

Fundamentals of Collection Development and Management

FOURTH EDITION

Peggy Johnson

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PEGGY JOHNSON is a frequent speaker and trainer on collection development and management. She has published several books, including ALA Editions' *Developing and Managing Electronic Collections: The Essentials*, and numerous journal articles. She edited the peer-reviewed journal *Library Resources & Technical Services* for more than nine years and continues to edit *Technicalities: Information Forum for the Technical Services Professional*. She teaches as an adjunct professor in the MLIS program at St. Catherine University. Prior to retiring from the University of Minnesota Libraries, she served as associate university librarian. During more than thirty years at the University of Minnesota, her responsibilities focused on collection development and management, technical services, institutional planning, grants management, and budgeting. A past president of the Association for Library Collections and Technical Services, she received the ALCTS Ross Atkinson Lifetime Achievement Award in 2009. Peggy has consulted on library development in Uganda, Rwanda, Senegal, Morocco, and China.

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PREFACE

TO THE FOURTH EDITION

The twenty-first century has brought into question the role and value of collection development as a professional specialty. The shift from collections-centered to services-centered libraries, patron-driven acquisitions, consortial buying, Big Deal serial bundles, aggregator e-book packages, mass digitizing projects, ubiquitous access to digital content, and the growth of open access can raise uncertainties about what a collections librarian's responsibilities might be. *Fundamentals of Collection Development and Management* is based on the premise that the collections librarian's role in this complex and evolving environment is now more important than ever.

This book is intended as a comprehensive introduction for students, a primer for experienced librarians with new collection development and management responsibilities, and a handy reference resource for practitioners as they go about their day-to-day work. Coverage is intended to reflect the practice of collection development and management in all types of libraries with a focus on the United States. The history of libraries and collection development and management is provided to set the context for current theory and practice. When pertinent, I draw from the literature outside library and information management.

Technology and the ubiquity of the internet continue to reshape nearly all aspects of collection development and management in all types of libraries. The powerful forces affecting the work we do and how we do it are made more challenging by sociological, educational, economic, demographic, political, regulatory, and institutional changes in our user communities and the parent organizations and agencies that fund libraries. Library users' needs and expectations are evolving concurrently. I have sought to reflect this rapidly evolving environment with updated examples and data.

This book begins with an introduction to and an overview of collection management and development in chapter 1, including a brief history of the evolution of collection development and management as a specialty within the profession. I believe that understanding the history of collecting and library development and the practices employed in the past are essential to managing the collections in our libraries. Chapter 2 explores the organization and assignment of collection development and management responsibilities in libraries. An important section in chapter 2 discusses ethical issues associated with building and managing collections. Chapter 3 addresses formal library planning and two important library planning tools—collection development and management policies and library budgets. Chapter 4 introduces topologies for types of materials that librarians select and explores the selection process, selection criteria, the acquisition process, and acquisition options. Chapter 5 offers an introduction to vendor relations, negotiation, and contracts, all important areas for today's collections librarians. Chapter 6 examines the collection management responsibilities of librarians after they have developed collections. Topics include weeding for withdrawal and storage; preservation and conservation; subscription review, renewal, and cancellation; and protecting collections from deterioration, theft, mutilation, and disasters. Chapter 7 defines marketing, places it in the library context, and explores the value of and techniques for building and maintaining community relationships. Chapter 8 covers

approaches to collection analysis and how to answer questions about quality and utility using quantitative, qualitative, and use- and user-based methods. Chapter 9 focuses on collaborative collection development and management, and considers the power that working together gives libraries in an environment of constrained budgets, limited space to house collections, and abundant print collections.

I have eliminated the third edition's in-depth chapter on scholarly communication and the impact of the open-access movement. Instead, I address these topics, as appropriate, in other chapters. Much of the content in the 2014 chapter on scholarly communication remains valid, although progress continues to be made. For those interested, chapter 9, "Scholarly Communication," from the third edition can be accessed at alaeditions.org/webextras.

All chapters have new supplemental reading lists, which contain no sources published before 2014. These supplemental lists are not comprehensive bibliographies, but are intended to offer representative and useful additional resources. Reading lists from the first three editions, which contain resources published and posted prior to 2014, can be accessed at alaeditions.org/webextras. The fictional case studies that supplement chapters 2 through 9 are new. I hope that practitioners as well as students will view them as catalysts for discussion. Case studies from the previous editions can be accessed at alaeditions.org/webextras.

The glossary and appendixes have been updated. These are appendix A, "Professional Resources for Collection Development and Management" and appendix B, "Selection Aids." This edition does not include an appendix of collection development policies. The reader should consult the policies referenced in chapters, for which URLs are provided.

One challenge in writing a book about collection development and management is that all aspects of the work are interconnected. I pondered which topics to address in each chapter and in what order to arrange them. Another challenge I faced is the extent to which I should explore each topic; many could be—and have been—the subject of entire books. Readers interested in more in-depth treatments should consult the suggested reading lists at the end of the chapters. My intent has been to provide a logical sequence of topics for the novice, and also to create chapters that can stand alone for those who want to start with a particular topic.

Data are drawn from various sources, but many of these are not as current as desirable because of the delay involved in compiling and publishing. Readers interested in more up-to-date information are encouraged to seek the latest publications and visit updated websites. All URLs provided in this book were valid as of fall 2017. Diligent searchers will find many of the sources referenced in the notes and reading lists freely available online. Some reports and studies can be obtained by completing a form on the publisher's website. Products, companies, projects, and initiatives referenced are provided as examples only and are not endorsements. Rapid change is a characteristic of the environment in which libraries operate. This includes commercial offerings, business models, and companies. Note that some information in this book, while accurate at the time of writing, may no longer be current.

Introduction to Collection Development and Management

What do librarians mean when they say *collection development and management*? The concise answer is all the activities involved in building and managing library collections in all formats and genres, both locally held and remotely accessed. This book distinguishes between *collection development*—the thoughtful process of developing or building a library collection in response to institutional priorities and community or user needs and interests, and *collection management*—the equally thoughtful process of deciding what to do after the collection is developed.

This chapter will introduce concepts; offer a historical overview of libraries and their collections, with emphasis on the United States; and examine the evolution of collection development and management as an area of focus in librarianship. Understanding the history of collection work and external forces influencing collections is valuable because contemporary practice builds on that of the past. Today's librarians work with library collections that have been created over many years in accordance with earlier practices and conventions. In addition, many challenges contemporary librarians face have remained constant over time. Topics introduced in this chapter are explored in more depth in subsequent chapters.

COMPONENTS OF COLLECTION DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT

The terms *collection development* and *collection management* are often used synonymously or in tandem. The professional organization within the Association for Library Collections and Technical Services that focuses on this topic is called the Collection Management Section. The Reference and User Services Association's comparable section is called the Collection Development and Evaluation Section. The Medical Library Association has a Collection Development Section, the American Association of Law Libraries Special Interest Section has a Collection Development Committee, and the Association for Library Service to Children has a Children's Collection Management Discussion Group.

Regardless of the term used, librarians generally have a common understanding of the practice and purpose of collection development and management, namely:

The goal of any collection development organization must be to provide the library with a collection that meets the appropriate needs of its client population within the limits of its fiscal and personnel resources. To reach this goal, each segment of the collection must be developed with an application of resources consistent with its relative importance to the mission of the library and the needs of its patrons.¹

Although written more than thirty years ago, before libraries experienced the profound changes in technology, society, and the economy that now characterize their environment, this description remains valid. Many have noted that libraries have shifted to a user focus and away from a collection-centered focus; however, the needs of the client population have been a concern of collection development and management from the earliest times. The materials that librarians opt to purchase and lease for their user communities, and the ways in which they make choices, remain critically important.

Collection development and management practitioners may be called selectors, bibliographers, collections librarians, subject specialists, liaisons or subject liaisons, collection development librarians, collection managers, collection strategists, collection analysts, or collection developers. Additional titles for those who build and manage collections also are used. In corporate libraries, those with collections responsibilities have various titles, including librarian, systems librarian, knowledge center manager, and information specialist. In smaller libraries, the individual who develops and manages collections may simply have the title of librarian or, in schools, school librarian or media specialist. Some titles, such as scholarly communications librarian and electronic resources librarian, describe responsibilities that have grown out of more traditional collections positions.

Collections responsibilities often are part of a suite of responsibilities that includes:

- selecting materials in all formats for acquisition and access
- reviewing and negotiating contracts to acquire or access e-resources
- managing the collection through informed weeding, cancellation, storage, and preservation
- writing and revising collection development policies
- promoting, marketing, and interpreting collections and resources
- evaluating and assessing collections and related services, collection use, and users' experiences
- responding to challenges to materials
- carrying out community liaison and outreach activities
- preparing budgets, managing allocations, and demonstrating responsible stewardship of funds
- working with other libraries in support of resource sharing and cooperative and collaborative collection development and management
- soliciting supplemental funds for collection development and management through grants and monetary gifts

The assignment and importance of these responsibilities vary from library to library and librarian to librarian, but they are generally found in all types of libraries. Thus this book is not organized into separate chapters for various types of libraries.

Each of these responsibilities requires knowledge of the library's fiscal and personnel resources, mission, values, and priorities, along with those of the library's parent organization, and of the community that the library serves. Collection development and management cannot be successful unless integrated within all library operations; thus, a collections librarian must have a thorough understanding of his or her library's operations and services and a close relationship with the units that provide them. Essential considerations for the collections librarian include who has access to the collection on-site and remotely, circulation and use policies, consortial arrangements, and ease of resource discovery. Collections librarians who work with contracts and licenses need to comprehend the legal requirements

and policies of the library and its parent organization. A constant theme throughout this book is the importance of the internal and external environments within which collections librarians practice their craft.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

The existence of several ancient libraries, for example, those in Hattusha and Pergamon (modern Turkey), Nineveh (modern Iraq), and Alexandria (modern Egypt), has been documented, but no records of their selection criteria have been found. Many of the oldest libraries, for example, that at Hattusha (ca. fifteenth century BCE to ca. twelfth century BCE), which housed between 1,500 and 2,000 cuneiform tablets, functioned as archives that preserved legal codes, official correspondence, treaties, and contracts.² The earliest libraries served primarily as storehouses of official documents and sacred texts or as treasuries to display wealth and power rather than as instruments for the wide dissemination of knowledge or sources for recreational reading.

Over time, libraries began to aggressively add items, develop into centers of learning and translation, and were opened to scholars. The library at Alexandria, which flourished as a center of scholarship between the third century BCE and the first or second century CE, held more than 400,000 mixed scrolls that included multiple works and another 90,000 individual scrolls, which were reportedly acquired through theft as well as purchase.³ Evidence suggests that some scholars enjoyed patronage and visitors were not limited by doctrine or philosophy.⁴ The Al-Qarawiyyin library, the oldest operating library in the world, was founded by Fatima al-Fihri in 859 to support education and research at the university of the same name in Fez.⁵ One can assume that the scarcity of written materials and their value as unique records made comprehensiveness, completeness, and preservation guiding principles. These continued to be library goals through the growth of commerce, the Renaissance, the invention of movable type, the expansion of lay literacy, the Enlightenment, the public library movement, and the proliferation of electronic resources.

Systematic philosophies of selection were rare until the end of the nineteenth century, although a few early librarians wrote about their guiding principles. Gabriel Naudé, hired by Cardinal Mazarin to manage his personal library in the early 1600s, addressed selection in the first modern treatise on the management of libraries. He wrote, “It may be laid down as a maxim that there is no book whatsoever, be it never so bad or disparaged, but may in time be sought for by someone.”⁶ Completeness as a goal has been balanced by a desire to select the best and most appropriate materials. John Dury, in his 1650 tract *The Reformed Librarie-Keeper* wrote:

I do not think that all Books and Treaties which in this age are printed in all kindes, should bee inserted into the Catalogue, and added to the stock of the Librarie, discretion must bee used and confusion avoided, and a course taken to distinguish that which is profitable, from that which is useless.⁷

In 1780, Jean-Baptiste Cotton des Houssays, librarian at the Sorbonne, stated that libraries should consist only of books “of genuine merit and of well-approved utility,” with new additions guided by “enlightened economy.”⁸ What constitutes appropriate criteria for selectivity and determining what has merit and what is “useless” has been a subject of continuing debate among librarians and library users for centuries.

Public Libraries

Contemporary public libraries had various precursors in the United States. Thomas Bray, an English Anglican cleric, arrived in the Colony of Maryland in 1699 with a commission to organize Church of England parishes and to supply them with books, for which he was granted funds.⁹ By the time he returned to England two years later, he had established seventeen parish libraries, which primarily supported clergy but also were open to the public. The largest was in Annapolis and held 1,095 volumes, then the largest public collection of books in the Colonies and “probably the first free circulating library in the United States.”¹⁰

Social libraries, sometimes called subscription libraries or membership libraries, were limited to a specific clientele and supported by their members. One of the better-known and perhaps the first was the Philadelphia Library Company, founded by Benjamin Franklin in 1731 and supported by fifty subscribers who shared the cost of importing books and journals from England.¹¹ Many subscription libraries became public libraries when a library society lost interest and turned the collection over to the town government, which then began to support it financially and opened it to citizens.¹²

Mercantile libraries were membership libraries founded by and for merchants and clerks both to educate and to offer an alternative to immoral entertainment.¹³ Their goal was to teach morality, provide a wholesome environment, and offer self-education opportunities to the poor and uneducated who were drawn to cities. They often featured presentations by prominent writers and thinkers. Examples were found in New York (1820), Boston (1820), Philadelphia (1821), and Cincinnati (1835). The Mercantile Library of New York (now the Center for Fiction, <http://centerforfiction.org>) was the largest mercantile library and, by 1871, was the fourth largest library in the United States. Only the Library of Congress, Boston Public Library, and Astor Library (also in New York City) were bigger.

Free African Americans formed literary society libraries in the northeast United States between 1828 and 1860. One of the earliest, the Colored Reading Society of Philadelphia (founded in 1828), directed that all income from initiation fees and monthly dues (excluding that designated for rent and light) be spent on books. The Phoenix Society of New York, established in 1833, aimed to “establish circulating libraries in each ward for the use of people of colour on very modest pay—to establish mental feasts.”¹⁴

Another early form of free libraries was Sunday school libraries, which generally served communities without regard to class, race, and gender. For example, in 1817, the New York Female Union Society for the Promotion of Sabbath Schools was instructing 5,500 students, both African American and White.¹⁵ Many Sunday schools provided a library where students could borrow religious literature regardless of their race or gender, thus offering access opportunities similar to today’s public libraries.

When considered together, these early libraries, while not publically supported, were furnishing the type of collections that libraries provide today—materials that are used for information, education, and recreation.

A library established in Franklin, Massachusetts, with funds from Benjamin Franklin to purchase 116 volumes, was opened to all inhabitants of the town in 1790. Though public, it was not supported by public funding.¹⁶ The Peterborough (New Hampshire) Town Library established in 1833 is usually identified as the first free publicly owned and maintained library in the United States. The success of this library prompted the New Hampshire State Legislature to become the first to authorize towns to raise money to establish and maintain their own libraries in 1849.¹⁷

Boston was the first major city to establish a public library, which opened in 1854. The trustees defined the purpose of the public library as education and, though they had no plans to acquire novels, they were willing to include more popular “respectable” books. In their first report, the trustees wrote, “We consider that a large public library is of the utmost importance as the means of completing our system of public education.”¹⁸ The responsibility of libraries to educate their users and to expose them to the “better” books and journals remained a topic of debate in public libraries for many years. Similar controversies persist in public libraries about the appropriateness of some types of materials such as romance novels, graphic novels, video games, comic books, and materials on controversial subjects.

Andrew Carnegie had a powerful influence on libraries between 1883 and 1929, when he gave more than \$60 million to build 2,509 library buildings.¹⁹ Of these, 1,689 were built in the United States and 125 in Canada. While most were public libraries, a few were academic. Carnegie paid only to construct the libraries and did not fund maintenance, staff, or collections. His intent was to compel communities to tax themselves and to assume responsibility for the libraries. In some cases, communities declined his offer because they did not want to provide a collection and continuing support. Those that accepted a library building often did not have to develop a collection from scratch. Many towns had some type of small public library housed in less-than-optimal locations, such as the basement of the courthouse, a millinery shop, or an abandoned church, and the existing materials formed the nucleus of the new Carnegie library’s collection. Acquiring materials to fill the new libraries became a priority.

Trustees, or committees appointed by trustees, selected materials in early public libraries. Some cities sought to be inclusive and representative in board appointments to represent the diversity of urban centers. In 1874, a Chicago public library trustees’ meeting erupted “into cacophony” as some board members protested ethnic and religious bias in selecting books, complaining that Jewish authors were excluded and Catholic authors favored.²⁰ The chair regained order and the board passed a motion that any member could select from a list of possible titles, resulting in a “fair show upon the shelves.”

By the end of the 1800s, as librarianship evolved as a profession, John Cotton Dana was advising that book selection in public libraries be left to the librarians, who were overseen by the trustees or a book committee.²¹ The rise of library schools and the professionalization of librarianship encouraged public library trustees and boards to transfer selection responsibilities to librarians.

Despite being assigned selection responsibilities, librarians’ collection decisions continue to be monitored and questioned by library boards and trustees, parents, the public, and government at all levels. Often this takes the form of challenges to individual titles, but in 1996 the US federal government took on the responsibility of protecting children who were using libraries by blocking access to harmful materials on the internet. The Communications Decency Act (Title V of the Telecommunications Act of 1996) sought to regulate internet access to obscene and indecent materials but was ruled unconstitutional by the US Supreme Court because it violated the First Amendment. Eventually, the attempt to regulate obscenity was addressed in the Children’s Internet Protection Act (CIPA), which became law in December 2000.²² Public librarians protested against CIPA, which they viewed as an infringement on the right to read and a form of censorship. ALA challenged the law as unconstitutional in 2001, but the Supreme Court upheld it in 2003. CIPA requires schools and public libraries to use internet filtering software on computers with internet access to protect against access to “visual depictions that are obscene, child pornographic, or harmful

to minors.” If a library receives only the federal E-Rate discount for telecommunication services, then compliance with CIPA is not required. If a library receives the E-Rate discount on even a single item under Internal Connections or Internet Access, it must comply with CIPA. A library also must comply with CIPA if it uses Library Services and Technology Act (LSTA) grant funds to purchase one or more personal computers that will access the internet or if it uses these funds to pay an internet service provider.²³

Local and state appropriations remain the primary funding sources for public libraries. When the economy is growing, libraries benefit. After World War II, economic growth resulted in increased tax revenues and thus increased funds for public libraries. Much of this money supported collections growth. Funding for public libraries began to plateau or decline in the late 1970s. Pressures to contain taxes at all levels of government reduced the flow of funds to libraries when municipalities began to make difficult choices about how to allocate limited resources. Libraries, in turn, faced choices about their priorities and where scarce funds should be directed—to hours of operation, staffing, services, facilities, or collections. Many public libraries closed branches and reduced the purchases of duplicate copies of popular titles. Book vendors began to offer rental collections that provided a rotating selection of popular titles, often with multiple copies, to help libraries manage limited collections budgets.

LSTA was signed into law in 1996 and remains the only federal library-grant program, although other legislation may include some funding for libraries. LSTA replaced the Library Services and Construction Act, which allocated funds for library construction and focused on underserved or disadvantaged communities. LSTA made technological infrastructure its first priority while continuing its emphasis on the underserved, and assigned responsibility to the Institute of Museum and Library Services (IMLS, www.ims.gov). LSTA is funded annually by Congress in the Labor, Health and Human Services, Education, and Related Agencies Appropriations bill. Funding for LSTA was increased in fiscal year 2016 to \$183 million, an increase of \$2 million.²⁴ LSTA serves all types of libraries, including public, school, academic, and special, and is usually administered by the state library in each state under the oversight of IMLS. State libraries or their equivalent award a variety of grants to libraries and museums.

The Great Recession that began in late 2007 compounded libraries’ fiscal problems. As local and state revenues decreased, public library funding was reduced. Nearly 60 percent of public libraries reported flat or decreased operating budgets in 2010–2011.²⁵ Public investment in libraries stabilized in 2013 and library funding began to increase in 2014, growing by 3.0 percent. After four years of declining revenue, public libraries had a 2.5 percent increase in revenue in fiscal year 2014.²⁶

The budget crunch hit public libraries at the same time they became eager to offer e-books, forcing them to choose where limited funds should be spent. Despite financial constraints, urban libraries saw a 60 percent growth in e-book collections between 2005 and 2008.²⁷ E-books, primarily fiction, are now ubiquitous in public libraries. A 2015 *Library Journal* study found that e-books were now a normal part of 94 percent of public libraries and that the median number of e-books per library offered exceeded 14,000 titles.²⁸ The Primary Research Group surveyed sixty-two representative public libraries and found spending on e-books continuing to increase: spending in 2015 increased 23.3 percent over that of 2014, and was projected to increase another 15.8 percent in 2016.²⁹ Most public libraries use an e-book aggregator, such as Bibliotheca (previously 3M) Cloud Library, Overdrive, or another platform, which provides access to e-content from multiple publishers through a common interface.

Twenty percent of public libraries carried self-published e-books in 2015.³⁰ Libraries have been hesitant to acquire self-published books because of concerns about review sources, quality, and hosting. Self-published books still carry some of the stigma associated with vanity publishing, in which books are produced at the author's expense, often with no or little quality control. The main reasons libraries offer self-published books are because a patron requests a title or the author is local.

Public libraries offering e-books must address several troubling issues, and ALA has been active in pressuring publishers to be more accommodating to their needs. E-books cost more than print books, often at least three times as much. For several years, libraries had limited access to frontlist e-books because of publisher restrictions, though all of the Big Five (Penguin Random House, HarperCollins, Macmillan, Simon & Schuster, and Hachette) now make their full catalog of e-books available for library lending. The variety of licensing models can be confusing. Most e-book access is through aggregators, and libraries usually pay for access for a period of time but do not own the book. Retaining access requires additional payment. Some publishers limit the number of circulations, after which the library must buy access again. At the time of this writing, HarperCollins had a limit of twenty-six circulations and Macmillan titles were available for two years or fifty-two loans (whichever came first). Libraries usually prefer perpetual access and simultaneous access by multiple users, but this is not always possible. Some publishers have become more flexible. In 2016, Penguin Random House began offering perpetual licenses with no limits on the number of circulations, although limited to a single user.

Contemporary public libraries offer a variety of media. In 2015, 46 percent were providing streaming video, and in 2016, 96 percent were offering downloadable audio and 44 percent offered streaming audio.³¹ Simultaneously, libraries continue to maintain print collections. Librarians are challenged to provide digital content with uncertain funding and a technology environment that is constantly changing while still providing the print materials that some readers prefer.

For the most part, standards and guidelines for public libraries are issued at the state level in the United States and at the provincial and territorial level in Canada. Examples are *In Service to Iowa: Public Library Standards*, *Colorado Public Library Standards*, and *Ontario Public Library Guidelines for Municipal and Country Public Libraries*.³² The International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) issued *IFLA Public Library Service Guidelines*, 2nd ed., in 2010. The Young Adult Library Services Association (YALSA) developed the *YALSA Teen Services Evaluation Tool*, which defines essential elements in providing public library services to teens.³³ Though not a standard per se, each element in this tool is accompanied by characteristics that define a collection as distinguished, proficient, basic, or below basic. For example, the essential element "Collection of materials in a variety of formats, reading levels, and languages" in a distinguished collection is characterized this way:

Young adult collection represents a wide variety of formats including print and digital. The entire collection is continually evaluated & weeded. Collection reflects languages other than English that reflect the library community. YA staff is familiar with all types of materials that teens consume in all types of formats.³⁴

A 2014 Aspen Institute report identified the greatest challenge facing public libraries as the need to transform their service model to meet the demands of a knowledge society while securing sustainable funding. Although the challenges are formidable, the report observes:

This is a time of great opportunity for communities, institutions, and individuals who are willing to champion new thinking and nurture new relationships. It is a time of particular opportunity for public libraries with their unique stature as trusted community hubs and repositories of knowledge and information.³⁵

Academic Libraries

Academic libraries serve public and private community colleges, colleges, and universities. They preceded public libraries in the American colonies. Most early libraries in North America first developed as private collections and then within institutions of higher education. These early libraries were small because most materials had to be shipped from Europe and funds were limited. Few materials were published in the colonies. As late as 1850, only 600 periodicals were being published in the United States, up from 26 in 1810.³⁶ Monographic publishing was equally sparse, with most early works being religious in nature. Between 1830 and 1842, an average of 100 was published each year and by 1853 this had only increased to 879.³⁷

Early academic libraries were seldom concerned with the process of selection because they rarely had continuing budget allocations. Most support for academic libraries' collections came from gifts of books or donations to purchase them. Less than a tenth of the holdings of colonial American college libraries were added through direct purchase.³⁸ Any institutional funds came from the occasional actions of the trustees or boards of regents rather than from recurring allocations. Student library fees were charged at several institutions, either on a per-annum or a per-use basis.³⁹ As late as 1856, when John Langdon Sibley became librarian of Harvard, the total budget for library acquisitions and binding was only \$250 per year—about \$6,779 in 2016 Consumer Price Index (CPI) dollars. In comparison, Harvard spent \$45,878,762 on acquisitions and access in fiscal year 2015.⁴⁰ Even with funds in hand, acquiring materials was challenging. Everything had to be purchased on buying trips to book dealers in large East Coast cities and Europe.

Collection growth was slow. By 1790, Harvard's library had only 12,000 volumes. It had averaged 82 new volumes per year in the preceding 135 years. At the same time, the College of William and Mary's library collection numbered only 3,000, and it was the second largest in the country. Academic libraries added, on the average, only 30 to 100 volumes per year before 1800. Because they were donations, most additions were irrelevant to the educational programs of the time.⁴¹ By 1850, only one United States academic institution had a collection larger than 50,000 volumes: Harvard College had grown to 72,000 volumes.⁴² At mid-century, total holdings for the approximately seven hundred colleges, professional schools, and public libraries in the United States were only 2.2 million volumes.⁴³

Academic libraries reflected US education's priorities of the time: teaching rather than study, students rather than scholars, memorization rather than inquiry, and maintaining order and discipline rather than promoting learning and research. Reflective thinking and theoretical considerations were unusual in any college discipline before the American Civil War. As a consequence, academic libraries had limited significance in their institutions and functioned primarily as storehouses, with rigid regulations governing their use.

The limitations in service hours and restrictions on borrowing materials, combined with modest collections, prompted many undergraduate literary societies to develop libraries on their own. These libraries had large collections housed in pleasant surroundings, unlike the college libraries, which have been described as "rather inhospitable and inaccessible

storerooms with little or no heat.”⁴⁴ Similar to the society libraries established in cities, these were funded by members and expanded the educational opportunities of their student affiliates until academic libraries changed in the late 1800s.

American research and teaching experienced a fundamental change between 1850 and 1900, influenced by ideas and methods imported from German universities, which had become centers for advanced scholarship. The move to lectures and seminars as replacements for textbooks, memorization, and recitation, coupled with the increasing importance of research, had far-reaching consequences for libraries. The 1862 passage of the Morrill Act, which created the land grant universities, introduced the concept that universities were obligated to produce and share knowledge that would advance society. A direct result of the Morrill Act was a tremendous increase in scholarly journals and monographs to report and share research. Consequently, libraries became more important to the academic mission because they could provide a campus location that collected these materials, organized them, and made them available for use.

Professionalized and institution-centered scholars had different needs and working habits from those of their predecessors, and their attitudes toward the academic library experienced a basic reorientation. The institutional academic library became a necessity. The mounting flood of publications issued in the United States and globally meant that even those few scholars with private means could not individually keep up with and manage all the new information available. They needed the institutional library to provide access to the growing number of materials necessary for research.

As universities expanded to support graduate and professional programs and major research initiatives, their libraries sought to develop comprehensive collections that would support both current and future programs and research. College libraries began to diverge from university libraries as their parent institutions’ mission evolved in the second half of the 1800s. College libraries retained a focus on supporting undergraduate teaching and learning and the needs of undergraduates, a focus that continues today. They did not seek to build the comprehensive collections that came to characterize university libraries. To address the different needs of undergraduates, many research universities created a college or undergraduate library separate from their main library.

Faculty members and academic administrators handled most selection in both university and college libraries well into the 1900s.⁴⁵ When Asa Gray was hired as an instructor at the University of Michigan in 1838, he went first to Europe to acquire books for the library. The president of Ohio Wesleyan traveled to New York and Europe in 1854 to purchase library books.⁴⁶ German university libraries were unique in designating selection as the direct responsibility of librarians and staff, with less faculty input. An early advocate of the role of librarians in developing library collections was Christian Gottlob Heyne, the librarian at Germany’s University of Göttingen from 1763 to 1812.⁴⁷ The German model was slow to be adopted in the United States. In 1930, faculty members still were selecting as much as 80 percent of total university library acquisitions, while librarians were choosing a modest 20 percent.⁴⁸

At universities, this ratio began to shift in the 1960s and had reversed by the late 1970s, although teaching faculty continue to have an important selection role in many smaller institutions. These faculty often collaborate with librarians, who may have responsibility for some types of materials and portions of the collection, such as reference materials. The shift to librarians selecting materials can be linked to increasing professionalism among librarians, the burgeoning volume of publications, a growing number of librarians with extensive subject training, and the expanding pressure of other responsibilities, including

research and publication, on faculty. As responsibility for building library collections shifted from faculty to librarians—or became a shared responsibility—emphasis changed from selecting materials to meet the needs and interests of specific faculty members to building a unified and coherent collection to meet both current and future institutional priorities.

The period between 1945 and 1970 has been called higher education’s “golden age.” It paralleled post-World War II economic expansion.⁴⁹ Unemployment was low for most of this period, and tax revenues at the local, state, and federal levels increased. Many of these dollars flowed into higher education, and libraries benefited directly. A series of federal programs, beginning with the Servicemen’s Readjustment Act—the G.I. Bill—in 1944, subsidized student tuition.⁵⁰ The G.I. Bill, which allowed World War II veterans to attend college at no cost, resulted in an influx of funds that colleges and universities directed to new faculty positions and programs, and to infrastructure including libraries. The 1958 National Defense Education Act (NDEA) was a response to the Soviet Union’s launch of Sputnik and fear that the United States was falling behind in technology and the sciences. The NDEA authorized funding for higher education loans and fellowships, vocational teacher training, and programs in K-12 schools, including math, science, and foreign-language activities. In 1965, the Higher Education Act (HEA) was enacted to strengthen educational resources in colleges and universities and provide financial assistance for students. The HEA has been reauthorized at four-year intervals and, in 2008, was amended and reauthorized as the Higher Education Opportunity Act.⁵¹ Since then, Congress has extended funding on a year-by-year basis. The HEA, as it is still known, is the basis for many of today’s postsecondary education subsidies, including student loan and grant programs, direct funding for college and university libraries, and teacher-training programs. Title VI of the Act supports infrastructure building in colleges and universities for foreign-language, international, and area studies. Often significant funding is directed to building library collections to support these initiatives.

College and university library budgets grew rapidly during the golden age of higher education. In 1944, Rider made his famous prediction that research library collections would double every sixteen years.⁵² In 1953, Brough wrote that the mission of Harvard’s library was the “collection and preservation of everything printed.”⁵³ The seemingly endless possibilities for growth broadened the librarian’s collection responsibilities. Librarians began to view building comprehensive collections as an important responsibility and started to seek and acquire materials from around the world. The scope of collections expanded to include Asia, Africa, the Middle East, and Eastern Europe as well as Western Europe.⁵⁴

The emphasis during this period was on growth and how to handle it effectively. Collections theory began to focus on who should be selecting materials for the library, how selection decisions were made and what the appropriate criteria were, and alternatives to individual title selection for building collections. During the 1950s, vendors began offering services that freed librarians from ordering directly from the publisher. Many of these service agencies began supplying materials through approval and blanket plans, freeing academic librarians to concentrate on identifying and obtaining more esoteric resources.

The majority of funding for academic libraries comes from their parent institutions, although individual budget models will vary. Some libraries also receive funding from endowments and bequests, grants, and occasionally from fee-for-service operations. Academic libraries’ budgets generally leveled off or began trending downward in the 1970s. Fiscal constraints were coupled with increasing materials costs. In the 1980s, the escalating cost of journals led academic librarians to proclaim a “serials crisis.” The Association of Research Libraries (ARL) began tracking serials and monograph unit costs, expenditures, and number

of titles purchased against the CPI. Between 1986 and 2015, ARL, often a bellwether for academic libraries of all sizes, documented a 521 percent increase in ongoing resources (formerly called serials) expenditures while the CPI increased only 118 percent.⁵⁵ Expenditures for one-time resources (formerly called monographs) increased only 79 percent during the same period. These large academic libraries continue to invest a major portion (71 percent, on average) of their collections budgets on ongoing resource purchases and 29 percent on monographs. Of this, 21 percent is for one-time resource purchases and 8 percent is for e-books.⁵⁶

The economic collapse that began in 2007 affected academic libraries with more than half of ARL member libraries reporting flat or declining acquisitions budgets.⁵⁷ By fiscal year 2012/13, the same libraries were reporting a gradual increase in their budgets. This trend was mirrored in other academic libraries, but these increases did not match the annual increases in materials costs. Libraries face a persistent challenge in allocating collections budgets that are insufficient to meet the increase in materials prices and growing user demand for costly e-resources.

The consolidation of publishers and vendors has changed the marketplace in which academic librarians make their collections decisions. Ten publishers (Springer, Reed-Elsevier, Wiley-Blackwell, Taylor and Francis, Sage, Wolters Kluwer, Hindawi, Cambridge University Press, Oxford University Press, and Emerald) published 45.6 percent of all science, technology, and medical journals in 2015. Springer alone published 2,987 journals.⁵⁸ With mergers have come price increases—when Elsevier Reed purchased Pergamon in 1991, Pergamon's journals prices increased 27 percent.⁵⁹ One of the more recent mergers occurred in 2015, when Springer consolidated with Macmillan, owners of the Nature Publishing Group, resulting in a combined value of \$5.8 billion., with even higher prices forecast.⁶⁰

The advent of electronic scholarly journals led academic librarians to hope for an alternative to costly print serials. While the number of e-journals increased rapidly, growing from 17 in 1991 to 2,459 only 6 years later, libraries experienced no respite as prices of all formats continue to escalate.⁶¹ When publishers began offering what is known as the Big Deal in the late 1990s, librarians saw a way to control inflation. In a Big Deal, commercial publishers bundle packages of e-journals for a single price with the promise that cost increases would be controlled if libraries accepted the package, often with conditions prohibiting cancellation for a specified number of years. The cost of the bundled packages was determined by a library's historic print subscriptions plus annual inflation increments. Academic librarians quickly began to question the advantages of signing Big Deal agreements because of the limitations on cancellations and bundled packages that included titles of lesser interest.

Regardless of costs and licensing challenges, e-journals have come to dominate academic journal collections, and e-books, particularly reference materials and scholarly monographs, have become increasingly important in academic libraries. As early as 2012, a study by *Library Journal* reported that 95 percent of academic libraries offered e-books.⁶² A 2016 survey found that the ratio of print to digital volumes was about 2-to-1 and that more than half of e-books were made available through either consortia or a state program.⁶³ Most scholarly e-books are acquired as part of packages from publishers, vendors, and aggregators, and not selected on a title-by-title basis.

One problem that e-books present is that their licenses generally limit the use of entire e-books for interlibrary loan, and the technology to do so has been insufficient. To address this, an e-book interlibrary loan pilot project, Occam's Reader, was launched by Texas Tech University, the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa, and the Greater Western Library Alliance

in 2014. Occam's Reader creates a process for requesting, processing, and delivering e-books under the terms of Springer e-Book licenses, which permit interlibrary loan.⁶⁴ Some consortia negotiate for consortia-wide use of e-books, thus avoiding the need for each member to purchase the same book.

Other e-book concerns faced by academic libraries are similar to those troubling public libraries. These include irrevocable perpetual access and archival rights, unlimited simultaneous users, and freedom from onerous digital rights management (DRM), the technology that controls access to intellectual property created or reproduced in digital form for distribution online or via other digital media.

The high cost of materials led to increased library cooperation. This was partially driven by interest in negotiating collectively for the best price for e-content and the need to share more scarce resources. Most early efforts at securing discounted subscriptions came from academic library consortia, but many consortia now represent all types of libraries and can be based on geography, type of library, subject specialization, or a combination of these.

Librarians questioned the older idea of building comprehensive collections in large libraries "just-in-case" a particular item might be needed and suggested that a more responsible use of budgets might be supplying materials to meet users' needs "just-in-time." *Just-in-time* is a business term that describes a means of inventory control. The goal of just-in-time inventory management is to reduce the use of buffer inventories and to synchronize the movement of materials through the production process so that materials are only delivered just before they are needed. *Just-in-case* management is the opposite, meaning that large inventories of production materials are held on-site so they are always on hand whenever they are needed. Librarians often framed this as a debate about ownership versus access. An obvious alternative to building comprehensive local collections is heavier reliance on interlibrary lending. In 1988, Line wrote,

Before World War 2, interlending was regarded as an optional extra, a grace and favour activity, to be indulged in sparingly; any research library considered it an admission of failure to have to obtain any item from elsewhere. Now every library, however large, accepts that it cannot be self-sufficient, and some of the largest obtain the most from elsewhere.⁶⁵

This statement is as true today as it was in 1988. Membership in consortia facilitates interlibrary loan by removing barriers between members and contracting for shared rapid-delivery services.

Many academic libraries have turned to additional options for providing materials at the point of need. One is to provide journal articles via pay-per-view. Libraries may cancel lesser-used or peripheral journals and instead purchase articles when their users request them. Reallocating funds previously directed to subscriptions may be a reasonable way to use limited funds and still meet user need. Patron-driven acquisitions of monographs has become increasingly popular. In this model, bibliographic records for e-books are loaded in the local catalog and purchase is initiated when users view a particular title a specified number of times. By relying on users to guide selection, a library employs the just-in-time model and acquires materials it knows will be used.

Librarians began to discuss scholarly communication as an information food chain in the 1990s. In this construct, academic libraries purchase the resources that researchers use, researchers write up their findings and give them to journal publishers, who then publish

the research in journals that they sell to libraries. Librarians began to question this system, which placed libraries at the low (and expensive) end of the food chain and potentially reduced the dissemination of scholarship. In 1997, ARL started the Scholarly Publishing and Academic Resources Coalition (SPARC, sparcopen.org), now an alliance of more than 200 universities, research libraries, and professional organizations, as a constructive response to market dysfunctions in the scholarly communication system. The open-access movement, which seeks to make scholarly articles available without barriers—online, free of charge, and with few copyright and licensing restrictions—through self-archiving and open-access journals, took shape under the aegis of the Budapest Open Access Initiative (BOAI, www.soros.org/openaccess) in 2001. Academic librarians began working to raise the consciousness of their faculties about their own roles and responsibilities in the creation and dissemination of knowledge.

Mass digitization of print materials has affected the nature of collection development and management in academic libraries. The Google Books Library Project was launched in 2004 with the goal of scanning fifteen million volumes. By 2015, more than thirty million books had been scanned and were searchable.⁶⁶ Books not protected by copyright are available in full and can be read online. Those not in the public domain are searchable, but not fully available. In September 2017, the nonprofit Internet Archive (<https://archive.org>) had a collection of more than eleven million fully accessible books and texts (plus moving images, music, and audio files), and Project Gutenberg (www.gutenberg.org) offered more than 54,000 free e-books. These can be read online or downloaded in HTML, as an EPUB book, or to a Kindle. Collections librarians began to consider the extent to which they could rely on these digital collections and perhaps reduce local holdings. A parallel issue that has complicated decision-making is the extent to which these digitized materials should be reflected in the local catalog.

Deciding to rely on these mass digitization repositories to supplement or replace local holdings raised questions about permanent access. To address this, HathiTrust (www.hathitrust.org), a partnership of large research institutions and libraries, was established in 2008 to preserve and provide access to digitized materials deposited by members. As of 2017, the HathiTrust Digital Library (www.hathitrust.org/digital_library) held more than fifteen million volumes (both books and serials), of which approximately 38 percent were in the public domain. Digital content comes from various sources, including the Google Books Library Project, the Internet Archive, and partner institution in-house scanning. Anyone can search the HathiTrust Digital Library, but full viewing and downloading of public domain materials is limited to HathiTrust partners, all of which are academic libraries.

Massive digitization projects, increasing local space constraints, and deteriorating collections have led libraries to consider the “collective collection”—the aggregate of materials that are held in multiple locations. Malpas observes that

the emergence of a mass-digitized book corpus has the potential to transform the academic library enterprise, enabling an optimization of legacy print collections that will substantially increase the efficiency of library operations and facilitate a redirection of library resources in support of a renovated library service portfolio.⁶⁷

In other words, not all libraries need to retain and preserve the same materials. Rightsizing the local collection has become more important. One challenge for the profession is determining how many copies should be retained, and where.

Dempsey has proposed the idea of a facilitated collection, which is “organized according to a network logic, where a coordinated mix of local, external, and collaborative services are assembled around user need.”⁶⁸ Components of this mix include the owned collection; the borrowed collection; the external collection; licensed and just-in-time provision of content, which is demand driven; and shared or collective print and digital collections. Dempsey proposed the idea that librarians should think of collection as a service.

During the last twenty years, the role of academic library subject specialists (often called bibliographers), whose sole responsibility was collection development and management, has evolved to include expanded responsibilities for outreach and liaison activities. Simultaneously, many reference librarians and technical services librarians who previously did not select materials or manage collections are being assigned these responsibilities. All academic librarians with collections responsibilities are facing challenges associated with e-content as it changes the nature of selection and collection management.

Academic libraries face increasing pressures to be accountable, that is, to document their value to their parent institutions in ways that go beyond counts of volumes held, serials subscriptions, and gate counts. The 2017 Association of College and Research Libraries’ standards apply to all types of libraries in higher education; these aim to help libraries demonstrate their impact and “value in the educational mission and in institutional effectiveness.”⁶⁹ Instead of suggesting appropriate collection size as in earlier ACRL standards, the 2011 and 2017 standards emphasize outcomes and suggest points of comparison with peer institutions and for internal longitudinal analysis.

In 2016, ACRL released a statement to be used for communicating library value to stakeholders. It addresses three areas (support recruitment, retention, and matriculation; enhance student learning; and support faculty research and teaching).⁷⁰ Data collection and analysis seek to document the contributions that libraries make to the teaching and research mission of higher education. Of concern to collections librarians is the extent to which investment in collections (both owned and leased) and their use (and usability) support the academic mission.

Open educational resources (OER) are a growing area of interest for academic libraries, partially in response to the high cost of textbooks, but OER are more than an alternative to traditional textbooks; they include teaching and learning materials in any format that may be used, reused, and repurposed without charge. Collections librarians frequently work with faculty to encourage adoption of OER. Jensen and West identify roles for libraries as supporting campus policy; finding quality materials; and advising on copyright, open licensing, and integrated course design.⁷¹ The role of academic librarians in OER is primarily one of collaboration. As Kazakoff-Lane observes, this “fits with librarians’ professional support for access to information as a public good, the institutional mandate of academic libraries to support teaching and research, and the professional obligations of librarians in public libraries to support continuing education.”⁷²

Since the late 1990s, academic librarians have been preoccupied with pricing projections, serial cancellation projects, electronic publishing models, perceived unfair pricing practices, licensing and contract negotiation, demonstrating effective stewardship, balancing print and digital collections, and the changing nature of higher education. Ward describes the challenging future of academic libraries:

Academic libraries are undergoing a public, challenging, and frequently contested transformation. The change and obsolescence of academic libraries as we know them represents an event of unprecedented magnitude in higher education. Rarely has a core

institutional activity faced such formidable prospects for change. . . . The future of our libraries is our own future. Higher education is at a turning point, with libraries as one of the most visible signs of change. How we choose to re-create libraries may be a reflection of how we adapt to changing and critical social, political, economic and environmental issues throughout the world.⁷³

School Libraries

McGinnis traces the origins of school libraries to 1578, when an ordinance passed in Shrewsbury, England, directed that schools should include “a library and gallerie . . . furnished with all manner of books, mappes, spheres, instruments of astronomye and all other things apperteyninge to learning which may be either given to the school or procured with school money.”⁷⁴ School libraries were present in the early private schools of New England in the late eighteenth century. Their collections were primarily composed of reference books and supported by donations.

Public school libraries in the United States were first proposed in legislation recommended to the New York state legislature by governor DeWitt Clinton in 1827; funds were not appropriated until 1839. By 1876, nineteen states had passed legislation to support public school libraries.⁷⁵ In most states, these were classroom libraries, not centralized school libraries. A collection of fifty selected books was regarded as sufficient for an individual classroom. In the early 1940s, only 18 percent of public schools nationwide reported having a centralized library, and these were primarily in high schools. Elementary school libraries did not exist in most states until the 1958 NDEA and the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). By 2011/12, 92 percent of public schools had a centralized library.⁷⁶

Lamb traces the changing nature of school library collections, reporting that some libraries in the early twentieth century carried a variety of formats, such as lantern slides and Victrola records.⁷⁷ Over time, photographs, slides, filmstrips, audiobooks, microforms, e-books, graphic novels, online reference materials, audio and video downloads, films, videos, kits, games, and realia have been part of library collections. Despite evolving formats, Lamb observes that the mission of school libraries has remained constant: “to meet the information and instructional needs of students along with helping them develop a lifelong passion for inquiry, reading, and learning.”⁷⁸

Materials in early school libraries usually were selected by school board members, superintendents, trustees, and occasionally by those directly responsible for the school libraries. The debate over appropriate materials seen in public libraries was also present in school libraries. School superintendents were complaining about the presence of novels in New York school libraries in 1843. The emphasis was on acquiring materials that would further students’ education and excluding “pernicious publications.”⁷⁹

Paralleling practice in other libraries and the growth of the library profession, selection gradually shifted from boards and administrators to school librarians. The establishment in 1896 of the School Library Section within the National Education Association began the formalization of school librarians’ roles and responsibilities.⁸⁰ In 1900, Mary E. Kingsbury was appointed as librarian at Brooklyn’s Erasmus Hall High School; she has been identified as the first library school graduate appointed to a high-school library position as well as the first professionally trained librarian to be employed full time in a school. The ALA Council approved a petition from the ALA Roundtable of Normal and High School Librarians in 1914 to form the School Libraries Section, which held its first meeting at the June 1915

ALA annual conference. In 1951, this section became the American Association of School Librarians (AASL), a separate division of ALA. Despite the profession's recognition of school librarianship as a specialty, lists prepared by state education boards governed the majority of materials added to school libraries into the 1950s. Today most school librarians are responsible for developing their library collections, often under the direction of district level guidelines and sometimes state agency requirements.

School librarians develop collections that support learning and foster reading. They usually seek input from teachers in their schools as they select appropriate materials. The need to help students meet learning standards, such as the Common Core State Standards (www.corestandards.org), Next-Generation Science Standards (www.nextgenscience.org), and any other existing state standards, informs many selection decisions. Especially when funding for collections is scarce, the debate continues over the appropriateness and value of some formats—including comic books, graphic novels, and audio books—in fostering reading and learning.⁸¹

The first standards for school libraries were issued by the National Education Association of the United States in 1918 and were endorsed and republished by ALA in 1920 as *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*.⁸² These and subsequent revisions provided quantitative standards for print materials and ultimately all media. The 1998 revision, *Information Power: Building Partnerships for Learning*, was the first to drop quantitative recommendations.⁸³ The 2009 *Empowering Learners: Guidelines for School Library Media Programs*, states succinctly that “the school library media program includes a well-developed collection of books, periodicals, and non-print material in a variety of formats that support curricular topics and are suited to inquiry learning and users’ needs and interests.”⁸⁴ The American Association of School Librarians’ 2017 standards update and combine *Standards for the 21st-Century Learner*, *Standards for the 21st-Century Learner in Action*, and *Empowering Learners*, and include a section on assessment and evaluation.⁸⁵

Several states have developed standards for school libraries that supplement national standards. The 2011 California Department of Education *Model School Library Standards for California Public Schools: Kindergarten through Grade Twelve* devotes most of its attention to school library standards for students but does briefly address school library program standards, including minimum numbers for various resources. Some states have enacted laws governing school library programs.⁸⁶ Iowa passed a law in 2006 that required each school district to have a licensed teacher-librarian. The Iowa Department of Education and the State Library of Iowa issued guidelines clarifying the implications for school libraries. The section on best practice for a collection requires that

- The collection is current and varied. Resources in multiple formats are provided. There is an appropriate balance between print and electronic resources.
- The collection is aligned with the school’s curriculum. The collection extends into the classrooms for both print and electronic resources.
- The number of items per student should be sufficient to meet needs with due consideration given to the age of library materials.⁸⁷

The second half of the twentieth century saw a change in the nature of school library collections. *Standards for School Media Programs*, a 1969 revision of school library standards, signaled a shift from the terms *school library* and *school library program* to *school media center*

and *school media program*, which stressed the importance of providing a variety of formats to support instruction and learning.⁸⁸ At the same time, school library media centers saw increasing emphasis on providing resources for teachers and often parents.

ESEA Title II provided \$100 million in direct federal assistance for the acquisition of school library resources and other instructional materials. As a result, school library staff were expected to provide leadership in selecting, acquiring, organizing, and using instructional materials. The ESEA had a profound effect on the establishment of school media centers. During the years 1965 to 1968, 12 percent of all public schools established a school library, and approximately 193,600 library expansion projects were funded during the same period.⁸⁹

ESEA was reauthorized at five-year intervals until 1981, when ESEA Title IV was consolidated with other educational programs in the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA) to create one funding block program, the Chapter II Block Grant. The resulting block grants were distributed to states that allocated funds to school districts that then determined their own priorities. The result was a significant decrease in grant funds specifically targeted at school libraries. The consistent growth in library media centers' collections seen over the previous twenty years had ended.

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 was intended to address a portion of the lost funding by providing grants to local school districts in which at least 20 percent of the students were from families with incomes below the poverty line.⁹⁰ In the first year of the program (fiscal year 2002), \$12.5 million was available for grants and ninety-four were awarded.⁹¹ This amount seems modest compared to the \$100 million made available annually in the early days of ESEA II. NCLB supported standards-based education reform and increased the federal role in holding schools accountable for student outcomes. Several states failed to meet the NCLB standards, and the Act generated significant criticism both because of the growth in standardized testing and the increased role of the federal government in education.

The funding situation for school libraries became grimmer when the US Department of Education eliminated fiscal year 2011 funding for the Improving Literacy through School Libraries program, then the only federal program solely for US school libraries. The effects were soon felt at the state and local levels, although \$28.6 million was returned to the Fund for Improvement of Education, a US Department of Education program, half of which was earmarked for libraries.

The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), reauthorizing ESEA and replacing NCLB, was signed into law in December 2015 and was the first law in more than fifty years to specifically mention school librarians and school libraries.⁹² While ESSA has been hailed as a win for libraries and librarians, school librarians have raised concerns about how to define an "effective school library program" as stated in Title 1 of ESSA. The American Association of School Librarians proposed clarifications, explaining that the effective school library program:

1. is adequately staffed, including a state-certified school librarian who
 - a. is an instructional leader and teacher,
 - b. supports the development of digital learning, participatory learning, inquiry learning, technology literacies, and information literacy, and
 - c. supports, supplements, and elevates the literacy experience through guidance and motivational reading initiatives;

2. has up-to-date digital and print materials and technology, including curation of openly licensed educational resources; and
3. provides regular professional development and collaboration between classroom teachers and school librarians.⁹³

The bill validates the importance of libraries and librarians in education and directs agencies to spend funds on school library media programs.

Federal funding for schools is a constant concern, but funding for K–12 education is the responsibility of the states. Most allocations come from the municipality in which the school or school district is located. In 2015/16, local governments provided 63 percent of library funding, 19 percent came from the proceeds of book fairs and book clubs, 9 percent came from state governments and the federal government, with the rest coming from other sources. Funding for school libraries comes from their parent schools and school districts. After several years of reduced funding, school library collections budgets began to improve in 2015/16, although they were still far below 2010/11 levels, the last year before the Great Recession began to reduce tax revenues.⁹⁴

Collection size is no longer considered a key measure of a school library media center’s success, yet these and other numerical data are tracked nationally. The National Center for Education Statistics reported in 2011/12 that the average holdings per 100 students in public schools (combined elementary and secondary) was 2,066 books and 97 audio and video items.⁹⁵ This works out to approximately twenty-two items per student, compared to the 1975 quantitative goal of forty items per student in schools with fewer than 500 students. The average expenditure for library media material (books, audio and video materials, current serials subscriptions, and electronic subscriptions) per student was \$17.26, down from \$23.37 in 1999/2000.

E-content continues to increase in school libraries and media centers. In 2015, 69 percent of school libraries offered digital content, including databases, e-books, periodicals, textbooks, videos, and games. Rosa observes that “school librarians continue to be at the forefront of digital integration in schools, supporting students, teachers, and administrators every day with new resources, training, and strategies.”⁹⁶ OER are of growing interest to schools and libraries. Because they are free, many teachers are starting to replace textbooks with OERs.⁹⁷

Hadler describes five trends in school libraries of the future. He suggests they will provide more resources in a variety of formats, feature learning commons that encourage participatory learning, and collaborate more with other libraries. School librarians will be more engaged in instruction and enable students to access information from many sources. Finally, library automation will “secure the position of the library media center as the research hub of any school.”⁹⁸

Special Libraries

Special libraries are found in hospitals, churches and synagogues, commercial firms, museums, correctional institutions, nonprofit organizations, and trade and professional associations, to name only a few. Some special libraries are maintained within larger libraries, for example, a business library within a public library. A few are independent, such as the Newberry Library (www.newberry.org) in Chicago. Special libraries in the corporate sector may be called information centers, resource centers, or something similar. Because of this diversity, providing a history of special libraries and their collecting practices presents

unique challenges. What special libraries have in common is that they meet the specialized information needs of their host organizations and what is usually a narrow and focused user community. Many special libraries are characterized by a need to provide current or historical information as quickly as possible to solve pressing problems and facilitate decision-making. Ard observes that “information offers the critical competitive edge [and] time is a high value commodity.”⁹⁹

Government libraries may be considered special libraries, although they are sometimes placed in a category of their own. Government libraries support the work of elected representatives, government employees, and occasionally the public. The Pennsylvania Assembly Library was one of the first, opening in 1745, and was composed of materials ordered from England by Benjamin Franklin, clerk of Pennsylvania’s General Assembly.¹⁰⁰ The Library of Congress, the largest government library in the United States, was established in 1800. Although founded to serve the US Congress, it also serves the public and provides many services, including cooperative cataloging programs, interlibrary loan, cataloging and classification, and administration of the US Copyright Office. Many government agencies at all levels have libraries. An example at the national level is the National Agricultural Library (established in 1862), a part of the US Department of Agriculture. Many states have a state library, legislative reference library, law library, and various departmental libraries.

Professional groups, such as doctors and architects, were among the first to establish special libraries. One of the first special libraries in the United States was the medical library at the Pennsylvania Hospital, established in 1763.¹⁰¹ Common-interest groups such as scientific and historical societies were also early creators of special libraries. For example, the American Philosophical Society, founded in 1743, included a library.

The Special Library Association was founded in 1909 to support those working in special libraries. It now has numerous divisions including biomedical, business, military, museums, legal, and transportation. Many professional associations focus more narrowly on library types, such as the American Association of Law Libraries (founded in 1906), the Medical Library Association (founded in 1896), and the Church and Synagogue Library Association (founded in 1967). Some specialties are served by divisions within larger organizations, including the Engineering Libraries Division in the American Society for Engineering Education and the Museum Library Division within the Art Libraries Society of North America.

The earliest special libraries built their collections through donations, similar to academic libraries. Many were started by a gift of a single donor’s collection. Some, such as the Pennsylvania Hospital library, charged students a library fee. As special libraries became more central to the operations of their parent organizations, they received continuing allocations to develop their collections.

Corporate libraries developed in the early twentieth century to meet the needs of their parent organizations. Black and Gabb suggest that two major developments provided the impetus: the establishment of a research infrastructure and the growth of a scientific approach to management, both of which depended on ready access to information.¹⁰² Lapp, an early proponent of the corporate library, wrote “In a good special library there will be few books. Instead, there will be chapters of books, pamphlets, figures, maps, type-written reports, clipping tables, cost sheets, drawings, forms, catalogs, etc. and all classified and arranged, not for display but for constant and efficient use.”¹⁰³

Staff in these libraries extracted, aggregated, and indexed information in anticipation of the needs of their employers. Corporate libraries in the United States totaled approximately one hundred in 1916 and their numbers increased rapidly.¹⁰⁴

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