements of the artist-in-residence program is to meet with Bubbler staff and other stakeholders (in this case the Shelter Home teacher employed by the school district) to identify needs of potential Bubbler participants and to work out goals of the Bubbler program on offer. From these discussions, the artist in residence developed two sewing projects—string backpacks and pillows. The backpacks met a need for teens to have something to keep their belongings in, and the pillows responded to an emotional need for teens to have something of their own in their rooms. The artist-in-residence brought in fabrics featuring bright graphic designs, for example, comic book illustrations. The program was popular, and the Shelter Home teacher noted that teens particularly responded to having something of their own that was “soft” and “comforting” that they could take with them. Some teens also took pride and pleasure in making a pillow or backpack for a loved one. This program exemplifies the strength of working with a specific geographic community to develop a program, and it indicates the intricacies of developing an understanding of that community as a group in order to run a successful making project.

A second example from the wider Bubbler program is a cartography group. This example provides evidence of the development of CoP in which members come together to engage in a common making activity that centers on a particular area of knowledge and in doing so take on the identity of that community. The focus of the cartography group is on exploring open-source software and helping each other learn and solve issues with software such as QGIS, CartoDB, OpenStreetMap, and Leaflet. One member described the cartography profession as “the wild frontier,” saying 80% of skills he uses he learned himself. Others conferred that they were self-taught (beyond their graduate degrees),

and that at the moment, there are no guides or models for “best practice.” Established by three women after getting their MA in cartography, the group was started to keep dialog going after completing their degree, to extend the community, “to have fun brainstorming ways to solve problems,” to share information in an ever-changing field, and to supplement their MA training. Monthly meetings involve exploring specific software and sharing information about resources (conferences, books, professional journals, web groups, online tutorials), career advice, and general knowledge about the state of the field. The group chose to meet at the library specifically because they wanted to invite members of the profession or hobbyists to join them; and as one founding member said, because “it feels like a neutral space, it is not intimidating.” They noted that another Madison cartography group meets in a brewpub and is focused more on career advice than on skill sharing.

The library supports the cartography group by providing a space and laptops loaded with free software with which the group would like to work. Group members and visitors include established professionals who are known within the field as well as novices who have related degrees (such as geography) and are looking to upgrade their technology skills and knowledge. This group exemplifies the role of the public library makerspace program in supporting a CoP; cartographers who have a common goal are sharing skills, knowledge, and technologies as part of their process of taking on the identity of the profession. In providing a space and resources for this group, MPL’s Bubbler program aligns with the three other theoretical perspectives outlined in the introduction: applying Weigand’s notion of library as place, we can see MPL as important for facilitating the group’s knowledge sharing in a “neutral” space; the group exemplifies the facets of Lankes’s new librarianship by focusing on knowledge sharing and creation within the wider Madison community of cartographers; and the group is aimed at connecting cartographers and providing access to social and technical resources, as described in Dresang’s Radical Change theory.

## Implications for Educators and Researchers

The earlier discussion and case studies suggest important implications for LIS educators and researchers related to the social roles of the makerspace and library to their community and the ways that makerspaces conceptualize community. This section summarizes the main points presented about the social roles

of library makerspaces, community, and community engagement and provides some suggestions to LIS educators and researchers about how to effectively promote community engagement and social roles when teaching future practitioners of makerspaces and researchers who seek to understand this emerging area of practice.

### **Social Roles**

The literature on makerspaces and the case studies outlined suggest that library makerspaces are fulfilling many traditional social roles but are also reconceptualizing these roles. Library makerspaces promote *knowledge creation, access, learning, and equity and diversity*. The case studies provide evidence of the importance of these roles but also how they are shifting. For instance, in library makerspaces knowledge creation is the process of making that can be shared with others, as opposed to libraries only providing access to print and digital resources that facilitate knowledge creation. New knowledge is created and shared with others through the products produced in the maker programs; makers are no longer just consumers of knowledge but producers of knowledge. Ideally, library makerspaces need to make the new knowledge produced by community members accessible and available to communities outside of the makerspace, as suggested by Lankes's *two-way access* concept.

Equitable access to technology and resources is a vital function of libraries, but within library makerspaces we need to rethink what access means. Is it simply providing access to the tools of making (for example, sewing machines, 3D printers, video recording software), or does access also include the facilitated learning experiences and access to the expert mentors in the maker programming? In the Meteorology Club example, the maker program facilitated student knowledge creation through interest-driven programming and also provided access to resources and experts in meteorology that students would not have had access to without the maker program. Access also speaks to the expanding roles of library makerspaces. For example, the Chicago Public Library's Maker Lab saw one of the roles of the library as an on-ramp to meeting other groups with similar interests (Urban Libraries Council, 2015). The cartography group is another example of this expanded role. The library makerspace not only supported the group with a place to meet and software to learn and use, the makerspace also provided access to mentors and others who could add to the professional development of the group. The issue, however, is that library makerspaces are all unique, and although they might develop around the perceived needs of their community, mostly they are based on the resources available to them (e.g., community experts, funding, resources, skills, and interests of library professionals, etc.). Without an understanding of the overall goals of the makerspace and the roles it provides to the geographic community, the makerspace is in danger of being underutilized or just a cool place to go at the library.

One of the library's primary societal roles has always been to provide resources to support and facilitate learning. That learning has traditionally taken place in programming, such as storytimes, book talks, book groups, craft sessions, information, and digital literacy sessions, to name a few. Learning within the makerspace has expanded the role of learning within libraries. Learning within the makerspace takes many forms, whether it is achieved through long-term, facilitated, interest-driven sessions or less formal one-off sessions that provide access to expert mentors, artists in residence, or maker tools and technologies. To fulfill this enhanced role, librarians have had to reconceptualize how they think about and provide learning, which requires training in facilitating learning in its many forms. One of the most often mentioned skills managers desired as an information professional working in a makerspace as reported in Koh and Abbas (2015) was the ability to teach (to facilitate informal learning, to develop user-centered programs). Being able to develop interest-driven, informal programming and to facilitate these sessions is essential to learning within a makerspace. Further, knowing which making tools to use to support programming is an important skill but a skill information professionals felt they needed to learn more about (Abbas & Koh, 2015).

Library makerspaces have the potential to "level the playing field" by providing programming to more diverse audiences than those who traditionally use makerspaces in other venues. Libraries have potential to democratize and diversify the maker movement by making resources, tools, and processes more readily available to *all* community members, regardless of ethnicity, race, age, gender, or ability. Providing equitable access to a diverse audience is one of the primary societal roles of libraries. Makerspaces fulfill this role through programming based on community needs. Understanding users, their needs, and their cultures (being culturally competent) is a desired competency for expert mentors and information professionals working in makerspaces (Abbas & Koh, 2015; Koh & Abbas, 2015). Barton, Tan, and Greenberg (2017) emphasize that makerspace programming should be shaped by the culture of the community and that notions of community should be broken down to include anyone interested in making.

LIS educators should emphasize that the social roles of libraries are changing, especially within library makerspaces. LIS students need to understand the social roles that libraries and library makerspaces provide but also how maker programming supports these roles. LIS education should reemphasize the professional and societal roles, as promulgated by ALA, which libraries have within their communities. Library makerspaces have the unique opportunity to foster new ways of thinking about community engagement, learning, and ensuring equitable access for a diverse audience. Makerspace programs should be inclusive programs based on the needs of participants and the community and developed by participants, facilitated by librarians. Mentors with cultural competency provide meaningful learning experiences based on community demographics and cultural understandings. Therefore, LIS courses should include methods to develop culturally competent programming. Methods to conduct community needs assessments

and develop community-centered programming should be taught. LIS programs should also include theory and practices associated with connected, interest-driven learning in which participants direct their own learning and the library professional serves as a guide or mentor.

Further, LIS programs should teach students about socially responsible decision making. Librarians managing a makerspace should have a clear understanding of the role the makerspace plays in the community and have clear goals in place to ensure the makerspace's sustainability and success. Teaching students how to conduct strategic planning that includes setting specific goals and envisions the makerspace's place within the larger organization and community are essential skills students need to learn.

Teaching these qualities can be achieved through independent courses focusing on makerspaces, or the knowledge and skill sets may be embedded across different courses. In any case, LIS educators who teach future makerspace professionals must be aware of theories underlying learning through making—for example, constructionism, communities of practice, and the development of particular mindsets (see Willett, 2017). These pedagogical theories and implications for programming might be taught directly to professionals interested in facilitating library makerspaces. In addition, LIS educators might consider ways their classrooms reflect characteristics of maker learning environments, such as flexible, open, accessible, and technology-rich learning environments, with hands-on, student-driven initiatives and possibilities for the development of communities of practice.

More research is needed to investigate the social role of library makerspaces. Efforts to develop an interdisciplinary field of research, such as the *Makeology* series by Peppler, Halverson, and Kafai (2016), is promising, and research from library and information studies has potential to make a unique contribution to the field, owing to the critical roles that libraries assume regarding access, equity, and diversity and as community anchors for learning and knowledge creation. We suggest researchers studying the social roles of makerspaces expand on and develop the theoretical perspectives introduced in this chapter in order to contribute to theory building and the advancement of scholarship of library makerspaces and the maker movement more generally.

## **Community**

As indicated by the literature on makerspaces and the case studies outlined earlier, makerspaces may define community in several ways (e.g., as part of a larger geographic community, a group with common interests and norms—CoP, as belonging to the library maker group), or the makerspace may have no clear definition of community. In fact, competing definitions or understandings of the goals of the library makerspace may exist. For example, the makerspace may have been developed to fulfill the social roles of the library, to promote *equitable access* to its

members by providing a space for community members to engage in making with new technologies, or as a way to learn new skills for job advancement. The makerspace may have a less defined purpose, as a place where people with common interests and norms can meet and share knowledge as a CoP. Alternatively, the makerspace may have a more defined purpose such as providing user-centered informal learning experiences. Whether a library thinks about community as geographically based, community within the makerspace, or as a CoP, understanding the demographics, culture, and life stories of the geographic community or the participants in a maker program should guide development of the makerspace and “interest-powered” making programming (Barton, Tan, & Greenberg, 2017; Koh & Abbas, 2015).

Participants of the library makerspace may also have a different idea of what community means to them. In the Meteorology Club study, students felt ownership over the maker program, and it was noted they also felt that they belonged to the larger community. Students directed their own learning experiences, guided by the experts who contributed to the maker experience and built community within the maker group, as well as providing the maker program as a service to the larger community. Also as illustrated in the case studies, the library makerspace provided a public space for cartography group members to meet and gain access to social and technological resources. The library’s role in this case was to support the group in their activities (sharing resources and skills, supplementing their training, building community).

LIS educators should emphasize to students, who are future makerspace professionals, the importance of community within makerspaces but also to teach students the varying ways that community may be present in a makerspace. When developing a new makerspace, or if simply providing making programming, the library should have a clear idea of how they conceptualize community within the makerspace and/or making programming and the goals they have for building community, supporting CoPs, and/or providing the makerspace as a service to the geographic community. Students also need to be made aware that makerspaces may have competing definitions of community and that each definition may shape the outcomes of the makerspace or making programming.

LIS students need to understand the role that community and community members may play in the makerspace. Library makerspaces are supported not just by participants who come to make but by community organizations, media and technology experts, and many volunteers as outlined earlier. Each have a role to play in the makerspace, which may vary depending on the expertise or the level of commitment of the volunteers. Establishing, managing, and maintaining these partnerships is critical to the success of a makerspace. One of the competencies determined to be essential by managers and librarians in makerspaces as reported by Koh and Abbas (2016) was community engagement. LIS educators should include skills and strategies for building, managing, and maintaining these partnerships in classes on makerspaces and/or library community engagement.

Students also need to understand that the makerspace should have clear goals in mind for community engagement. Community engagement may include building and maintaining partnerships with organizations in the community that can support the makerspace in various ways (e.g., providing expert mentors or collaborating and sharing resources). A library may also see the makerspace as a way to engage with new community members who typically do not use the library and/or to support participants' activities in their own CoPs. Further, the library may equate community engagement as a way to garner support for increasing participation and sustaining or funding a makerspace (Koh & Abbas, 2016). Students should learn to develop strategies for engaging with the various members and groups of the community.

LIS courses that engage future makerspace professionals must be model learning environments for engaging communities and cultivating a sense of community among the learners. Ideally, courses include partnerships and collaborations with libraries and makerspaces. Field trips to various types of makerspaces that serve different user groups (e.g., makerspaces in academic, public, school, special libraries, nonprofit organizations, museums, and more) can teach students that there is no one-size-fits-all makerspace. Inviting mentors, experts, librarians, and other professionals to the class allows LIS students to be exposed to a range of topics and skill sets, which may not be accomplished by a single LIS instructor. Internships, fieldwork, and service learning are all great opportunities to teach students *with* community. Furthermore, educators must utilize strategies for creating a sense of a learning community in class. The experience of developing a community of practice during their preservice training is vital for LIS students who will be cultivating a learning community in their library makerspace. Therefore, LIS instructors should play the role of a connector to community resources and a facilitator or guide for a learning community.

Researchers who study library makerspaces need to be aware of the potentially competing perspectives of community within the makerspace. As outlined, makerspace developers or participants may have differing perspectives of how they view community or may not have considered how they are defining community. Therefore, included in research should be methods or processes that document and take account of different stakeholders' understandings and definitions of community. In addition, researchers need to be aware of their own perspectives of community as they study library makerspaces and not impose their own ideas of community on the makerspace when studying how community is present in a library makerspace. The role of community and how community is built in the makerspace should be further explored. Conducting research *with* community, beyond research *on* community, may advance both scholarly and practical fields of makerspace. Librarians who facilitate makerspaces are often being pulled in many directions: developing new programs, building various community connections, raising funds, and so on. Researchers can support librarians by working with them to create and develop makerspaces that align with goals and tenets of their

libraries and communities. Several promising research approaches exist to engage community through innovative research, such as research-practice partnerships (RPPs) (Coburn & Penuel, 2016, p. 48), design-based research (McKenney & Reeves, 2012), and participatory action research (Mirra, Garcia, Morrell, 2015).

## Conclusion

The growing maker movement in librarianship is an important phenomenon in reconceptualizing libraries, not only because makerspaces are equipped with cutting-edge technologies but also because they retain and reinvigorate the core values and roles of librarianship. Theoretical perspectives and historical analyses show the history, culture, and values of librarianship are revived in library makerspaces. Instead of viewing a makerspace as a new fad or as a separate space disconnected from the rest of the library, this chapter suggests library makerspaces represent a transformative role for libraries in the contemporary knowledge society, as libraries continuously adapt to serve the needs of their communities. The name, “makerspace,” and tools they offer vary across the institutions and are likely to change over time; however, the roles that library makerspaces assume, to facilitate knowledge creation, access, learning, and equity and diversity, will remain critical in order to sustain and promote their local communities. Further, these roles must continue to be examined, negotiated, advanced, and refined by the members of the profession and their communities.

This chapter particularly focuses on the concept of community and its differing meanings. Community may refer to a geographically based local community, a group of people who share the same interests, or a sense of belonging. With real-world examples of library makerspaces, the chapter discusses the significance of library makerspaces being grounded in their local communities as well as supporting a sense of community among the participants. A review of literature on community and makerspaces reveals that the library profession has strengths regarding ways to engage local community and develop community connections. Meanwhile, literature from the broader makerspace movement emphasizes the development of a community of makers and learners—that is, a sense of community that supports one another—in physical and online spaces. Both provide valuable perspectives, and researchers and professionals in library makerspaces can learn from cross-disciplinary conversations to contribute to the community and the larger maker movement.

## Acknowledgment

The case studies presented in this chapter, the Meteorology Makers' Club at the Irving Middle School Library [grant number: RE-07-14-0048014] and the Bubbler at Madison Public Library [LG-06-14-0174-14], are made possible in part through funding from the Institute of Museum and Library Services.

## References

- Abbas, J., & Koh, K. (2015). Future of library and museum services supporting teen learning: Perceptions of professionals in learning labs and makerspaces. *Journal of Research on Libraries & Young Adults*, 6. Retrieved from [www.yalsa.ala.org/jrlya/2015/11/future-of-library-and-museum-services-supporting-teen-learning-perceptions-of-professionals-in-learning-labs-and-makerspaces/](http://www.yalsa.ala.org/jrlya/2015/11/future-of-library-and-museum-services-supporting-teen-learning-perceptions-of-professionals-in-learning-labs-and-makerspaces/)
- American Library Association. (2004). *Core Values of Librarianship*. Retrieved from [www.ala.org/advocacy/intfreedom/corevalues](http://www.ala.org/advocacy/intfreedom/corevalues)
- American Library Association. (2013). *ALA Policy Manual*. Retrieved from [www.ala.org/aboutala/governance/policymainual/updatedpolicymainual/section1/1mission](http://www.ala.org/aboutala/governance/policymainual/updatedpolicymainual/section1/1mission)
- American Library Association (ALA) Center for the Future of Libraries. (2014, September 15). *Maker Movement*. Retrieved from [www.ala.org/transforminglibraries/future/trends/makers](http://www.ala.org/transforminglibraries/future/trends/makers)
- Anderson, C. (2012). *Makers: The New Industrial Revolution*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Barton, A. C., Tan, E., & Greenberg, D. (2017). The Makerspace Movement: Sites of possibilities for equitable opportunities to engage underrepresented youth in STEM. *Teachers College Record*, 119(June), 1–44.
- Brady, T., Salas, C., Nuriddin, A., Rodgers, W., & Subramaniam, M. (2014). MakeAbility: Creating accessible makerspace events in a public library. *Public Library Quarterly*, 33(4), 330–347, doi:10.1080/01616846.2014.970425
- Burke, J. (2014). *Makerspaces: A Practical Guide for Librarians*. New York, NY: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Buschman, J., Leckie, G. J., Wiegand, W. A., & Bertot, J. C. (2007). *The Library as Place: History, Community, and Culture*. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.
- Clapp, E. P., Ross, J., Ryan, J. O., & Tishman, S. (2017). *Maker-centered Learning: Empowering Young People to Shape Their Worlds*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Coburn, C. E., & Penuel, W. R. (2016). Research-practice partnerships in education: Outcomes, dynamics, and open questions. *Educational Researcher*, 45(1), 48–54.
- Dresang, E. T. (1999). *Radical Change: Books for Youth in a Digital Age*. New York, NY: H.W. Wilson Company.
- Dresang, E. T. (2013). Digital age libraries and youth: Learning labs, literacy leaders, radical resources. In J. Beheshti & J. A. Large (Eds.), *The Information Behavior of a New Generation: Children and Teens in the 21st Century* (pp. 93–116). Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press.
- Dubriwny, N., Pritchett, N., Hardesty, M., & Hellman, C. M. (2016). Impact of Fab Lab Tulsa on student self-efficacy toward STEM education. *Journal of STEM Education: Innovations and Research*, 17(2), 21–25.
- Gee, J. P. (2005). Semiotic social spaces and affinity spaces. In D. Barton & K. Tusting (Eds.), *Beyond Communities of Practice: Language Power and Social Context* (pp. 214–232). Cambridge, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Good, T., & Doctorow, C. (2013). Manufacturing maker spaces. *American Libraries*, 44(1–2), 44–49.
- Gutwill, J. P., Hido, N., & Sindorf, L. (2015). Research to practice: Observing learning in tinkering activities. *Curator: The Museum Journal*, 58(2), 151–168. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1111/cura.12105>
- Habermas, J. (2014). *The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere: An Inquiry into a Category of Bourgeois Society*. Cambridge, UK: Polity.
- Halverson, E., & Sheridan, K. (2014). The Maker Movement in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 36(4), 495–504.

- Hamilton, M., & Schmidt, D. H. (2015). *Make It Here: Inciting Creativity and Innovation in Your Library*. Denver, CO: Libraries Unlimited.
- Hatch, M. (2014). *The Maker Movement Manifesto*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Koh, K. (2015). Radical change theory: Framework for empowering digital youth. *Journal of Research on Libraries and Young Adults*, 5. Retrieved from [www.yalsa.ala.org/jrlya/2015/01/radical-change-theory-framework-for-empowering-digital-youth/](http://www.yalsa.ala.org/jrlya/2015/01/radical-change-theory-framework-for-empowering-digital-youth/)
- Koh, K., & Abbas, J. (2015). Competencies for information professionals in learning labs and makerspaces. *Journal for Education of Library and Information Science*, 56(2), 114–129.
- Koh, K., & Abbas, J. (2016). Competencies needed to provide teen library services of the future: Survey of professionals in learning labs and makerspaces. *Journal of Research on Libraries and Young Adults*, 7(2). Retrieved from <http://tinyurl.com/competencies16>
- Lankes, R. D. (2015). *The New Librarianship: Field Guide*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- MacKenney, S. E., & Reeves, T. C. (2012). *Conducting Educational Design Research*. London: Routledge.
- Maker Education Initiative. (n.d.). *Maker Education Initiative*. Retrieved from [www.maked.org/](http://www.maked.org/)
- Mirra, N., Garcia, A., & Morrell, E. (2015). *Doing Youth Participatory Action Research: Transforming Inquiry with Researchers, Educators, and Students*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Oldenburg, R. (1997). *The Great Good Place: Cafes, Coffee Shops, Community Centers, Beauty Parlors, General Stores, Bars, Hangouts, and How They Get You Through the Day*. New York, NY: Marlowe.
- Peppler, K., Halverson, E., & Kafai, Y. B. (2016). *Makeology: Makerspaces as Learning Environments* (Vol. 1). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Remold, J., Fusco, J., Vogt, K. A., & Leones, T. (2016). *Communities for Maker Educators: A Study of the Communities and Resources That Connect Educators Engaged in Making*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International. Retrieved from [www.sri.com/sites/default/files/brochures/makereducatorcommunities.pdf](http://www.sri.com/sites/default/files/brochures/makereducatorcommunities.pdf)
- Urban Libraries Council. (2015). *Making a Diverse Maker Community in Chicago*. Retrieved from [www.urbanlibraries.org/making-a-diverse-maker-community-in-chicago-innovation-1231.php?page\\_id=420](http://www.urbanlibraries.org/making-a-diverse-maker-community-in-chicago-innovation-1231.php?page_id=420)
- Vossoughi, S., Hooper, P. K., & Escude, M. (2016). Making through the lens of culture and power: Toward transformative visions for educational equity. *Harvard Educational Review*, 38(2), 206–232.
- Wiegand, W. A. (2015a). *Part of Our Lives: A People's History of the American Public Library*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Wiegand, W. A. (2015b). ‘Tunnel vision and blind spots’ reconsidered: Part of our lives (2015) as a test case. *The Library Quarterly: Information, Community, Policy*, 85(4), 347–370. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1086/682731>
- Willett, R. (2017). Learning through making in public libraries: Theories, practices, and tensions. *Learning, Media and Technology*. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.library.wisc.edu/10.1080/17439884.2017.1369107>
- Willingham, T., & de Boer, J. (2015). *Makerspaces in Libraries*. New York, NY: Rowman & Littlefield.

## CHAPTER 6

---

### LIBRARIES AS AGENTS OF SOCIAL CHANGE

---

All of our profiled libraries are grounded in the belief that the establishment of a library in a school or community will influence at least personal development and ultimately and collectively create a more literate and educated population. This is particularly true for the many new libraries in the developing world. Here we see that library development is a direct response to raised awareness of the challenges underlying hope for better lives. These libraries arise in communities that are marginalized and excluded from mainstream society. Libraries that explicitly foreground their mission as agents of social change focus their services and programs on influencing critical matters of social justice (particularly equity for women), health and hygiene, and poverty, and building local capacity for improved lives for all members of the community. In such visions for change, the community is heavily invested in the library as a partner within a wider initiative for change. This change process is grounded in an asset approach where the strengths of various players work together and entails a deeply respectful revival of cultural capital (Bourdieu 2008) and funds of knowledge (Moll et al. 1992), epistemology, and ways of teaching and learning. These libraries are often run by a local management committee consisting of representatives from all important sectors of the community and of course the librarian.

Looking through the social change lens, librarians are regarded as professionals and mobilize to form professional networks. There is a strong commitment to development of local publishing of indigenous language reading materials, which entails supporting a new profession of authors, illustrators, editors and publishers where few or none had existed before in predominantly oral cultures. Library projects and programs are vehicles of change by framing activities and events in the critical change issues listed above. Libraries and librarians then are acting as agents of social change. Kulenovic (2011) outlines the potential librarians have to make a real difference by

*... providing inspiration, creative spaces, and creating opportunities for healthy and positive dialogues between different populations. They can rebuild the information landscape too, helping society move away from misinformation to clarity and balance. There is scope to educate people in*

*the information skills that can contribute to economic growth and prosperity.*  
(Kulenovic 2011: ¶2)

As mentioned above, many of the libraries we highlight, particularly those in the developing world, are rooted in social change in contrast to socialization. Established libraries in the Western world tend to provide resources and programs that help people optimally participate in existing structures (political, economic, social). In contrast, libraries conceived as change agents provide multiple means of improving the lives of their community members by shifting the community, for example, from illiteracy to literacy, from poverty to economic independence, and from unquestioned customs around health to knowledge-based practices. As with some of our other example libraries, the impetus for such change is typically from the ground up, rather than from top down.

In this chapter we visit one library that brings together many of the features of this concept of a library. The Kuugin King Naay Library is situated in a remote and historically marginalized Aboriginal community in northwestern Canada, specifically within Aboriginal reserve lands. This is one of the first libraries to be established in any of Canada's numerous reserve lands. The people of this community took the initiative themselves when a provincial research project on early childhood and health revealed extremely high levels of risk for their children in language and cognitive development. As in other libraries, the community-led response to this revelation involved multiple key players who together identified the need for a library within the community. Funding from corporations known to support literacy was successfully obtained to begin the collection. The strong Canada-wide movement to revive and honor Aboriginal languages and cultures shaped the library collection, facilities and programs from the beginning. For example, children have a wide choice of culturally and linguistically appropriate reading materials, and adults have access to a special collection aimed at good health and community-made resources of ancestral language materials. Using an asset approach, programs include parent-child reading and language play about cultural stories, creative video productions of cultural knowledge using a variety of new technologies, as well as traditional cultural activities such as infant massage and storytelling. They also provide support for students in study skills to improve school performance, and opportunities for sharing traditional stories and crafts outside of school. The vision of Kuugin King Naay is to be a central node in the community network dedicated to supporting literacy and learning for its children and youth, families and Elders so that all members are brought into lifelong learning within and across the Haida Gwaii.

This profile of Kuugin King Naay Library in British Columbia, Canada was prepared by Nicola Einarson.

*Haida Gwaii is a group of islands on the northwest coast of British Columbia, and home to about 5000 people living in six communities, two of which are located on aboriginal reserve land. The two southernmost communities of Haida Gwaii are the villages of Skidegate and Queen Charlotte. Since 2007, the community of Skidegate has supported a privately owned and operated library, Kuugin King Naay. This name roughly translates to “Looking at Books House” in Hlgagilda Xaayda Kil, the Skidegate dialect of the Haida language.*

*Kuugin King Naay was developed in partnership between the Skidegate Band Council, the Haida Education Committee, Literacy Haida Gwaii and School District 50 in response to UBC’s Early Child Development project which maps child development, socio-economic characteristics and community assets. Statistics from the 2006 survey indicated that the highest area of vulnerability in Haida Gwaii was in language and cognitive development, and community projects to address this vulnerability and support the needs of children and families were initialized.*

*The communities of Haida Gwaii are served by the provincial library system of Vancouver Island. Upon examining library usage on Haida Gwaii, it was revealed that community members in Skidegate were not active library users. The reasons for this were unclear, but it was thought that one barrier to library usage may have been due to the 15 km distance between Skidegate and Queen Charlotte. In brainstorming strategies to increase library patronage, a weekly shuttle bus was proposed to transport community members to the Queen Charlotte branch of the provincial library system.*

*Alison Gear of School District 50 presented these findings and suggestions to the Skidegate Band Council in conjunction with the Haida Education Council. In outlining some reasons why library patronage in the Skidegate membership might be low, she noted that in Canada, neither federal nor provincial library funding applies to aboriginal reserve lands. For this reason, the incidence of libraries on reserve in British Columbia was either nil or negligible. Upon hearing this reasoning, Chief Councilor Wayne Wilson exclaimed “Well then, we will be the first!” There was agreement around the table, and logistical planning and preparation for this library began.*

*The seed grant for the library collection was made possible with the Gift of Words grant program sponsored by Starbucks Canada and the ABC Literacy Foundation. Based on research that children need to see themselves reflected in books, the Haida Education Council suggested that the initial library collection consist of aboriginal children’s books. To choose the initial collection of books, the entire collection Aboriginal-content children’s books of the Vancouver Island Regional Library was shipped, free of charge, to Haida Gwaii. A “Book Selection Party” was hosted to which all families, Elders, and educators from Skidegate*

were invited. One hundred and thirty books were purchased, and the library was officially opened to the public.

Initially hosted by the Headstart program, the library soon moved to its current location in a heritage schoolhouse in the heart of Skidegate. The decision to move from the Headstart building was made in order to better serve the community, and to grow. After installing the cataloging program Anthenaeum Express, a loaning system to serve all community members was soon to follow. The library collection has grown to almost 1600 books, and almost 300 library cards have been issued.

The building consists of two main rooms, one for the library and one for the nursery school. The Library space is approximately 1200 square feet, comprising one room of a two-room schoolhouse. The building has been renovated but was the original day-school of Skidegate Village. In its most recent incarnation, it has been outfitted to be a very child-friendly, warm and welcoming space; with a full color mural painted on one wall, alphabet and counting rugs on the floor, a brightly decorated bulletin board featuring local art and words in *HlGaagilda Xaayda Kil*, and inspirational quotes stenciled against the windows. In the summer, the space is predominantly lit by sunlight via large windows.

Kuugin King Naay's collection has grown over the years to provide categories consisting of literature aimed for children aged 0–6, juvenile fiction, juvenile non-fiction, teen fiction, and adult non-fiction; along with the Skidegate Health Center's Healthy Bodies Lending Library. A large proportion of our children's collection—approximately 40%—is identified as containing aboriginal focus either in story or artwork, but oftentimes both. This includes aboriginal representation from all areas of the world, but predominantly focused on North American peoples, and most often peoples of the Northwest Coast. Of our adult collection excluding the Health Center collection, approximately 80% is focused on issues relating to aboriginality such as history, community development, art and biographies. We would like to see more aboriginal-focused literature for the tween-to-teen group, and we are working on it.

Along with books, we have computers and internet access, a printer/scanner/fax machine, and a small selection of educational DVDs. It is also wonderful to see the growing collection of *HlGaagilda Xaayda Kil*/Skidegate dialect Haida Language materials from the Skidegate Haida Immersion Program (SHIP), the body of Elders who are fluent in their ancestral language and perform documentation and archiving of the language. We hold a full complement of *HlGaagilda Xaayda Kil* language CDs produced by SHIP, nearing 100 disks and accompanying text material. We have recently acquired a newly produced set of children's picture books written entirely in *HlGaagilda Xaayda Kil* and featuring storylines illustrated with photographs of local children and families. These books contain

*an audio disk component to engage new learners with the spoken word as well as textual representations of their ancestral language.*

*The operations of Kuugin King Naay are funded by the Education Department of the Skidegate Band Council, and the library collection grows primarily through book donations from community members, literacy organizations, and publishers. In 2010 the initial librarian, Barbara Mack, retired from service and Nicola Einarson assumed the role. Nicola received her BA in Family Studies from the University of British Columbia in 2009, and is currently undertaking her Masters degree in Educational Technology, also with UBC, via distance education. She has a passion for education and working with active learners of all ages. One of her first orders of duty was to secure funding to better outfit the growing collection and use of the Library. To this end, the Northern Savings Credit Union supported Kuugin King Naay as “The Space and Place to Learn”, providing a grant with which new tables and shelving were purchased.*

*Kuugin King Naay is open 12 hours per week. There have always been considerations of balance amongst hours and patrons, with openings being structured to provide access for the nursery school classes, working families, and other patrons. We have experimented with evening hours, weekend hours, and daytime hours in order to find the right mixture, and remain open to community suggestions and flexible for change. In addition to our regular open hours, meetings and workshops are also held in the library space on a first-come-first-served basis. Over the years the library has hosted a variety of educational workshops, including Mother Goose sessions for parents and toddlers, infant massage, storytelling workshops, video production and editing, resume writing workshops, children’s art workshops, and more.*

*From the beginning, it was hoped that every effort to promote library patronage would be provided to the community. Through the years we have run Summer Reading Programs by and for local youth. This provides a summer employment opportunity as well as a way to build community networks. There have also been special interest groups formed by and for teens and tweens. We have seasonal craft activities approximately once per month, to draw youth and caregivers into the library and introduce them to our collections. Given some basic details, anybody may receive a library card and borrow as many books, within reason, as they see fit. Our lending policies rely on the honor system, and so far this has worked out pretty well for us. We do not have rigid due dates and we do not have late fees. Instead of reactive measures against misuse, the library has a proactive reward system in which every book returned receives one entry in a monthly prize draw.*

*One of the major successes of this library has been providing a space for Skidegate residents in the K-12 education system to come and get help with their academic work. Since the high school is located in the neighboring village of Queen*

*Charlotte, students who live in Skidegate catch the bus shortly after school is over and do not always have the chance to get the after-school help they need. The academic support group started at the library in 2010 has grown to the point of consistent attendance and volunteer teacher help, bringing some students to a passing grade and other students to honors levels.*

*The vision of the Haida Education Council was to create a center for lifelong learning in Skidegate, and for Kuugin King Naay to promote literacy, encourage a love of learning, provide access to information, and provide programs for people of all ages. As Kuugin King Naay heads into our sixth year of operations, we can see the positive influence that this space has had on our community members as a resource for language, literacy and learning. We are happy to hear that our neighbors in the north end of Haida Gwaii are considering opening their own Children's Library on the Old Massett reserve in the near future, and we encourage all communities to do the same. Through partnerships and a dedication to education, this legacy for education of Skidegate will hopefully be here for the long term.*



**Figure 6.1 Kuugin King Naay Library, Canada**

Source: Courtesy of Nicola Einarson.



**Figure 6.2 Kuugin King Naay Library, Canada**

Source: Courtesy of Nicola Einarson.

A view of literacy as empowerment and of education as personal and social emancipation (Freire and Macedo 1987) underlies libraries founded as change agents. Literacy is the gateway to education and knowledge, but is not limited to “basic literacy”. In the revolutionary book, *Literacy: Reading the Word and the World*, Paulo Freire views literacy as cultural politics—not just a technical or cognitive ability or even a social practice. His critical literacy perspective regards literacy as a means of democratic and emancipatory change. In Canada’s Aboriginal communities, the disturbing history of oppression and erasure of native cultures that took place over the last century is actively being reversed. Indigenous languages, traditional ways of teaching and learning, long-held domains of knowledge that were censored and obliterated are being revived with deep commitment by Aboriginal communities throughout the country. Parallel developments are happening throughout the world in communities once nearly extinguished by colonialism. Libraries can play a critical role in empowering and emancipating subjected peoples.

In such contexts, social justice needs to be at the core of what the library does. Vincent interprets this to mean that libraries must: “a) Embrace equality and diversity; b) Focus on a needs-based service and targeting resources towards those who need them most; c) Know and understand the components of the local community; d) Have an active, collaborative role in empathizing and working in partnership with the local community; and e) Fully engage the community, moving as far as possible towards co-production of service provision” (Vincent 2012: ¶1).

It becomes critical then that these efforts to emancipate and revitalize are led by the community and not by those with vestiges of power. As explained by Williment,

*The community-led approach acknowledges the important role traditional approaches can still play in serving community—but it also provides additional approaches that involve working with community. Using a community-led approach, library staff actively listen to people talk about their library based needs, plan collaboratively with community members, and modify and reshape activities based upon community input. Community is actively involved in defining and measuring outcomes. (Williment 2012: ¶3)*

Such perspectives on the role of the library allow for promoting proactive social changes which in turn help to build vibrant, engaged, and locally sustainable communities. Here libraries are no longer viewed as minor players in bringing socio-cultural and socio-economic improvements in people's lives, but as effective agents of social change.

---

**SOCIAL WORK  
AND UNIVERSITY-COMMUNITY  
PARTNERSHIPS**

---

**University-Community Partnership Centers:  
An Important Link  
for Social Work Education**

Mary E. Rogge, MSW, PhD  
Cynthia J. Rocha, MSW, PhD

**SUMMARY.** In academic settings, community research, and the service that goes along with it, is often not valued as much as other methods of research. The more qualitative and labor intensive nature of applied research

---

Mary E. Rogge and Cynthia J. Rocha are Associate Professors, University of Tennessee, College of Social Work.

Address correspondence to: Mary E. Rogge, PhD, University of Tennessee, College of Social Work, 225 Henson Hall, Knoxville, TN 37996-3333 (E-mail: mrogge@utk.edu).

An earlier version of this paper was presented at the Council on Social Work Education's 45th Annual Program Meeting, San Francisco, California, March 10-13, 1999.

[Haworth co-indexing entry note]: "University-Community Partnership Centers: An Important Link for Social Work Education." Rogge, Mary E., and Cynthia J. Rocha. Co-published simultaneously in *Journal of Community Practice* (The Haworth Social Work Practice Press, an imprint of The Haworth Press, Inc.) Vol. 12, No. 3/4, 2004, pp. 103-121; and: *University-Community Partnerships: Universities in Civic Engagement* (ed: Tracy M. Soska, and Alice K. Johnson Butterfield) The Haworth Social Work Practice Press, an imprint of The Haworth Press, Inc., 2004, pp. 103-121. Single or multiple copies of this article are available for a fee from The Haworth Document Delivery Service [1-800-HAWORTH, 9:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m. (EST). E-mail address: docdelivery@haworthpress.com].

<http://www.haworthpress.com/web/COM>

© 2004 by The Haworth Press, Inc. All rights reserved.  
Digital Object Identifier: 10.1300/J125v12n03\_07

often raises concerns about whether pre-tenured faculty can publish the sufficient quantity and quality of work necessary to achieve tenure. This paper describes successful collaborations through a university-based Community Partnership Center with members of community-based organizations in low-income inner-city neighborhoods, social work students, and faculty. Two case examples illustrate the co-authors' involvement with the Center as pre-tenured faculty. The article outlines the challenges and benefits of involvement with an established center for university-community partnerships. With careful planning and coordination, such centers can be excellent vehicles through which to achieve important mutual benefits for community-based organizations, student learning, and faculty responsibilities in research, teaching and service. [Article copies available for a fee from The Haworth Document Delivery Service: 1-800-HAWORTH. E-mail address: <docdelivery@haworthpress.com> Website: <<http://www.HaworthPress.com>> © 2004 by The Haworth Press, Inc. All rights reserved.]

**KEYWORDS.** Community Outreach Partnership Center (COPC), participatory research, service learning, tenure, university-community partnerships

## INTRODUCTION

Within the ebb and flow of political, economic, and social support for civic engagement and partnership between universities and their neighboring communities, educators are challenged to enact ethical, proactive approaches that underscore knowledge and skills for advocacy and community-focused practice. Collaborations between academic social work programs and community-based organizations hold great promise for meeting this challenge (Bembry, 1995; Harkavy & Puckett, 1994). Social work is among the many professions participating in the paradigm shift toward greater university-community involvement, including public health, planning, psychology, education, law, occupational therapy, and sociology (Ansley & Gaventa, 1997; Casella, 2002; Metzler et al., 2003; Sclove, Scammell, & Holland, 1998; Taylor, Braverman, & Hammel, 2004). Increasingly, this involvement is influenced by a range of federal agencies and funding sources to engage more fully in interdisciplinary, inter-community work (Maclure, 1990; Mizrahi & Rosenthal, 2001; O'Fallon & Dearry, 2002). With the collaboration of grassroots community experts (Abatena, 1997), university resources can be applied to programs and ser-

vices that strengthen communities, students can receive necessary training, and faculty can study community-specific issues.

The ethical and methodological foundation of the university-based community partnership center described in this article derived directly from the participatory democracy and research approaches of Paulo Friere and Friere's friend and colleague, Miles Horton (Gaventa, Peters, & Bell, 1991). Friere's conceptualizations of conscientization, critical consciousness, dialog and reflection, and the belief that fairness and equity should and can be attained, continue to be core values of participatory processes (Castelloe & Watson, 1999; Friere, 1970). As noted later, Horton co-founded the internationally known Highlander Research and Education Center located in East Tennessee (Highlander Research and Education Center, 2004). Such participatory approaches emphasize mutual exchange between citizens and researchers of personal, popular, and professional education, consciousness-raising, and mutual skill development. Shared power and decision-making, from the outset of social change efforts, are essential (Sarri & Sarri, 1992; McNicoll, 1999).

These approaches also form the cornerstone of the rich interdisciplinary heritage and evolving scientific basis of community-based participatory research (Minkler & Wallerstein, 2003; Trickett, 1991). The Interagency Working Group for Community-Based Participatory Research (2002) defines community-based participatory research as "scientific inquiry conducted in communities in which community members, persons affected by condition or issue under study and other key stakeholders in the community's health have the opportunity to be full participants in each phase of the work (from conception–design–conduct–analysis–interpretation–conclusions–communication of results)." In many communities, however, a significant barrier to expanding the community-focused skills of social work students has been a history of disempowering relationships between academic institutions and communities (Livermore & Midgley, 1998; Rogge, 1998). Researchers have been criticized for garnering funds and building careers without appropriate acknowledgement of—let alone recompense for—community member contributions including time, expertise, and intellectual property. From the standpoint of ethical, robust, valid scientific processes, research that claims to be community-based yet does not fully engage community in the creation and critique of knowledge is flawed at best (Sullivan & Kelly, 2001; Israel, Schulz, Parker, & Becker, 1998).

Grassroots organizations, in particular, view university-community collaborations with caution. Ansley and Gaventa (1997, p. 51) argue, "Many communities long ago gave up on universities as places from which they could expect meaningful assistance." Or, as one leader of a

fledgling neighborhood association noted: "You've got to realize the university is a lion and we [the association] are just a kitten starting out; you can come out here and nurture us and help us grow, or swat us aside with one blow" (A. Gaston, personal communication, April, 1998). Social work has also been criticized similarly as lacking a genuine commitment to community empowerment and participatory processes (Freeman, 1996).

This paper describes the development of successful university-community collaborations among social work faculty, social work graduate students, and community organizations, connected through a university-based, federally funded center. These collaborations are discussed also in the context of pre-tenured faculty engaged in community-based research. In academic settings, community research is not always valued as much as other research methods because of its more qualitative approach and labor intensive nature that can raise concerns about publishing sufficient material to achieve tenure (Ansley & Gaventa, 1997; Euster & Weinbach, 1994). In this article, factors are discussed that have created functional partnerships for university-community collaborators linked through this center. First, the center's mission and funding during the time of the co-authors' involvement as pre-tenured faculty are summarized. Second, two case examples are used to describe mutual benefits derived from relationships with the center. The co-authors discuss how these relationships challenged and contributed to students, community partners and, at the time, to their experience as pre-tenured faculty.

### ***COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP CENTER (CPC)***

Initiated in 1994, the Community Partnership Center (CPC) at the University of Tennessee (UT) is an interdisciplinary, participatory research-based center that connects researchers, technical experts, students, and other UT resources to groups in low to moderate-income communities. The creation of the CPC was influenced significantly by the rich history of grassroots organizing and social action in the surrounding Appalachian region of East Tennessee in general and, in particular, by the work of Paulo Friere, Miles Horton, and their colleagues through the Highlander Research and Education Center (Ansley & Gaventa, 1997; Beaver, 1986; Cable, 1993; Community Shares, 2004; Fisher, 1993; Gaventa, Peters, & Bell, 1991; Highlander Research and Education Center, 2004; Save Our Cumberland Mountains, 2004;

Southern Empowerment Project, 2004). The CPC provides leadership in developing collaborative methods in research, service learning opportunities for faculty and students, and participatory approaches toward sustainable development. Its governing board was structured from the outset so that community members had majority vote; two thirds of the representatives are from community and one third from the university. As identified in its mission, objectives, and governing structure, the overriding intent of the CPC is to direct resources into the community to build community capacity. Housed in the University's Office of Research, the CPC's focus on community-based participatory research is unique among the University's research centers and central to its mission of collaborating to solve social and economic problems. From the outset, the CPC has served a clearinghouse function to identify community-based needs and solicit UT resources to respond (CPC, 2004).

CPC projects have targeted community-identified needs including economic development, homelessness, public safety, education, environmental justice, at-risk youths, and job training (Ansley & Gaventa, 1997; CPC, 2004). Core funding for the CPC core program has been through the U.S. Housing and Urban Development (HUD) Community Outreach Partnership Centers (COPC) program (University Partnerships Clearinghouse, 1998). CPC received its first HUD/COPC grant, for \$500,000, in 1995. In 1997, the CPC received a \$100,000 Institutionalization Grant under the HUD/COPC, which addressed five issue areas: planning and legal assistance; institutionalization and curricular development; access to the information highway; strengthening community-based organizations; and applied research on the effects of globalization on East Tennessee. In 2001, the CPC was allocated a portion of Knoxville's HUD Urban Empowerment Zone grant to facilitate the development of "citizen learning teams" within the Zone (see CPC, 2004; Gaventa, Morrissey, & Creed, 1998). HUD-related grants have targeted the "Heart of Knoxville" inner city neighborhoods, which are home to over 48,000 individuals with low and moderate incomes (Partnership for Neighborhood Improvement, 1998). Additional funding and programs of the CPC include the Learning Initiative, first funded in 1994 by the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the Ford Foundation and the Aspen Institute to implement and evaluate citizens' learning teams in 10 rural Empowerment Zone/Enterprise Communities across the United States (Gaventa et al., 1998).

## **SOCIAL WORK-COMMUNITY EXCHANGES THROUGH THE CPC**

The two case examples that follow describe how the co-authors, as pre-tenure faculty, collaborated with the CPC and how those collaborations supported mutually beneficial exchanges among community organizations, social work students, and faculty. Following the case presentations, the challenges, benefits, and lessons learned in terms of teaching, research, and service are discussed.

### ***The TennCare Project***

In 1995, the second co-author was invited by CPC to collaborate with a local grassroots organization working to improve access to and quality of health care in East Tennessee. To lend legitimacy to their organizing efforts, the organization wanted to systematically document citizens' reports of effects from TennCare, Tennessee's recently implemented federal Medicaid Waiver and mandatory Medicaid managed care program. The co-author was interested in studying and disseminating information about the effects of managed care on poor populations. The CPC saw the match and connected faculty and organization. This interaction was the beginning of a long, interesting, and sometimes stressful relationship. While both faculty and organization cared about the issue, goals were not always the same. From an academic standpoint, time was needed to approach the project objectively, obtain university approval for human subjects' research, and seek funding for the project. The grassroots organization, on the other hand, wanted documentation of what organization members observed to be happening and needed immediate outcomes to pressure government officials to change the TennCare system.

The first task was to find funding and receive university permission for the TennCare study. Long meetings were held with the co-author, organization, and other players to negotiate the final survey instrument. Community members had significant input in regard to sample selection and the choice of research and survey questions. Each player, including a potential funder from outside of the organization and university, had an investment in what questions should be asked. The funder provided support for the study and the UT Graduate School awarded a small faculty development grant. The next task was to decide who would collect the data. Because the collection process would be house-to-house in the moderate and low-income neighborhoods represented by the grassroots organiza-

tion, members of the organization were the obvious choice for interviewers. The members were paid to participate and were paired with UT graduate social work students. Training sessions were held, and 164 residents were interviewed.

As the initial TennCare research got underway, the CPC decided to pursue its first HUD/COPC grant, subsequently funded in 1995. Because the TennCare team had an established relationship, the CPC asked members of the grassroots organization and faculty to collaborate on a portion of the grant that would focus on community economic development. The team's project was one of twelve community economic development projects funded. The goal was to remove barriers to health care in the Heart of Knoxville inner city neighborhoods. Project objectives and outcomes included: meeting with community residents to discuss research outcomes; developing and implementing empowerment and leadership workshops; networking with local groups and residents to monitor health care programs; organizing and holding an annual community health fair; and conducting process evaluations of the project objectives and a follow-up survey on barriers to health care. In 1997, the HUD/COPC grant funded another TennCare research project with the faculty-grassroots organization team. Paid community members and students paired again to conduct interviews with forty managed care clients who had reported problems with TennCare. Whereas the first TennCare project identified the extent of the problems faced by TennCare recipients, this study produced a more in-depth understanding of those problems and their effects on the lives of the people experiencing them. Many meetings were held with community members to frame the qualitative survey instrument in regard to existing barriers to health care in the community. Members of the grassroots organization also participated in the use of content analysis to interpret the qualitative findings.

The grassroots organization took the results of the study to local media, organized a protest march in the city's downtown area, and held a press conference. Because of this publicity, the Tennessee State Oversight Committee invited the co-author and the organization to testify about the findings of both studies before the Committee. These events point to an important mutual benefit from this university-community relationship. Before the research, the grassroots organization had tried unsuccessfully to testify before the Committee. The involvement of university research lent the legitimacy that the organization needed to be heard by the Committee. On the other hand, the results of these two studies would not have been publicized through the media nor reached

state legislators in this way if the organization had not taken to the streets in protest.

*Coursework Integration.* The co-author integrated this research into her advanced social work policy class that uses experiential techniques to teach policy practice to social work students (Rocha & Johnson, 1997). In this class, students work in semester-long task groups to analyze an issue, develop a purposeful change campaign in response to a community need, and implement a change strategy at the organizational or community level. Depending on the issue, students often have very little or extensive contact with community groups. If there are community groups already working on the issue of choice, the student task group consults with the community groups to assess how the students can be most helpful. Some class projects, such as assisting in the development of a community health fair, came directly from projects created by the HUD/COPC grant. Other projects, such as changing bus routes to better serve a city area comprised primarily of people who are elderly and have low income, were connected through the CPC clearinghouse.

The task group assignment continues to be a core component of the advanced policy course. Each semester, two or three community groups usually request student assistance to work on local or state level issues. Student groups have lobbied successfully for change in state spousal rape laws; assisted grassroots organizations in training welfare advocates to work with families affected by welfare reform; carried out a local awareness campaign promoting the public's help with homeless children; created a resource guide on health care for uninsured persons; developed sex education curricula for public schools; and lobbied, with some success to increase accessibility for students with physical challenges at UT. In addition, student assignments and reflective comments indicate that they also benefit through service learning as a method to increase citizen participation in a democratic society (Bringle & Hatcher, 1996).

### ***Morningside Heights Homeowners' Association (MHHA)***

*Community Fellows in the Classroom.* In response to community requests for help with grant writing, the first co-author initiated a "community fellows" project in 1997. Community Fellows are members of community-based organizations who participate, on a tuition-free, non-credit basis, in a graduate course on financial management and resource development. In the first year, three community fellows associated with CPC-partner groups participated: the executive director of the Morningside Heights Homeowners Association (MHHA), a community organizer with an anti-drug initiative for

youth, and the grant writer for a faith-based community development group. In exchange for attending the course, fellows share their experiences in getting financial resources for their organizations. Because the major course assignment is to develop an actual grant proposal based on real agency needs, the Community Fellows also produce a grant proposal relative to their organization's program. Two of the three inaugural fellows' grant proposals were funded. The fellows contributed to lively class discussions on building relationships with potential funders, collecting and organizing assessment information, matching program design to social problems and target population, and budget with program scope. Evaluations from students and fellows have been very encouraging. Students note that, despite initial misgivings, the fellows' sharing of their experiences enriches rather than detracts from learning. One fellow wrote that the experience was "both intense and extremely beneficial . . . I am grateful . . . to learn with you all, and for the tools you have given me to use to good effect in the community in which I work."

The CPC benefited from the community fellow project in that part of the co-author's teaching time and fellow's project time counted toward the CPC's HUD/COPC grant match. One unanticipated benefit was the establishment of a new health clinic in the neighborhood served by the MHHA. During a discussion of organizational best practices among class members and a panel of social work agency leaders, the MHHA fellow described the need for such a clinic. Both the fellow and the panelist from the facility that established the clinic attribute this action directly to their connection during the course (G. Winfrey & B. Dodson, personal communication, December, 1998).

*Student Task Groups in the Neighborhoods.* A second exchange occurred in a subsequent semester and different course. In a graduate foundation course on practice with organizations and communities, the first co-author piloted an experiential community-based assignment, which was a new experience for most of the students. Groups of three to six students worked with pre-selected representatives of community-based organizations on projects structured by the organizations. Each student worked a maximum of 20 field hours; each organization received from 60-120 volunteer hours. Projects emphasized community assessment or participation in social change efforts. Presentations and discussion of the projects over the semester exposed students to each other's projects.

Organizations were selected primarily because of their social change efforts. Another characteristic of many of the organizations was that they did *not* employ professional social workers (c.f., Johnson, 2000). Such organizations were targeted so that social work students experienced grassroots change efforts in organizations generally unfamiliar to

them; organizations experienced the benefits of working with social work students; and groundwork was laid for future university-community collaborations through field practica and community-based research. In good faith with the concept of mutual exchange (i.e., “the what’s-in-it-for-you/what’s-in-it-for-me,” WIFFY/WIFFM principle), tasks with short learning curves were designed to meet concrete organizational needs. Again, the CPC benefited by using part of the co-author’s teaching time and student task group time as HUD/COPC grant match. The CPC was the introductory link for over half of the organizations with which students worked, including the MHHA. The co-author, in turn, connected several of the organizations to CPC. The CPC was important in this assignment because of CPC’s staff knowledge of local low- and moderate-income community social change organizations and actors.

Variations of the assignment continue to be a core component of this course. During the first semester that the assignment was used, 51 students worked in 12 task groups with 11 organizations, for a total of about 1,051 hours. Projects have included:

- *Neighborhood organizing*: conducting and analyzing a door-to-door neighborhood survey for a local community development center and presenting data at the first meeting of that neighborhood’s new association;
- *Local/international political action*: producing an article on international debt burden and the local economy in a regional newspaper, sponsoring a Peruvian speaker on campus, and collecting over 600 signatures for an international petition to forgive the debt of poor developing countries;
- *Environmental justice*: researching funding opportunities and organizing materials in a citizen’s library jointly used by a group of workers, an African-American neighborhood, and environmental activists concerned nuclear radiation and associated chemicals;
- *Community violence*: collecting and analyzing police data for a citizen’s group concerned about law enforcement violence and creating a guide to public referendum processes; and,
- *Economic development*: for MHHA, helping to implement aspects of the neighborhood’s revitalization plan.

Student evaluations indicate that the diversity of organizations, issues, leadership styles, and political contexts helps translate theory about practice with organizations and communities to reality. For exam-

ple, in an in-class exercise using Weil and Gamble's (1995) community-based practice models, students discovered that each of the eight models was represented by at least one organization with which the class worked.

### ***BENEFITS, CHALLENGES, AND LESSONS LEARNED***

The situations, relationships, benefits, and barriers discussed in the two cases have challenged and contributed the learning of students, community partners, and faculty in a number of ways. Although the cases illustrate partnerships primarily between social workers and community, many of the experiences and lessons learned are applicable in cross-disciplinary applications. These are summarized in the context of the triad of academic responsibilities in teaching, research, and service.

#### ***Teaching***

Over time, the co-authors have adapted the experiential learning components of the foundation practice and advanced policy practice classes to build sequentially. The foundation course involves students in time-limited, pre-selected tasks with supervision from task leaders in community organizations. In the advanced course, students identify, shape and carry out semester-long projects, often in coordination with community organizations. Both courses emphasize experiential learning and reflective processes as important pedagogical tools for making course materials relevant and "real."

As described in the two case examples, there have been multiple benefits for community partners, social work students and faculty from the relationship with the CPC and associated community organizations. Students have experienced organizing and other aspects of grassroots work, applied participatory practice, advocacy and social action skills, and observed diverse organizations and leaders in action. The skills that students have acquired derive from applying sound community intervention techniques including finding creative uses for slim resources; customizing and carrying out community assessments; building relationships with stakeholders; and presenting one's case to citizens' groups, city council, transit boards, neighborhood associations, faculty committees, public forums, and nonprofit organizations. Students report having learned to use the media to bring important issues to the public's attention through creating public service announcements, writ-

ing editorials, discussing issues on television talk shows, and using the Internet. They have integrated experiences with readings on task force organization, and the translation of mission to measurable outcome. In project evaluations, students note having shared, with each other and their community partners, the challenges of time management and coordination and the frustrations of delayed outcomes, power plays and political intrigue. Students have shared also the excitement of successful local and state lobbying efforts and the gratification of achieving concrete change such as improved transportation in low-income communities and the birth of a new neighborhood association.

Students have learned firsthand about the political nature of organizational control and information management and about the tenacity of citizens dedicated to a cause. Most importantly, students report new insights in understanding social problems from citizens' perspectives and the mutuality of building social capital (Brzuzy & Segal, 1996; McNicoll, 1999). Through partnering with citizens to solve local problems, students experience the challenges and celebrations of how community members come together around an issue to make a difference. After the projects are over, some students have maintained relationships and become volunteers for the organizations with which they worked. Participatory approaches emphasized through these courses move students out of familiar social and professional networks to work with new, diverse groups of people and approaches to social change. A number of relationships formed through the actions described here paved the way for what have become excellent, mutually beneficial field placement opportunities for students to extend service to organizations including the Highlander, Solutions, a member-directed grassroots organization (Solutions, 2004), and the fair economy-focused Tennessee Industrial Renewal Network (TIRN, 2004). Finally, students have reported that the interactions deriving from these assignments have helped them, often for the first time, "get" the relevance of macro social work practice and participatory processes for their own practice.

### ***Research***

The case studies illustrate some of the research-related benefits of connecting to community through entities such as the CPC. There are important challenges for both university and community folk associated with collaborative research in neighborhoods and communities (Cordes, 1998; Rogge & Winfrey, 1998). First and foremost, the richness of community-based research and its potential to influence positive change with citizens have been, in the co-authors' experience, well worth undertaking

such challenges. Other research-related benefits have included expanded networks within and external to the university, grant opportunities and awards, access to data, and participation in national HUD/COPC grant application reviews. As pre-tenured faculty, community-based associations provided rich material for dissemination through publications and conference presentations (e.g., Rocha, 1999; Rocha, 2000; Rocha & Johnson, 1997; Rocha & Kabalka, 1999; Rogge, Hicks, Stucky, & Conner, 2000; Rogge & Rocha, 1999; Rogge & Winfrey, 1998). The challenges and benefits of enacting a true participatory practice model are inherent in these exchanges. As described in the TennCare project, what would have been most efficient for the community organization was not necessarily what best served immediate interests as a researcher, and vice versa. Researcher and organization members spend more time, engage in more training, and make more concessions than would be made with other, more "traditional" models.

Although no large scale funding was sought or emerged directly from either of the case studies described here, the CPC incorporated materials from both in its successful bid for renewal of the HUD Community Outreach Partnership Center grant that it received originally in 1995 (CPC, 2004). Both co-authors have infused participatory research processes into other large-scale proposals that reflect their substantive interests. The second author used participatory approaches to engage individuals in a National Institute of Mental Health grant to examine the effects of plant closure on former workers. The first author is developing the education and outreach component of an interdisciplinary proposal to the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences to study chemical contaminants in Tennessee's Chattanooga Creek (see Rogge, 1998).

Organizations such as the CPC provide important clearinghouse and gateway functions that can help the university realize the potential of university-community partnerships. In today's political and economic climate, the academy's acceptance of community-based research continues to be tenuous. CPC-type organizations and their associates must maintain strong leadership to secure resources and standing as "real" researchers. Strategies for broadening academic acceptance of participatory democracy approaches include training more faculty, students, and staff in participatory approaches; providing technical support for locating and securing funding; consulting with faculty and community members regarding project implementation and evaluation; and supporting the production of publications and conference presentations. Such strategies accommodate the best of participatory democracy, research methods and academic requirements. University-community

partnership centers can be valuable points of leverage, exchange, and resources for social workers and their constituents. Participatory processes can ground faculty and students in understanding the genuine application of empowerment and “kitten–lion” power differential between community and university.

### *Service*

Overall, a more systematic and deliberate plan to collect community outcome and impact data in short, intermediate, and longitudinal timeframes would have been useful in evaluating service. End-of-project evaluations by community partners and students, however, provide some indicators of the actual service outcomes experienced and perceived by community partners. Community partners report receiving help to achieve work in progress and on organizational work “wish lists” that needed extra person power to tackle. Community members used the hands-on support from students and faculty in a variety of community-generated and defined areas, such as garnering local media and state legislators’ attention and expanding their grant writing knowledge and skills. These areas included the implementation of an annual neighborhood health fair; the extension of public bus routes to underserved populations; changes in state spousal rape laws; the door-to-door collection, analysis, and presentation of neighbors’ voices on local issues; greater understanding of public data regarding law enforcement violence; and, in the context of local actors as international citizens, the collection of over 600 signatures advocating debt forgiveness for developing countries.

Certainly, not all service experiences have been uniformly positive from community partners’ perspectives. Defining common goals and managing different timeframes for action can be stressful and requires dedicated, mutual communication and flexibility. Community members (and students) at times experience frustration and delay in carrying out project activities as busy project team members try to coordinate schedules or as students move “up the learning curve” to a point at which they can contribute directly to the service aspects of the project. Additional learning over time has included how to help both community partners and students assess at the outset their mutual knowledge, skills, and interests to shape service project activities. Together, the two case studies describe a range of measurable and intangible service outcomes for the actors engaged in this university-community partnership. Community-based networks nurtured through MHHA and the CPC greatly enhanced the rapid mobilization of the Youth, Environment and Service (YES) Coalition,

also comprised of community and university representatives, which was invited to be lead entity for one component of Knoxville's Urban Empowerment Zone grant (PNI, 1998).

In this pre-tenure work, the co-authors sought to minimize the tenure-related risk of participating too extensively in community service by maximizing the research and teaching components. The CPC and University of Tennessee College of Social Work supported these efforts in important ways. Associations with the CPC resulted in service to the university community in roles on advisory teams for HUD/COPC grants, a university-wide Service Learning Team, the university-community CPC Advisory Council, and an Environmental Justice Research Team. CPC acknowledged faculty involvement in tenure-facilitating ways such as co-nominating the co-authors for a university award for excellence in teaching and leadership.

Two final points regarding the connection between CPC-type approaches to university-community linkage and academic service requirements should be noted. First, financial incentives for universities engaging in community partnering and participatory approaches should be implemented to lend greater weight and value to community service (Maclure, 1990; Reardon, 1998). Second, Sclove, Scammell, & Holland (1998) and others argue that, as participatory and other community-based research approaches become more widely accepted, universities should acknowledge, nurture, and publicize the academic value-added enhancement of community service through such research.

## ***CONCLUSION***

Associations with the CPC and community-based organizations continue to be sources of learning about similarities and differences between social work practice and participatory research processes; the nature of personal biases and perceptions; the complex history, culture, and dynamics of community; and the dedication, creativity, and wisdom with which citizens fight for justice. By working with the Community Partnership Center, students, community partners, and faculty continue to exchange learning about the strengths, limitations, and at times the debilitating influences of professional practice and language. When, for example, a community member gently reflects to an academically trained professional that "our community is like a woven cloth; we see the threads and spaces between, you only see the holes," one must rethink the power of familiar phrases such as "community needs assessment" (see also Minkler & Wallerstein, 2003; Ansley & Gaventa,

1997). As the science of community-based participatory research continues to evolve and inform, so must we advance in designing, implementing, and systematically evaluating university-community interactions and outcomes. Centers such as the CPC can help to create and sustain the crucial dynamic of trust in long-term, exchange-based university-community relationships. As conduits for student training about the warp and weave—the threads and the holes—in the cloth of community, there can be a high degree of fit among the activities of university-community partnership centers, the mission of social work education, and the wants and desires of communities. For these reasons, and with careful coordination and planning, they can be excellent vehicles through which to achieve important mutual benefits for actors in all aspects of the university-community relationship.

## REFERENCES

- Abatena, H. (1997). The significance of planned community participation in problem solving and developing a viable community capability. *Journal of Community Practice*, 4(2), 13-34.
- Ansley, F., & Gaventa, J. (1997). Researching for democracy & democratizing research. *Change*, 29(1), 46-53.
- Beaver, P.C. (1986). *Rural community in the Appalachian South*. Lexington, KY: University Press of Kentucky.
- Bembry, J.X. (1995). Project SUCCESS: A model for university-school community partnerships. *Social Work in Education*, 17(4), 256-262.
- Bringle, R.C., & Hatcher, J.A. (1996). Implementing service learning in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education*, 67(2), 221-239.
- Brzuzy, S., & Segal, E.A. (1996). Community-based research strategies for social work education. *Journal of Community Practice*, 3(1), 59-69.
- Cable, S. (1993). From fussin' to organizing: Individual and collective resistance at Yellow Creek. In. S.L. Fisher (Ed.) *Fighting back in Appalachia: Traditions of resistance and change* (pp. 69-84). Philadelphia, PA: Temple University.
- Casella, R. (2002). Where policy meets the pavement: Stages of public involvement in the prevention of school violence. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 15(3), 349-373.
- Castelloe, P., & Watson, T. (1999). Participatory education as a community practice model: A case example from a comprehensive Head Start program. *Journal of Community Practice*, 6(1), 71-89.
- Community Partnership Center. (2004). Retrieved February 9, 2004 from: <http://sunsite.utk.edu/cpc/>
- Community Shares. (2004). Retrieved February 8, 2004 from: <http://www.korner.org/cshares/>
- Cordes, C. (1998, September 18). Community-based projects help scholars build public support. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 45(17).

- Euster, G.L., & Weinbach, R.W. (1994). Faculty reward for community service activities: An update. *Journal of Social Work Education, 30*(3), 317-324.
- Fisher, S.L. (1993). *Fighting back in Appalachia: Traditions of resistance and change*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University.
- Freeman, E.M. (1996). Welfare reforms and services for children and families: Setting a new practice, research and policy agenda. *Social Work, 41*(5), 521-532.
- Friere, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Seabury.
- Gaventa, J., Morrissey, J., & Creed, V. (1998). *Rural empowerment zones/enterprise communities: Lessons from the learning initiative*. Knoxville, TN: University of Tennessee Community Partnership Center.
- Gaventa, J., Peters, J., & Bell, B. (Eds.). (1991). *We make the road by walking: Conversations between Paulo Freire and Myles Horton*. Philadelphia: Temple University.
- Harkavy, I., & Puckett, J.L. (1994). Lessons from Hull House for the contemporary urban university. *Social Service Review, 68*(3), 299-321.
- Highlander Research and Education Center. (2004). Retrieved February 8, 2004 from: <http://www.highlandercenter.org/>
- Interagency Working Group for Community-based Participatory Research. (2002). Retrieved February 14, 2003 at <http://www.niehs.nih.gov/translat/IWG/iwghome.htm>
- Israel, B., Schulz, A., Parker, E., & Becker, A. (1998). Review of community-based research: Assessing participatory approaches to improve public health. *Annual Review of Public Health, 19*, 173-202.
- Johnson, A.K. (2000). The Community Practice Pilot Project: Integrating methods, field, community assessment, and experiential learning. *Journal of Community Practice, 8*(4): 5-25.
- Livermore, M., & Midgley, J. (1998). The contribution of universities to building sustainable communities: The community university partnership. In M.D. Hoff (Ed.), *Sustainable community development: Case studies in economic, environmental and cultural revitalization* (pp. 123-138). Boca Raton, FL: CRC/Lewis Publishers.
- Maclure, R. (1990). The challenge of participatory research and its implications for funding agencies. *International Journal of Sociology, 10*(3), 1-21.
- McNicoll, P. (1999). Issues in teaching participatory action research. *Journal of Social Work Education, 35*(1), 51-62.
- Metzler, M.M. et al. (2003). Addressing urban health in Detroit, New York City, and Seattle through community-based participatory research partnerships. *American Journal of Public Health, 93*(5), 803-811.
- Minkler, M., & Wallerstein, D. (Eds.). (2003). *Community-based participatory research for health*. Indianapolis, IN: Jossey-Bass.
- Mizrahi, T., & Rosenthal, B.B. (2001). Complexities of coalition building: Leaders' successes, struggles, and solutions. *Social Work, 46*(1), 63-79.
- O'Fallon, L.R., & Dearry, A. (2002). Community based participatory research as a tool to advanced environmental health sciences. *Environmental Health Perspectives, 110*(2), 151-159.
- Partnership for Neighborhood Improvement. (1998). *Knoxville, Tennessee: Prospectus for empowerment*. Knoxville, TN: Partnership for Neighborhood Improvement.
- Reardon, K.M. (1998). Enhancing the capacity of community-based organizations in East St. Louis. *Journal of Planning Education and Research, 17*, 323-333.

- Rocha, C. (1999, March). *Quality of care issues under a Medicaid managed care program*. Paper presented at the APM Council on Social Work Education, San Francisco, California.
- Rocha, C. (2000). Evaluating the use of experiential teaching methods in an advanced policy practice course. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 36(1), 53-64.
- Rocha, C., & Johnson, A.K. (1997). Teaching family policy through a policy practice framework. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 33(3), 433-444.
- Rocha, C. & Kabalka, L. (1999). A comparison study of access to health care under a Medicaid managed care program. *Health and Social Work*, 24(3), 169-179.
- Rogge, M.E. (1998). Toxic risk, resilience and justice in Chattanooga. In M.D. Hoff (Ed.) *Sustainable community development: Case studies in economic, environmental and cultural revitalization* (pp. 105-122). Boca Raton, FL: CRC/Lewis Publishers.
- Rogge, M.E. & Rocha, C. (1999, March). *Community partnership centers: An important venue for social work education*. Paper presented at the APM Council on Social Work Education, San Francisco, CA.
- Rogge, M.E., & Winfrey, G. (1998, September). *Evaluating neighborhood-university partnerships: Building capacity together*. Paper presented at the National HUD Community Outreach Partnership Centers Cityscape Conference, East St. Louis, Illinois.
- Rogge, M.E., Hicks, S., Stucky, J., & Conner, T. (2000, January). *In the (HUD Empowerment) zone: Implementing a youth, environment and service program*. Paper presented at the Society for Social Work and Research, Charleston, SC.
- Sarri, R.C., & Sarri, C.M. (1992). Organizational and community change through participatory action. *Administration in Social Work*, 16(3/4), 99-122.
- Save Our Cumberland Mountains (SOCM). (2004). Retrieved February 12, 2004 from <http://korrnet.org/socm>
- Sclove, R.E., Scammell, M.L., & Holland, B. (1998). *Community-based research in the United States: An introductory reconnaissance, including twelve organizational case studies and comparison with the Dutch Science Shops and the mainstream American research system*. Amherst, MA: Loka Institute.
- Solutions. (2004). Retrieved February 8, 2004 from <http://www.korrnet.org/solutions/>
- Southern Empowerment Project. (2004). Retrieved February 8, 2004 from <http://www.southernempowerment.org/>
- Sullivan, M. and Kelly, J. (Eds.). (2001). *Collaborative Research: University and Community Partnership*. Washington, DC: American Public Health Association.
- Taylor R.R., Braveman B., & Hammel, J. (2004). Developing and evaluating community-based services through participatory action research: Two case examples. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 58(1), 73-82.
- Tennessee Industrial Renewal Network. (2004). Retrieved February 8, 2004 from <http://www.tirn.org/>
- Trickett, E.J. (1991). Paradigms and the research report: Making what actually happens a heuristic for theory. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 19, 365-370.

- University Partnerships Clearinghouse. (March, 1998). *Colleges & communities: Partners in urban revitalization. A report on the Community Outreach Partnership Centers Program.* Rockville, MD: University Partnerships Clearinghouse, HUD Office of University Partnerships.
- Weil, M., & Gamble, D.N. (1995). Community practice models. *The encyclopedia of social work* (19th Ed., 1: 577-93). Washington, DC: National Association of Social Workers.

# Social Justice in Library and Information Science

**Bharat Mehra**

*School of Information Sciences, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee, U.S.A.*

**Kevin S. Rioux**

*Division of Library and Information Science, St. John's University, Queens, New York, U.S.A.*

**Kendra S. Albright**

*School of Library and Information Science, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina, U.S.A.*

## Abstract

This entry presents an overview of social justice vocabularies, conceptualizations, and philosophies as they are represented in the history of library and information science (LIS) practice and research. Emphasis is placed on theoretical descriptions of both justice and social justice, and how these constructs are historically related to past and emerging trends in the LIS professions, with a main focus on social justice in regard to public library philosophy and practice in the United States. The entry also includes a discussion of information science research as it relates to the needs of disadvantaged populations.

## INTRODUCTION

Traditions of fairness, open inquiry, service, and humanism have long characterized the library and information science (LIS) professions. Indeed, these and other altruistic stances are professional mandates in the varied representations of the discipline, providing important distinctions to the LIS domain. Although so far little has been written specifically about social justice in an LIS context,<sup>[1-3]</sup> the term is emerging as a useful conceptual tool to describe and analyze these qualitative aspects of LIS practice and research.

Presented here is an overview of social justice vocabularies, conceptualizations, and philosophies as they are represented in the history of LIS practice and research. Emphasis is placed on theoretical descriptions of both “justice” and “social justice”, and how these constructs are historically related to past and emerging trends in the LIS professions, with a main focus on social justice in regard to public library philosophy and practice in the United States. The entry also includes a discussion of information science research as it relates to the needs of disadvantaged populations.

## CONCEPTUALIZING SOCIAL JUSTICE

“Justice” is often used as a legal term that describes the administration and maintenance of fair laws.<sup>[4]</sup> The term “social justice” expands the notion of justice, referring to an ideal in which justice is achieved in every aspect of society, not simply the legal sphere.<sup>[5]</sup> Thus, in a socially-

just society, individuals and groups are treated fairly and receive an equitable share of all of the benefits in society.

However, defining this “socially-just society” is problematic. Although social justice has been explored in philosophical, political, religious, and other contexts, no universally accepted, all-encompassing definition of “social justice” has emerged.

Historically, social justice has been concerned with the tensions between: 1) the individual’s right to choose her/his own ends; 2) conflicts with other individuals’ rights to make similar choices; and 3) the debate on individual rights vs. the good of the community. These tensions have existed in Western thought since the time of the classical Greeks.<sup>[6]</sup> For example, in his *Republic*, Plato reflected upon similar disputation in his model of justice intended to bring harmony to the city-state and establish rights for citizens.<sup>[7]</sup>

These notions of social justice were debated for hundreds of years (and continue to be), but the rights of individuals and the idea of the “common good” became particularly crucial issues during the vast social and political transformations of the nineteenth century. In the 1840s, the Thomistic Jesuit philosopher Luigi Taparelli coined the term “social justice” as a way to identify and conceptualize these tensions. He combined the words “social” and “justice” to refer to the intersecting tautology between the human rights of individuals and reconciling these rights to a society that is composed of groups.<sup>[8,9]</sup>

Taparelli’s concept of social justice soon became part of ecclesiastic discourse on how societies should adjust to the Industrial Revolution. In 1891, Pope Leo XIII, a student of Taparelli, published the encyclical *Rerum*

*Novarum* (On the Condition of the Working Class), a key document in the early development of social justice philosophy. In this work, the Pope defended the efforts of labor unions to protect the rights of individual workers, urged nation-states to establish just societies through the protection of individuals' rights, and philosophically positioned the Catholic Church to address social issues and advocate for policies that promote class harmony, a position it retains today.<sup>[10,11]</sup>

As the twentieth century progressed, the concept of social justice was incorporated into secular discourses on human rights, policy, and public moral philosophy. This move from the religious sphere to the secular emphasized the "social" aspects of the affects, relationships, behavior, actions and interactions between people in society.<sup>[12]</sup> Social justice, thus, directs attention to the tangible reality of the social context in analyzing the implications of legal justice and its impact on the relations between people in every dimension of life.<sup>[13]</sup>

Furthermore, social justice inherits the etymological and conceptual origin of justice in terms of providing crucial reasons shaping one's beliefs and actions. It incorporates both the abstract issues of ethics and morality (related to beliefs), as well as the concrete actions that impact justice in a social context.<sup>[14]</sup> Consequently, social justice initiatives have recently emphasized progressive actions to bring positive changes in society that implement the abstract elements of justice (or typologies as further described in the entry).<sup>[15,16]</sup> Thus, specific social justice actions are viewed favorably as "progressive" when they provided impetus to a creation and development of those social conditions or environments that embodied the actualization of justice.<sup>[17,18]</sup> Philosophers, scholars, and activists draw close connections between this deconstructed meaning of social justice in terms of actions for change and a critical reflective process that questions traditional understandings and scrutinize existing values, practices, ideological frameworks, and processes to promote a progressive society.<sup>[19–21]</sup> Application of social justice as a critical framework and progressive mode of analysis has further been cemented in the twenty-first century.<sup>[22,23]</sup>

Presently, there are several movements throughout the world that are working toward various social justice goals.<sup>[24]</sup> These study and analyze social justice in terms of its legal, political, economic, criminal, civil, philosophical, linguistic, religious, historical, and sociocultural dimensions.<sup>[25]</sup> Also, they examine how social justice goals are shaping relationships and social exchanges in varied institutional, organizational, governmental, educational, community-based, group-related, familial, person-to-person, and other formal and informal settings.<sup>[26]</sup> Among these movements are LIS-specific examples, including the Campaign for the World's Libraries, Librarians Without Borders, and ProLiteracy Worldwide.<sup>[27]</sup> From these analyses, several interrelated typologies of

justice and social justice have been developed. The following are particularly useful typologies when considering social justice aspects of LIS practice and research.

**Justice-as-Desert:** Justice-as-desert theory propounds giving a person what s/he justly deserves.<sup>[28]</sup> It is considered integral to natural law that presents an understanding of justice as part of a systemic process of consequences which result from any option, decision, or action.<sup>[29]</sup> Justice-as-desert holds that justice provides individuals or groups with a consequence (e.g., goods, resources, etc.) that they deserve, merit, or are sanctioned to receive in society.<sup>[30]</sup>

**Egalitarianism/Equity:** Egalitarianism refers to the equal distribution of resources.<sup>[31]</sup> Equity enriches the concept of egalitarianism by considering political, economic, social, and cultural developments in society, and addresses limitations of treating all as equals without considering their historical or individual contexts that may lead to injustice and unfairness.<sup>[32]</sup>

**Utilitarianism:** The utilitarian perspective of justice favors the good of society over the good of the individual. Utilitarianism suggests that policies should maximize the welfare of the many, even if this results in the expense of an innocent few.<sup>[33]</sup>

**Distributive Justice:** Distributive justice refers to the appropriate distribution of resources, wealth, power, rewards, and respect among all or select stakeholders in a society.<sup>[34]</sup> This notion is based on theories of fairness, status, and right.<sup>[35]</sup>

**Justice-as-Fairness:** Justice-as-fairness presents the idea that societies must safeguard the rights of citizens based on rational and unbiased notions of fairness.<sup>[36]</sup> It was put forth by the American political philosopher John Rawls,<sup>[37]</sup> who asserts that fairness is based on principles of justice that: 1) ensure extensive and equal liberty; and 2) promote societal benefits to be arranged in such a way that the least disadvantaged persons obtain the greatest benefits possible.

Although justice and social justice theory are developed domains, LIS-specific social justice theory is in its infancy. Rarely is social justice explicitly articulated in LIS practice and research.<sup>[38]</sup> Yet ethical and moral imperatives have long been apparent in LIS.<sup>[39,40]</sup> The next section gives an overview of key social justice elements (i.e., fairness, humanism, individual rights, etc.) that have inhered within mainstream LIS constructs, practices, and research (e.g., intellectual freedom, service and diversity-related goals, community-based programs, etc.).<sup>[41,42]</sup> It is followed by a critique of mainstream LIS discourses within a social justice perspective that helps identify shortcomings and blind spots of the field. A critical point of view adds a deeper dimension of analysis that questions mainstream LIS ideologies and practices concerned with social justice values. Separating the two emphases in social justice and juxtaposing them provides for a stronger

and more balanced presentation of the issues. The former provides an understanding of the LIS professions in the United States in terms of their liberating role to seek social justice ideals in the services they developed for their various constituencies, while the latter presents an analysis in terms of a limited role of LIS professions to seek social justice outcomes in their work, constrained that they have been by curtailing sociopolitical, socioeconomic, and sociocultural circumstances during different times in their history.

The discussion presented in this entry on social justice elements in LIS and a critical analysis of the LIS professions from a social justice viewpoint includes only brief temporal snapshots in the history of LIS practice and research. An in-depth analysis of each historical moment and role of LIS is beyond the scope of this discussion since each time period and topic has been extensively addressed on its own terms; additionally, here the discussion is not meant to be all-encompassing in its extent and inclusion of all activities and roles of the LIS professions. The goal in this entry is to provide representational evidence to show the liberating and limited role of the LIS professions in addressing social justice criteria and impacts during various times.

The entry acknowledges that there have been multiple interpretations and meanings associated with the various times in the historical growth and development of the LIS professions in the United States. The intention here is to present one mode of analysis in discussing the liberating and limited role of the LIS professions to further a social justice agenda.

## SOCIAL JUSTICE ELEMENTS IN LIS

In the United States, the library has evolved in direct response to the existing social, political, economic, and cultural conditions during different times.<sup>[43]</sup> These conditions influenced all dimensions of library development, particularly in regard to the library's role in furthering social justice.<sup>[44]</sup> They have also contributed in defining libraries functionally as institutionalized organizers of world knowledge and service providers of information to meet the needs of all members in society.<sup>[45]</sup> Tracing these central functionalities in the library institutions' activities show a connection between library practice and social justice elements, for example, in providing information access and outreach to underserved populations that runs deep in the history of American librarianship.<sup>[46]</sup>

The nineteenth century saw the dependency of democracy on capitalism sow the seeds for social justice to meet the needs of educated workers and informed citizenry.<sup>[47]</sup> Though not entirely based on a "capitalist agenda," American public schools and libraries responded to the social expectations in providing expanded collections and services to meet the demands of these intertwining needs.<sup>[48]</sup>

The concept of social justice was not yet developed, yet principles of equality, justice, and fairness of service were espoused by libraries, even though they had little control over their own fate since they were a voluntary institution (i.e., people did not have to use them) and highly dependent on public financing.<sup>[49]</sup> An increasing pressure to provide free access to information in the early nineteenth century<sup>[50,51]</sup> solidified middle class sympathy for the library, contributing to an expanded social justice agenda. Additionally, tax-funded library development in the mid-1800s represented the following liberating roles to further social justice elements in library work:<sup>[52]</sup>

- Library facilitation of social justice activities promoted equity in literacy services, supported fairness in information access to the middle-class, and incorporated elements of a welfare state in expanding their services to cater to all segments of their communities;
- Increased marketing efforts by the public library as "people's universities" allowed opportunities for all to learn<sup>[53]</sup> and where immigrants could Americanize so they could find jobs;<sup>[54]</sup>
- A growth in the community's stake in the public library as a result of its tax investment<sup>[55]</sup> provided a regular income for the public library and helped in its growth as a community's center, cultural hub, and agent of social justice.<sup>[56-60]</sup>

Important milestones and events for libraries in 1876 (e.g., founding of the American Library Association (ALA) and publishing of the *Library Journal*, first edition of the "Dewey Decimal Classification," and the U.S. Bureau of Education's "1876 Report" entitled *Public Libraries in the United States of America: Their History, Condition, and Management*)<sup>[61,62]</sup> provided liberating possibilities for social justice activities resulting from the library's increased power base in a consolidated professional body and development of organization and representation tools to meet the information needs of people on society's margins.<sup>[63]</sup>

During the period between 1890 and 1925, when semi-rural, small villages began growing into metropolises of more than one million inhabitants, libraries represented hope in the future and trust in progress.<sup>[64]</sup> Free public library service promoted literacy<sup>[65]</sup> and the development of traveling libraries actualized the library's mission to provide service to far-flung immigrant communities.<sup>[66,67]</sup> For example, between 1896 and 1914, Lutie Stearns, a founder of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, campaigned extensively engaging in lobbying amongst small-time elites (even though such political expediencies sometimes conflicted with her democratic ideals) for the establishment of public and traveling libraries.<sup>[68]</sup> It was such efforts and the vision motivating the actions that facilitated and consolidated the library's role as an information provider.<sup>[69]</sup>

Expansion of free library services and construction of library buildings with expanding collections, under the generous bequests of industry leaders and wealthy, civic minded men like Samuel J. Tilden, Andrew Carnegie, and others, provided yet another opportunity for the library to further its social ideals in reaching out to a greater number of people.<sup>[70]</sup> The generosity of industry leaders allowed libraries to extend their services in contribution towards the overall welfare of society (e.g., Carnegie libraries that were developed around the country) by creating jobs and furthering the economic wheels of a capitalist society, with its demanding appetite for a consuming middle class and literate working class.<sup>[71]</sup>

Martin<sup>[72]</sup> documents a rich and extensive history of the public library in the United States during the twentieth century as a reflection of prevailing sociocultural conditions during various times. For example, similar to the earlier periods, public library service in the twentieth century responded to a focused capitalist agenda to create a middle class with informed decision-making abilities, who could engage in productive work and contribute economically as a market segment owing to their significant buying potential.<sup>[73,74]</sup> Libraries played a significant role by portraying themselves as socially uplifting agents, developing library services to meet the needs of European immigrant populations during the foundation years (1900–1917), or during the era of depression and war (1930–1945), and afterwards, where the focus was on economic recovery and revitalization. During these times, the library provided liberating directions for social justice outcomes in nurturing just and fair ideals, expanding the base of impact to include outreach populations, creating a service-based ethics in the profession, and forging partnerships with community-based social justice agencies towards common goals.<sup>[75]</sup>

The twentieth century saw public libraries explore models and changing service philosophies to their patrons and user communities through lifelong learning, support for democracy and intellectual freedom.<sup>[76]</sup> In the early 1900s adult services in public libraries were part of an extension and outreach movement and later the national adult education program during 1920–1930<sup>[77]</sup> that extended the idea of library service to different underserved populations with “active transformations” of their collections, services, resources, and staff “into programmatic responses relevant to community served.”<sup>[78]</sup> A series of essays in honor of Margaret E. Monroe identified the four basic adult services functions to include information, guidance, instruction, and stimulation,<sup>[79]</sup> the last considered “a library’s response to community needs along the continuum from highly innovative to extensions of existing services.”<sup>[80]</sup>

There were many library efforts to reach out to the poor and immigrant populations during the last century.<sup>[81,82]</sup> While the record is certainly mixed in terms of effectiveness of service, and not as extensive as one would hope,

several noteworthy efforts can be considered.<sup>[83]</sup> In *Libraries, Immigrants, and the American Experience*, Plummer Alston Jones Jr.<sup>[84]</sup> presents a thoughtful and well-documented volume on the historical interaction between American public libraries and immigrant communities from 1876 when the ALA was founded through 1948, when the ALA Committee on Work with the Foreign Born disbanded. Phyllis Dain<sup>[85]</sup> took issue with earlier critiques of libraries that essentially viewed them to be a creation of the social elite and recognized that a variety of people, including immigrants, believed in the value of reading and use of libraries. Gratia Countryman who led the Minneapolis Public Library from 1904–1936 and her contemporaries believed in social justice ideals making the library more user-friendly and open to all of the area’s residents, regardless of age or economic position.<sup>[86]</sup> Similarly, many “revolting librarians” of the 1960–1970 era shared a similar faith in social justice ideals and reflective resistance towards expanding library service provision beyond its complacent boundaries and scope of activities.<sup>[87]</sup>

Historians of American librarianship (as well as in what later became identified as a related discipline of information science with the advent of computers during the closing half of the twentieth century) have traced its philosophical, theoretical, and sociohistorical roots to reveal directions for its future development.<sup>[88]</sup> These included social justice activities and initiatives, even though the rhetoric and vocabulary of “social justice” had not been significantly incorporated into the mainstream profession. For example, Shera’s (1903–1982) work on the foundational principles of librarianship, the library’s role in promoting literacy and its relationship to democracy, and identification of connections between librarianship, documentation, and information science have had a profound influence on the “conceptualization of public library service by the profession’s leaders as it has been transmitted and reconfigured for each changing era.”<sup>[89]</sup> Similarly, Ditzion<sup>[54]</sup> saw the library as an advocate for democracy and education to develop a reflective and engaged citizenry capable of sound decision-making and participation in a democratic life.<sup>[90]</sup>

The twentieth century saw a number of policy reports and guidelines published by the ALA and others that present ideals, professional tools, directions, bench marks, and codes of ethics to apply in current library practice on how to have a greater impact on the community in terms of a social justice discourse. For example, the *National Plan for Public Library Service*<sup>[91]</sup> developed and implemented by the ALA’s Committee on Post-War Planning during 1947–1952, focused on the Public Library Inquiry, a professional legitimizing effort that served as an “exercise in identity creation that relied heavily on the role of the public library as a sustaining contributor to American democracy.”<sup>[92]</sup> Post World War II library support programs (e.g., ALA’s War on Poverty) during the

next two decades helped strengthen professional interlibrary relationships and build national consensus on library service conceptualization and outreach mission definitions.<sup>[93]</sup> Several ALA publications during this time played a major role in shaping library ideals as rhetorical upholders of the downtrodden, leading to extended dialogue, passionate discussion, and clarity in defining the library's perceived activism and its mission of serving poor people.<sup>[94,95]</sup>

Similarly, since 1968 when the ALA established a Coordinating Committee on Service to the Disadvantaged (that eventually became the Office for Literacy and Outreach Services), there have been several professional forums that were initiated to represent the needs of the underserved (e.g., the Subcommittee on Library Services to Poor and Homeless People, the Social Responsibilities Round Table (SRRT) and its Task Force on Hunger, Homelessness and Poverty, etc.).

Recently, there have also been non-mainstream efforts to return to the heritage of "traditional library service,"<sup>[96]</sup> serving the needs of diverse library users,<sup>[97]</sup> developing tangible measures of the impact of library and information services<sup>[98]</sup> on the lives of the disenfranchised, and "learning from the voices of the customers, the staff, the processes, and the organization."<sup>[99]</sup> These and other similar shifts have allowed for recent experimentation and implementation of progressive library activities targeted towards the needs of various disenfranchised populations based on race,<sup>[100,101]</sup> ethnicity,<sup>[102,103]</sup> class,<sup>[104,105]</sup> gender,<sup>[106,107]</sup> disability,<sup>[108,109]</sup> sexual orientation,<sup>[110,111]</sup> age,<sup>[112,113]</sup> and other variables associated with institutionalized social exclusion. It has provided for an appreciation of the convergence in ideals, motivations, and pragmatism in public library service delivery and its philosophy to meet the needs of specific communities based on local library planning and decision making.<sup>[114]</sup>

The lessons from the past are today providing libraries directions to develop a new approach that recognizes: 1) importance of outcome-based, socially relevant evaluation methods in assessing library services;<sup>[115]</sup> 2) value of local experiences and ontologies and their representation into formalized organizational tools of information; and 3) necessity in building equitable partnering efforts with disenfranchised constituencies.<sup>[116]</sup> This has been, in part, a result of external pressures from federal, regional, and local funding agencies (e.g., the National Institute for Museum and Library Services), that have incorporated the social relevancy of library projects as strict criteria in their missions and guidelines for grant proposals.<sup>[117]</sup> The funding of library projects with strong social relevance, in conjunction with leadership initiatives such as those spearheaded by the U.S. National Commission on Libraries and Information Science (NCLIS), are providing recognition and representation of the social value of libraries and librarians in circles of power. There is increasing external political expectations and pressure to provide the

necessary support for libraries to expand their collections, services, programs, and other creative outreach partnering efforts for disadvantaged and underserved constituencies. This has called for the library's expanded role in social justice efforts to equalize power differentials in society and partner with underserved populations as equals who bring a change in their own lives with support from others (such as LIS professionals).<sup>[118,119]</sup>

Moreover, recent Library 2.0 efforts in the twenty-first century for information professionals to respond to constant contemporary changes by purposeful involvement of users in the design and evaluation of library and information services<sup>[120,121]</sup> has also provided some opportunities to expand the social justice missions in LIS work.<sup>[122]</sup> For example, Library 2.0 developments in the design of specific services, policies, procedures, programs, and technologies has required adopting participatory, collaborative and social applications via the Internet.<sup>[123]</sup> This has furthered social justice elements of building capacity, providing value to individual experiences, knowledge, and contributions, and thereby, shifted an earlier biased library service mission of helping people to "helping people help themselves."<sup>[38]</sup> It has resulted in efforts to equalize past power dynamics between the library and the library user and provided positive changes in public perception about the library, thereby increasing its role and function in society.<sup>[124]</sup>

## CRITIQUE OF SOCIAL JUSTICE IN LIS

Libraries today are considered notable models of service to local and recently global communities, and are expected to be unequivocally immersed in pursuing this dictum.<sup>[125]</sup> But the implications of such a position for libraries, in terms of a social justice agenda, are not quite clear. LIS and its professional service orientation can be considered from a social justice perspective, specifically by examining the underlying power vested in libraries that has been historically perpetuated through a social contract in the American public sphere.<sup>[126]</sup>

The assumption is that as a public institution dedicated to represent diverse social constituencies, and because of its role to provide information based on the needs of those it characterizes as "marginalized," outside society's acceptable domains, the library acquires unstated power because of this mandate to serve.<sup>[127]</sup> For it is the library (as defined to include the institution and its library board, library director, and library staff) that decides its patrons or customer base and their information needs.<sup>[128]</sup> It is the library that plays the role of gatekeeper and determines what resources and information to include as a part of its collections, services, and programs.<sup>[129]</sup> This has developed a reputation of the traditional American library as an advocate of justice and a provider to the information needs of the underprivileged, based however, on

sometimes biased conceptualizations and limited understanding of people on society's margins solely in terms of their deficient characteristics.<sup>[130]</sup> Historically, as discussed in the following critique, such unfair library practices were not always effective in changing the status quo, and instead, may have sometimes continued to perpetuate gaps between the haves and have-nots.<sup>[131]</sup>

Libraries as institutions that advance the “dominant culture’s ideology” and symbolize places for the privileged and select scholarly<sup>[132]</sup> can be traced back to the first “subscription library,” established in 1731 by Benjamin Franklin and open to all who could afford the fees.<sup>[133]</sup> The nineteenth century provided an environment that offered a limited role for libraries to meet social justice criteria in their work, constrained that libraries were by curtailing sociopolitical, socioeconomic, and sociocultural circumstances of the times.<sup>[134]</sup> For example, the expanded collections and services in libraries of the times were initially limited to only those who had the money to access them.<sup>[148]</sup> Owing to fee-structure, slavery, and a limited role of women in society, access to information was based on class and income, and subsequently on race and gender, amongst other variables.<sup>[135]</sup> The increasing pressure to provide free access to information in the early nineteenth century<sup>[50,51]</sup> and the solidified middle class sympathy for the library resulted in little connection with the needs of people on the ethnic margins (i.e., the indigenous Natives, Blacks and other people of color, and women from the lower middle classes).<sup>[136]</sup> Additionally, tax-funded library development in the mid-1800s to meet the whims and demands of the privileged classes<sup>[137]</sup> represented the following limited role for libraries to further social justice:

- Library dependency on the public tax monies provided greater power to the growing middle class white population that had control over the library budget and became the guardians and dictators of the library’s policies, programs, and collections,<sup>[138]</sup> leading to a minimal focus of library services to serve the information needs of others;<sup>[139]</sup>
- It led to increased library efforts in aggressive public relations and expansion in their services catering primarily to appease the largest and the loudest in the community since libraries perceived them to have the greatest influence over the allocation of tax revenues.<sup>[140]</sup>

Further, the important milestones and events for libraries in 1876 led to limiting inward-looking professional trends and practices of library leaders of the time to deliberately disengage with their local constituencies that has generated negative public criticism owing to their lack of perceived currency and relevance to everyday lives.<sup>[141]</sup> At the same time, the concept of “the public” in the public library of 1876 was understood as anything that was not in strictly private hands, open to any segment of the population.<sup>[142]</sup> A closer exploration of the culture and history during this

time suggests that the seemingly democratic notion of the “public” was more rhetorical rather than demonstrated action.<sup>[143]</sup> The “public” in public libraries was largely homogenized and “imagined”<sup>[144]</sup> to represent forces of economic, urban, and cultural development,<sup>[145]</sup> resonating with the religious beliefs and image of the majority.<sup>[146]</sup> Such a critique of the public library has been presented by Michael H. Harris and Gerard Spiegler,<sup>[147]</sup> who have asserted that Edward Everett and George Ticknor, advocates for the establishment of the Boston Public Library in 1852, were “elitists who supported libraries and education as one way of raising up an ‘aristocracy of talent and intellect’ which would provide benign and enlightened leadership to the masses.” This image of some public libraries of the time reflected the profession’s own marketing agenda to retain favor with the growing middle class in order to hold-on to its tax support.<sup>[148]</sup>

Historical research indicates that women on the public library frontier were its strong backbone<sup>[149]</sup> actively involved in raising funds, lobbying for tax-support, and implementing outreach programs.<sup>[150]</sup> Yet, as in many levels of society at the time, women’s role to improve society through libraries and their equal representation in the library was hampered by their lack of voting rights and status as second-class citizens.<sup>[151,152]</sup> It often led to an unfair position for women librarians, for example, even as late as 1903, when Gratia Countryman in Minneapolis became the first woman to head a major public library, her salary was set at \$2000—\$1000 less than her predecessor who was a white male.<sup>[153]</sup>

In addition, public library service to racial and ethnic minorities was far from equitable levels since these populations were quite “invisible” and faced many barriers to becoming recognized as part of the “public” domain that the library claimed to serve during this time.<sup>[154]</sup> For example, unequal and biased trends in public library services to non-white communities would continue till the 1960s shaped as they were by issues emerging from racial segregation and prejudice in their struggles for fair distribution, quality, quantity, and the development of services, collections, and availability of resources and opportunities.<sup>[155,156]</sup>

The funding and support of libraries by wealthy industrialists and capitalists had definite implications for improved service, accelerated progress, and library development;<sup>[157]</sup> it also resulted in the economic growth of the middle class that contributed in filling the pockets of the minuscule upper classes, who continued to grow richer and richer, strengthening their social control on the capital investments and industries, and thereby maintaining the status quo of widening socioeconomic gaps between those who had power and those who did not.<sup>[158]</sup> As Andrew Carnegie himself wrote, that he was motivated in part by the idea of public libraries making “men not violent revolutionists, but cautious evolutionists; not destroyers but cautious improvers.”<sup>[159]</sup> A possibly well-intentioned and

pacifist idea, though it makes one ponder if library support had alternatively come also from the government (via increased taxes from the upper classes) and federal, state, and local funding, instead of (or in addition to) donations from wealthy benefactors such as Carnegie and others, would libraries have been as dependent on the capitalists' agenda to maintain the status quo and social order and as likely to promote the goals of these elites?<sup>[160]</sup> Instead, we might have possibly witnessed more interaction between libraries and marginalized communities, shaping social change and social justice instead of taking a primarily reactive role.<sup>[161,162]</sup> But obviously, such a "what if" question may seem irrelevant today since library development did not historically go down that route, yet, it does call for challenging a purist interpretation of the noble motives and philanthropic activities of American capitalists in their support of public libraries during the times.

Similarly, parallel to earlier times, public library service in the twentieth century responded to (and was limited by) focused and encompassing capitalist motives that crippled democracy and developed an impotent middle class whose informed decision-making abilities, participation in productive work, and buying potential contributed in making the upper classes wealthy and widening the social, cultural, and economic gaps in society.<sup>[73,74]</sup> Embedded in a possibly unintentional hegemonic orchestration of profit-making for their wealthy benefactors, at this time, the development of libraries was limited in their inability to become truly culturally responsive agents.

Moreover, the vision of the library's role as an information provider was possibly facilitated without questioning the ingrained power imbalance between the library as provider and the disenfranchised population as the needy who required betterment and uplifting.<sup>[163]</sup> In this case, the community was viewed solely in terms of a unidirectional impact of library services on the community's knowledge-deficient and information-impoverished conditions.<sup>[164]</sup> This perspective assumed an active role for librarians and a passive role for the community as an inert receptor and consumer of library services. The activeness of libraries and the passiveness of a homogenized, deficient community perpetuated the profession's image of striving to improve the conditions of the needy members in society; helping those who were completely passive and helpless to better their own conditions. This perspective partially led to a failure of public libraries to significantly engage with a majority of disenfranchised Americans to actually use the libraries and adequately respond to new cultural and intellectual challenges of the day.<sup>[165]</sup> Contemporary trends recognize the limitations of past service-based ethics in the profession (e.g., biased language constructs reflecting imbalanced power dynamics) and are moving towards adopting more progressive concepts and practices (e.g., community engagement, community-based action research, collaborative learning, etc.).<sup>[166]</sup>

Historians of American librarianship have drawn flack in recent years for not taking a more aggressive stance to further social justice in their identification of future directions for the LIS professions in order to overcome the debilitating political and economic circumstances historically presented by a capitalist society. For example, critics of Shera's work identify important limitations in applying some of Shera's ideas into actual practice and creating library activities that could shape social conditions in the community and impact the everyday lives of disenfranchised people in meaningful ways.<sup>[167]</sup> Similarly, not only did Ditzion overlook the significance of key library developments including youth services librarianship,<sup>[168]</sup> he also ignored "long-standing gender stratification in the profession" (similar to other professions).<sup>[169]</sup> Also, Ditzion's view of librarianship as democratic agents limited the efforts by libraries to affect social change beyond the profession's self-conceptualization as a knowledge storehouse and information provider.<sup>[170]</sup>

Further, the post World War II library support programs and publications during the next two decades (e.g., ALA's War on Poverty) continued to remain essentially within the limited sphere of the national association, having little or no impact outside of library circles in local communities and at political and legislative levels of decision-making. For example, the *National Plan for Public Library Service* and other such subsequent efforts further perpetuated library efforts away from a social justice perspective in recommending public libraries to minimize their role among the lay public, and instead, focus more on gaining favor of only the most powerful opinion leaders in the community,<sup>[171,172]</sup> that invariably resulted in the possible exclusion of disenfranchised minorities and those outside the influence of library domains from receiving services.<sup>[173]</sup> An important note to make is that though the profession never completely endorsed this view nor was this strategy formally adopted by the ALA,<sup>[174]</sup> better services for opinion leaders is a de facto practice in many libraries (e.g., reflected in the contemporary practice of selective dissemination of information that focuses on providing the "right" information to important leaders and others in the community based on a study of their interests and topics of concern to gain their favor).<sup>[175]</sup>

Much professional energy and resources in the ALA were applied in dialogue and publications,<sup>[176]</sup> with little action that would affect any real change in the marginalized lives of the poor and the underserved.<sup>[177]</sup> Additionally, past ALA and other library initiatives have been criticized for their top-down focus on library leaders and administration, rather than facilitate any action for social change and extend involvement of others beyond "mainstream middle-class practices and values."<sup>[132]</sup> Similarly, ALA's efforts since the 1970s have encouraged professional discussion and conceptualization, identified national standards as "one fit" for all,<sup>[178]</sup> and built networks for librarians, strengthening ties within the "inner circle" of the privileged group,

though it is debatable if in the past there have been any significant inroads beyond these bureaucratic and administrative policies and procedures.<sup>[179]</sup> For professional library avenues to represent dialogue about the underserved have included only very limited outside (beyond the profession) community members from the marginalized populations being discussed.<sup>[180]</sup> American Library Association's role at local community levels has thus been limited, and ALA representation and participation in external efforts at national, regional, and local levels in legal, policy, and political avenues has also been minimal.<sup>[181]</sup>

From a critical perspective, ALA's activities reflect its mission that focuses on efforts "to provide leadership for the development, promotion, and improvement of library and information services and the profession of librarianship in order to enhance learning and ensure access to information for all."<sup>[182]</sup> It has essentially been concerned with solely professional networking, internal mobilization, and creating limited political and public representation.<sup>[183]</sup> Contemporary democratic expectations to develop greater professional relevance of LIS warrant an expanded mission of ALA to include a proactive focus on outcome-based, community-level efforts that promote active participation of minorities and help develop stronger impacts on local communities.<sup>[81,82]</sup>

Over the years, there have been internal philosophical struggles in the ALA and the Public Library Association (PLA) towards realization for a process "that would reflect local community needs."<sup>[180]</sup> Lack of consolidated strategy, cultural inertia, and administrative lethargy have limited library professionals in only looking at the user in the life of the library, rather than the library in the life of the user.<sup>[184]</sup> Since the 1980s though the PLA decided to move toward a community-oriented, user-focused planning process for development of public library services,<sup>[185]</sup> and the first version of its planning manual recommended extensive needs assessment and community analysis; several iterations have emerged since but the goal is still (at least in principle) to establish guidelines to develop a best match between services and the localized needs of all members in different communities.<sup>[186]</sup>

As a result of a lack of consensus, however, libraries have been struggling to mobilize public opinion of library relevance and credibility for users, and to find ways to enable local communities to build and sustain capacity.<sup>[187]</sup> The recent non-mainstream efforts of "traditional library service" to serve the needs of diverse library users have also been partially successful, however, because they followed the traditional models of library service provision that did not go beyond knowledge organizers and information providers and struggled with classism and elitism "that pervade the library profession."<sup>[179]</sup>

Historical developments in information science research in the United States with its deep roots (philosophical, symbolic, and tangible) in librarianship<sup>[188]</sup> have incrementally allowed for an integration of social justice

imperatives in the LIS professions though they also inherited a limited (and often slow) tendency to shape social justice outcomes.

Pioneers in the field of documentation, a precursor to information science, maintained a humanistic view in their work.<sup>[189]</sup> Paul Otlet, a central figure in the early documentation movement and his colleague Henri Lafontaine worked until the mid-1930s in developing universal organization schemes and storage and representational systems (e.g., library classification and library catalogs), promoting the notion that knowledge should be made available to anyone who needed it, and that organization and access to world knowledge could be integrated into efforts to promote a more peaceful and just world.<sup>[190,191]</sup>

Over the years, information organization and classification have been recognized and critiqued as tools for including and excluding, for validating and univeralization and reinforcing a dominant worldview, on the one hand, and for silencing and their transgressive potential to represent marginalized knowledge domains, on the other.<sup>[192,193]</sup> As a socially constructed tool, classification imbues power in its role as the "scaffolding of information infrastructures" to develop a systematic (though invariably biased) process of categorization and creating like and unlike groupings for understanding and retrieval purposes.<sup>[194,195]</sup> From the International Classification of Diseases, Library of Congress Subject Headings, Dewey Decimal Classification, to the Nursing Interventions Classification and race classification under apartheid in South Africa, amongst other examples, all categories and standards involve some form of bias and partiality. In order to further social justice ideals of fairness and equity in knowledge representation and information practice, the "knowing community" of LIS must continue to question the dominance of hierarchy and linearity, adopt fuzzy logic and web-like structures (instead of the pyramid), provide multi-lingual and metathesauri interfaces between standards, and augment traditional standards via cluster analysis to "enhance the situatedness of syntagmatic relationships," amongst other strategies, to rectify imbalances and better serve a diversity of users.<sup>[196]</sup>

A focus on access to information and information dissemination in the early twentieth century provided a conceptual opportunity and rhetorical space to question and philosophize the nature of LIS professions at a later date and to integrate social justice elements of fairness and equality for all.<sup>[197]</sup> At that time, however, such trends provided a broad, sweeping, and ambiguous goal of information access, leading to an unsatisfactory systems-centered approach for the design of information systems and services that was eventually found to be limited in meeting the information needs of users, especially in the scientific communities.<sup>[198]</sup> A particular focus was placed on the adaptation of users to information systems outputs rather than creating information systems that were user-driven.

Information was seen as objective, and users were seen as simple processors of information.

With the goal to improve information services,<sup>[199]</sup> the emergence of the user-centered paradigm in the 1980s as an alternative (or addition) to system-focused research and study of human information behavior in developing more effective and usable computer systems in information sciences<sup>[200]</sup> provided a shift in making people the focus of study, instead of systems and technologies. This had an indirect bearing upon social justice agendas. For example, understanding the user's perspective in information seeking and use<sup>[201,202]</sup> and in processes associated with information seeking, information gathering, and information giving,<sup>[203]</sup> the concept of usefulness in the assessment of information services<sup>[204]</sup> and the importance of psychological relevance and other relevance studies,<sup>[205]</sup> all represented fairness in social justice by acknowledging the existence of the human being involved in the interaction with systems and services, even if people were considered as abstract entities from a purely theoretical perspective.

Similarly, research on human interactions with information systems provided another area where a focus on user's problems in the process of information seeking situations,<sup>[206–208]</sup> and the user's evaluation of usefulness of information for resolution of the problem,<sup>[209–211]</sup> had limited relevance to social justice that does not narrowly view just one "problem" that LIS users face in their lives, as conceptualized and addressed in such work. A social justice construct regards the entire experience of users (including their economic, political, social, and cultural realities that limit their access and effective use of technology and information) as a "problem" (if one identifies the meaning of the word as a barrier or hindrance) to their well-being, advancement, and change in social status.<sup>[212,213]</sup> In such a context, evaluation of information provision must be taken into account in terms of meaningful integration and use of information within people's entire experience. Strategies to measure the effectiveness of information provision, and the usefulness of information resources and support mechanisms, must not identify them as isolated avenues, but their design, implementation and practice need to be expanded via studying their impacts in people's entirety of experiences in order to reflect what is really meaningful to people using them and how does it change their status and position in society.<sup>[214]</sup>

An important idea about focus on the personal meanings that users seek from the information<sup>[215–217]</sup> is relevant to social justice in terms of recognizing the personal experiences of users in their meaning-making process and decision-making. Here too, social justice translates the idea from a narrow application of meanings from "information" to making sense of meanings in relation to the entire experience of learning to further users' power and status in society.

The notion of construction of learning in information seeking as a process, and its dynamic nature, has been

proposed in other prior work such as the analogous state of knowledge hypothesis,<sup>[218]</sup> where the researchers lay out the process of the user's information seeking from identification of the user's problem to finding a solution that satisfies the information need and solves the information problem. In situations where there is not a specific problem at hand, but the entire nature of experience has to be understood and negotiated (to improve one's "disenfranchised" sense of being), a broader framework is called for, to reflect the nuances and reality in the different and larger situation. Similarly, Taylor's significant work on information use environments<sup>[219]</sup> and levels of information need in terms of visceral (actual but unexpressed), conscious (internal description in the brain), formalized (formal statement of need), and compromised (presented question or query) also provide limited understanding of constructive process and learning experiences in its focused application of information seeking that bypasses social justice outcomes of larger economic/political/social changes in people's lives.

As noted by Case,<sup>[220]</sup> several researchers assert that understanding individual users' information needs is among the keys to improving information systems. Information needs are often described as being initiated by people's attempts to address everyday challenges or resolve uncertainties or knowledge insufficiencies. For example, Dervin<sup>[201,202]</sup> asserts that information behavior begins when a user acknowledges a gap in her/his knowledge of how to deal with a life situation. Marchionini<sup>[221]</sup> positions information seeking as a problem-solving activity "a process driven by life itself" (p. 128). Krikelas<sup>[203]</sup> describes information need as the general recognition of the existence of uncertainty. Understanding the cognitive processes in which users engage has also been recognized as an important way to improve information systems.<sup>[222–224]</sup> One of the most widely used frameworks for studying cognitive processes associated with information seeking and use is Dervin's Sense-Making approach. Sense-Making focuses on the notion that individuals who have information needs experience a cognitive gap that prevents them from making sense of a particular life situation, and they seek information to fill that gap. However, during this information search, an appropriate course of action is not indicated, and the individual is placed in a situation where "making sense fails." As the user collects information in the gap phase, s/he learns more about her/his situation, becomes better at interpreting it, and then is able to select a course of action or behavior that helps her/his make sense of the particular situation.<sup>[201,202]</sup> Dervin's sense-making triangle of situation-gap-use as a perspective to understand user's information seeking and use processes provides an opening view of social justice in focusing on the user and acknowledging peoples' information use to "make sense" of a "gap" in a specific "situation" that the user experiences.<sup>[225,226]</sup> Further, social justice must involve collecting information that addresses not one particular "gap" in a situation, but

gaps in the entire reality of experience based on lack of knowledge and power to change one's state of being.

Pettigrew et al.<sup>[227]</sup> indicate that since the early 1990s, a key characteristic of information behavior research is a body of theory that emphasizes contextual interplays of cognitive, social, cultural, organizational, affective, and linguistic factors of information behavior. They assert that this research stream supports the notion that information behavior phenomena are part of the human communicative process. Study of context in information science research provided a recognition of the role of situational dynamics in the processes associated with people's interactions with various information systems and technologies.<sup>[228]</sup> Such work, important from a theoretical and descriptive point of view, has indirect bearing on social justice agendas in its identification of user's learning of information systems and services as a complex mechanism where individuals go through a dynamic process in learning about a particular subject or "becoming informed." It represents fairness by acknowledging the existence of the human being involved in the human-computer interaction.

Nahl<sup>[229]</sup> argues that cognitive processes are strongly connected to the emotions that users experience as they use information. Identifying an emerging affective paradigm in information behavior research, the researcher goes on to assert that given how deeply humans feel in response to information in newspapers, books, libraries, Internet, etc., it is critical that LIS professionals understand these emotions in order to maintain and improve information services for their constituencies. Affective aspects of information behavior are also often linked to Kuhlthau's information seeking process model (ISP), which describes the triad of thoughts, actions, and feelings associated with information seeking and use.<sup>[230]</sup> There is need to further this model via studying the role of the "classic triad" in the lives of "marginalized" and the information poor to examine how they negotiate and change their realities to represent social justice outcomes.

A wide variety of information behavior context studies have been published in recent years that are relevant to examinations of social justice in LIS. For example, Spink et al.<sup>[231]</sup> discussed word-of-mouth information seeking within multi-member, low-income African-American households. Hersberger<sup>[232]</sup> examined whether economically poor people are information poor. Chatman<sup>[104,105,233,234]</sup> explored the information needs, seeking, and use of under-served groups such as female prisoners and poor rural residents. Saumure and Given<sup>[235]</sup> investigated the information behavior of visually impaired students. Bilal<sup>[236]</sup> reported on how children used online search engines, and Mehra<sup>[237,238]</sup> examined the cross-cultural learning process of international students to propose "two-way" learning outcomes where both international students and American academicians/students learn from each other.

Broader contexts have also attracted the attention of LIS researchers. Van Dijk explored how information

divides are emerging within and across demographic groups in all societies.<sup>[239]</sup> Others position librarianship as a tool of economic and social change in the developing world.<sup>[240–242]</sup> Seidelin and Jensen<sup>[243]</sup> presented frameworks for how libraries can be involved in efforts to minimize HIV/AIDS, poverty, and corruption.

These are but a few areas in current LIS research that reflect social justice philosophies, methods, and/or results. In the years to come, LIS professions will continue to engage in more of such work that use social justice parameters to frame, apply, and represent needs of underserved populations in society towards the design and development of fair, equitable, and just information systems and services that are meaningful to disempowered people and empower them to promote proactive changes in their lives.

## CONCLUSION

Historically, a strong emphasis on humanism and fairness in both library practice and LIS research suggests that the first formative stages of a theory of social justice in LIS are clearly present. Future directions will include greater development of LIS-specific social justice theory in order to promote active and efficacious social justice agendas in the profession. We are seeing first steps in this direction as reflected in wide-ranging efforts to develop, test, and apply new concepts, terminologies, and methods (e.g., community informatics, community engagement, participatory action research, to name a few) that share intersecting elements with social justice to push the boundaries of traditional LIS conceptualizations towards more progressive outcomes.

The active involvement of LIS professionals working on society's margins in influencing positive social justice changes is imperative. Results of LIS involvement in select social justice activities can be evidenced in steady increases in library users and the increasing role of LIS professionals in shaping the form of library collections (e.g., fiction) and other services (e.g., local programming and events) to directly meet the needs of their local communities to empower their lives.<sup>[244]</sup>

In spite of these recent efforts, in sum, historically libraries and LIS research in the United States have been effective in bringing only moderate socially progressive changes in their communities, trapped that they have been within limited social justice parameters and constraints owing to their permitted roles within a socially structured fabric, community values, and academic streams of thought. Contemporary trends in twenty-first century LIS development, are however, showing a marked shift in attitudes, practices, management efforts, and planning to integrate social justice goals and outcomes in both practice and research. For example, positive changes and trends in LIS have included the use of computers in library

and information environments to meet the information needs of various user/customer/patron/client constituencies (as variously defined) via their active and ongoing participation in assessment and evaluation of LIS services (e.g., library-community partnerships to host computer literacy training workshops, use of social tagging and Library 2.0 software, to name a few).<sup>[122]</sup> Such continued efforts to re-engage with local communities in terms of newly constructed modes of interaction will help to further integrate social justice ideals into LIS practices and build equitable relationships with people on society's margins to develop effective library services, programs, collections, and activities that are meaningful in the everyday lives of all members in society.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors are grateful to Dr. Wayne A. Wiegand and Dr. Ramesh Srinivasan for their editorial comments to an earlier version of the library practice materials presented in this entry. We are also thankful to the editors and anonymous reviewers for their constructive suggestions and sharp insights.

## REFERENCES

1. Mehra, B. Service learning in library and Information science (LIS) education: Connecting research and practice to community. *Interact.*: UCLA J. Inform. Educ. Stud. **2004**, 1(1). Article 3, <http://repositories.cdlib.org/gseis/interactions/vol1/iss1/art3/> (accessed January 2008).
2. Honma, T. Trippin' over the color line: The invisibility of race in library and information studies. *Interact.*: UCLA J. Inform. Educ. Stud. **2005**, 1(2). Article 2, <http://repositories.cdlib.org/gseis/interactions/vol1/iss2/art2/> (accessed January 2008).
3. Pyati, A.K. Critical theory and information studies: A Marcusean infusion. *Pol. Futures Educ.* **2006**, 4 (1), 83–89.
4. Lebacqz, K. *Six Theories of Justice: Perspectives from Philosophical and Theological Ethics*; Augsburg Publishing House: Minneapolis, MN, 1986.
5. Barry, B. *Why Social Justice Matters*; Polity Press: Cambridge, U.K., 2005.
6. Guillermina, J.; Wegener, B. Methods for empirical justice analysis: Part 1. Framework, models and quantities. *Soc. Just. Res.* **1997**, 10(4), <http://www.springerlink.com/content/73446x07w23p3686/> (accessed July 2007).
7. Plato *Republic*, Translated by Robin Waterfield, Oxford University Press: Oxford, U.K., 1984.
8. Behr, T.C. *Luigi Taparelli on the Dignity of Man*; Congresso Tomista Internazionale: Rome, Italy, 2003. <http://www.e-aquinas.net/pdf/behr.pdf> (accessed January 2008).
9. Barry, B. *Theories of Justice*; University of California Press: Berkeley, CA, 1989.
10. Pontifical Council for Justice and Peace. *Compendium of the Social Doctrine of the Church*; USCCB Publishing: Washington, DC, 2005.
11. Massaro, Thomas S.J. *Living Justice: Catholic Social Teaching in Action (Come & See)*; Sheed & Ward: Lanham, MD, 2000.
12. Brighouse, H. *Justice (Key Concepts)*; Polity Press: Cambridge, U.K., 2005.
13. Fleishacker, S. *A Short History of Distributive Justice*; Harvard University Press: Cambridge, MA, 2005.
14. Vandebroucke, F. *Social Justice and Individual Ethics in an Open Society: Equality, Responsibility, and Incentives (Studies in Economic Ethics and Philosophy)*; Springer: Berlin, Germany, 2001.
15. Glennon, F. Experiential learning and social justice action: An experiment in the scholarship of teaching and learning. *Teach. Theol. Relig.* **2003**, 7 (1), 30–37.
16. Merkel, W. Social justice and the three worlds of welfare capitalism. *Eur. J. Sociol.* **2002**, 43 (1), 59–91.
17. Opfer, V.D. Evaluating equity: A framework for understanding action and inaction on social justice issues. *Educ. Pol.* **2006**, 20 (1), 271–290.
18. Reid, C. Advancing women's agendas: A feminist research framework. *Int. J. Qual. Met.* **2004**, 3 (3), 1–15.
19. Kellner, D. *Boundaries and Borderlines: Reflections on Jean Baudrillard and Critical Theory*; 1989. <http://www.gseis.ucla.edu/faculty/kellner/Illumina%20Folder/kell2.htm> (accessed December 2004).
20. Habermas, J. *Justification and Application: Remarks on Discourse Ethics*, Translated by C. Cronin, The MIT Press: Cambridge, MA, 1993.
21. Froomkin, M.A. Habermas@discourse.net: Toward a critical theory of cyberspace. *Harvard Law Rev.* **2003**, 116(3).
22. Arrigo, B.A. *Social Justice/Criminal Justice: The Maturation of Critical Theory in Law, Crime, and Deviance (Contemporary Issues in Crime and Justice Series)*, 1st Ed.; Wadsworth Publishing: Belmont, CA, 1998.
23. Toens, K. The dilemma of regress: Social justice and democracy in recent critical theory. *Eur. J. Polit. Theor.* **2007**, 6 (2), 160–179.
24. Clayton, M.; Williams, A., Eds.; *Social Justice*; Blackwell Publishing: Malden, MA, 2004.
25. Safety, A. *Value Leadership and Capacity Building*; Universal Publishers: Parkland, FL, 2004.
26. Murphy, S.M.; Wayne, S.J.; Liden, R.C.; Erdogan, B. Understanding social loafing: The role of justice perceptions and exchange relationships. *Hum. Relat.* **2003**, 56 (1), 61–84.
27. Samek, T. *Librarianship and Human Rights*; Chandos Publishing: Oxford, U.K., 2007.
28. Ross, M.; Miller, D.T., Eds. *The Justice Motive in Everyday Life*; Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, 2002.
29. Binmore, K. *Natural Justice*; Oxford University Press: New York, 2005.
30. Pojman, L.P.; Mcleod, O. *What Do We Deserve?: A Reader on Justice and Desert*; Oxford University Press: New York, 1999.
31. Rothbard, M.N. *Egalitarianism as a Revolt Against Nature and Other Essays*, 2nd Ed.; The Ludwig von Mises Institute: Auburn, AL, 2000.

32. O'Neill, S. Justice in ethnically diverse societies: A critique of political alienation. *Ethnicities* **2003**, *3* (3), 369–392.
33. Stein, M.S. *Distributive Justice and Disability: Utilitarianism against Egalitarianism*; Yale University Press: London, U.K., 2006.
34. Roemer, J.E. *Theories of Distributive Justice*; Harvard University Press: Cambridge, MA, 1996.
35. Tyler, T.R.; Boeckmann, R.J.; Smith, H.J.; Huo, Y.J. *Social Justice in a Diverse Society*; Westview Press: Boulder, CO, 1997.
36. Rawls, J. *Justice as Fairness: A Restatement*, 2nd Ed.; Kelly, E., Ed.; Belknap Press: Cambridge, MA, 2001.
37. Rawls, J. *A Theory of Justice*; Belknap Press: Cambridge, MA, 1971.
38. Mehra, B.; Albright, K.S.; Rioux, K. A practical framework for social justice research in the information professions; Proceedings of the 2006 Annual Meeting of the American Society of Information Science and Technology, *Information Realities: Shaping the Digital Future for All*, Austin, TX, November, 3–8, 2006.
39. Rioux, K.; Albright, K.S.; Mehra, B. Conceptualizing social justice in the information sciences. Proceedings of the 70th Annual Meeting of the American Society for Information Science and Technology 2007: Joining Research and Practice: Social Computing and Information Science **44**, Milwaukee, WI, October, 18–25, 2007.
40. Gorman, M. *Our Enduring Values*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 2000.
41. Chaparro-Univazo, S. Where social justice meets librarianship: Truth commissions as information spaces for work and activism in international librarianship. *Inform. Soc. Change* **2007**, *25*, 33–38.
42. Mehra, B.; Robinson, W.C. The community engagement model in library and information science education: A case study of a collection development and management course. *J. Educ. Libr. Inform. Sci.* **2009**, *50* (1), 15–38.
43. Dain, P.; Stieg, M.F. Libraries and society: Research and thought. *Libr. Trends* **1979**, *27* (3), 221–224.
44. Mehra, B.; Srinivasan, R. The library-community convergence framework for community action: Libraries as catalysts of social change. *Libri: Int. J. Libr. Inform. Sci.* **2007**, *57* (3), 111–178.
45. Dain, P. The historical sensibility. Library history research in America. *Libr. Cult.* **2000**, *35* (1), 77–87.
46. Freeman, R.; Hovde, D.M., Eds. *Libraries to the People: Histories of Outreach*; McFarland: Jefferson, NC, 2003.
47. Tolzmann, D.H.; Hessel, A.; Peiss, R. *The Memory of Mankind: The Story of Libraries Since the Dawn of Time*; Oak Knoll Press: New Castle, DE, 2001.
48. Harris, N. Cultural institutions and American modernization. *Libr. Cult.* **1981**, *16* (1), 28–47.
49. Wiegand, W.A. Email communication dated July 4, 2006.
50. Utley, G.B. *The Librarians' Conference of 1853: A Chapter in American Library History*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 1951.
51. Black, A. The Victorian information society: Surveillance, bureaucracy, and public librarianship in 19th-Century Britain. *Inform. Soc.* **2001**, *17* (1), 63–80.
52. Maack, M.N. Gender, culture and the transformation of American librarianship, 1890–1920. *Libr. Cult.* Winter **1998**, *33*, 51–61.
53. Ditzion, S. *Arsenals of a Democratic Culture*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 1947.
54. Jones, P.A. *Libraries, Immigrants, and the American Experience*, Contributions in Librarianship and Information Science Series; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 1999.
55. Dewey, M. Relation of state to public library. In *American Library Philosophy: An Anthology*, Transactions and Proceedings of the Second International Library Conference, 1898; McCrimmon, B., Ed.; The Shoe String Press: Hamden, CT, 1975. <http://juteux.net/rory/wbm7.html> (accessed January 2008).
56. Change Institute, University of Maryland *Frontiers in Librarianship*; Contributions in Librarianship and Information Science Series; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 1969.
57. Anders, M.E. The development of public library services in the South-Eastern states, 1895–1960; Unpublished thesis; University of Michigan: Ann Arbor, MI, 1958.
58. Davies, D.W. *Public Libraries as Culture and Social Centers: The Origin of the Concept*; Scarecrow: Metuchen, NJ, 1974.
59. Phelps, W. *Autobiography, With Letters*; Oxford University Press: New York, 1939.
60. Weiss, M.J. *Reading in the Secondary Schools*; Odyssey: Gonic, NH, 1961.
61. Seavey, C. Images from the 1876 report; University of Missouri, 1998. <http://www.coe.missouri.edu/~seaveyca/1876/> (accessed January 2008).
62. Breisch, K. *Henry Hobson Richardson and the Small Public Library in America: A Study in Typology*; MIT Press: Cambridge, MA, 1997.
63. Wiegand, W.A. *The Politics of an Emerging Profession: The American Library Association, 1876–1917*; Greenwood: Westport, CT, 1986.
64. Dain, P. *The New York Public Library: A History of Its Founding and Early Years*; New York Public Library: New York, 1972.
65. Whitehill, W.M. *Boston Public Library: A Centennial History*; Harvard: Boston, MA, 1956; 23.
66. Kane, M.E. *Yesterday in Riverdale Spuyten Duyvil*; Riverdale Neighborhood and Library Association: New York, 1947.
67. Constantino, R., Ed. *Literacy, Access, and Libraries among the Language Minority Population*; Scarecrow Press: Lanham, MD, 1998.
68. Pawley, C. Advocate for access: Lutie Stearns and the traveling libraries of the Wisconsin Free Library Commission, 1895–1914. *Libr. Cult.* **2000**, *35* (3), 434–458.
69. Drzewieniecki, W.; Drzewieniecki-Abugattas, J. Public library service to American ethics: The Polish community on the Niagara Frontier, New York. *J. Libr. Hist.* **1974**, *9*, 120–137.
70. Lagemann, E.C. *The Politics of Knowledge: The Carnegie Corporation, Philanthropy, and Public Policy*; Wesleyan University Press: Middletown, CT, 1989.
71. Van Slyck, A. *Free to All: Carnegie Libraries & American Culture, 1890–1920*; University of Chicago Press: Chicago, IL, 1995.
72. Martin, L. *Enrichment: A History of the Public Library in the United States in the Twentieth Century*; Scarecrow Press: Lanham, MD, 1998.

73. Cohen, E. *A Consumer's Republic: The Politics of Mass Consumption in Postwar America*; Alfred A. Knopf: New York, 2003.
74. D'Angelo, E. *Barbarians at the Gates of the Public Library: How Postmodern Consumer Capitalism Threatens Democracy, Civil Education and the Public Good*; Library Juice Press: Duluth, MN, 2006.
75. Barker, T.D. *Libraries of the South: A Report on Development*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 1936.
76. McCook, K de la P. Ch. 3 Public Library Growth and Values: 1918–2004. In *Introduction to Public Librarianship*; Neal-Schuman Publishers, Inc.: New York, 2004; 61–81.
77. Learned, W.S. *The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge*; Harcourt, Brace and Company: New York, 1924.
78. Heim, K.M. Adult services within the American Library Association: A historical examination of the move to synthesis. *Renaissance Quart.* **1991**, 30 (3), 386–394.
79. Schlachter, G.A. *The Service Imperative for Libraries: Essays in Honor of Margaret E. Monroe*; Libraries Unlimited: Littleton, CO, 1982.
80. McCook, K. de la P. *Introduction to Public Librarianship*; Neal-Schuman Publishers, Inc.: New York, 2004, 186.
81. Nauratil, M.J. *Public Libraries and Nontraditional Clientele: The Politics of Special Services*; Greenwood Press: Santa Barbara, CA, 1985.
82. Jones, P.A. *Still Struggling for Equality: American Public Library Services with Minorities*; Libraries Unlimited: Santa Barbara, CA, 2004; 269.
83. Anonymous reviewer.
84. Jones, P.A. *Libraries, Immigrants, and the American Experience*; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 1999.
85. Dain, P. Ambivalence and paradox [the social bonds of the public library [reply to M. H. Harris]]. *Lib. J.* **1975**, 100, 261–266.
86. Benidt, B.W. *The Library Book: Centennial History of the Minneapolis Public Library*; Minneapolis Public Library: Minneapolis, MN, 1984.
87. West, C.; Katz, E. *Revolting Librarians*; Booklegger Press: San Francisco, CA, 1972.
88. Battles, M. *Library: An Unquiet History*; W. W. Norton: New York, 2003.
89. Shera, J. *Foundations of the Public Library*; University of Chicago Press: Chicago, IL, 1949.
90. Gunselman, C.; Marvin, C.; Isom, M.F. Leaders of Oregon's library movement. *Libr. Trends* **2004**, 52 (4), 877–901.
91. Joeckel, C.; Winslow, A. *A National Plan for Public Library Service*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 1948.
92. Raber, D. *Librarianship and Legitimacy: The Ideology of the Public Library Inquiry*; Greenwood: Westport, CT, 1997.
93. Weibel, K. *The Evolution of Library Outreach, 1960–1975 and its Effects on Reader Services: Some Considerations*; University of Illinois, Occasional Paper 16; Graduate School of Library and Information Science: Urbana, IL, 1982.
94. Monroe, M. Reader services to the disadvantaged in inner cities. In *Advances in Librarianship*; Voight, M., Ed.; Seminar Press: New York, 1971; 253–274.
95. Lyman, H. *Literacy and the Nation's Libraries*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 1977.
96. Gaines, E. Let's return to traditional library service: Facing the failure of social experimentation. *Wilson Libr. Bull.* **1980**, 78, 50–53.
97. Harrell, M. Serving diverse library users: The multicultural studies librarian at an urban research university. In *Diversity: Building a Strategic Future*, 3rd National Conference on Diversity in Academic Libraries, University of Iowa, April 4–6, 2002, <http://www.lib.uiowa.edu/cicdiversity/papers.html> (accessed January 2008).
98. Durrance, J.; Fisher-Pettigrew, K. Toward developing measures of the impact of library and information services. *Ref. User Serv. Q.* **2002**, 42 (1), 43–53.
99. Phipps, S. Beyond measuring service quality: Learning from the voices of the customers, the staff, the processes, and the organization. *Lib. Trends* **2001**, 49 (4), 635–662.
100. Guerena, S. *Library Services to Latinos: An Anthology*; McFarland: Jefferson, NC, 2000.
101. Baldwin, G. Public access to the internet: American Indian and Alaskan Native issues. In *Public Access to the Internet*; Kahin, B., Keller, J., Eds.; MIT Press: Cambridge, MA, 1995; 137–153.
102. Liu, M.; Redfern, B. Information-seeking behavior of multicultural students: A case study at San Jose State University. *Coll. Res. Libr.* **1997**, 58, 348–354.
103. Stern, S. Ethnic libraries and librarianship in the United States: Models and prospects. In *Advances in Librarianship Volume 15*; Academic Press: New York, 1991; 77–102.
104. Berman, S. Foreword to *Poor People and Library Services*; Venturella, K.M., Ed.; McFarland: Jefferson, NC, 1998.
105. Chatman, E. The diffusion of information among the working poor; Unpublished dissertation; University of California: Berkeley, CA, 1983.
106. Harris, R. Searching for help and information: Abused women speak out. *Libr. Inform. Sci. Res.* **2001**, 23, 123–141.
107. Olson, H.A. The feminist and the emperor's new clothes: Feminist deconstruction as a critical methodology for library and information studies. *Libr. Inform. Sci. Res.* **1997**, 19, 181–198.
108. Klauber, J. Living well with a disability: How libraries can help. *Am. Libr.* **1998**, 29 (4), 52–55.
109. U.S. National Commission on Libraries and Information Sciences. *Library and Information Services for Individuals with Disabilities: An NCLIS Hearing in Washington DC July 8, 1999*; NCLIS Hearing: Washington, DC, 1999, <http://www.nclis.gov/info/disabilities.hearing.final.pdf> (accessed January 2008).
110. Norman, M. Out on loan. *J. Libr. Inform. Sci.* **1999**, 31 (4), 188–196.
111. Joyce, S.; Schrader, A. Hidden perceptions: Edmonton gay males and the Edmonton Public Library. *Can. J. Inform. Libr. Sci.* **1997**, 22 (1), 19–37.
112. Abif, K.; Obatala, O. At work in the children's room. In *Poor People and Library Service*; Venturella, Karen M., Ed.; McFarland: Jefferson, NC, 1998; 44–61.
113. Jones, P.; Shoemaker, J. *Do It Right: Best Practices for Serving Young Adults in School and Public Libraries*; Neal-Schuman: New York, 2001.

114. McClure, C. *Planning and Role Setting for Public Libraries: A Manual of Options and Procedures*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 1987.
115. Immroth, B.; McCook, K. de la P., Eds. *Library Services to Youth of Hispanic Heritage*; McFarland: Jefferson, NC, 2000.
116. Guerena, S.; Erazo, E. Latinos and librarianship. *Libr. Trends* **2000**, *49* (1), 138–181.
117. Burlingame, D. Fund-raising as a key to the library's future—Library finance: New needs, new models. *Libr. Trends* **1994**, *42* (3), 467–478.
118. Mehra, B. An Action Research (AR) manifesto for cyberculture power to “marginalized” cultures of difference. In *Critical Cyber-Culture Studies*; Silver, D., Massanari, A., Eds.; New York University Press: New York, 2006; 205–215.
119. Mehra, B. Library and information science (LIS) and community development: Use of information and communication technology (ICT) to support a social equity agenda. *J. Commun. Dev. Soc.* **2005**, *36* (1), 28–40.
120. Crawford, W. Library 2.0 and “Library 2.0.” *Cites Insights* **2006**, *6*(2). <http://cites.boisestate.edu/civ6i2.pdf> (accessed November 2008).
121. Maness, J.M. Library 2.0 theory: Web 2.0 and its implications for libraries. *Webology* **2006**, *3*(2). <http://www.webology.ir/2006/v3n2/a25.html> (accessed November 2008).
122. Casey, M.; Savastinuk, L. *Library 2.0: A Guide to Participatory Library Service*; Information Today, Inc.: Medford, NJ, 2007.
123. Kalakota, R.; Robinson, M. *e-Business 2.0: Roadmap for Success*, 2nd Ed.; Addison-Wesley Professional: Indianapolis, IN, 2000.
124. Genoni, P.; Walton, G. *IFLA 116: Continuing Professional Development- Preparing for New Roles in Libraries: A Voyage of Discovery*; K. G. Saur: Munich, Germany, 2005.
125. Reed-Scott, J. *Scholarship, Research Libraries, and Global Publishing*; Haworth: Binghamton, New York, 1999.
126. American Library Association, *Keeping the Outreach Brand Viable*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 2004, <http://www.ala.org/ala/olos/outreachresource/keepingoutreach.htm> (accessed January 2008).
127. Frohmann, B. Discourse analysis as a research method in Library and Information Science. *Libr. Inform. Sci. Res.* **1994**, *16* (2), 119–138.
128. Vavrek, B. Is the American public library part of everyone's life? *Am. Libr.* **2000**, *60*–64.
129. Stauffer, S. “She speaks as one having authority”: Mary E. Downey's use of libraries as a means to public power. *Libr. Cult.* **2005**, *40* (1), 38–62.
130. Mehra, B.; Sandusky, R. Applications of community-based action research in elective courses: Partnering library and information science students with underserved populations to meet their information technology needs. In *The Service Connection: Library and Information Science Education and Service to Communities*; Roy, L., Ed.; ALA Editions: Chicago, IL, 2009.
131. Maack, M.N. Documenting one hundred twenty years of writings on women's entry, advancement, and struggle for equalization in librarianship (review essay covering *On Account of Sex: An Annotated Bibliography on the Status of Women in Librarianship (4 volumes)* and *The Role of Women in Librarianship, 1876–1976*). *Libr. Q.* **2002**, *72* (April), 241–246.
132. Malone, C. Toward a multicultural American public library history. *Libr. Cult.* **2000**, *35* (1), 77–87.
133. Korty, M.B. Benjamin Franklin and eighteenth-century American libraries. *Trans. Am. Philos. Soc. New Ser.* **1965**, *55*(9). The American Philosophical Society: Philadelphia, PA.
134. Martin, L.A. *Public Library: Middle Age Crises or Old Age?*; R. R. Bowker, LLC: New Providence, NJ, 1983.
135. Venezky, R.L. Steps toward a modern history of American reading instruction. *Rev. Res. Educ.* **1986**, *13*, 129–167.
136. McCullen, H. *American Libraries Before 1876*, Beta Phi Mu Monograph Series; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 2000.
137. Wiegand, W.A. Main street public library: The availability of controversial materials in the rural heartland, 1890–1956. *Libr. Cult.* **1998**, *31* (1), 131–132.
138. Goedeken, E. The rainbow survivors of some vanished grey moment of reality: A prosopographical study of the Dictionary of American Library Biography and its supplement. *Libr. Cult.* **1995**, *30*, 155.
139. Wilson, P. *A Community Elite and the Public Library: The Uses of Information in Leadership*; Contributions in Librarianship and Information Science Series; Greenwood: Westport, CT, 1977.
140. Sturges, P. The public library and reading by the masses: Historical perspectives on the USA and Britain 1850–1900. In *Conference Proceedings of the 60th IFLA General Conference*, Buenos Aires, Argentina, August 21–27, 1994.
141. Rayward, W.B. The case of Paul Otlet, pioneer of information science, internationalist, visionary: reflections on biography. *J. Libr. Inform. Sci.* **1991**, *23*, 135–145.
142. U.S Bureau of Education. *Public Libraries in the United States of America: Their History, Condition, and Management*; Government Publications Office: Washington, DC, 1876.
143. Ryan, M. *Civic Wars: Democracy and Public Life in the American City During the Nineteenth Century*; University of California Press: Berkley, CA, 1997.
144. Anderson, B. *Imagined Communities: Reflection on the Origin and Spread of Nationalism*; Verso: London, 1983.
145. Ring, D. Men of energy and snap: The origins and early years of the Billings Public Library. *Libr. Cult.* **2001**, *36* (3), 397–412.
146. White, R. *It's All Your Misfortune and None of My Own: A History of the American West*; University of Oklahoma Press: Norman, OK, 1991.
147. Harris, M.H.; Spiegler, G. Everett, Ticknor and the common man: The fear of societal instability as the motivation for the founding of the Boston Public Library. *Libri* **1974**, *24*, 249–275.
148. Augst, T. The business of reading in nineteenth-century America: The New York Mercantile Library. *Am. Quart.* **1998**, *50*, 267–305.

149. Hildenbrand, S., Ed. *Reclaiming the American Library Past: Writing the Women In*; Greenwood Publishing Group: Westport, CT, 1996.
150. Malone, C. Quiet pioneers: Black women public librarians in the segregated south. *Vitae Scholasticae* **2000**, 19 (1), 59–76.
151. Brisley, M. Cornelia Marvin Pierce: Pioneer in library extension. *Libr. Q.* **1968**, 38, 125–153.
152. Irine, B.J. *Sex Segregation in Librarianship: Demographic and Career Patterns of Academic Library Administrators Contributions in Librarianship and Information Science Series*; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 1985.
153. Pejsa, J. *Gratia Countryman: Her Life, Her Loves and Her Library*; Nodin Press: Minneapolis, MN, 1995.
154. Malone, C. Accommodating access: ‘Colored’ Carnegie libraries, 1905–1925, PhD thesis; University of Texas at Austin, 1996.
155. Malone, C.K. Books for black children: Public library collections in Louisville and Nashville, 1915–1925. *Libr. Quart.* **2000**, 70, 179–200.
156. Malone, C.K.; Louise, S. Louisville free public library’s racially segregated branches, 1905–35. *Reg. Kentucky Hist. Soc.* **1995**, 93 (2), 159–179.
157. Macleod, DavidI. *Carnegie Libraries in Wisconsin*; Arno Press, Inc.: New York, 1968.
158. Harris, M. Externalist or internalist frameworks for the interpretation of American library history—The continuing debate. *J. Libr. Hist.* **1975**, 10, 106–110.
159. Wall, J.F. *Andrew Carnegie*; Oxford University Press, 1970; 821. Quoted in Harris, *op. cit.*
160. Jones, T. *Carnegie Libraries Across America: A Public Legacy*; John Wiley & Sons: New York, 1997.
161. Lorenzen, M. Deconstructing the Carnegie libraries: The sociological reasons behind Carnegie’s millions to public libraries. *Ill. Libr.* **1999**, 81 (2), 75–78.
162. Bobinski, G.S. *Carnegie Libraries: Their History and Impact on American Public Library Development*; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 1969.
163. Beck, N.R. The use of library and educational facilities by Russian-Jewish Immigrants in New York City, 1880–1914: The impact of culture. *J. Libr. Hist.* **1977**, 12, 128–149.
164. Kaufman, M.; Alfonso, H.D. *Community Power and Grassroots Democracy: The Transformation of Social Life*; Zed Books: NJ, 1997.
165. Wiegand, W.A. *An Active Instrument for Propaganda: The American Public Library During World War I*, Beta Phi Mu Monograph Series; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 1989.
166. Mehra, B. Integrating socially-relevant projects and achieving meaningful community outcomes in required library and information science courses: From a service model to community engagement. In *The Service Connection: Library and Information Science Education and Service to Communities*; Roy, L., Ed.; ALA Editions: Chicago, IL, 2009.
167. Furner, J. Shera’s social epistemology recast as psychological bibliology. *Soc. Epistemol.* **2002**, 16 (1), 5–22.
168. Jenkins, C. The history of youth services librarianship: A review of the research literature. *Libr. Cult.* **2000**, 35 (1), 103–140.
169. Hildenbrand, S. Library feminism and library women’s history: Activism and scholarship, equity and culture. *Libr. Cult.* **2000**, 35 (1), 51–65.
170. Dodge, C. Taking libraries to the street: Infoshops & alternative reading rooms. *Am. Libr.* **1998**, 29 (5), 62–64.
171. Leigh, R. *The Public Library in the United States*; Columbia University Press: New York, 1950.
172. Berelson, B.; Janowitz, M. *Reader in Public Opinion and Communication*; Free Press: New York, 1950.
173. Wellisch, J. *The Public Library and Federal Policy*; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 1974.
174. Maack, M.N. Public libraries in transition: Ideals, strategies, and research. *Libr. Cult. Winter* **1994**, 29, 75–94.
175. Weingand, D.E. *Administration of the Small Public Library*, 4th Ed.; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 2001.
176. Berman, S. *Talking the Talk and Walking the Walk: What Libraries Say They Do But Frequently Don’t*; School of Library and Information Science: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 1997, <http://www.sanfordberman.org/biblinks/wtwt.pdf> (accessed January 2008).
177. Shorris, E. *Riches for the Poor: The Clemente Course in the Humanities*; W.W. Norton: New York, 2000.
178. Goodrich, J. Strategic planning at the Multnomah County Library: The past as prologue. *Oreg. Libr. Assoc. Quart.* **2000**, 6(3), <http://www.olaweb.org/quarterly/quar6-3/goodrich.shtml> (accessed January 2008).
179. Berman, S. Foreword in *Intellectual Freedom and Social Responsibility in American Librarianship, 1967–1974*; Samek, T., Ed.; McFarland: Jefferson, NC, 2001.
180. McCook, K. de la P. Poverty, democracy and public libraries. In *Libraries & Democracy: The Cornerstones of Liberty*; Kranich, N., Ed.; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 2001; 28–46.
181. Scroggins, R. The American public library and its fragile future. *New Libr. World* **2006**, 107 (1220/1221), 7–15.
182. American Library Association: Our Association, <http://www.ala.org/ala/ourassociation/ourassociation.htm> (accessed January 2008).
183. Cronin, B. *Pulp Friction*; The Scarecrow Press, Inc.: Lanham, MD, 2003.
184. Zweizig, D. Predicting amount of library use: An empirical study of the role of the public library in the life of the adult public; PhD dissertation; Syracuse University: New York, 1973.
185. Pungitore, V.L.; Nowicke, C.E.; Tuten-Puckett, K.; Weinstein, F. *The Public Library Planning Process. Case Studies of its Implementation in Smaller Libraries: Final Report*; U.S. Department of Education: Washington, DC, 1991.
186. Stephens, A.K. *Assessing Public Library Planning Process*; Ablex Publishing: Norwood, NJ, 1996.
187. Nelson, S. *Strategic Planning for Results*, PLA Results Series; American Library Association: Chicago, IL, 2008.
188. Buckland, M. Documentation, information science, and library science in the USA. *Inform. Process. Manage.* **1996**, 32 (1), 63–76.
189. Rayward, W.B. The origins of information science and the International Institute of Bibliography/International Federation for Information and Documentation (FID). *J. Am. Soc. Inform. Sci.* **1997**, 48 (4), 289–300.

190. Rayward, W.B. UDC and FID: A historical perspective. *Libr. Q.* **1967**, *37* (3), 259–278.
191. Otlet, P. The organisation of the society of nations. In *International Organisation and Dissemination of Knowledge: Selected Essays of Paul Otlet*; Rayward, W. B., Ed.; Elsevier: Amsterdam, the Netherlands, 1990; 148–156.
192. Olson, H.A. *The Power to Name: Locating the Limits of Subject Representation in Libraries*; Kluwer Academic: Dordrecht, the Netherlands, 2002.
193. Bowker, G.C.; Star, S.L. Building information infrastructures for social worlds: The role of classifications and standards. In *Community Computing and Support Systems*; Springer: Berlin, Germany, 1998; 231–248.
194. Bowker, G.C.; Star, S.L. *Sorting Things Out: Classification and Its Consequences*; The MIT Press: Cambridge, MA, 2000.
195. Olson, H.A. Mapping beyond Dewey's boundaries: Constructing classificatory space for marginalized knowledge domains. In *How Classifications Work: Problems and Challenges in an Electronic Age [Special issue]*; Bowker, G.C., Star, S.L., Eds.; *Libr. Trends* **1998**, *47* (2), 233–254.
196. Olson, H.A. How we construct subjects: A feminist analysis. *Libr. Trends* **2007**, *56* (2), 509–541.
197. Shade, L.R. A gendered perspective on access to the information infrastructure. *Inform. Soc.* January/March **1998**, *14*, 33–44.
198. Waldrop, M.M. *The Dream Machine: J.C.R. Licklider and the Revolution that Made Computing Personal*; Penguin Non-Classics: New York, 2002.
199. Shera, J.H.; Cleveland, D.B. History and foundations of information science. *Annu. Rev. Inform. Sci.* **1977**, *12*, 249–275.
200. Dervin, B.; Nilan, M. Information needs and uses. *Annu. Rev. Inform. Sci.* **1986**, *21*, 3–33.
201. Dervin, B. From the mind's eye of the "user". In *Qualitative Research on Information Management*; Glazier, D., Powell, R., Eds.; Libraries Unlimited: Englewood, CO, 1992.
202. Dervin, B. *Sense-Making Methodology Reader: Selected Writings of Brenda Dervin*; Foreman-Wernet, L., Launertbach, E., Eds.; Hampton Press: Cresskill, NJ, 2003.
203. Krikelas, J. Information seeking behavior: Patterns and concepts. *Drexel Libr. Q.* **1983**, *19* (2), 361–371.
204. Saracevic, T.; Mokros, H.; Su, L. Nature of interaction between users and intermediaries in online searching: A qualitative analysis. *Proc. 53<sup>rd</sup> ASIS Annu. Meet.* **1990**, *27*, 47–54.
205. Harter, S. Psychological relevance and information science. *J. Am. Soc. Inform. Sci.* **1992**, *43*, 602–615.
206. Belkin, N.J.; Vickery, A. Interaction in information systems. In *Library and Information Systems Research Report 3*; British Library: London, U.K., 1985.
207. Borgman, C. Psychological research in human computer interaction. *Annu. Rev. Inform. Sci.* **1984**, *19*, 33–64.
208. Ingerwersen, P. *Information Retrieval Interaction*; Taylor Graham: London, U.K., 1992.
209. Belkin, N.J. The cognitive viewpoint in information science. *J. Inform. Sci.* **1990**, *16*, 11–15.
210. James, R. Libraries in the mind: How can we see users' perceptions of libraries? *J. Libr.* **1983**, *15*, 19–28.
211. Dervin, B. Useful theory for librarianship: Communication, not information. *Drexel Libr. Q.* **1982**, *13*, 16–32.
212. Adams, M. *Teaching for Diversity and Social Justice: A Sourcebook*; Routledge: New York, 1997.
213. Wronka, J.M. *Human Rights and Social Justice: Social Action and Service for the Helping and Health Professions*; Sage Publications, Inc.: Thousand Oaks, CA, 2007.
214. Bersellini, E.; Berry, D. The benefits of providing benefit information: Examining the effectiveness of provision of simple benefit statements on people's judgements about a medicine. *Psychol. Health* **2007**, *22* (1), 61–82.
215. Hollnagel, E.; Woods, D.D. Cognitive systems engineering: New wine in old bottles. *Int. J. Man Mach. Stud.* **1983**, *18*, 583–600.
216. Bates, M. The design of browsing and berry picking techniques for the on-line search interface. *Online Rev.* **1989**, *13*, 407–424.
217. Ingwersen, P. Cognitive perspectives of information retrieval interaction. *J. Doc.* **1996**, *52*, 3–50.
218. Belkin, N.; Oddy, R.; Brooks, H. ASK for information retrieval: Part I: Background and theory. *J. Doc.* **1982**, *38* (2), 61–71.
219. Taylor, R.S. Information use environments. In *Progress in Communication Sciences*; Ablex: Norwood, NJ, 1991; 217–255.
220. Case, D.O. *Looking for Information: A Survey of Research on Information Seeking, Needs, and Behavior*; Academic Press: New York, 2007.
221. Marchionini, G. *Information Seeking in Electronic Environments*; Cambridge University Press: New York, 1995.
222. DeMey, M. The cognitive viewpoint: Its development and its scope. In *CC 77: International Workshop on the Cognitive Viewpoint*; Ghent University: Ghent, Belgium, 1977.
223. DeMey, M. The relevance of the cognitive paradigm for information science. In *Theory and Application of Information Research*; Harbo, O., Ed.; Mansell: London, U.K., 1980.
224. Harmon, E.G.; Ballesteros, E.R. Unconscious cognition: The elicitation of deeply embedded information needs. In *Information Seeking in Context*, Proceedings of an International Conference on Information Needs, Seeking, and Use in Different Contexts, Tampere, Finland, Taylore Graham Publishing: London, U.K., 1997; 422–433.
225. Dervin, B. *An Overview of Sense-Making Research: Concepts, Methods, and Results to Date*; School of Communication, University of Washington: Seattle, WA, 1983.
226. Dervin, B. On studying information seeking methodologically: The implications of connecting metatheory to method. *Inform. Process. Manage.* **1999**, *35*, 727–750.
227. Pettigrew, K.; Fidel, R.; Bruce, H. Conceptual frameworks in information behavior. *Annu. Rev. Inform. Sci. Technol.* **2001**, *35*, 43–78.
228. Schamber, L.; Eisenberg, M.; Nilan, M. A re-examination of relevance toward a dynamic, situational definition. *Inform. Process. Manage.* **1990**, *26*, 755–776.
229. Nahl, D. The centrality of the affective in information behavior. In *Information and Emotion: The Emergent*

- Affective Paradigm in Information Behavior Research and Theory*; Nahl, D., Bilal, D., Eds.; Information Today, Inc.: Medford, NJ, 2007; 3–37.
230. Kuhlthau, C. *Seeking Meaning: A Process Approach to Library and Information Services*; Libraries Unlimited: Westport, CT, 2004.
  231. Spink, A.; Bray, K.; Jaeckel, M.; Sidberry, G. Everyday life information seeking by low-income African American households: Wynnewood Healthy Neighborhood Project. In *Proceedings of the Second International Information Seeking in Context Conference*, Sheffield, United Kingdom, August 12–15, 1998; Department of Information Studies, University of Sheffield, U.K., 1998.
  232. Hersberger, J. Are the economically poor information poor? Does the digital divide affect the homeless and access to information. *Can. J. Inform. Libr. Sci.* **2002**, 27 (3), 44–63.
  233. Chatman, E. *The Information World of Aging Women*; Greenwood Press: Westport, CT, 1992.
  234. Chatman, E. The impoverished life-world of outsiders. *J. Am. Soc. Inform. Sci.* **1996**, 47, 193–206.
  235. Saumure, K.; Given, L. Digitally enhanced? An examination of the information behaviors of visually impaired post-secondary students. *Can. J. Inform. Libr. Sci.* **2004**, 28 (2), 25–42.
  236. Bilal, D. Children's use of the Yahooligans! Web search engine. III. Cognitive and physical behaviors on fully self-generated search tasks. *J. Am. Soc. Inform. Sci. Technol.* **2002**, 52, 1170–1183.
  237. Mehra, B. *The Cross-Cultural Learning Process of International Doctoral Students: A Case Study in Library and Information Science Education*; Verlag Dr. Muller: Saarbruchen, Germany.
  238. Mehra, B.; Bishop, A.P. Cross-cultural perspectives of international doctoral students: Two-way learning in library and information science education. *Int. J. Prog. Educ.* **2007**, 3(1), <http://inased.org/v3n1/mehrabishop.htm> (accessed January 2008).
  239. Van Dijk, J. *The Deepening Divide: Inequality in the Information Society*; Sage: Thousand Oaks, CA, 2005.
  240. Mcharazo, A.; Koopman, S., Eds. *Librarianship as a Bridge to an Information and Knowledge Society in Africa*; K. G. Saur: Munich, Germany, 2007.
  241. Miao, Q. To be or not to be: Public libraries and the global knowledge revolution. In *Libraries in the Information Society*; Ershova, T.V., Hohloy, Y.E., Eds.; K.G. Saur: Munich, Germany, 2002; 9–18.
  242. Dasgupta, K. Libraries and librarians in India on the threshold of the third millennium: Challenges and risks. In *Libraries in the Information Society*; Ershova, T.V., Hohloy, Y.E., Eds.; K.G. Saur: Munich, Germany, 2002; 112–118.
  243. Seidelin, S.; Jensen, T. *IFLA/FAIFE Theme Report: Libraries and the Fight Against HIV/AIDS, Poverty, and Corruption*, IFLA/FAIFE World Report Series No. 6; Copenhagen: Denmark, 2006.
  244. Shulera, J.A. Public polices and academic libraries—The shape of the next digital divide. *J. Acad. Libr.* **2007**, 33 (1), 141–143.

# **Yours, Mine and Ours: Reference Service and the Non-Affiliated User**

Debbie Masters  
Gail Flatness

As reference librarians, we are schooled in the philosophy that information should be freely available to all. Equal access to information is an important component of a democratic society, and a value we are taught to embrace. How then do we confront the conflict presented in a centrally located, private university in an urban setting in which our own users, the University's faculty and students, are indistinguishable from a sea of non-affiliated users, all needing "information," but competing for our resources, both staff and materials? These conflicts may be more obvious at our particular Reference desks, but our situations are not that unique. Reference librarians everywhere are forced to make decisions daily about whom to serve and how much service to provide.

In keeping with the general philosophy of free information most university libraries, whether public or private, retain open access for use of their collections on-site. At George Washington University(GW) and Georgetown University(GU) access to the buildings and main collections are unrestricted. George Washington, for security reasons, does check user identification at the door, but almost no one is denied admittance. Restrictions apply to such services as circulation, use of reserve and media resources, but these are relatively easily controlled since presentation of a University or otherwise authorized identification card is necessary to complete a transaction.

Reference service is another matter, especially extensive reference service. Neither library feels that it has the human resources to

---

Ms. Masters is Head of Reference, Gelman Library, George Washington University, Washington, DC 20052. Ms. Flatness is Head of Reference at the Lauinger Library, Georgetown University, Washington, DC.

provide this level of assistance to the general public. We do, however, have a certain obligation to users to whom we have extended borrowing privileges and to the students and faculty of the members of the Consortium of Universities of the Washington, D.C. area. But even then, unless the question relates to unique or exceptionally strong parts of our collections, we do not provide them with extensive assistance. Although both reference departments maintain a desk collection and exchange books from that collection for an I.D. card, our intention is not to deny access to anyone, but to keep some heavily used materials secure and accessible for all. Aside from this small area, there is no easy way to distinguish our own patrons from those of other area schools, or from business people, employees of government agencies, etc. GW is especially vulnerable. It is in the middle of a downtown area, an easy walk from a subway stop and from many area businesses and government offices. The conflict for us is really two-fold. We are expected not to cross a certain line with non-affiliated users and give "too" much service. This runs counter to a very basic tenet of our profession, to help all users to the fullest extent we can, and it is difficult for Reference librarians to offer less. On the other hand our desks are so busy that we often feel frustrated because our own primary users are not getting the extra assistance they could use because they are competing for our services with non-affiliated users.

### ***HIGHER REFERENCE USE***

One phenomenon that we have observed, but not documented with actual statistics, is that a higher percentage of non-affiliated users approach the reference desk than our entry tallies would indicate. This pattern is especially evident on weekends when more non-affiliated users come to our libraries. GW counts a fairly consistent 10% non-GW user traffic by requiring identification at the door and documenting outside users. Unlike our own faculty and students, however, outside users are not familiar with our building, collections, or such access tools as serials lists or online systems available for public use. They have not been exposed to the basic level bibliographic instruction that we try to provide for our own undergraduate students, or to the more sophisticated introductions to the reference sources in a discipline that we offer for upper division undergraduates and graduate students. As a result, we feel that a

higher percentage of outside users approach the desk, and that they tend to require more assistance in using our libraries than our own users. This same phenomenon was discussed by Anne Piternick in her article on resource sharing where she observed that at the University of British Columbia, "while only 16% of the questions were from external users, they required about 25% of the total time expended in answering questions" due to the complexity of the questions and the knowledge of the users.<sup>1</sup>

Another aspect of the problem is represented by the high volume of phone questions we both receive, many of which center on card catalog or serials holdings checks, or questions about building access and circulation policies. While we have clear policies to serve in-person patrons as a priority over phone requests, and we limit the amount of work we do over the phone (e.g., only three titles will be checked at a time), we still have a dilemma. How do we make sure we are serving *our own* users first? What if the phone call that is on "hold" is a faculty member at our own institution and the in-person traffic at the desk consists of a local consultant, a student from another area school and a lawyer on her lunch hour looking for a journal article? We sometimes feel we are forcing our users to come into the building because it is so hard to get through to us by phone.

At Lehigh University Library an analysis of transactions from the reference divisions showed that 15-20% of the daily, non-interlibrary loan inquiries came from the outside community.<sup>2</sup> Like GW and GU, Lehigh serves a metropolitan area with a large population of alumni and technically-oriented professionals. In response to the increasing demands for library service by the non-University community, Lehigh established a fee-based information service. In considering staffing at the reference desk, both GW and GU have considered the times when non-affiliated users constitute a majority of our clientele and adjusted staffing accordingly. For example, neither library currently provides staffing on Friday evening when our own users are not the primary clientele for our services.

### **LITTLE GUIDANCE**

The literature offers little guidance in facing these dilemmas. The document prepared by the Standards Committee of the Reference and Adult Services Division of A.L.A., "A Commitment to Information Services: Developmental Guidelines", acknowledges that

reference or information services will vary with "the user the institution is designed to serve," and that "eligibility of users will be determined by the role, scope, and mission of individual institutions."<sup>3</sup> These guidelines, however, do not really help reference librarians distinguish between those users the institution is designed to serve, and those non-affiliated users who have equal access to the building and the reference desk. The *Reference and Online Services Handbook* documents the reference service policies of a number of academic libraries.<sup>4</sup> Most document a policy of open access to library buildings and collections, although not borrowing privileges, for non-affiliated users. For those that distinguish among users for purposes of reference service, most answer quick reference questions for all users. Some have a fee-based service for extended reference to non-affiliated users, although it is a judgment call as to when that distinction is made. Others suggest that when an inquiry becomes an extended reference transaction, user affiliation may be requested and distinctions made. Several libraries also recommend referral of the outside user to his or her own library or to the public library to pursue time-consuming inquiries unless the question involves the use of materials uniquely available at that library. Tax-supported institutions, especially when they are the largest library in an area, generally feel an obligation to respond to the needs of the community provided that such service does not interfere with the primary goal of service to the university.

At the meeting of the ACRL Fee-Based Information Service Centers in Libraries Discussion Group at ALA Midwinter in January, 1984, there was some discussion of the issues such a service presents at the Reference Desk. Generally, "ready reference" inquiries of up to fifteen minutes were done for anyone without charge. After that, the fee-based service was suggested. One library indicated that desk inquiries were monitored, with no charge the first few times. If a pattern was perceived, the fee-based service was suggested and librarians avoided continuing to answer questions free. Such services encounter the problem of the reference desk giving away services that are included in the fee-based service (e.g., providing verification, identifying local locations, etc.). One suggestion was to routinely ask for presentation of an I.D. card at the Reference Desk when a question is asked. The problem of establishing priorities when the same staff is used for both free and fee-based service was also addressed. Academic users are given priority, but another conflict emerges when faculty members request reference

service in connection with a consulting job for a corporation for which they themselves will be paid. At Georgia Institute of Technology, such clientele are included in the fee-based service.<sup>5</sup>

### **LIMITATION POLICIES**

At both George Washington University and at Georgetown University, some policies on limitation of reference service have emerged. Reference librarians at our desks very quickly learn that, when a question extends beyond a certain point in time, they are expected to find out if the patron is a member of our primary clientele. We try not to be overt, but will subtly withdraw from the question or refer the person elsewhere if they turn out to be a non-affiliated user. Both of our institutions limit computerized literature searches to our own users. In an area like Washington, D.C. where information brokers and other for-fee services are widely available, and where there are a number of other public and private universities willing to provide the service, we feel no obligation to use staff time and university equipment to provide searches to outsiders, even with a surcharge. We also limit checks for other area holdings on OCLC to our own clients on the premise that the user's own library or the public library should be using OCLC or other sources to identify local holdings. Since OCLC charges for holdings displays, this is a fairly easy policy to justify, although it sometimes requires an explicit question to determine user status at the point that we have verified a needed title and determined that we do not own it. Having to limit service and enforce these rules, however, can be difficult for Reference librarians trained to use all available information sources.

We have several proposals for how libraries facing these kinds of conflicts can address them:

1) Probably the best thing any library can do is to have a written statement describing its policies relative to non-affiliated users. In a recent survey, the Association of Research Libraries polled its members and found that "61 out of 64 had written formal policies for external user access and services."<sup>6</sup> Many such policies relate more to borrowing and building access but several, including Georgetown's do attempt to address reference service policies as well. Although a policy won't solve all the conflicts, if nothing else it will help raise the consciousness of the staff and provide more consistency in handling requests.

2) Fee-based services offer a real alternative, particularly if they are handled by a separate staff that can respond to the requests in a timely fashion, and on a cost-recovery basis. Problems can develop when this service is handled by the same staff as that serving regular daily reference questions. For one thing, it is difficult to distinguish free from for-fee service, and to determine when to draw the line. Another consideration is the timeliness with which fee-based requests can be processed when they are competing for the same staff time that must respond to the seasonal demands of the reference desk, bibliographic instruction, etc. Do fee-based requests always go to the end of the queue? If so, how effectively can such a service be marketed given the business community's need for timely information?

3) Access policies could be restricted. For those libraries that monitor the entrance and require identification at the door, certain outside users could be excluded except under exceptional, pre-authorized circumstances. We would need to continue to offer access to students from the Consortium and honor other reciprocal agreements to insure similar access for our own students and faculty at those institutions, but could limit access for individuals working for corporations, etc. We would still encounter some conflicts at the reference desk, but they would at least be among academic users, not between academics and for-profit groups. If a library does not want to go to an across-the-board limitation on access it might want to consider limiting access at particularly busy times, such as during term paper season or exams. For example, the medical library at GW limits access by non-medical center clientele during evening and weekend hours, and GU's law and medical libraries restrict access during final exams.

4) To help identify our own users on the phone, the phone number listed in campus directories for the Reference Desk could be different from the publicly listed one. Another possibility for holdings checks would be for libraries in a region to institute a central number that could take calls for checks on all area holdings. Given the wide participation by local libraries in OCLC, and a union list of serials, many such questions could be answered in an central location with the cost of the service shared by the participating libraries.

5) For those users to whom borrowing privileges are extended, a library orientation of some kind could be required to secure a borrower's card. Patrons might be required to take a Self-Guided Tour, view a videotape or slide-tape program, or undergo some other ori-

entation program not requiring an investment of staff time in order to insure their basic orientation to the building and its collections. At the very least, a library should make sure that a basic guide to its building and services is given with each card. The library's sign system could be examined and improved to reduce directional questions and make the building easier for the occasional user to understand without assistance.

The Reference Desk will probably remain one area of library service where distinctions in level and type of service offered to different categories of users will be difficult to define and enforce. For libraries facing these conflicts, however, perhaps these suggestions will offer some help in dealing with the necessary setting of priorities in these days of tightening library resources and increasing staff demands.

#### NOTES

1. Anne Piternick, "Problems of Resource Sharing with the Community: A Case Study," *Journal of Academic Librarianship* 5 (July, 1979): 157.
2. Berry G. Richards and Susan A. Cady, "A New Fee-Based Information Service in an Academic Library," *Fee-Based Research in College and University Libraries*. Proceedings of the Conference on Fee-Based Research in College and University Libraries, June 17-18, 1982. (Glenvalle, N.Y.: Center for Business Research, B. Davis Schwartz Memorial Library, C.W. Post Center, Long Island University, 1983), p. 131.
3. "A Commitment to Information Services: Developmental Guidelines," *RQ* 18 (Spring, 1979): 275-278.
4. *Reference and Online Services Handbook: Guidelines, Policies, and Procedures for Libraries*, ed. Bill Katz and Anne Clifford (New York: Neal-Schuman, 1982).
5. *Ibid*, p. 53.
6. Association of Research Libraries. Office of Management Services. Systems and Procedures Exchange Center, *External User Services*. SPEC Kit 73. (Washington, D.C.: A.R.L., April 1981), unpaged.