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The Australian Library Journal

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Editorial

The 'crisis' in scholarly communication

Browsing CAUL's always interesting homepage recently, I came across the following reference: http://www.anu.edu.au/caul/cisc/EconomicsScholarlyCommunication.pdf and went to look at one of the most interesting papers I've come across in a long time. It is a tightly argued and wide-ranging discussion of the present state and future implications of scholarly publishing. I recommend it to any reader with an interest in the 'information revolution'. It's called The economics of scholarly publishing which, in view of the breadth of issues reviewed, is something of an understatement. It is a discussion paper prepared for The Coalition for Innovation in Scholarly Communication by John Houghton of the Centre for Strategic Economic Studies at Victoria University. The Coalition '…is developing a national strategy for cost-effective access to research information' and has representatives from university libraries, the AVCC, CSIRO, DEETYA and the ARC, all of which, including editors (and not excluding this editor) have an interest in '…accessing and distributing scholarly and research information'. It is worth noting that Neil McLean chaired the Steering Committee: Professor Houghton was assisted by Professor Peter Sheehan and Ms Margarita Kumnick.

The Report notes the highly fluid and deeply inter-connected context in which all the players involved, including librarians, operate:

> The skills, responsibilities, executive tools and the workplaces of scholars, librarians, publishers and distributors are very different than they were only a decade ago

But one trend is clear and inexorable:

> …the increase in the price of information and the decline in real dollars…have contributed to a decline in journal and scholarly monograph collections in Australia's university and major reference and research libraries…

Over the twelve years ending 1998 there was a decline of 37 per cent in the number of journal subscriptions by Australian university libraries but at the same time '…expenditure on them increased by 263 per cent and the unit costs of journals increased by a staggering 474 per cent…' (emphasis added). At the same time, funding for research is being driven and directed by the emphasis on real (ie applied) returns. (The images of Fritz Lang come irresistibly to mind.) The implications for a knowledge-based economy are disturbing. And Australia is a 'net importer of printed materials' to the tune of A$660 million, of which around one-third might be considered scholarly.

The authors also comment on the economic implications of the divide between 'tacit and codified knowledge', the latter being a 'pure public good whilst information is not' and that therefore scholarly books and journals viewed as 'information products' cannot be treated as public goods. On the other hand

> This 'scarcity defying expansiveness of knowledge' is one of its most important defining features. It means that ideas and information exhibit very different characteristics from the goods and services of the industrial economy. The social value of ideas and information increases to the degree that they can be shared with and used by others. So social returns are maximised through expansion of access and wide dissemination, not by limiting access and exclusion.

They also note that information is an 'experience good' in that one cannot predict its value until one has bought it, and one buys it not on the basis of the content, which you cannot assess sight unseen, but from 'cues', which include the identity of the author/s, their context and the 'brand'. There is a further consideration – the authority, inherent or implied – in the product: the publications of the Standards Authority of Australia have both inherent and implied authority. An element of the dilemma for librarians, struggling to meet user demand from decreasing real budgets, is that what are here called 'price signals' are seldom evident to the consumer, and collection lacunae are always more evident than acquisitions.

In such a context

> Creating an effective structure of incentives throughout the scholarly communication product system is essential. By tying promotion, pay, tenure, research funding and other basic rewards to publication in a few, key, refereed journals in each field, universities have created a dysfunctional system of incentives. Reform is required to the institutional incentives facing authors, in order to align the goals of publication and dissemination and the interests of authors and readers. (p xiv)

And if that were not challenge enough for those responsible for determining the direction of our major research libraries, the practice of research is evolving rapidly:

- information and communication technologies are revolutionising scholarly communication and dissemination – not only is IT an indispensable tool for analysis in many areas (eg the human genome), it is also providing new opportunities for low-cost, almost instant communication of documents, and easy international collaboration;
- pressures on research funding, and pressures for the commercialisation of research are increasing, resulting in very different needs for communication and dissemination with the underlying tension between the scientific demand for publication and dissemination and the commercial need for confidentiality;
- these pressures are also leading to a bifurcation – with some remaining in the traditional academic world of time-rich, cash-poor research, and others moving into the increasingly commercialised world of relatively cash-rich, time-poor research and demanding very different information access;
- research and education are becoming less institutionalised – they are practiced in a much wider range of organisational and institutional settings than before; and commercial applications of science are becoming increasingly multi-technology and multi-disciplinary. (p xii)

These comments are based merely on a reading of the introduction to the Report, but they are stimulating enough, I hope, to persuade you to go to the report proper. To quote its final paragraph

> The 'crisis' in scholarly publishing and the challenge of electronic publishing are typical of technological change. The first reaction to technological opportunity is almost always to

> automate what one is currently doing. But it is rarely the real answer. The pay-off from new technological opportunities typically comes when one uses the technology to do things differently and/or to do new things. It is unlikely that simply publishing journals electronically is the answer. The challenge is to work out what to do differently and what new things to do, to facilitate the cost-effective communication and dissemination of ideas. (p 92)

In this issue Liz Burke and Lea Beranek give an account of the conception and evolution of a telephone enquiry service (TES) at the Bundoora campus library of La Trobe University. This was an attempt (a successful one) to reduce the eternal tension between the needs of the personal enquirer and the demands of the telephone enquiry: and who has not experienced the frustration of the interview interrupted? Sarah Waladan offers a finely honed review of the recent attempts by Sony to make 'circumvention' devices (cds) illegal: a cd is intended to enable a user to bypass *access* restrictions (as against those intended to prevent unauthorised copying) embedded in the software of, for example, Play Station games. George Holland writes an account of his experience on Day 1 at the workface in which he frankly states how totally unprepared he was (despite having completed an MA in Information and Knowledge Management) for 'the real world': he uses this experience to plead for workplace experience to be embedded in the academic preparation. Hard-pressed academics will twitch at the prospect of having to arrange this, but George's case is well made. Such feedback from recent graduates is rare and I am grateful to George for the trouble he took to express his concern. Jody Kok and her honours supervisor, Bruce Findlay, take a considered look at sex-role stereotyping in Australian award-winning children's picture books and find that it is refreshingly limited. A good sign! Amanda Cossham and Alison Fields 'water the roses' and discuss CPD needs across the Tasman, finding an abundance of options, but not much in the way of sustained and directed courses at appropriate levels. They accordingly ran a very thorough assessment process, which should stand the profession in good stead for the foreseeable future. Stuart Ferguson entertains us with a rigorous assessment of Australian Standard 'AS 5037–2005, Knowledge Management – a Guide' which not only reviews the Guide, but also provides a platform for a vigorous discussion of the document and the concepts over which it presides. It is destined to become a seminal article in the ongoing debate.

One more thing: the ALIA Board of Directors is seeking input on a proposal for a more effective governance structure. Go to http://alia.org.au/governance/nac/2006/2006.governance.issues.paper.pdf and consider the proposals carefully. Then vote for them!

AS 5037–2005: knowledge management blueprint for Australian organisations?

Stuart Ferguson

This is a discussion of the Australian Standard 'AS 5037–2005, Knowledge Management – a Guide'**. The article describes the Standard's development and outlines the main points, particularly the list of enablers, the cyclical development and implementation framework, and the measurement and evaluation tools. It discusses strengths and shortcomings of the Standard, seeing the absence of a well-developed set of measures as a major flaw, before discussing the implications for the LIS sector, including the strong differentiation between KM and information management and the omission of information literacy. The author concludes by raising wider issues such as ethical considerations, organisational politics and the need for research into KM's impact.**

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Introduction

In October last year, Standards Australia (SA) published its long awaited standard: *Knowledge Management – a Guide: AS 5037–2005*. It has been heralded as the first nationally endorsed knowledge management (KM) standard in the world (Halbwirth and Sbarcea 2005; Chatwin 2006). Its aim, we are told, is to assist individuals and organisations understand KM concepts and 'the environment best suited for enabling knowledge activities', and to '[o]ffer a scalable and flexible framework for designing, planning, implementing and assessing knowledge interventions that respond to an organisation's environment and state of readiness' (SA 2005:ii). This is an ambitious project and the following paper is intended to make some preliminary observations on how well – or otherwise – the Standard lives up to the promise. Second, the paper seeks to ask whether it provides a useful set of guidelines for those in the Library and Information Services (LIS) profession who are keen to contribute to KM initiatives in their organisations?

In the technical sense, *AS 5037 may* be the first nationally endorsed KM standard in the world. Standards bodies in other English-speaking countries have so far published KM guides that make no claim to be standards. Some five years ago, for instance, the British Standards Institute published its *Knowledge Management: A Guide to Good Practice* (2001) and there was an even earlier one published by the European Committee for Standardization, superseded by a multi-part publication that covers various aspects of KM (2004), but so far neither body has produced a standard as such. There is currently no International Standards Organisation (ISO) standard, and SA may take its standard to the ISO, as happened with records management and metadata standards (Halbwirth and Sbarcea 2005). Standards, therefore, are unusual at this stage in KM's disciplinary development (if, indeed, KM constitutes a discipline).

The Australian standard is also unusual in the sense that it is the first one published by SA that is purely normative and not, as with all preceding standards, prescriptive. The committee that developed it, 'Committee MB-007, Knowledge Management', saw it as a means of enhancing organisational performance, rather than being concerned with conformance (Halbwirth and Sbarcea 2005). Despite being presented as a standard, *AS 5037* is, after all, subtitled 'A Guide'.

It is fair to say that Australia is ready for this guide. More than ten years since it was first promoted, KM continues to attract considerable interest here and overseas, including a large and still growing literature, expensive business-orientated conferences – typically focusing increasingly on specific aspects of KM – and a significant number of universities offering KM courses (Ferguson and Hider 2006). Moreover, there continues to be considerable interest in KM within the library and information services (LIS) sector. Recent publications include Michael Koenig's perennial call for greater LIS engagement with KM (2005); a recent paper in this journal, examining the LIS profession's engagement with KM (Martin, Hazeri and Sarrafzadeh 2006); a paper at last year's *Research Applications in Information and Library Studies seminar (RAILS2)* at the National Library of Australia that reported on an ongoing research project into the commonalities between LIS work and KM (Ferguson et al 2006), and the information research reader published last year by Facet Publishing (Maceviciūtė and Wilson 2005), which contains two chapters that revisit papers previously published in a 2002 issue of *Information Research* given over to KM, including Tom Wilson's much quoted and iconoclastic 'The nonsense of "knowledge management"' (2002). Australia may be ready for the Standard, then, but the question posed here is whether the Standard is ready for Australia.

What is in the KM Standard?

As anyone who has taken an interest in the development of KM in Australia knows, the current Standard has been a few years in the making. It started life as 'HB 275–2001' and was revised and published as an interim standard in 2003, AS 5037(Int)–2003. After the release of the interim Standard, the Committee sought feedback from the corporate sector, targeting those in middle to senior management thought unlikely to have known what KM was. The result was a 'blunt' response from some, in particular the comment that there was too much jargon (Halbwirth and Sbarcea 2005), a point that appears to have been largely addressed in the 2005 Standard. Happily, this is not the end of the matter either. It appears that the next step will be the development of a handbook aimed at SMEs or small to medium enterprises, which is expected to add value to the Standard (Halbwirth and Sbarcea 2005).

There have been many attempted definitions of KM – indeed, one review by Hlupik et al in 2002 identified 18 distinct definitions of KM (Bouthillier and Shearer 2002). Definitions do depend largely on the disciplinary tradition and practice from which the authors write. There is widespread view in the LIS sector, for instance, that librarians have been practicing KM for a long time, stemming in part from the profession's emphasis on documentary forms of knowledge. In the information systems area, however, the focus tends to be the supporting systems and technologies while, for the human resources people, it tends to be people. For the authors of the Standard, KM is

> A trans-disciplinary approach to improving organisational outcomes and learning, through maximising the use of knowledge. It involves the design, implementation and review of social and technological activities and processes to improve the creating, sharing, and applying or using of knowledge.
>
> Knowledge management is concerned with innovation and sharing behaviours, managing complexity and ambiguity through knowledge networks and connections, exploring smart processes, and deploying people-centric technologies (SA 2005:2).

For LIS professionals, whose focus over the years has been published documentary forms of knowledge – what Michael Buckland included in his inelegant but descriptive category, 'information-as-thing' – the keywords in this definition are 'social' and 'technological'. Systems and technology are seen to play a major role in KM initiatives but what is especially noteworthy is the recognition of the social sources of information and knowledge in organisations and their role in knowledge generation.

KM enablers and 'related areas of practice'

A glance at the long list of KM 'enablers' in the Standard – 34 in all – helps to put some flesh and bones on the definition and to reinforce the view that KM does indeed involve a trans-disciplinary approach. Enablers are the 'tools, techniques and activities' used to implement KM initiatives or, as they are termed in the Standard, 'knowledge interventions' (SA 2005:35). They are drawn in particular from Information Management (IM) in its various guises, Human Resource Management (HR) and Information Systems and Technology.

More than half of them are management tools, techniques and activities, most focusing on human resources, which is hardly surprising, given KM's primary endeavours: leveraging the organisation's intellectual assets, fostering innovation and change throughout the organisation, and developing the required organisational culture (Ferguson and Hider 2006). Some represent standard management theory and practice, such as 'after action reviews' (AARs); business process mapping and redesign; champions and advocates; change management; critical incident technique; leadership; learning and development; mentoring and coaching; and rewards and recognition. Most of the other enablers relate to the ways in which people communicate with each other in organisations or ways in which they can be encouraged to communicate, namely, communities of practice; communities of interest (generally broader than communities of practice); meetings and 'share fairs'; narrative management; networks and communities; physical environment; play theory; reflection; social network analysis; storytelling; and strategic conversations.

Most of the remaining enablers are split between information management (IM) and information systems and technology. It is reasonably uncontentious to suggest that the following belong to the information manager's toolbox: content management, document management, environmental scanning, information auditing, leveraging information repositories, and taxonomies and thesauri (at least three of which are familiar to the LIS profession). Similarly the systems and technologies identified in the Standard's catalogue of enablers would fit Tom Wilson's description of KM systems as re-labelled IM systems (Wilson 2002, 2005). These enablers are categorised as: technologies for communication and knowledge sharing (examples given include email, chatrooms, wikis and blogs), technologies for discovery and creation (for instance, search engines and data mining), technologies for managing repositories (such as databases and analytical processing tools) and something called 'technological integration', which the authors of the Standard believe to characterise technologies such as portals and intranets – probably the two technologies that first spring to mind when KM systems are mentioned.

Finally, there is a group of enablers that clearly belong to the emerging (or emergent) field of KM: knowledge auditing, knowledge mapping and knowledge literacy. Those who have followed the development of IM over the past thirty years will think immediately of information auditing, information mapping and information literacy, but the authors of the Standard make a point of differentiating the two sets of activities (although they don't actually mention information maps). Knowledge auditing, for instance, typically 'investigates the flow of tacit knowledge, expertise and skills of staff and stakeholders and the culture and communities of an organisation', whereas information auditing, it is suggested, 'concentrates on explicit knowledge' and 'can be considered complementary to knowledge auditing' (SA 2005:39). Leaving aside the philosophical objection some may have to the notion of knowledge flow, it is merely noted here that information auditing is defined in overly narrow terms, because the better information managers in the LIS and other information sectors have not focused their information audits exclusively on explicit information. There is more to be said, below, on this distinction and on the one between information literacy and knowledge literacy.

The list of 'related areas of practice' in Appendix A of the Standard is equally instructive, in some respects, as the list of enablers. They include competitive intelligence, customer relationship management, human computer interaction, human resource management, IM, information systems, intellectual property management, market research, project management, quality management, records management and risk management. As related areas of practice, these are *not* regarded as enablers. The section on enablers notes that document management 'is closely aligned with content management (managing the dynamic aspects of objects) and records management (management of corporate records that document and act as evidence of business activities)' (SA 2005:38), but records management, unlike document management, is not listed as an enabler, which seems a strange decision, given that records represent considerable corporate memory. A clue to the distinction lies, perhaps, in the further comment that 'Document management can facilitate knowledge sharing by providing a single reference point for working, collaborating and commenting on the most recent version of a document' (SA 2005:38). Document management is concerned with working documents and therefore collaborative activity, whereas records management is seen to focus on knowledge that is purely explicit – the stuff of IM.

A KM framework

The enablers outlined above constitute one of the main parts of the Standard, although it must be said that it is merely an alphabetical listing, which resembles a glossary rather than giving the feel of a working guide. The other principal component – which does bear more resemblance to a guide – is the section on the development of 'knowledge interventions'. This outlines a framework for developing knowledge initiatives and implementing KM, and is seen by the authors of the Standard as its 'key feature' (SA 2005:7). The framework presented is a cyclical one that bears some resemblance to traditional systems analysis and design. It comprises three main phases, called Mapping, Building and (another inelegant term) 'Operationalising', each of which can be supported by appropriate 'enablers' and each of which can be revisited 'according to the demands and needs of [one's] organisation' (SA 2005:11). Before looking briefly at the framework, which is largely self-explanatory, it would be worth considering the 'knowledge ecosystem' that underpins it. Here practitioners in the LIS community may have to read the Standard a couple of times – as indeed, would those senior and middle managers consulted by the Committee prior to the Standard's release and unfamiliar with the jargon.

If the Map/Build/Operationalise cycle is the key feature of the Standard, the knowledge ecosystem model is regarded as the key to the cycle, since it provides the organisation with insight into the 'knowledge flows' within the networks, pathways and relationships of the model (SA 2005:5). The reader is asked to consider the organisation 'as an ecosystem that consists of a complex set of interactions between *people, process, technology and content'* (SA 2005:8, italics added). The Standard emphasises that there needs to be balance amongst these four elements and that one element should not be developed at the expense of another (SA 2005:10; Halbwirth and Sbarcea 2005).

At the core of this complex ecosystem are the organisational outcomes – those objectives 'that focus on creating an innovative and adaptive organisation' – which 'flow from the contextual environment (culture and strategic intent) and the manner in which an organisation operates within the external environment' (SA 2005:9). 'Culture' refers here to 'the combination of an organisation's skills and competencies' – which it is the aim of KM to foster and enhance – with 'the collective behaviours and values' that need to be understood for the purposes of knowledge interventions (SA 2005:9). 'Context and strategic intent' also lie at the core of the knowledge ecosystem, since knowledge is shaped by these factors (SA 2005:10). Other components of the knowledge ecosystem include the enablers, the four 'elements' already mentioned (people, process, technology and content) and 'drivers', such as competitive pressures, customer service and legislative requirements (SA 2005:15). For some unexplained reason, two of the enablers listed on pages 35–53 of the Standard are also listed separately on p10 as components of the knowledge ecosystem, namely, 'Networks and communities' and 'Champions and advocates'.

As the name suggests, the Mapping phase of the knowledge intervention cycle is geared to establishing an understanding of organisational context and strategic intent; 'assessing the existing knowledge environment, including the organisational culture';

outlining where the organisation needs to be, including 'the desired future state of the knowledge ecosystem'; and assessing the 'gap between the existing and desired state of the knowledge ecosystem'. The Building phase focuses on ways in which the gaps identified in the Mapping phase can be addressed and how to begin introducing knowledge interventions, typically through the development of prototypes or pilot studies. Enablers stimulate this phase, including 'Champions and advocates', already mentioned. The activities selected could be applied across the organisation or targeted to specific processes or work areas (SA 2005:13-14). At the Operationalise phase, the emphasis is on 'what works' and the moving of knowledge interventions that have been piloted or tested 'to a level where they are sustainable on a day-to-day basis and capable of being scaled across the ecosystem' (SA 2005:29). Other main components of this stage include the development of competencies and skills and of success indicators. This is very much standard management practice and needs no further elaboration.

The authors of the Standard see this as a cyclical process rather than a linear one, which is not hard to understand. It is less clear why they use the term cyclical, and not the more dynamic imagery of the spiral, used by many of the followers of Ikujiro Nonaka and his colleagues to demonstrate the process of knowledge generation in learning organisations (see, for instance, Nonaka and Konno 1998).

Other features of the Standard

The success indicators, mentioned in the chapter on the Operationalise phase – and surely a key component in any standard of this kind – are discussed in a bit more detail in Section 7 of the Standard, 'Evaluating and measuring' (SA 2005:54–58). Evaluation and assessment tools considered include

- indicators, such as 'certain behaviours, values, beliefs, norms, social networks and organisational stories', the presence or absence of which may provide measures of how knowledge flows through an organisation and whether or not knowledge processes are valued (p56);
- benchmarking which, in this context, 'may focus on cultural and leadership practices; business and technology processes that enable knowledge creation, sharing and use' (p57);
- attempts to measure 'intellectual capital', an area in which models and methodologies are apparently still evolving, but which includes, for instance, trying to 'establish a relationship between the earnings/costs and the impact of knowledge management on organisational objectives' (p57);
- those evaluation tools discussed in the section on enablers, namely, knowledge auditing, knowledge mapping and social network analysis.

It is worth noting, too, that Section 3 of the Standard, which covers the Mapping phase, contains some useful comments on assessment (SA 2005:17–19), including a model called 'The continuum of the knowledge ecosystem', of which Section 7, unfortunately, makes no use.

Finally, the Standard includes a section called 'Reflecting' – an unusual feature in a Standard – which includes some retrospective reflections, as well as reflections on future developments; and also appendices that cover the related areas of practice mentioned previously, two sample job descriptions and references to some KM resources.

General comments on the Standard

If the foregoing section has been rather lengthy it is because, short of referring *ALJ* readers to the Standard itself – a long, complex attempt to codify an area of theory and practice that is noted for its very complexity, multi-disciplinarity and contentiousness – it is worth establishing its broad outlines before making any attempt to comment on its relevance and utility to Australian organisations and to the LIS profession. Some of its strengths and weaknesses will have emerged from the description. For those managers trying to grapple with KM and establish how to begin putting a knowledge initiative in place, the Standard offers two main areas of assistance: the three-phase framework (with its underlying knowledge ecosystem model) and the list of enablers.

The Mapping–Building–Operationalising framework is relatively unremarkable in itself. One of its strengths, however, is that, as well as providing managers with a workable set of guidelines within which to develop knowledge initiatives, it contextualises the process by providing, for instance:

- examples to assist organisations get started;
- key questions that need to be asked during the early Mapping phase;
- examples of 'drivers' as they are manifested in the knowledge ecosystem;
- possible priorities for knowledge intervention;
- appropriate enablers for different phases of the cycle;
- examples of the kinds of activities that can be put in place;
- organisational competencies that may be developed during the Building phase;
- potential barriers to successful knowledge interventions;
- success indicators that could be used during the Operationalising phase.

Leaving aside the obvious point that Standards are not generally noted for providing indicative examples, this feature helps to provide some practical advice and give some substance to what would otherwise be an abstract account of a model of organisational complexity (the knowledge ecosystem) and a generalised process of knowledge intervention. This practical approach is underlined by the use of second person throughout the document, incidentally – another oddity in the world of standards.

The nineteen-page list of enablers has the potential to assist managers develop knowledge initiatives. The fact that it comes after the sections on Mapping, Building and Operationalising phases and that it is (almost) in alphabetical order suggests that the authors of the Standard saw this section as a reference source more than anything else. Since the sections on process refer to appropriate enablers, however, the reader of the guide is required to jump forwards and back again. In a sense this is inevitable in any piece of linear text but it is exacerbated in this case because the process comes before the many components of KM are introduced. The explanations of enablers are variable. Some are strengthened by contextualisation. The explanation of 'knowledge auditing', for instance, benefits from a short guide, which provides sample questions that could be asked during a knowledge audit, grouped under the four 'elements' of people, process, technology and content. There is also, in this case, a very brief 'case study' of sorts. Other enablers are not so well supported. Managers who are interested in discovering the value of storytelling in the workplace will have to look elsewhere.

What is somewhat disturbing is the attempt to provide hard-and-fast definitions in areas of organisational management that have hitherto resisted such definition – an attempt that is not helped by the A to Z arrangement, which suggests a finality about the definitions that many would query. This is most obvious where the authors have attempted to differentiate between well-established IM tools and techniques and (what the authors of the Standard see as) the KM equivalents – a differentiation that many would challenge. Indeed, in the information research collection mentioned earlier, Tom Wilson is unrepentant about his 2002 paper on what he called the 'nonsense of knowledge management' and continues to argue that much of what is passed off as KM is in fact IM; backing this up with the observation that the vast majority of journal articles published in 2003 and 2004 with 'knowledge management' in the title were, in fact, about the development of organisational information systems (Wilson 2005:155).

An example of the Standard's attempt to demarcate KM and IM has already been mentioned, knowledge auditing, which is seen by the authors as something quite distinct from the much better established information audit. Is this a helpful distinction, however? Those who have an IM background tend to regard information audits as being about more than explicit knowledge. In auditing information flows, for instance, any reasonably proficient information manager takes into account *people* as a major source of corporate intelligence. Equally, knowledge audits are not concerned only with the flow of tacit knowledge – assuming, of course, that one accepts the dubious proposition that knowledge *can* flow. Mark Nissen, who believes it can and, indeed, that the concept of knowledge flow 'heralds the emergence of a school of knowledge dynamics' (Nissen 2006:vii), nonetheless maintains that knowledge audits involve identifying and locating 'explicit *and* tacit knowledge' (Nissen 2006:100; italics added). No KM consultant is going to claim less.

After the implementation framework and the list of enablers, evaluation and measurement tools represent the most significant component of the Standard. This last part is not well developed, however, and one can only hope that SA does publish a further guide that focuses on this critical area of KM if, indeed, it does plan to assist Australian organisations lift their knowledge-generating performance.

The absence of a well-developed set of measures is more than regrettable, however. It calls into question the whole standardisation endeavour. The link between standards and performance measures is a strong one. As Barbara Krell and Tracy Wiseman put it (2004:3), 'Standardization is a critical factor to enable relevant and comparable measures of quality outcomes.' What is more, they add, 'To be recognized and accepted as quality standards, a rigorous process of requirements must be met.' One has to wonder why SA should develop a standard – as distinct from the guides already developed by standards bodies beyond Australia – when it does not appear to have developed sufficiently clear measures with which to ensure compliance. While the authors of the Standard may not be over-concerned about conformance, senior managers who sign off on knowledge interventions within their organisations are surely going to want to know whether their organisations are meeting the standards, let alone whether their organisations are deriving any benefit from it.

The lack of a rigorous set of measurable norms must reinforce the disquiet felt by KM's critics. Since the debate about KM began in the mid-1990s, many have questioned whether something that is as complex, context-specific, 'tacit' and intangible as corporate knowledge can be managed. If performance measures are so hard to delineate then perhaps the norms provided in the Standard are insufficiently well defined and rigorous. As Mark Van Buren put it, 'What isn't measured, isn't managed' (1999:72). Four years ago, the British Standards Institute published the following statement on KM:

> The judgement of BSI is that, at this point in the development of Knowledge Management, it is too early to attempt to impose too rigid a framework or too narrow a view of this rapidly developing field.

Its approach was to provide 'globally applicable documents and other resources that acknowledge and build upon, rather than constrain the richness of the knowledge management discipline' (Farmer 2002:6). For many of us this was a sensible approach. Around the same time, on the other hand, SA went down the standardisation road. Its efforts have culminated in this standard, which does little more than preceding British and European guides and yet threatens to impose too rigid a framework on KM theory and practice – a point demonstrated earlier in the reference to hard-and-fast definitions, such as information and knowledge auditing (and taken up in the following section).

Finally, it should perhaps be noted that the tendency seen in some of the literature on KM (as in the IM literature) to foreground systems and technology issues is turned on its head. In the attempt to find balance amongst the four principal elements in the 'knowledge ecosystem' – people, process, technology and content – the authors of the Standard focus largely on management issues, at the expense of the technological issues. The technological issues change, of course, which may be one reason for not dwelling on them, but some managers may nonetheless be surprised by the relative lack of reference to the role of technologies. One is thinking, for example, of expert systems and other 'intelligent' applications, which emerged from artificial intelligence (AI) research and development in the early 1990s and were, for much of that period seen, by their developers at least, as significant KM applications. As Mark Nissen points out (2006:57), expert systems, unlike most technologies, 'address knowledge directly in addition to information and data. They offer an approach to formalizing tacit knowledge, distributing broadly the associated power for action, and applying it directly through the organization.' Konstantinos Ergazakis and his colleagues (2005:20-21) also see AI as an important area of the enterprise KM research agenda, referring specifically to expert systems, artificial neural networks, intelligent agents and case-based reasoning.

Implications for the LIS community

It hardly needs restating that there is considerable interest in KM amongst members of the LIS sector. This is not so much because library managers see the need to apply KM principles and practice in their own libraries – although this is as good a reason as any – but because they see an increased role and status for themselves in their organisations if they can contribute to corporate KM endeavours. Those who are anxious to see such engagement might be expected to look to this Standard for guidance, especially given that membership of Committee MB-007 included a number of librarians and other information professionals, including ALIA representatives, Dale Chatwin and Marion Nicholson (Chatwin 2006:8). They may be disappointed. The focus of the LIS profession, as we all know, is information – explicit knowledge to the KM proponents – and in particular information that is published externally to individual organisations, whereas the Standard focuses on internal, tacit knowledge flows.

One of the barriers to greater KM involvement by the LIS profession has been the very fact that its 'domain', as Michael Koenig puts it (2005), has been external information, while the KM 'mindset' for years has focused on corporate information and knowledge assets. This is all changing, Koenig asserts (in an IFLA paper that cites nothing more recent than 2003), since the 'narrow emphasis of KM is now broadening'. This 'phenomenon', as he sees it, is driven by the 'extension of intranet-based KM systems to extranet-based systems', '[c]oncern about the knowledge about to be lost as post-war baby-boomers are beginning to hit retirement age' and a 'repeat of the same broadening phenomenon that occurred with MIS, management information systems' (arguably that broadening of focus *could* drive people's current emphasis). If such a phenomenon is observable, however, it is not reflected in the Australian Standard. The focus is very firmly on internal knowledge flows and how they can be optimised. The only significant clue that there might be a role for the LIS professional is the inclusion, amongst the enablers, of familiar tools, techniques and activities, such as environmental scanning (which does indeed relate to external information), information auditing, leveraging information repositories (increasingly familiar in the tertiary education and special library sectors), and taxonomies and thesauri.

Information literacy (IL), however, is notable for its absence. It is not listed as an enabler and not even as a related area of practice. Those in the LIS community who have followed the development of KM and its implications for the profession will be familiar with the strong commonalities noted over the years between IL and KM. A few years ago, for instance, SA published some 'sample job descriptions', compiled by Karen Bishop and based on her expertise as a recruitment consultant. One of the specific key 'knowledge-enabling' tasks performed by these knowledge management positions was 'information literacy' training programs for improved use of information and knowledge resources (Bishop 2002:12). Just last year, Ainslie Dewe of Auckland University of Technology, in outlining the contribution of librarians to KM, highlighted their role in the promotion of IL, defined as the '[a]bility to identify, access, evaluate, organise and communicate information and knowledge' and seen as a '[c]ore capability for the knowledge society' (Dewe 2005).

In the KM Standard, however, IL rates barely a mention and then only when Committee MB-007 wants to distinguish it from what it calls knowledge literacy (as it did with information and knowledge audits). IL is defined (in passing, it must be said) in narrow procedural terms as 'the ability to find and use information'. By contrast knowledge literacy includes skills that go beyond basic literacy, computer literacy and 'information literacy', and include activities such as storytelling, documentation of processes and mentoring. Attitudes associated with knowledge literacy include 'openness to new ideas and willingness to share knowledge' while abilities include that of assimilating 'new knowledge into existing knowledge frameworks' (SA 2005:41).

It is ironic that the Australian KM Standard should be published – and define IL in narrow, process-orientated terms – at the very time that some in the LIS sector have been calling for a *broadening* of its definition. Last year in this journal Jennifer Kirkton and Lyn Barham (2005:365), for instance, argued strongly that IL 'goes beyond simply acquiring the skills to use information tools and to find information resources. It includes lifelong learning and professional development, and the ability to interact in the information society.' According to Mandy Lupton (2004), it is 'about higher order analysis, synthesis, critical thinking and problem solving. It involves seeking and using information for independent learning, lifelong learning, participative citizenship and social responsibility' (cited Lupton et al 2004). The point hardly needs labouring.

It is worth mentioning recent studies of workplace IL, because these not only suggest the need to broaden our definition of IL, but also strengthen the perception that there are significant commonalities between IL and KM. One is thinking, for instance, of Anne Lloyd's study of fire fighters, in which she argues for information literacy to be conceptualised as a 'way of knowing' the sources of information that exist in an information landscape and for the extension of the concept of IL to include physical and social information sites of knowledge (Lloyd 2004). This view of information literacy corresponds to and indeed is central to KM's interest in the capture of tacit knowledge (Ferguson et al 2006). It is disappointing, therefore, to note that, despite the involvement of members of the LIS and other information professions, the new Standard steers clear of IL and its contribution to learning organisations and knowledge generation. This is very much a result of a conscious attempt by the authors to stake out a territory for KM and differentiate it from IM. The distinction is artificial and unhelpful, and one suspects that the LIS community will see it that way.

Conclusion, and some more general comments

It was mentioned earlier that the British Standards Institute judged that it would constrain the richness of KM if too rigid a framework should be imposed on it too soon. Proponents of KM may argue that KM has come of age and that it is ready for a standard but if so this is certainly not demonstrated by *AS 5037–2005*. As a guide, it has significant strengths – a comment, of course, that risks the accusation, 'damning with faint praise'. As a *standard* it has obvious weaknesses, especially the section on measures, which suggests that KM has not yet come of age – if indeed these are the best that SA can come up with. A whole three years ago, BSI published its *Guide to Measurements in Knowledge Management* (British Standards Institute 2003) and Part 4 of the European guide consists of guidelines for measuring KM (European Committee for Standardization 2004) so one cannot help but wonder why this aspect of SA's Standard is so under-developed. For the LIS profession, part of which has been looking with great interest for a way in which to find greater engagement in organisational knowledge initiatives, the Standard provides some useful guidelines – as it does for everyone else with an interest in the field – but it does not convey any sense that LIS professionals have a substantial role to play. Indeed, in its attempt to differentiate between KM and IM, it suggests the opposite.

It is regrettable that the LIS profession has appeared to have had little impact on the development of KM – including this Standard. Reference has already been made to the interesting research going into workplace IL, which has important commonalities with KM. One of Anne Lloyd's findings, in her study of fire fighters, is the recognition that some workers are regarded as outside the workplace culture and may not be afforded the same access to social and physical sources of information as others, and that the 'process of becoming information literate can also become a practice which is *contested*' (Lloyd 2005:85; italics added). Such studies raise an important issue, that of whether the sharing of knowledge – assumed to be a highly valuable activity – is always in everybody's interests. It is one thing for a standard to set out strategies for knowledge sharing and knowledge generation, but there are significant ethical and political issues that much of the writing on KM ignores completely.

In one of the few papers to address ethical responsibility, the authors highlight the issue that the information culled from large data repositories 'is essentially decontextualized, circumstantial, disembodied from its source and accordingly liable to misuse.' In a Western tradition of Fordism and Taylorism, they point out, future organisations are likely to be 'essentially information processing machines', with knowledge workers 'little other than cogs' (Gammack and Goulding 1999:75). Political science is another area that has been largely neglected in the KM literature along with 'its associated topic of organizational politics' (Land et al 2005:6). Where organisational politics *are* considered, they are typically seen as one of the nuisance barriers that need to be surmounted. There are important issues that simply are not addressed in the business-orientated culture of KM, such as whether it is reasonable to expect employees to share their knowledge at a time of organisational downsizing. Why should I tell you what I know if that makes me dispensable?

Clearly issues such as these cannot be addressed here but the questions are worth raising. If there is one thing the LIS profession can do, it can approach KM with open eyes and a degree of critical analysis that appears to be in relatively short supply in the business community. SA has taken the bold step of attempting to standardise what for many of us is the unstandardisable. For a profession that has embraced (with other professions) evidence-based practice, the Standard throws down a challenge – what impact will this Standard have on corporate performance in Australia? Moreover, in an industrial landscape already shifting under new workplace relations (which, until after the next federal election, could be termed 'IR-lite'), KM has the potential to alter organisational culture in the corporate sector dramatically. Much depends on how relevant senior managers see KM, which in turn requires them to understand it – presumably one of the aims of the Standard. Do they understand it, do they care enough to resource it and will they see a significant improvement in corporate performance as a result of the investment? For those in the profession who are interested in evidence-based practice, there is a considerable research agenda here.

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Call Us: development of a library Telephone Enquiry Service

Liz Burke and Lea Beranek

The authors detail the trial and piloting of a telephone enquiry service (TES) at the Bundoora Campus Library at La Trobe University in order to attempt to resolve the balance between telephone and face-to-face enquiries at the library service desk. They investigated various options throughout 2001 and 2002 and settled on a centralised service model where telephone calls are redirected to a central number. This model was trialled and piloted in 2003 and 2004 before being implemented as a permanent feature of the library's service in 2005.

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> With each new technology librarians have been able to expand services. With the invention of the electric light bulb, library hours were extended into the night. The telephone allowed librarians to serve patrons remotely. Over time, these innovations created greater demand for service (Barnello, 1996:8).

ACHIEVING THE RIGHT BALANCE BETWEEN FACE-TO-FACE ENQUIRIES AND TELEPHONE queries at library service desks can be challenging. If this balance is not achieved, there is the potential for time delays, frustrated patrons and stressful situations for staff. Kern (2004:6) quotes a 1958 column in the *Library Journal* by Robert Rolf which expressed concern that 'in-person patrons receive short shrift due to the interruptions of telephone patrons. Telephone patrons also have to wait on hold while in-person patrons are assisted' (Rolf 1958). To minimise occurrence of this situation, with its potential for inferior service, the Bundoora Campus Library at La Trobe University investigated various telephone service models throughout 2001 and 2002 and settled on a centralised service model where telephone calls are redirected to a central number. This model was trialled and piloted in 2003 and 2004 before being implemented as a permanent feature of the library's service in 2005.

The authors describe the experiences of the trial and pilot and what led to the implementation of the permanent service. Issues which emerged are described, including the staffing model for the centralised telephone enquiry service (TES), the training model adopted, and how the service continues, staffed by well-trained casual and continuing staff volunteers from a number of departments within the Library including librarians, library technicians and paraprofessional staff.

Background

The library at the Bundoora campus of La Trobe University serves the academic community at both the Bundoora and City campuses. Table 1 indicates the size of the community served.

Table 1: Community served by the Bundoora campus library, La Trobe University

	Students (persons)	Staff (persons)*
2005	18162	2267
2004	17220	2164
2003	17437	2116
2002	16626	2046
2001	15921	2006

* Staffing figures do not include casual staff.

Library staff at the Bundoora campus of La Trobe University library began investigating possible models for a centralised TES in 2001 by participating in a project organised by CAVAL Collaborative Solutions. A working group was established to explore the issues involved in setting up a Victorian academic libraries call centre to respond to queries about the reciprocal borrowing program. Participants included Deakin University, La Trobe University, the University of Melbourne and Victoria University of Technology.

A trial was conducted in September 2002 to test a number of technical and practical features for improving telephone service to clients through co-operative effort. Rather than a ‘call centre’ as such, the trial involved ‘transferring’ calls between the participating institutions. The features tested included technology for switching calls, a roster of operators from the participating libraries and defining and standardising the services available. The trial operated from 10 am to 4 pm five days per week and rotated between the three participating academic libraries on a two-hourly basis. A website composed of links to information on participating library websites such as opening hours, borrowing services, photocopying, and workstation access at the participating libraries was developed.

The trial successfully demonstrated that technology could deliver a more efficient way of dealing with client enquiries. However, it was not an ideal model for responding to queries relating to the reciprocal borrowing program. The experience of participating in this trial nonetheless led the Bundoora campus library at La Trobe University to investigate the feasibility of establishing a centralised TES for the library. The existing service model of six distinct service points meant that staff at each service point would often answer the same question from different patrons. The intention of a telephone service was to answer in a central location those repetitive directional queries such as opening hours and queries about library holdings.

Visits were arranged to a number of Melbourne academic libraries with established centralised telephone services. These included Monash University library at Clayton and Deakin University library at Burwood. The Monash service had been described in an *Australian Library Review* article (Pernat 1994) following a twelve-month pilot. During these visits, library staff discussed their respective telephone services and their experiences in establishing and maintaining such services. Victoria University of Technology library was also contacted to discuss their use of software that provided an automated telephone menu service and allowed patrons to renew books by telephone. La Trobe University library did not pursue the automated telephone software, as the intention of setting up a centralised telephone service was to maintain or improve the level of service currently offered. The options offered by this software were not seen as an improvement in service.

The 2003 trial

Following investigations into possible service models, a proposal was developed to conduct a trial between 10:00am and 3:00pm weekdays in the first three weeks of second semester, 2003. This timing allowed three weeks of planning and preparation during the preceding mid-semester break.

In preparation for the trial, the two busiest service points – the Loans Desk and the Information Desk – conducted surveys of incoming telephone calls. These surveys provided detailed information on the types of queries received by telephone at each service point.

The trial service was located in a separate room in a staff area where a workstation was set up with appropriate equipment and furniture. An additional telephone line was installed and advice sought from the university switchboard on the purchase of an appropriate telephone handset and headset so that operators had their hands free to use the computer workstation.

The four service points participating in the trial were the Loans Desk, Information Desk, Audiovisual Desk (AV) and Serials Desk. The Interlending and Document Delivery Services telephone remained separate from the centralised service, as did the Reserve Desk telephone, as most calls to these services were quite specialised. Each of the four sections contributed a staff member for one hour each day. Reserve staff also contributed to the roster although their service desk was not affected by the trial.

Each section involved in the trial identified a list of queries that would be handled by the telephone operators. For each section there was a list of queries that could be identified as being representative of the types of queries handled within the section.

Guidelines and training

As operators could come from any section of the Client Services area of the library, and could be a librarian, a library technician or a paraprofessional staff member, guidelines were developed and each section prepared appropriate training for questions related to their area. (See Appendix 1: General guidelines for the centralised telephone service). Training sessions were divided into two presentations: Loans/AV and Serials/Reference. These were logical pairings as Loans and AV use the circulation system extensively and Serials and Reference use the catalogue and library web pages extensively. Separate training sessions were conducted in the use of the telephone handset and headset.

There were 20 operators involved in the trial, in addition to the Reference and Information Services Librarian and the Resource Delivery Services Librarian[1] who co-ordinated the trial. This was a significant number of people to keep informed of developments and plans, so an e-mail distribution list was established to communicate quickly and efficiently.

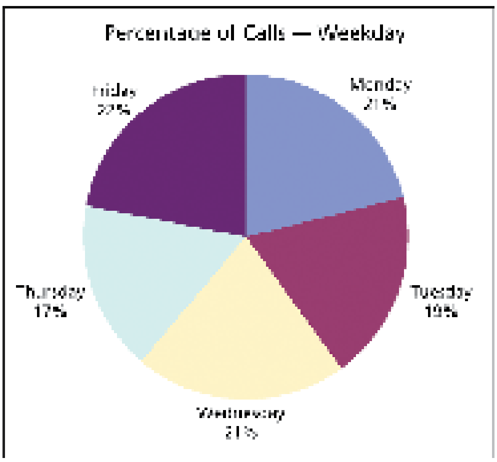
The guidelines assisted staff of the centralised telephone service in handling calls, including personal calls and calls from those wanting other departments within the university. Much of the information needed by operators was available on the library's website. Training sessions by Reference staff ensured that operators were aware of where to locate information on either the intranet or the public web pages. In addition, an information manual was prepared containing copies of the guidelines, notes from each training session, and a 'cheat sheet' of frequently used numbers.

During the trial, telephone operators were encouraged to remember that they were the first point of contact for the library and needed to present a suitably professional and confident service. It was also important that the TES should offer the same level of service, irrespective of the individual rostered at the time, and their expertise in a specific part of library services.

Evaluation

The telephone operators answered a total of 565 calls during the trial and the survey revealed a relatively even distribution of calls over the week (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Distribution of telephone calls each weekday 2003



A survey form was completed for each call (see Appendix II). During the trial period, each of the four service points also completed a survey form for all calls transferred. This second form allowed examination of the types of queries being referred back to specific service points. Each service point used an individual form. (Appendix III shows the survey form used by the AV Desk.) In effect, two surveys

1 The Resource Delivery Services Librarian is responsible for a number of teams within the library: Loans, Reserve, AV, Attendants, and Interlending and Document Delivery

were undertaken during the trial – one of the incoming calls and the second survey provided information on the nature of the calls transferred for 'expert' intervention. It was agreed that the data entry would be undertaken by an external contractor using the software package SPSS.

Table 2 shows a breakdown by query type. Miscellaneous calls included requests about library membership, opening hours, campus or library location and other general queries.

Table 2: Types of queries, 2003 trial

Section	% of queries
Loans	40.7
Reference	15.0
AV	6.6
Serials	2.7
Calls to a specific staff member	15.0
Miscellaneous	20.0
Total	**100%**

Feedback sessions were conducted with staff participating as TES operators. Comments included:

- Enjoyed the challenge of something new
- Knowing the queries of other departments and then learning how to answer them was satisfying
- Enjoyed using the technology
- Enjoyed own room, peaceful, was able to get some of own work done
- Found it useful to learn about library web pages and see what others are doing
- I liked being a part of a team with people from other divisions

Feedback was also sought from each section affected by the telephone trial. This indicated overall approval; staff appreciated being able to concentrate on face-to-face encounters with users without the distraction of a ringing telephone.

Although no formal feedback was sought from library patrons regarding the TES, the absence of negative feedback from users on the telephone was taken as an indication that the service was operating satisfactorily from their perspective.

The 2004 pilot

The successful trial in 2003 led to a proposal for a year-long TES during 2004, to incorporate the telephones of the Audiovisual Desk, Information Desk, Loans Desk, and Serials Desk. The telephones for the Reserve and Interlending and Document Delivery Services (ILDDS) service points were not incorporated into the service due to the specialised nature of most of the calls to these service points.

The service commenced at the beginning of 1st Semester, operating from 10:00am to 6:00pm Monday to Friday. This was later amended to 11:00am to 6:00pm to ease the burden of rostering. The service was suspended during the mid-year break and was concluded at the end of 2nd Semester.

During the 2003 trial, statistics were taken on every in-coming call. For the 2004 pilot, statistics were taken during four sample periods: two weeks into the beginning of each semester and the final week of classes at the end of each semester.

Feedback from operators indicated that the service positively affected work areas due to fewer interruptions, but the majority of staff felt that the drain on staff resources in supporting an additional roster was too heavy. This strain became more obvious when there was already a shortage of staff due to illness, meetings, flexi days etc.

Co-ordinator role

The experience of the 2003 trial led to the appointment of a co-ordinator for the 2004 pilot, responsible for the day-to-day operations of the TES including preparation of the roster. While the Reference & Information Services Librarian and the Resource Delivery Services Librarian were responsible for the overall development, implementation and ongoing management of the service, the need for someone to oversee the day-to-day operations had become evident.

In preparation for the 2004 trial, expressions of interest were sought from library staff from client service areas of the library, who would be prepared to assume the co-ordination of the TES in addition to their regular duties and responsibilities. The duties and responsibilities of the co-ordinator were to:

- Participate in the selection of staff to act as operators for the service
- Prepare and co-ordinate the roster for the TES
- Liaise with the Reference and Information Services Librarian and the Resource Delivery Services Librarian on the delivery of the service, training needs and relevant staffing issues
- Undertake administrative tasks in relation to the service, including maintaining the room and equipment in which the service is located, overseeing the supply of stationary, forms and other requirements, maintaining the procedures and information manuals that support the operators

Evaluation

Table 3 illustrates the number of calls handled by the TES during each of the four sampling periods. The first sampling period of the academic year received the highest number of calls. Over succeeding sampling periods, this number diminished and levelled out toward the end of the academic year. Similarly the total calls for the four sampling periods show that most calls occurred on a Monday with a reduction of approximately 10 per cent on Tuesday and again on Wednesday. Thursday had the lowest total calls and Friday had a similar call rate to Wednesday. It should be noted that this trend is not consistent in the four periods sampled.Only the fourth sampling period is similar, with the first and third sampling periods showing higher levels on Tuesdays and the second sampling period having a markedly lower number of calls on Tuesday.

Table 3: Number of calls per sampling period by weekday, 2004 pilot study

	Sample week	Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri	Total
1	29 Mar–02 Apr	80	87	73	62	65	367
2	31 May–04 Jun	63	39	43	54	37	236
3	23–27 Aug	37	49	43	42	44	215
4	25–29 Oct	64	48	39	20	51	222
	Total calls	**244**	**223**	**198**	**178**	**197**	**1040**

Table 4 shows that the total calls and the calls for each sampling period, with the exception of the second sampling period, peak in the noon to 3 pm brackets. This distribution appears to be fairly common in relation to demands on other library services, for example, computer workstation demand statistics.

Table 4: Number of calls per sampling period by time of day, 2004 pilot study

Time	29 Mar – 02 Apr	31 May – 04 Jun	23–27 Aug	25–29 Oct	Totals
11:00	48	43	21	23	135
12:00	66	30	38	42	176
13:00	56	32	35	33	156
14:00	55	40	35	36	166
15:00	66	36	29	34	165
16:00	40	30	31	29	130
17:00	36	25	26	25	112
Total	**367**	**236**	**215**	**222**	**1040**

Table 5 shows that, in general, the Information Desk and Loans Desk had the highest number of referrals followed by AV and then ILDDS. Switch (the university switchboard) had a very large number of calls in the first sampling period of the academic year and very few in the subsequent sampling periods, presumably as patrons became more familiar with the university and where and to whom they could direct queries.

Table 5: Number of calls per sampling period by referral point, 2004 pilot study

Service Point	29 Mar – 02 Apr	31 May – 04 Jun	23–27 Aug	25–29 Oct	Totals
AV	22	13	14	8	57
ILDDS	13	8	7	11	39
Info desk	31	18	18	12	79
Loans	33	23	27	22	105
Reserve	1	0	1	9	11
Serials	14	2	6	8	30
Switch	43	0	1	1	45
Other	10	10	5	14	39
Total	**167**	**74**	**79**	**85**	**405**

Feedback sessions were again conducted with staff who acted as operators. Some of their comments included:

- The call centre relieves some of the pressure at service points – less stressful – fewer interruptions – most days can achieve more work.
- Can concentrate on the person who is in front of us (at the service desk) instead of being distracted by the phone ringing.
- The desk is less hectic and [the TES] has made desk work more manageable.
- Staff who volunteer for the TES gain more knowledge about the library system, library policy, and find it interesting work.
- If the TES was discontinued it would mean a huge step backwards in terms of service.

Staff wanted the service to continue, however, most felt that certain issues would need to be addressed including:

- A dedicated room as there was too much noise in the present location due to the proximity of a photocopier and staff coming and going.
- Additional casual hours were needed to contribute to the roster.
- A more up-to-date computer with faster response time.
- An updated mobile telephone headset.
- Consistent training for all staff who work on the TES and more 'hands on' training.

Operational service from 2005

Following the success of the 2004 pilot, it was decided to implement the TES as a permanent feature of the library's service model, using a combination of continuing and casual staff. The casual staff who worked at the TES also worked regular shifts at the Loans Desk, ensuring they had a good grasp of library policies and procedures which assisted them in answering telephone enquiries.

Training

After evaluating the training sessions conducted by the team leaders of each service area (Loans, AV, Serials, and Reference) in 2004, and after the introduction of the co-ordinator role, it was decided to streamline the training process by giving this responsibility to the co-ordinator. The Guidelines for operators were also reviewed and updated (see Appendix 1).

Evaluation

Table 6 shows call levels throughout the year are relatively constant. The highest total was 898 in March. It should be noted that the data for November does not refer to a full month as the survey ended on 18 November. The low total shown for July is due to the three-week semester break. Similarly, the highest number of calls referred was in March (340 calls). No apparent trends are evident in the data collected to date. We are interested to note that telephone operators were able, on average, to deal with over 68 per cent of calls.

Table 6: Summary of 2005 calls

Month	Calls referred	Calls dealt with by TES	Total calls taken
March	340	558	898
April	241	560	801
May	289	583	872
June	233	611	844
July	67	137	204
August	265	545	810
September	247	584	831
October	268	537	805
November	135	411	546
December			
Total	**2085**	**4526**	**6611**

By mid-2005, the need for a deputy to assist the co-ordinator was clear. Expressions of interest were sought from client services staff to assume this role in addition to their regular responsibilities for 2nd semester 2005. This role, and that of the co-ordinator, were continued in 2006.

In preparation for the 2006 service, expressions of interest were sought from staff interested in assuming the roles of co-ordinator and deputy co-ordinator for the TES.

The establishing of these important roles has ensured the smooth operation of the service. By 2006 the co-ordinator had fully assumed responsibility for training operators and offering refresher sessions to continuing operators. It has been found that offering the roles of co-ordinator and deputy co-ordinator for the TES is also an important staff development opportunity, providing experience in co-ordinating staff from various areas of the library and negotiating their availability, preparing rosters and dealing with situations where rostered staff are unexpectedly absent, liaising with the two managers responsible for the overall operation of the service and maintaining statistics to provide data for a report at the conclusion of each semester.

Conclusion

The service operates with a mixture of continuing and casual staff. Operators have been trained to answer a range of general, straightforward enquiries. Issues requiring specialist assistance are referred back to the appropriate service point. Given that operators may come from any section within the library and may be a librarian, library technician or a paraprofessional staff member, guidelines have been produced so that patrons receive the same level of service via the TES, regardless of the individual to whom they speak.

The implementation of the TES at the Bundoora campus library was motivated by the desire to improve service to clients as well as developing a more flexible client service model for the library. It was a very deliberate decision to staff the TES with both librarians and paraprofessional staff. The majority of operators are sourced from those Sections which benefit most directly from the TES, namely Loans and

Reference and Information Services. However the opportunity to act as operators is offered to all library staff in all sections.

It has been suggested in the professional literature that the development of library call-centres 'is part of a disturbing trend towards deskilling of the library profession' (Dilevko 2001: 222). He cites Harris' definition of 'deskilling': 'the delegation of routine activities to less qualified personnel, leaving the complex and difficult problems to the trained professional' (Harris 1992: 223). The establishment at La Trobe University Bundoora campus library of a TES rather than a call-centre, the use of all staff as potential operators, and the implementation of firm guidelines on the types of queries which it is appropriate to answer and those which should be referred to service points, works to address the fear that those acting as operators are somehow less skilled than their colleagues and therefore less valued.

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Appendix I: guidelines for the TES at La Trobe University library

La Trobe University Library

General Guidelines for the centralised telephone service

The service operates during teaching weeks in 1st and 2nd semester Monday to Friday, from 11:00am – 6:00pm.

The service points involved and their telephone numbers are:

- Information Desk 2922
- Loans 2937

Some general guidelines:

1. The first person rostered at 11 am must phone the service points to ensure that the telephones are diverted.
2. The changeover for each shift is on the hour but you are expected to report 5 minutes before your starting time so that any messages, concerns, ongoing issues can be passed on.
3. The recommended way to answer the telephone, or something similar, is: 'La Trobe University library, may I help you?'
   - Each phone call should not last more than 2–3 minutes, if the call is any longer, you should transfer the call to the appropriate service desk.
   - For each call that you receive, you need to note it on the statistics sheet.
4. There is a diary for you to record any problems that you encounter.

Appendix II: Evaluation of calls to the TES

La Trobe University Library
Telephone Service Trial 2003 — Evaluation Questionnaire

1. When? (circle) Day of the week: Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri
2. Time of day:

1	2	3	4	5
10:00am–11:00am	11:00am–12:00pm	12:00pm–1:00pm	1:00pm–2:00pm	2:00pm–3:00pm

3. Types of questions (circle):

3.1 AudioVisual Queries

Information about AV bookings	6
'Do you hold this video?'	7
'How do I find the audio lectures online?'	8
'Do you set up equipment in classrooms?' (Transfer to COMET)	9
Complex query – transferred to AV Desk	10

3.2 Loans Queries

Renewals	11
Deleting PIN's	12
Placing a hold	13
'How many items do I have on Loan?'	14
'When are my items due back?'	15
'What fines have I accrued?'	16
Cancellation of a hold or booking	17
Complex query – transferred to Loans Desk	18

3.3 Reference Queries

Catalogue checking for holdings	19
Catalogue checking for bibliographic information	20
Complex query – transferred to Information Desk	21

3.4 Serials Queries

'Do you hold this journal?'	22
Information about borrowing serials	23
Information about renewing serial loans	24
Information about holds on serials	25
Information about storage requests	26
Complex query – transferred to Serials Desk	27

3.5 General

Opening hours	28
Membership of the library	29
Transferring to a specific library staff member	30
Transferring to another department	31
Location of the Library on campus	32
Location of the University campus	33

3.6 Other

Other (please specify)	34

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10 July 2003

Appendix III: evaluation of transferred calls from the TES

La Trobe University Library

Telephone Service Trial 2003

AudioVisual Desk — Evaluation Questionnaire

This survey form will chart the types of calls handled by the AudioVisual Desk during the centralised telephone service, ie. Monday 21 July to Friday 8 August from 10:00am to 3:00pm.

This is a survey of queries, not of people so if a caller has more than one query, you will need to fill out a form for each of those queries.

1. When? (circle) Day of the week: Mon Tue Wed Thu Fri
2. Time of day:

1	2	3	4	5
10:00am–11:00am	11:00am–12:00pm	12:00pm–1:00pm	1:00pm–2:00pm	2:00pm–3:00pm

3. Types of questions:

Queries regarding off-air recordings	6
Requests for off-air recordings	7
Queries regarding AV Reserve	8
Queries regarding AV online	9
AV interlibrary loan and intercampus loans queries	10
Complex AV reference queries	11
Bookings for academic staff	12
Bookings for Equity and Access Room	13
AV ordering queries	14
AV collection development queries	15
Queries regarding AV borrowing rights	16
Personal calls	17
Other (please specify)	18

....

....

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18 July 2003

Stevens v. Sony in the High Court – what does it mean for libraries and the future of copyright?

Sarah Waladan

Copyright has long been a significant issue for libraries and cultural institutions. Since the invention of the photocopier, technologies have developed at a rapid rate, and copyright laws have become increasingly complex in an effort to keep up. This is nothing new to librarians, who must deal with the practicalities of copyright law on a daily basis in carrying out their functions of preserving and providing access to information.

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More often than not, deciphering the meaning of the law relating to copyright presents the largest problem, particularly if there are very few judicial decisions which have interpreted or applied it. Legislation may be drafted with the idea of covering a broad range of situations, or may represent a compromise position between various interest groups, making the intention of the legislature in drafting, and consequently the actual meaning of the law, difficult to determine.

The legislation outlawing the circumvention of technological protection measures ('anti-circumvention legislation') contained in the *Copyright Act 1968* and its interpretation in the Sony v. Stevens[1] litigation is a case in point:

> ..the federal parliament resolved an important conflict between copyright owners and copyright users by an autochthonous solution.[2]
>
> Much modern legislation regulating an industry reflects a compromise reached between, or force upon, powerful and competing groups in the industry whose interests are likely to be enhanced or impaired by the legislation.[3]

1 Stevens v Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment [2005] HCA 58 (6 October 2005Z) Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment v Stevens [2003] FCAFC 157 (30 July 2003) Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment v Stevens [2002] FCA 906 (26 July 2002)

2 Stevens v. Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment [2005] HCA 58 (6 October 2005); Per McHugh J at 125.

3 ibid.; Per McHugh J at 126.

and

> There is a good deal of evidence that supports the view that the legislative provisions with which this litigation is concerned are the product of a compromise agreed to, or forced upon, interest groups in the industry affected by the legislation.[4]

The anti-circumvention legislation was inserted into the Copyright Act with the goal of extending copyright – both its protection and relevant exceptions to infringement into the digital environment.[5] The High Court in Sony was presented with the task of defining the relationship between these two interests in the digital environment.

In undertaking this task, the High Court analysed the anti-circumvention legislation and its background, and provided guidance both in relation to these provisions, and regarding fundamental principles of copyright law, including the scope of the fair dealing defences, the relationship between the exceptions to copyright infringement and the anti-circumvention provisions, and more broadly, the rights associated with lawful acquisition of personal property, and implications of an overly protective definition of 'technological protection measures' (TPMs) on technological innovation.

In doing so, the Court confirmed the importance of copyright law in facilitating access to information, technological advancement and innovation, and of recognising an appropriate balance of interests in copyright law, notwithstanding the new digital context. From the perspective of libraries, it was a particularly welcome decision recognising the importance of their functions, in an area of law that, over the past decades, has increasingly focused on the protection of copyright, rather than the facilitation of copyright in pursuance of innovation and advancement.

While many interesting aspects of copyright law were raised in the course of the Sony litigation, this article will look particularly at the interpretation of the anti-circumvention provisions, and the implications of the High Court's findings in light of the Australian legal environment and particularly the Australia–US Free Trade Agreement (AUSFTA).

The anti-circumvention provisions and their interpretation in Sony

In 2000, the Government made substantial amendments to the *Copyright Act 1968* by way of the *Copyright Amendment (Digital Agenda) Act 2000*. These amendments ('Digital Agenda' amendments) were introduced in response to the new digital environment, and were aimed at updating the law in light of technological advancements such as the internet.[6]

As part of these amendments, new enforcement measures were introduced to assist copyright owners in enforcing their rights in the digital environment. The amendments made it illegal to manufacture, import, make available online, advertise, market or commercially supply [circumvention] devices which have 'only a limited commercially significant purpose or use, or no such purpose or use, other than the circumvention, or facilitating the circumvention, of a technological protection measure'.[7]

4 ibid.; Per McHugh J at 127.

5 For example, see *Copyright Reform: Copyright Amendment (Digital Agenda) Act 2000*, the Attorney-General's Department, this can be viewed at: http://www.ag.gov.au/agd/seclaw/Copyright%20Amendment%20Act%202000.htm

6 *Copyright Reform: Copyright Amendment (Digital Agenda) Act 2000*, the Attorney-General's Department, this can be viewed at: http://www.ag.gov.au/agd/seclaw/Copyright%20Amendment%20Act%202000.htm

7 *Copyright Act 1968*; Section 10.

Pursuant to the Copyright Act, a TPM means:

> a device or product, or a component incorporated into a process, that is designed, in the ordinary course of its operation, to prevent or inhibit the infringement of copyright in a work or other subject-matter by either or both of the following means:
>
> (a) by ensuring that access to the work or other subject matter is available solely by use of an access code or process (including decryption, unscrambling or other transformation of the work or other subject-matter) with the authority of the owner or exclusive licensee of the copyright;
>
> (b) through a copy control mechanism. [8]

The Digital Agenda amendments minimised problems of statutory interpretation of these very technical provisions by libraries and educational institutions by providing clear exceptions to the ban on dealings with circumvention devices for circumvention done in accordance with their activities. Activities undertaken in pursuance of the library and archive exceptions of the Copyright Act, or in pursuance of the Part VB statutory license for educational institutions and institutions assisting persons with a disability, are exempted from liability under the anti-circumvention laws.[9]

In 2001 issues surrounding the interpretation of the anti-circumvention legislation were brought to the courts for the first time in the context of Play Station games and consoles. Sony corporation[10] filed a law suit against Mr Stevens, who sold and supplied unauthorised copies of computer games (contained on CD-ROMs) for use on Play Station consoles. Ordinarily, Play Station consoles cannot play unauthorised copies because they have a device, known as a Boot ROM, which recognises a specific access code contained on lawful copies of the games. However, Mr Stevens also sold and installed into Sony Play Station consoles, 'mod chips' which allowed the consoles to in effect by-pass the access-code requirement, so that unauthorised CDs could be loaded and played as well.[11]

One of the major issues pertinent to libraries that arose in this case related to how the anti-circumvention legislation of the Copyright Act should be interpreted. Sony argued that a either the console, or a combination of the access code contained in the games and the console, constituted a TPM which 'prevented or inhibited' the unauthorised copying of the games. Therefore, Sony argued that Mr Stevens' activities circumvented Sony's TPM and should be caught under the anti-circumvention provisions of the Copyright Act.[12]

Sony's device however, did not actually physically prevent unauthorised copying of the computer games. Rather, once the games had been copied, Sony's device rendered the copied games useless, because the Sony consoles did not play the copies, as they didn't have the access code required. Sony's device therefore *deterred* people from copying the games, because copiers would think it a wasted effort as they wouldn't be able to play the games anyway.

Sony's argument therefore raised very interesting questions of copyright law interpretation, the answers to which had the potential to affect operations within libraries and cultural institutions, by broadening the reach of copyright protection itself.

8 ibid.

9 ibid.; Section 116A.

10 Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment

11 See: Stevens v Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment [2005] HCA 58 (6 October 2005)

12 ibid.

The implications of Sony's interpretation for libraries can perhaps be more easily seen when this is translated into general copyright law principles: Sony's argument essentially stated that the legislation covered devices that not only prevented or inhibited *copying* of copyrighted material (in the physical sense) but also devices that merely prevented *access to* copyrighted material (ie whether or not copying had occurred). Such an interpretation would have enabled copyright owners, via TPMs, to control not only copying of their work, but also *access* to such works.

An important practical implication of Sony's interpretation, if drawn to its natural conclusion, is that institutions should be required to enter licences and pay every time material is simply *accessed* online, where they would not have to in the print environment. Given the vast amount of digital material that is protected by passwords, access codes, dongles, or other technological tools in order to gain access, an extension of the definition of 'technological protection measure' could have presented significant additional costs for institutions.[13]

An important legal problem with this of course is that it would encompass a fundamental change in the current balance of rights provided for by Parliament in the Copyright Act. The exclusive rights of the copyright holder cover a number of acts that involve the *copying* of a work. These exclusive rights do not however cover linking to a website, reading a book, or in any other way accessing a copyrighted work. In short, the Copyright Act is intended to protect works from being copied. This is indeed consistent with the policy goals underlying copyright law, which include the promotion of innovation, creation and improvement.

Additionally, Sony's interpretation was inconsistent with the stated intention of Parliament when it introduced the TPM provisions via the *Copyright Amendment (Digital Agenda) Act 2000*, that the amendments were intended to introduce the same rights in relation to digital works as previously existed in the print environment, rather than provide copyright holders with additional rights over and above those rights already conferred by the Copyright Act in the print environment.[14]

The case was first heard by the Federal Court in 2002. [15] Justice Sackville did not agree with Sony's interpretation of the anti-circumvention provisions, stating that:

> a technological protection measure, as defined, must be a device or product which utilised technological means to deny a person access to a copyright work, or which limits a person's capacity to make copies of a work, to which access has been gained, and thereby physically prevents or inhibits the person from undertaking acts which, if carried out, would or might infringe copyright in the work. [16]

Sony appealed to the Full Court of the Federal Court. Basing its decision largely on statutory interpretation, the Full Court found for Sony[17], stating in its decision that:

> it is not for the court to cage the ordinary meaning of the words which have been adopted by reference to policy considerations of its own divining. [18]

13 This point was raised in the submissions of the Australian Digital Alliance and the Australian Libraries' Copyright Committee as amici in this case, see http://www.digital.org.au/submission/31.doc;1HC%20Submissions.rtf; at 10, 11.

14 Revised Explanatory Memorandum to the *Copyright Amendment (Digital Agenda) Bill 2000* (Cth) at 2, stating that '[a]s far as possible, the exceptions [in the Bill] replicate the balance struck between the rights of owners and the rights of users that has applied in the print environment'.

15 Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment v. Stevens [2002] FCA 906 (26 July 2002)

16 ibid., Per Sackville J at para 115.

17 Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment v. Stevens [2003] FCAFC 157 (30 July 2003)

18 ibid., Per French J at para 25.

Mr Stevens then appealed to the High Court of Australia. The High Court did not accept Sony's arguments, and in October last year, handed down its decision[19] essentially confirming that 'technological protection measures' are measures or devices that *protect copyright* in a work (or other subject matter) rather than access to the copyright work in and of itself.

In its decision, the Court made it clear that anti-circumvention provisions could not be viewed in isolation. The Court provided guidance not only in relation to the scope of the anti-circumvention laws, but also in relation to fundamental principles of copyright law, and the relationship of copyright law to other areas of the law such as anti-competitive conduct and property law. The Court made it very clear that it would read down legislation that purports to take away individual rights:

> ...in construing a definition which focuses on a device designed to prevent or inhibit the infringement of copyright, it is important to avoid an overbroad construction which would extend the copyright monopoly rather than match it.'[20]

Kirby J particularly looked at the relationship between the anti-circumvention provisions and the fair dealing provisions of the Act, emphasising the importance of the fair dealing exceptions to the 'copyright balance' and clearly stating that discarding user rights in spite of the delicate 'balance' that copyright requires, may exceed the power granted by the Constitution to the Parliament to enact laws with respect to copyright:

> To the extent that attempts are made to push the provisions of Australian Copyright legislation beyond the legitimate purposes traditional to copyright protection at law, the Parliament risks losing its nexus to the constitutional source of power. That source postulates a balance of interests such as have traditionally been observed by copyright statutes, including the Copyright Act.[21]

Thus the High Court recognised the importance of the relationship between the provisions of the Copyright Act to the operation of the Act as a whole, and in doing so, confirmed the function of copyright law in facilitating access to information and promoting innovation and advancement.

Sony and the AUSFTA: where to from here?

The Sony decision of course came at a critical time in the development of Australia's copyright laws and policies. In 2004, Australia and the US entered into a bilateral free trade agreement which contains a significant chapter on intellectual property, including copyright, and requires Australia to implement various changes to its intellectual property laws to more closely align them with US intellectual property laws.

Most of Australia's obligations arising out of the AUSFTA have now been incorporated into Australian law, and came into effect on 1 January 2005.[22] The agreement however also contained various provisions regarding Australia's obligations with respect to anti-circumvention legislation, which Australia is required to implement by 1 January 2007. In particular, the AUSFTA requires Australia to implement a definition of 'TPM' as stated in the text of the AUSFTA:

> any technology, device, or component that, in the normal course of its operation, *controls access* to a protected work, performance, phonogram, or other protected subject matter, or protects any copyright.[23]

19 Stevens v. Kabushiki Kaisha Sony Computer Entertainment [2005] HCA 58 (6 October 2005)

20 ibid.; per Gleeson CJ, Gummow J, Hayne J and Heydon J at para 47

21 ibid.; per Kirby J at para 218

22 See; *US Free Trade Agreement Implementation Act 2004*

23 The Australia–US Free Trade Agreement, Article 17.4.7 (b). Final text at; http://www.dfat.gov.au/trade/negotiations/us_fta/final-text/chapter_17.html

On one reading, this provision of the AUSFTA text would appear to negate the findings of the High Court in Stevens v. Sony in relation to the current anti-circumvention laws. However, libraries, cultural institutions and other 'user' groups in the copyright debate have argued that the agreement should rather be interpreted as 'intending to protect access to copyrighted works which have been intentionally access protected by the rights holders of those works *in order to protect copyright* in those works, and to which the exceptions do not apply'.[24]

The context within which the AUSFTA text was agreed to would appear to support this approach. Australia agreed to implement the anti-circumvention provisions of the AUSFTA in the context of agreeing to implement international copyright standards which Australia had not yet ratified, particularly the WIPO Copyright Treaty and the WIPO Performances and Phonograms Treaty which were adopted internationally in 1996, and which provide that:

> Contracting Parties shall provide adequate legal protection and effective legal remedies against the circumvention of effective technological measures *that are used by authors [performers or producers of phonograms] in connection with the exercise of their rights under this Treaty* or the Berne Convention and that restrict acts, in respect of their works, which are not authorized by the authors [performers or producers of phonograms] concerned *or permitted by law* (emphasis added).[25]

The basis of the AUSFTA and also US anti-circumvention law[26] therefore stems from these international law obligations which clearly recognise the connection between TPMs and the exercise of rights-holders' [copyright] rights.

Additionally, US law itself has held that a strict interpretation of the US Copyright Act[27] 'would lead to absurdities',[28] that the [US] Act 'does not create a new property right for copyright owners'[29] and that severance of 'access' from 'protection' is entirely inconsistent with the context defined by the total statutory structure of the Copyright Act'[30]. The US Courts have therefore interpreted US law in a manner consistent with the WIPO Copyright treaties, rather than extending copyright protection by conferring additional rights to copyright holders to control access to works in and of itself. It would be therefore be peculiar if Australia interpreted the AUSFTA in a manner that goes not only beyond its AUSFTA obligations, but also beyond any interpretation that the US has ascribed to those obligations.

Adoption of a reading of the AUSFTA that allows TPMs to control access to works regardless of whether such devices actually protect copyright, would be particularly peculiar given the consistent approach of domestic law-making bodies which have emphasised that 'access' to works lies outside of the scope of the rights provided by copyright.[31] The most recent domestic review concerning this issue was conducted by

24 See the submission of the Australian Digital Alliance and the Australian Libraries Copyright Committee regarding the Review of Technological Protection Measures Exceptions: http://www.digital.org.au/submission/TPMsub.rtf at 8–10

25 WIPO Copyright Treaty, Article 11; WIPO Performances and Phonograms Treaty, Article 18; available online at: http://www.wipo.int/treaties/en/

26 See; Circular 92: Copyright law of the United States of America. This can be viewed online at: http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92preface.html

27 17 U.S.C. (2005)

28 *The Chamberlain Group Inc. v. Skylink Technologies Inc.* N° 04–1118, 31 August 2004, at 37

29 ibid.

30 ibid. at 40

31 For example, see: *Copyright and Contract*, Copyright Law Review Committee, Commonwealth of Australia, 2002 *Digital Agenda Review Report and Recommendations*, Attorney-General's Department, 2004

the House of Representatives Standing Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs, in response to a referral by the Attorney-General in July 2005, regarding appropriate exceptions to the anti-circumvention laws in light of the AUSFTA. The bi-partisan Committee in February 2006 released its report, which again recommended that in the legislation implementing the AUSFTA, 'the definition of TPM clearly require[s] a direct link between access control and copyright protection'.[32] The Committee opined that this was consistent with Australia's obligations under the AUSFTA.[33]

In summary, the High Court, via the Sony decision in October last year, solidified a clear position in relation to anti-circumvention laws in Australia. At the same time however, the Australian government has agreed with the US to ensure that its anti-circumvention laws comply with the AUSFTA before 1 January 2007. The government must now reconcile the two.

Conclusion

The concept of 'balance' is integral to copyright law. Copyright laws were founded on the principle that society would benefit if innovation, creativity, and advancement were facilitated by law. Such facilitation necessarily requires both protection of and access to copyrighted materials. The amorphous concept of 'balance' however, has proved difficult to translate into the mechanics of the law.

In the Sony decision, in the process of clarifying the current anti-circumvention provisions, the High Court gave important guidance on how to achieve balanced copyright law in the digital environment. The Court recognised the need to limit anti-circumvention laws in order to ensure that exceptions to copyright infringement can be accessed by users in the digital environment, and so that they are not overridden by default due to technological advancements. The Court identified the importance of the fair dealing provisions to the overall balance of rights provided by copyright, and reiterated that copyright laws should deal with copyright protection and not expand to protect other interests, such as market power, or indeed access rights.

For libraries and user interests, the decision provided an extremely welcome development, not to mention an important lobbying tool, in the midst of the AUSFTA related legislative changes which provided stricter copyright protection while failing to recognise the importance of educational and cultural institutions in carrying out their functions. The highest judicial body in this country has recognised the debilitating effects that over-protective copyright laws may have on these functions, and indicated that there are boundaries outside of which legislation brought before it under the guise of copyright will not be upheld.

In the near future however, the balance of rights entailed in our copyright legislation will be determined by the Parliament, in its implementation of the AUSFTA.

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32 Review of technological protection measures exceptions, House of Representatives Standing Committee on Legal and Constitutional Affairs, Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia, February 2006

33 ibid., at 51–90.

Professional surprise

George Adam Holland

This paper considers the possibility of practicums in graduate programs for information management students. The benefits of such practicums are identified and explored and possible drawbacks discussed.

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In June 2005 I completed a Master of Arts in Information and Knowledge Management at the University of Technology, Sydney. In July of 2005 I began work as an Information Services librarian at a public library in Texas. While the course was extremely good, I also feel that I was simply not prepared for the demands and daily reality of library work. As I approach the anniversary of my first year of library work I want to take the opportunity to offer an opinion of my experience of the Australian higher education system for the information professional and suggest possible change.

Deciding to enroll in the Information and Knowledge Management Masters was a significant decision for me as it signaled a major change in lifestyle and career. I suspect that this was a similar situation for the majority of my peers in the Masters program as we were all well distanced from our undergraduate degrees. I had graduated with my undergraduate degree from Macquarie University and had been working in the non-profit sector for a number of years. I had very little practical experience in libraries and decided to take an information career path based on the testimony of a good friend just finishing his MLS in the USA, and from research I did on job demand and quality of life surveys by profession. My attitude going into my first semester was that a lack of preconceived notions about the information field might prove to be an asset as I could bring fresh perspectives and possibly unique insight. In retrospect this was somewhat naïve and contributed to what I will describe as 'professional surprise'.

Missing elements

The core subjects and electives that I took for the MA were very effective in what they covered. The lecturers, on the whole, were both expert and personable. The experiences I had with the teaching, course material and colleagues were extremely positive, with few exceptions. The topic I want to focus on here is what I did not experience: real-world, bricks and mortar libraries and in-the-flesh librarians. As graduate students none of us were required to gain practical experience in a library for completion of the course. Now, into my career, I am disappointed by this lack of practical experience, and my disappointment leads me to a question: Should a Master of Arts program in information management require a practicum? I want to suggest an answer to this question based on my experiences.

In September 2005 an article appeared in the (American) *Library Journal* titled 'The practice prerequisite'. John Berry, the editor-in-chief of the journal, wrote the article based on both his observations in the library field and feedback received from graduates. He states 'Students with work experience in libraries tremendously enrich LIS education. They provide the only bridge between the theoretical and idealistic curricula and the practical and political reality of library work'(Berry 2005). While Berry is speaking to an American audience the points he makes apply directly to my experience as a postgraduate student in Australia. I will draw some of these issues out by example.

- Upon graduating I understood arguments supporting information access models, but comprehending the sheer number of complex questions I would receive working a reference desk was completely beyond me.
- During the course I read numerous theoretical articles directing me towards best practice in reference interviews, but I had no idea how to conduct such an interview with an angry library patron who appears mentally confused.
- I understood Brenda Dervin's 'sense-making' approach, but I lacked an immediate ability to apply that in a library context that is very departmentalised with complicated and political job pressures.
- Principles behind website design were covered in some detail, but I had never had actual experience with the largest software providers to libraries, such as SirsiDynix or Brodart.

The theoretical foundation was very well established for my entry into the working world of libraries. I experienced a very serious case of professional surprise when I stepped into the day-to-day functions of a librarian, though. These expectations and challenges were either simply not covered in the theory we studied, or looked so drastically different from what my imagination had created from the theory that I was unprepared for them.

I feel I lacked two important elements that could have augmented and expanded theoretical training. First, I lacked any specific application of what I was learning to an actual situation in a library or information job. This does not necessarily require a visit to a library, rather an explanation of how theories may look upon entering the profession. I view this as a bridge-building step through taking theory and practice and constructing a clear connection between the two based on the lecturer's experience or real-world case studies. At the very least this would provide a set of tools that create some foreknowledge of what a working environment may actually look like. Second, I never got to see how messy, busy and complicated libraries are on a daily basis. I completely missed the practical experience of what I was learning, which prevented me from tempering the ideals I was learning with the reality of what I would face daily.

Advantages and drawbacks

Placing a student in a practicum that covers at least 2 or 3 weeks might go significant distances in covering the gap between theory and practice. If I had spent time behind a reference desk, or working in cataloguing, I might have had a clearer idea of what the jobs I was applying for would entail. This added knowledge and educational diversity for the student is the strongest benefit from practicums, but there are added benefits as well. Required practicums (both 'practicums' and 'practica' are used as plurals for practicum. I employ practicums in this paper) for Masters students in information courses would provide the huge advantage to potential employers of knowing that their new staff will have at least a minimal level of experience. The added value in this for libraries that partner with universities is that a clear supply of free labour is provided. The students will hopefully be more assets than liabilities, based on the quality of education they are receiving through the course, but a willingness on the part of the library to impart good practice and experience will motivate the process. With a clear outline of expectations, the student would gain the immense benefit of actual library experience while completing the required practicum credit points and providing extra hands at the libraries. These practicums would greatly enrich the education offered by the Masters by providing the bridge between the classroom and the busy world of libraries, while also allowing students to assist libraries.

During my first interview for my current job as an Information Services Librarian I was asked two questions that concerned me. The first focused on my philosophy of 'ready reference'. I had no idea what this meant. I stumbled through an answer and hoped that it was a cultural difference, attributing it to the USA/Australian terminology gap. In fact, ready reference is a phrase that is frequently used in Australian libraries, but I had simply never heard it before. The second was focused on my customer service abilities. I was confused because surely we should be focusing on my approach to information access or views on the implementation of new database structures to library websites. They asked me no such questions. Instead they wanted a considered response to my customer service philosophy, including a detailed response to how I would handle the service situation they described. I answered these questions satisfactorily, I assume (I got the job), but I was very slow in responding and definitely did not instill confidence in my future employers that I understood ready reference or had a clear attitude toward customer service. I feel strongly that I would have been able to answer these questions much more effectively and in a confidence-inspiring way if I had spent a week at a reference desk as part of a practicum.

Clearly there are some potential red flags for practicums, some of which may be why they do not take place currently. The first challenge is the administrative efforts the universities would have to undertake to co-ordinate and monitor such placements. This is achievable in my opinion though, because universities administer practicums for numerous other undergraduate and postgraduate degree programs. There is of course also the potential for students to pick up bad practice habits from these experiences that corrupt them in their subsequent career. Hopefully this would be avoided by partnering with libraries that are interested in sharing knowledge with students and view it as an opportunity to enhance the future library community. The most significant challenge I see is the effort it would take to create a varied and substantial opportunity for the student. If a student is used solely as cheap labour at circulation or reference for three weeks the aims would clearly not have been achieved. The practicums would require commitment on the libraries' part to move the students around and give them genuine experience that is supported by professional librarians.

The temptation would be there for a temporary fix for a staff shortage problem, but hopefully this could be guarded against.

The implementation of practicums into information Masters degrees would add a substantial and crucial experience to students. Such experience in professional practice will not only help students' transition into jobs, including bringing clearer insights to their interviews and workplaces, but will also create a closer-knit community in which students see how what they are learning applies to practical library environments. A stronger connection between lecturers and library managers can be created, providing for an even clearer link between academic theory and its actual implementation.

International best practice

The professional surprise I experienced has not prevented me from enjoying or performing well in my job. I find my role both interesting and challenging, but it took me close to a year to adjust to exactly what a library looked like on a week-in and week-out basis. Part of the responsibility is squarely on my shoulders since I did not undertake any actual experience in libraries prior to my study. Despite this, as well as because of it, I am certain that a practicum would have assisted in cutting down this transition time, as well as allowing me to utilise my skills more quickly and effectively. MLS graduates in America are calling for required practicums, as are industry professionals like John Berry. Australia has very well-respected information degree programs and I see the implementation of practicums as an opportunity for best practice leadership, more effectively equipping future librarians and information professionals for Australia. For these reasons I suggest American and Australian universities and ALA and ALIA consider the value of requiring practicums for postgraduate students in information degrees.

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Keeping the roses watered: the continuing professional development of librarians in New Zealand

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Continuing professional development is a necessary aspect of keeping up to date in a rapidly changing profession. Librarians are no more immune to evolutions in technology and innovation, service provision and customer expectations than any other professional group. This paper explores the current New Zealand setting and context of CPD for librarians, and discusses the outcomes of a CPD Needs Assessment conducted in 2005 for this sector of the information society. Findings include the key topics, delivery methods, and other factors seen as important by librarians and their managers. Differences between types of libraries, and between librarians' and their managers' views, are noted.

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The maintenance of professional education, standards and practice is usually dependent on some form of continuing professional development (CPD). This applies to information professionals, including librarians, no less than any other profession. CPD has been defined as 'the continuing education of persons within a category or type of employment. It may consist of the upgrading of skills or learning through courses or individual learning. Where professions have expanded, professional development may involve doing new courses...' (*Penguin Macquarie dictionary of Australian education* 1989). There are many writers on the subject of CPD, and it is apparent that it may be interpreted and practised in many different ways. This paper focuses on librarians and their CPD needs within the New Zealand context, reporting on research undertaken in 2005.

Identifying what CPD is needed by librarians will be dependent on interpretation. There may be differences between what is thought of as 'CPD' by practitioners, employers, education providers, and professional associations; and as a result, discrepancies and apparent failures to meet needs or expectations can arise. However, there is no doubt about the importance of CPD: '… the shelf life of a degree is approximately three years and declining. Maintaining competence and learning new skills must be at the top of every professional's "To Do" list. It is an ethical responsibility ... but also one that is pragmatic and critical for career success.' (Weingand 1999).

The mission of this research was to identify the CPD needs of librarians in New Zealand. The impetus was threefold: firstly, there was no current overview of the CPD needs of librarians in New Zealand, and so a gap in awareness was identified. Secondly, investigations were being made by The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand into areas additional to the teaching of their core programs in Information and Library Studies, and CPD was identified as such a possible area for development. Thirdly, after this research was begun an additional impetus was given when LIANZA (Library and Information Association of New Zealand Aotearoa) took the first steps towards professional registration of librarians in New Zealand and established a taskforce to investigate the issue (LIANZA 2005b). One of the taskforce's initial recommendations was for 'the establishment of a continuing professional development framework for registered members' (LIANZA Taskforce on Professional Registration 2005: 4). This research aimed to establish in detail what the CPD needs of the profession were. The research was conducted by staff from the Information and Library Studies section of The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand, under the auspices of LIANZA.

The process was to examine the relevant literature, look at the New Zealand context, and conduct a CPD Needs Assessment of librarians to determine and evaluate their needs. The Needs Assessment took the form of a survey widely distributed to the library community. Selected results are outlined below.

Literature review

Niemi provides a useful framework for considering professional development, suggesting that professionals seek educational opportunities from four sources: institutions of higher education, professional associations, independent (proprietary) agencies, and the agencies which employ these professionals, but notes that this last source is more likely to be concerned with the needs of the organisation than the needs of the professional (Niemi 1996: 72). To this can be added more informally constituted and organic communities of practice, such as mentoring, mailing lists and web logs (blogs). Few studies into the area of CPD for librarians have been undertaken in New Zealand. Two recent studies conducted in the areas of information management consultants and contractors, and of records managers, are discussed below. Evidence of the need for CPD is also discussed.

A study of consultants and contractors in the information industry in New Zealand was conducted in 2001, covering librarians, records managers, archivists, information managers and knowledge managers (Fields 2003). Although this study covered only one sector of the information industry, trends identified may be similar to those in other sectors. The study sought to identify how this group operates, and among the wide range of questions asked were some on qualifications, professional standards and support. In its findings, it was noted that there already exist many opportunities for professional development and support for this group, and that it was largely the responsibility of the individual to find and make use of the existing services. The most commonly used forms of CPD were professional reading, professional mailing lists, conferences, networking, professional associations, meetings, speakers and other opportunities.

Records managers were surveyed in 2002 to determine what kinds of qualifications they had, and what kinds of CPD or substitutions for qualifications they had completed or acquired (Cossham 2004a). Participation in continuing education (defined in the survey as short courses, workshops, seminars, conferences, training, etc) varied enormously. There was a wide range of events listed including courses from tertiary institutions, generic business skills and computer courses, Archives New Zealand training courses, professional associations' conferences, meetings and workshops, courses offered by consultants, websites, professional reading and mailing lists, and networking. Records managers also made good use of in-house and employer-provided training, such as computer application training, business and management skills and HR courses, Te Reo Maori (Maori language), biculturalism and the Treaty of Waitangi. This relates closely to Niemi's assertion that while agencies employing professionals provide continuing education, it is more likely to be concerned with the needs of the organisation than the needs of the professional. It is also noted that for the individual, both organisational needs and personal needs are relevant. (Cossham 2004a: 32).

LIANZA's monthly journal, *Library Life: Te rau Ora*, published an issue devoted to professional development in December 2000. It looked at both qualifications and CPD; one article examined the state of CPD in New Zealand and the establishment and initial work of the then Professional Development Standing Committee, but asked more questions than it answered (Tocker 2000).

Other evidence of the need and use for CPD has been gathered from students in The Open Polytechnic's undergraduate courses, many of whom are upgrading their qualifications, frequently from a perceived need to up-skill; and from stakeholders consulted in the process of developing new courses, such as the *Certificate in Cataloguing*. There is also considerable interest in some of the new subjects and courses being made available; from prospective and current students, from those with existing qualifications, and also from employers.

The New Zealand setting and conditions

The number of people currently working within information management is difficult to quantify. In library contexts in New Zealand, while 2001 census figures show that while there are 6027 people working in this area (New Zealand librarian labour market 2005), there are only 1244 individual and 459 institutional members of LIANZA. (LIANZA 2005a). Formal education opportunities for librarians exist with qualifications available through The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand, Victoria University of Wellington, The Auckland College of Education and Te Wananga-O-Raukawa. Opportunities available to allied fields such as records managers and archivists have been more scattered until recently when courses were established at The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand (2001) and Victoria University of Wellington (2005).

There are a variety of CPD offerings available to librarians in New Zealand, but these have tended to be supplier rather than market-driven, offered in a piecemeal fashion, and differ from year to year and from region to region. To date there has been no formal requirement by LIANZA for librarians to undertake CPD in order to achieve or maintain professional status, although this may change when the LIANZA Taskforce on Professional Registration has completed its work. This means the CPD landscape is likely to undergo some form of restructuring following the outcome and implementation of the Taskforce's recommendations.

The changing impetus towards CPD

There are a number of factors that have coloured CPD choices, and these are likely to cause more changes in the immediate future. Firstly, the range of CPD options is fluid, as is the marketplace in which they are set. The amount, type, and subjects of CPD available to the profession often change, as do the providers. Secondly, recent government initiatives such as the National Digital Strategy bring new tasks, challenges, and information skills to be learned and passed on. Thirdly, the LIANZA Taskforce on Professional Registration is yet to make its recommendations, which will inevitably affect the way CPD is undertaken by the profession.

Looking firstly at what is currently available for librarians in NZ, we see that a wide range of CPD opportunities already exist, and the options can be categorised according to Niemi's framework. Institutions of higher learning such as The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand and Victoria University of Wellington (VUW) offer formal courses leading to undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications (respectively). LIANZA provides, hosts, develops or organises a wide variety of CPD, including conferences. Each of the LIANZA regional and special interest groups also develops, organises or hosts some CPD each year but the quantity and quality of this varies. Institutions which employ librarians also undertake a range of training courses which can be classed as CPD. These may focus on industry-specific or discipline-related subjects and courses such as information technology skills or relating to customers. Beyond Niemi's framework are the 'communities of practice' which may evolve their own CPD offerings as need and opportunity arises. Mailing lists and web logs come into this category, as do networking and maintaining industry contacts, professional reading, research and writing, and mentoring.

Secondly, other recent initiatives will have an impact on the type and nature of CPD opportunities for librarians. Both central and local government have recently launched e-government strategies. The goal of the central government strategy was that by 2004 the public sector in New Zealand would work as a single, integrated operation (E-government in New Zealand 2003). Building on this, in 2004 the National Digital Strategy was written and put out for consultation (*Digital Strategy* 2004). The strategy's vision is that:

> New Zealand will be a world leader at using information and technology to realise our economic, social and cultural goals. All New Zealanders will benefit from the power of information and communications technology (ICT) to harness information for economic and social gain. This will result in changes in government, businesses, communities and society as a whole. (*Digital Strategy* 2004: 6)

The key areas of emphasis include improving access to New Zealand content, such as national heritage collections and government information, developing the digital confidence and capability of all New Zealanders and ensuring the ICT environment is trusted, secure and reliable, supporting grassroots developments to build the ICT capability of communities, increasing the potential of ICT to create value for businesses in all sectors, and using ICT to improve the delivery of government (*Digital Strategy* 2004). This highlights a need for sound information literacy, ICT skills, and for ensuring the right people are developing the required skills in order to deliver both the end product to the end user, and to produce the digital content and the extensive connection required (*Draft National Digital Strategy,* nd). This provides an environment where CPD can be effectively used to raise the existing skill base to help fulfil these government initiatives.

Lastly, the LIANZA Taskforce on Professional Registration will inevitably have an impact on CPD, but the extent of this will not be known until after the recommendations of the Taskforce have been made, accepted and implemented.

Methodology

The approach used was to develop a specific assessment tool using similar studies, surveys, other literature and ideas, as a basis. Work first began in October 2004 when academic staff in Information and Library Studies at The Open Polytechnic of New Zealand conducted a SWOT analysis of CPD for librarians, records managers and archivists. It was decided to focus on librarians as a target group, and the research plan was mapped out.

An examination of the current state of play of CPD in New Zealand was conducted, providing details of the existing CPD environment and offerings (Cossham et al 2005). Extensive networking was also undertaken within various professional associations active in information management. The researchers met with key personnel from LIANZA in November 2004 to explore opportunities for CPD within the profession. Both parties saw the benefits of conducting a CPD needs assessment, and so a Memorandum of Understanding was written, outlining the rights and responsibilities of each party, for the Needs Assessment to be conducted by The Open Polytechnic under the auspices of LIANZA.

The questions in the Needs Assessment were carefully worded to collect the data required, to show trends, and common ideas and needs, while maintaining confidentiality for individual respondents. Approval was sought and granted from The Open Polytechnic's Ethics Committee. The Needs Assessment was then pre-tested by a group of librarians from all sectors of the profession, and went to LIANZA for comment. The Polytechnic's Analyst Programmer, Peter Bagnato, developed a sophisticated web form for the Needs Assessment, which allowed for ranked multiple choices within some questions, and for initial data collation to be done electronically.

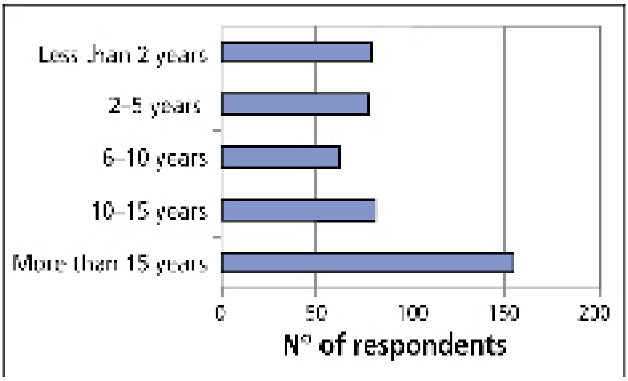
The Needs Assessment ran from 21 September to 12 October 2005. This was advertised initially as two weeks, with an additional week given for those involved in school holidays (particularly school librarians) and other projects. Information about the needs assessment and a hotlink to the survey itself went to librarians in a number of ways, including websites, mailing lists (*nz-libs*, *law-lib*, various SIG mailing lists, and other appropriate groups such as *Te Roopu Whakahau: Maori in Libraries and Information Management*), and e-journals. The aim was to reach as many librarians in all library types and all stages of career in as short a time as feasible. Primary data analysis was then undertaken by the researchers' faculty colleague, Lois Curry. The key findings are discussed below.

Findings and discussion

All figures have been rounded to the nearest half a percentage point. Not all respondents answered each question. There were 629 respondents. Once duplicates were removed (identified primarily by identical comments but also including one large block of 48 'barest minimum/default' sequential and identical responses) there were 573 useable responses. This is estimated to be around 9.5 per cent of the population of practising librarians in NZ (c.6000). 27.5 per cent of respondents do not belong to any professional association, while 55.5 per cent belong to LIANZA. This represents 25.5 per cent of the personal members of LIANZA, which is a very positive response.

The respondents were largely qualified: only 13.5 per cent had no qualification (sadly many seemed unable to identify whether they had undergraduate or postgraduate qualifications and had selected, and specified, 'Other'.) 34 per cent (of 454 responses) had qualified more than 15 years ago.

Table 1: Length of time since qualification



Most of the respondents were from larger cities (69.5 per cent), while 8 per cent came from rural areas or 'other', and 22.5 per cent from towns/small cities. A range of types of libraries was well represented among the respondents as indicated below.

Table 2: Types of library represented by respondents

Type of library	As surveyed	With 'Other' included
Public	33.5%	
National	3.5%	
School – Primary	2.5%	
School – Secondary	7%	
Total primary and secondary, including combined schools		10.5%
Tertiary education	24%	
Special – Law	5.5%	
Special – Health	2.5%	
Special – Government	9.5%	11%
Other	9%	

When responses supplied and detailed in the 'Other' category are redistributed across the categories to which they actually belong, the third column is generated. Again, it was disappointing to find that some respondents were unable to identify their library's sector. This range of library types represents the main groups within the library industry, and provides an overall view of the general CPD needs of the wider profession. Given the relatively small numbers of respondents from some groups, care has been taken to ensure that their preferences do not outweigh the preferences of the larger respondents, especially as in the long term this research may be used to determine the CPD actually offered by various providers, particularly LIANZA.

Respondents were asked to identify their personal CPD needs by topic over the next 2–3 years. Twenty-four topics were listed for respondents to choose from, based on major library functions and services, and personal issues (such as time management and customer service). There was also opportunity for additional responses under an 'Other (please specify)' category. Unsurprisingly, topics associated with electronic resources and information technology scored highly as 'very important' (71 per cent and 66 per cent respectively), with reference skills (55 per cent), information literacy (53 per cent), research (49 per cent), communication skills and user education (both 44 per cent) coming next highest. Strategies for developing a personal CPD plan, digitisation projects, and management skills also scored highly as 'very important'. (See Table 4 for a full listing). Correlating topics with library types led to some predictable responses with, for example, children's services being rated highly by public and school librarians but not by special librarians. However information literacy was selected as either very important or important by high numbers of respondents in all library sectors, which was unexpected.

There were about 40 'other' CPD topics specified by respondents, including 'how to manage a staff member with psychopathic tendencies'; 'visits to public libraries'; training and teaching skills; leadership, strategic planning and project management; 'knowledge and information management'. One commented: 'My CPD interests are primarily about the hows and whys; I'm not interested in task-centred CPD, except where it fits into the larger intellectual picture'.

Respondents were also asked to identify their preferences for factors affecting CPD, including methods of delivery. For the latter, preferences were overwhelmingly given for short courses (half or full day), contact teaching (rather than distance, self-study or modular) and through attending presentations or interactive workshops rather than online or personal reading. Given the numbers who also indicated that assistance in planning their own CPD programs was very important (39 per cent) or important (38 per cent), this could indicate that the straightforward, quick options were the most favoured, and that CPD which helps individuals to develop their own strategies may be worth considering, especially in the light of the variation in offerings in different parts of the country and from year to year.

In questions relating to CPD presentation, content was considered 'very important' by most respondents, considerably in advance of the quality, availability, timeliness, cost or location of what was offered. There seemed to be no pattern to whether particular geographical areas or types of libraries preferred particular types of CPD. Most respondents (88 per cent) located information about CPD via listservs or electronic mailing lists. However, this is not surprising since this was the primary method of distributing this needs assessment, and so it is reasonable to assume that respondents have a higher level of awareness and use of this method of information dissemination. Gaining information about forthcoming CPD events via professional associations also scored highly, with 67 per cent of respondents gaining information about CPD via their professional association.

Questions were also asked about the importance respondents attached to CPD, and whether they were supported by their organisation to attend. Personal satisfaction was the most frequently selected reason for attending CPD, followed by preparation for a desired position, and salary increase. 82.5 per cent were encouraged by their employer to participate in CPD, and this employer support took the form of paid time to attend (70 per cent) and course fees paid (67 per cent). However, one respondent commented: 'Employer reluctance is the biggest factor in not attending. Also the employer and I differ in what training we think I need.' This sentiment was echoed in other comments. Budgets appeared to be tight (unsurprisingly), and the sharing of limited money between large numbers of staff was also an issue.

Managers were asked to provide additional information about their organisation's focus on CPD and the requirements of their staff, as well as their own CPD needs. Around 120 responses were received from managers (varying in number from question to question), and some of the responses are not encouraging. Only 41.5 per cent said that their library had a well-defined CPD policy and this was evenly distributed across all the library types responding.

Table 3: Types of library and their CPD policies

Type of Library	CPD policy	No CPD policy	Total
Public	17.5%	21.6%	39.1%
National	0.8%	–	0.8%
Primary	0.8%	–	0.8%
Secondary	3.3%	4.1%	7.4%
Tertiary	10%	17.5%	27.5%
Law	1.6%	5.8%	7.4%
Health	–	1.6%	1.6%
Govt	5%	4.1%	9.1%
Other	2.5%	3.3%	5.8%
Total	**41.5%**	**58%**	**99.5%**

However, 88 per cent also said they had a budget to cover CPD participation. There were 87 comments about the CPD policy (or situation, where no policy existed) from managers, which indicated that there is a range of practices from the reactive to the highly planned and actively supported. A number commented on the lack of interest by junior staff in CPD, either because they 'do not seek to extend themselves in a professional capacity' or because they do not ask: 'I think they think the library management team gets priority'. Some noted that the focus in their wider organisation was on training, rather than professional development, and one that 'while we actively encourage training …with excellent conditions to support training, the majority of our staff have been here for a very long time and are reluctant to take on anything new. The majority are unqualified and see working in a library as "just a job" and not as a "profession".'

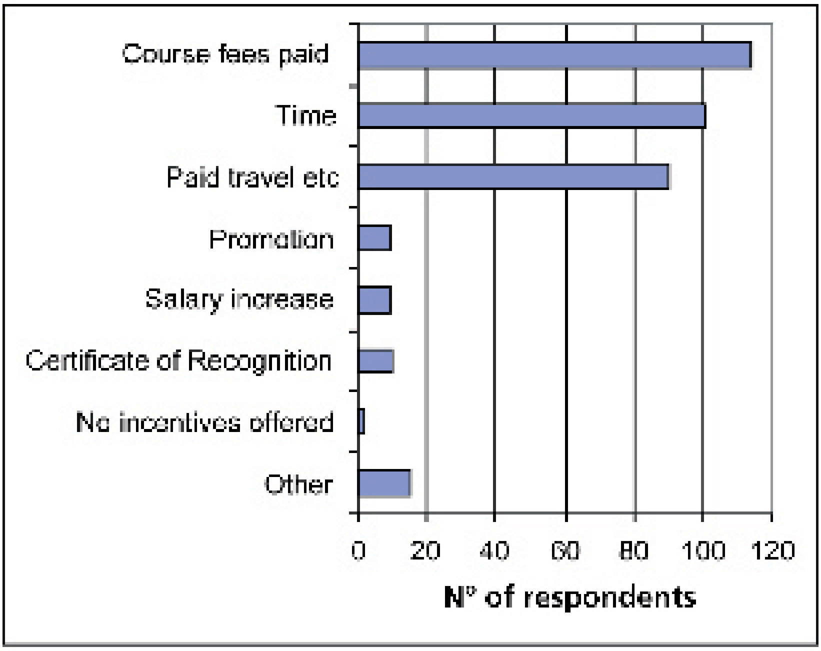
Managers' preferences for CPD which they thought their staff needed were queried against the same list of topics as those offered to individuals. These are compared in the table below. The type of library in which the managers worked undoubtedly has an influence on the responses they gave, so one should not read too much into the results. However, in many instances there was considerable similarity of response, which makes the variations in other cases more interesting.

Table 4: CPD topics: individuals vs. managers' preferences

Topic	Ranked as very important by	
	Individuals	Managers
Information literacy	53%	42%
Services for special user groups	20%	19%
Developing programs for ESOL customers	6%	4%
Children's and young adults' services	24%	31%
User education	44%	55%
Reference	55%	66%
Research	49%	42%
Collection development and acquisitions	29%	30%
Serials	11%	9%
Cataloguing	18%	21%
Indexing and abstracting	13%	6%
Interlibrary loan services	8%	11%
Electronic resources	71%	75%
Information technology	66%	66%
Digitisation	39%	36%
Archives / Records	20%	16%
Bicultural issues	20%	25%
Management	38%	20%
Effective communication	44%	62%
Stress management	24%	30%
Assertiveness techniques	21%	21%
Time management	23%	30%
Customer service skills	34%	66%

Managers preferred staff to make use of short, contact courses and presentations, the same as the staff themselves, with 'workshops' featuring in the supplied responses. Incentives for staff focused on time and money. Differences in managers' and staff responses appear to depend on the range of managers responding to this question.

Table 5: Incentives offered to staff to participate in CPD



Managers were also asked to comment on how they evaluate the effectiveness of CPD programs, and 95 of them provided details. 31.5 per cent of organisations required a process of feedback to colleagues, either through a written report or oral presentation (and in some cases, both). Just over half of them focused on the impact of the course on the employee in the workplace, with demonstrated new skills or knowledge, improved performance, or altered behaviour being cited. This was both what was observed by the manager, and what was discussed with or suggested by the staff member as part of a more formal process. Improved attitude was also mentioned, along with new ideas, motivation and enthusiasm, and staff being 'inspired and invigorated': 'The individual response; ie attitude to their work, increased confidence, enthusiasm, and skill levels, desire to put into practice what has been learned'. and 'Very important for intangibles – networking, personal challenge, time away from normal environment and tasks'. Another measure was the staff member's increase in overall knowledge of the wider picture and their contribution to the organisation as a whole: 'Increased depth of understanding of librarianship and the key issues that currently impact on it. Increased effectiveness in terms of contribution to the team and the library's services as a whole'. Formal performance appraisal processes were mentioned, although they were explicit in only 10.5 per cent of responses, and less formal 'discussions with staff after the course' may have implied this type of appraisal as well. Comments included, sadly, one response of 'Don't know'.

All respondents were offered the chance to comment generally, and they were generous in providing these overall comments to clarify their responses. These comments provide some food for thought. Contrast the interest in short courses and presentations with 'Generally too fluffy at the moment – slideshows', and 'often general courses are offered but they don't lead on to anything else eg level 1 to level 2, or the courses are quite specific and no general or overview is offered'. Respondents sought courses which suited their personal situations, as well as their workplace needs: 'I am also getting older, so doing a full day's work, going home, and making a meal and then going out to evening meetings is getting quite taxing, particularly when you have a partner and boomerang kids who think it's Mum's job to feed them and keep the house going'. Managers identified the need for 'Practice-based and relevant, rather than theoretical and academic' and 'Shorter, focused workshops are best … time away to attend courses puts a strain on those left behind, so intense workshops would be my preference'.

A number of respondents erroneously perceived the survey as focusing on The Open Polytechnic's courses and tailored their responses to this context. Several noted a public and academic library focus at the expense of special libraries in the selection of topics to be rated as relevant to their needs: 'Would not attend if primarily aimed at public libraries', and, 'As usual you demonstrate the NZ bias towards public and academic type library environments with the selections you have offered in Part 2. This is not reassuring to someone outside these environments who might be forced to undertake CPD that is not relevant to be "associated".' (This despite the researchers' covering a range of topics in Part 2 and asking for others to be specified.)

The fact remains, of course, that public and academic librarians make up the bulk of the profession. CPD providers need a large enough pool of interest to make development of courses viable. Special librarians, like records managers, need to be able to take an active role in the development of their own CPD and think outside the square in order to make the most of opportunities. There is clearly, however, a need which is not being met for these professionals: 'Like to see more integration between records management, archives and libraries. Like to see development for special libraries'.

Managers did not perceive a bias to either public or academic libraries – although this is likely to be because there were more managers from these libraries responding, and fewer from the special libraries. Instead their concerns were on the quality, availability and appropriate focus of library and information science CPD. One commented that the survey focused on library work and personal development, and that there was tertiary study (such as legal studies) relevant to their work. 'This is very time consuming, means my employer has to be supportive, and does improve my skills for my job'. Several commented that training for non-professional skills such as communication, time management, and the like, was readily available and that it was in relation to professional skills where there was a gap.

Summary

The need for better quality, focused CPD directed at specific library sectors clearly exists. The public and academic library market is sizeable enough that CPD can be more feasibly developed for this sector and then offered more widely to the profession. Small libraries and special libraries, especially those in the corporate sector, are more difficult to cater for, due to the limited size of the market. Recent entrants into the New Zealand library CPD market such as CAVAL and Know Where Consulting are expanding the range of CPD offerings available but appear to be focussing on courses already developed, or those with wide appeal in order to remain commercially viable as training providers. Whether these satisfy the particular demands of the profession over time remains to be seen, as content, delivery method, availability, and cost are all factors identified as affecting the uptake of CPD across the profession. Other factors in the marketplace including the e-government strategies and the move towards professional registration by LIANZA will have an impact on the type, content and even uptake of CPD in the immediate future, but the nature and extent of this is as yet unknown.

The final comment on CPD comes from one of the respondents to the Needs Assessment. This respondent summarises the dilemma of CPD in terms of its usefulness to the individual, the supporting institution or workplace, and the profession as a whole. It also brings the CPD discussion out of the theoretical and academic, back into the practical and applicable. The question was about what motivates you to participate in CPD, and this reply was broad ranging

> There's never a single reason, generally it is a combination of many of the above factors, plus a personal sense of responsibility and commitment to myself and to my employer to actively seek opportunities to keep informed and up to date with issues. I also feel very strongly that as an individual it is necessary to be proactive and to be responsible (though it's hard at times) to ensure some sort of learning outcome(s) occur from the learning experience and that where practical this is fed back into work and/or the workplace. (Very holier than thou, but this is probably a reaction to working with staff who want to attend everything but also seem to expect to be spoon fed information but don't seem to recognize the need to then process or reflect on it in terms of their day to day work (perhaps this is simplistic and more to do with the structures that are/aren't in place in the workplace?) OR those staff who don't show any interest at all in CPD. Both are difficult and different issues but there may be value in consciously addressing them, somehow in a CPD situation?)

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An exploration of sex-role stereotyping in Australian award-winning children's picture books

Jodi LY Kok and Bruce Findlay

A content analysis of 25 award-winning Australian picture books was conducted to examine whether the incidence of sex-role stereotyping had decreased in Australian picture books since the mid 1970s. Comparing a sample of books from the mid 1970s to a sample from the 2000s, three potential areas of stereotyping were assessed: ratios of male to female characters in central roles, titles, illustrations, and as animal characters; activities the central characters were depicted engaging in; and an exploration of the text for traits that central characters exhibited. No significant differences were detected between the ratios of male to female characters across the two time periods, however, trends towards equality were found between the early and the recent sample in the categories of titles and animal characters. Further, no evidence of stereotyping was found with regard to activities, with male characters not participating in instrumental–independent activities and masculine traits any more often than their female counterparts, and female characters not engaging in passive–dependent activities and feminine traits any more often than male characters. Finally, no evidence was found to suggest that male characters were any more rigidly stereotyped than female characters. It was concluded that, in the current sample, little stereotyping was present, and that such areas of disparity as were evident showed a trend towards equality. The difficulties and pitfalls involved in this sort of study are discussed, with an emphasis on the necessity for, and importance of, broadening the research. This article was originally conceived as an honours thesis.

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Several studies have found that children develop knowledge surrounding sex-roles very early in life. Kuhn et al (1978) found that children as young as two had a significant degree of knowledge regarding sex-role stereotypes and that this knowledge was linked with their ability to understand gender as a constant, unchanging characteristic. Thompson (1975) found that 30–month olds had the capacity to recognise the different sexes and, by 36 months, children could accurately identify their own sex, the sex of others and cultural sex typing.

Given that sex-roles develop early, it is argued that children's books, and, in particular, picture books, are potentially a very influential source of information to children at a time when they are in the process of forming their notion of appropriate sex-roles (Bradley and Mortimer 1972). Kortenhaus and Demarest noted that 'In most cultures, the most important and effective way of transmitting values and attitudes is through story telling, and in literate cultures this process includes children's books' (1993: 220).

A major distinction between the portrayal of the sexes, and one that has been incorporated into many of the common sex-role inventories, is the instrumental/expressive split. Instrumental attributes are self-assertive in nature, such as independence and self-confidence, while expressive attributes are interpersonally oriented and include such qualities as kindness and being aware of the feelings of others (Spence and Helmreich 1980). Although a simplification, Spence and Helmreich suggest that the role culturally prescribed for males requires instrumental attributes and the role prescribed for females requires expressive attributes.

In the literature, something of a paradox exists as to which sex suffers more harm from culturally prescribed stereotypes. The early literature focused largely on the detrimental effects suffered by females. Such arguments state that, as a rule, females are associated with traits and behaviours that are undervalued by society, at least in comparison to those assigned to males (McDonald 1989), such as nurturance, childcare and domestic duties, while males are seen as powerful, competent, and intellectual (Healy and Ryan 1975). More recently, however, and with an investigation into the more subtle forms of sexism, numerous studies have shown that males may in fact be more rigidly stereotyped than females (eg, Gooden and Gooden 2001; McDonald 1989; Reeder 1981; St Peter 1979). Books published since the 1970s have allowed female characters to adopt a number of qualities that had hitherto been considered the exclusive domain of males. Few studies have identified the same degree of cross-over in male characters. The concern is that providing young children with stereotyped models may limit the possibilities they see for themselves and their futures, and this is true for both boys and girls (De Loache et al 1987).

One of the earliest studies in this area was that of Weitzman et al (1972), who employed a sample of books which had won the Caldecott Medal – an American award presented annually for the best picture books. Focusing mainly on a sample of books from 1967–1971, they found that female characters were essentially 'invisible'. Overshadowed by a ratio of 11:1 in illustrations, and as much as 95:1 when gendered animals were included, and attaining a ratio of 3:1 in titles, the female characters depicted were found to be 'insignificant', 'inconspicuous' and often nameless. The study of Weitzman et al (1972) has been replicated several times (eg Kolbe and La Voie 1981; Williams et al 1987). These somewhat more recent replications found an improvement in the representation of female characters with the ratio of male to female central characters and the ratios in illustrations improving, although males still held the edge in visibility.

Since this time, many more studies have taken place, most reporting an improvement in the visibility of female characters over time. Whilst visibility is determined mainly by ratios of male to female characters in such areas as central roles, titles, and illustrations, other more subtle areas of potential stereotyping have also been explored, such as occupations (Hillman 1974; McDonald 1989), behaviours and emotions (Hillman), and even the language associated with male and female characters (Tepper and Cassidy 1999; Turner-Bowker 1996). It is, by and large, these more subtle indicators that tend to still show evidence of stereotyping.

One study which examined not only ratio counts of male to female characters, but also explored the more subtle area of activities was that of Kortenhaus and Demarest (1993). Using a sample of 25 award-winning and 125 non-award-winning picture books published between the 1940s and 1980s, they found a gradual move towards parity in the categories of titles, central roles, illustrations and animals from the 1940s to the 1970s, but a stagnation of this trend in the 1980s. Female characters had not yet attained equal representation, particularly with regard to animal characters, with only half as many depictions of female characters as male characters. With regard to activities, they identified the 18 most commonly occurring activities in the stories. They found both males and females were highly stereotyped, with males shown in more instrumental–independent activities and females in more passive–dependent activities. This stereotyping was particularly strong in books published before the 1960s. After this time, females were occasionally depicted in instrumental–independent roles but this domain was still male dominated and passive–dependent behaviour was almost exclusively the domain of females.

In many studies an exploration of the more subtle indicators of stereotyping has revealed that male characters may be even more strongly stereotyped than female characters. This possibility was investigated by Evans and Davies (2000), who explored American elementary school textbooks, examining the traits of male and female central characters using an instrument they compiled based on the Bem (1974) Sex Role Inventory. Of the 132 main characters studied, 54 per cent were male and 46 per cent were female. With regard to personality traits, males were depicted as significantly more aggressive, argumentative and competitive than females. Males were also found to be significantly less likely to display the stereotypically feminine traits of affection, emotional expressivity, passivity or tenderness. However, males did not differ significantly from females in all other stereotypically feminine traits explored. Evans and Davies (2000) concluded that while males were shown to possess both stereotypically masculine and feminine traits, they were still depicted with more stereotypically masculine than stereotypically feminine traits.

The majority of studies that have taken place in this area have dealt with American children's literature. Unfortunately, Australian studies in this area are very scarce indeed. In fact, only three such studies were found, all published well over 20 years ago.

The first is that of Bradley and Mortimer (1972) who selected books from the 'recommended' lists produced by school library services from five states, and studying over 90 picture books. They found that there were substantially more male than female characters overall in central roles, and as animal characters. Men were found to have diverse profiles, being shown as more active, ingenious, creative, industrious, persevering, achieving, brave, creatively helpful, exploratory, autonomous, aggressive and loving than women. Women, on the other hand, showed significant behavioural patterns only in the areas of helpfulness, concern, use of power, expression of emotion, and order. Girls were usually found in the home, participating in mundane tasks and did not do much at all, while boys were active and participated in exciting and varied activities. Bradley and Mortimer concluded that 'children's books…are ripe for revolution' (1972: 42).

A study by Healy and Ryan (1975), who carried out a content analysis of sex-role stereotyping in New South Wales primary texts exploring behaviour and roles of central characters, found a significantly greater number of male than female characters. With regard to central characters, 74 per cent were male and 26 per cent were female. Overall, males outnumbered females by a ratio of 2:1. Also, girls were depicted as significantly less active, creative and knowledgeable than boys and were more often depicted engaging in domestic duties, while boys were shown in a wide range of different situations. Healy and Ryan claimed that the majority of books they examined promoted 'outmoded and dysfunctional social stereotypes' (1975: 16).

In 1981, Reeder examined 23 books that had been recognised as the Book of the Year by the Children's Book Council of Australia from 1950 to 1980. She found that overall, male characters outnumbered female characters by a ratio of 3:2 and that stereotypes were endorsed in this selection of books, with males shown largely as dominant and successful and females as passive and nurturant. Regarding the activities of children, girls were found to engage in a much wider range than boys. As well as the stereotypically feminine pastimes, girls were displayed climbing, fighting, surfing, whilst boys were not shown to deviate into the 'feminine' pastimes such as sewing or cooking. However, Reeder points out that although male characters were strongly stereotyped in the 1950s and 1960s, in the 1970s they did start to display some stereotypically feminine qualities. Overall, Reeder concluded that the award-winning literature from the 1950s to the 1970s still displayed highly stereotyped sex-roles, and did not accurately reflect the social changes that had taken place during this time.

As can be seen, there has been little research into Australian picture books and in general, Australian children's literature of the past 20 years remains largely unregarded. The present study aimed to investigate whether the incidence of sex-role stereotyping had decreased in Australian picture books since the mid 1970s. To do this, a sample of award-winning Australian picture books from the mid 1970s (books published just after the second wave of feminism) was compared to a sample from the early 2000s.

Purely quantitative investigations of children's books have been criticised for overlooking the more complex and subtle portrayals of gender roles that may be present (Diekman and Murnen 2004). The current study explored both numerical representations of male and female characters, as well as more subtle measures of sex-role stereotyping. Thus, as well as examining the ratio of male to female characters in central roles, titles, illustrations and as animals, the more subtle indicators of activities and traits engaged in by central characters were also explored.

Method

The sample comprised 25 picture books which had won or been short-listed for the award of *Picture Book of the Year* by the Children's Book Council of Australia (CBCA). Nine of the 25 books comprised the early sample (1974–1978) and the remaining 16 comprised the recent sample (2001–2003). The reason for the unequal sample of years and number of books from the two time periods is two-fold. Firstly, a larger number of years were examined in the earlier period because in total fewer books were short-listed in that period than in the more recent sample. Secondly, not all short-listed books from the two time periods were included due to some restrictions imposed on the type of book that could be chosen. 'ABCs' were excluded due to their lack of standard narrative, and books of short stories and history books were also excluded. A list of the books used in the current study is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Sample of CBCA's 'Picture Book of the Year' picture books used in the current study

Year	Title	Author	Status
1974	*The Bunyip of Berkeley's Creek*	Wagner, Jenny	Winner
1974	*The Giant Devil Dingo*	Roughsey, Dick	Commended
1975	*The Man from Ironbark*	Paterson, A.B.	Winner
1976	*The Rainbow Serpent*	Roughsey, Dick	Winner
1976	*Annie's Rainbow*	Brooks, Ron	Highly Commended
1976	*Terry's Brrrmmm GT*	Greenwood, Ted	Commended
1976	*Aranea: A Story about a Spider*	Wagner, Jenny	Commended
1978	*John Brown, Rose and the Midnight Cat*	Wagner, Jenny	Winner
1978	*The Lighthouse Keeper's Lunch*	Armitage, Rhonda	Highly Commended
2001	*Fox*	Forbes, Ron	Winner
2001	*The Singing Hat*	Riddle, Tohby	Honour Book
2001	*The Lost Thing*	Tan, Shaun	Honour Book
2001	*Rain Dance*	Huxley, Dee	Shortlist
2001	*Faust's Party*	Oxley, Matt	Shortlist
2002	*An Ordinary Day*	Gleeson, Libby	Winner
2002	*My Dog*	Heffernan, John	Honour Book
2002	*The Red Tree*	Tan, Shaun	Honour Book
2002	*Horrible Harriet*	Hobbs, Leigh	Shortlist
2002	*In My Backyard*	Hilton, Nette	Shortlist
2003	*In Flander's Field*	Jorgensen, Norman	Winner
2003	*A Year on Our Farm*	Matthews, Penny	Honour Book
2003	*Diary of a Wombat*	French, Jackie	Honour Book

2003	*The Potato People*	Allen, Pamela	Shortlist
2003	*Jethro Bryde, Fairy Child*	Graham, Bob	Shortlist
2003	*Old Tom's Holiday*	Hobbs, Leigh	Shortlist

*Award-winning year and award-winning status.

All books in the sample were subject to a frequency and content analysis. The sex and status of the central characters and any characters mentioned in the title were recorded. The definition of 'central character' used in the current study was adapted from Turner-Bowker who described the central character as 'the character who was the main focus of the text' (1996: 468). In cases where it was not clear who the central character or characters were, the number of illustrations in which the characters in question were depicted were counted. The character or characters depicted the most (or depicted within a count of three of each other) were considered to be the central characters.

Next, each illustration was analysed separately to form a frequency analysis of male-to-female characters. All human characters (except for background figures) were counted: background figures were omitted because female characters are usually more easily identifiable than males due to their dress. In addition, identifying the sex of background characters often calls upon the very stereotypes we were hoping to examine in as objective a manner as possible. If a clearly depicted human's sex was unclear, they were listed as 'neuter'. Animal characters were counted only if they were gender-positive, played a role in the story, or appeared in the forefront of illustrations. Illustrations which depicted many people, not all of them easily identifiable as male or female, were listed simply as 'mixed sex crowd scene', 'predominantly male crowd scene' or 'predominantly female crowd scene'. In some illustrations, a character (usually the central character) may be depicted more than once. In such instances, the character was counted as often as they were depicted.

The procedure for assessing activities was replicated from the study of Kortenhaus and Demarest (1993). They identified the 18 most-frequently depicted activities within their sample. Nine were classed as instrumental–independent activities, and the other nine as passive–dependent activities. Kortenhaus and Demarest describe instrumental–independent activities as 'actions that involved a lot of self-initiated movement, decision making, and/or creativity' and passive–dependent activities as 'actions that required little movement and/or more help from others' (1993: 223). Like Kortenhaus and Demarest, the current study examined only the illustrations for the activities engaged in by the central character(s). A holistic portrayal for each central character was adopted. That is, each activity a character exhibited was counted only once for that character, irrespective of how many times the character in question was depicted engaging in that particular activity.

The process for examining traits was adapted from the study of Evans and Davies (2000), who produced a list of eight masculine and eight feminine traits based on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem 1974), accompanied by working definitions. As an extension of their work, the current study provided a further list of traits which were derived by including the traits on the BSRI which were not included or similar to any of the traits from Evans and Davies' list. It was thought that this might provide a more accurate trait evaluation. Where possible, words on this new list were accompanied by dictionary definitions. Again, only central characters were examined with regard to traits depicted, but this time, to make the results comparable to those of Evans and Davies, the text was examined, rather than the illustrations. Again, character analysis was of a holistic nature. One of the issues that arises in analysing traits via the text is that they are often implied rather than mentioned expressly. It was determined that a trait need not be named specifically to be counted. Rather, if there was a clear *indication* that a character possessed a particular trait, the analyser checked it as present whether or not it was stated explicitly. For example, our list defined the trait 'adventurous' as 'actively exploring the environment, be it real or imagined' – thus if we were told that a central character 'scaled mountains and sailed seas' we would mark that character as adventurous even though this precise term was never used.

Counts of central characters in stories, characters mentioned in titles, ratios in illustrations, plus an analysis of activities and traits of main characters were performed independently by another auditor on approximately one third of the sample. Inter-audit reliability for identification of the central character(s) was high and there was no disagreement with regard to characters mentioned in titles. Inter-audit reliability for illustrations was also high, but was lower for activities and traits. Differences were resolved by discussion.

Results

Comparisons of male to female ratios between the two time periods were explored by running four separate analyses of variance (ANOVAs), one for each story aspect: titles, central roles, illustrations and animal characters. For these tests, mean scores were calculated for each story aspect per book. For example, if a book contained two male central characters and one female central character, it was said to contain 0.67 male central characters (number of male central characters divided by the total number of central characters: 2 ÷ 3) and 0.33 female central characters (1 ÷ 3). This yielded the mean number of male and the mean number of female central characters for that particular book. Titles were calculated similarly. For those variables involving illustrations, mean numbers per illustration were calculated. This method was used since books varied in the number of central characters and illustrations they depicted. Calculating means made these books comparable to one another. Table 2 displays the means per book for each story aspect by decade for males and females.

Whilst the ANOVAs failed to turn up any significant findings, looking at the means from Table 2, certain trends are revealed. The overrepresentation of males in titles has fallen markedly from the 1970s to the 2000s sample. A similar trend appears with animals, with the difference between males and females becoming less pronounced in the recent sample. These two areas also approached statistical significance.

Table 2: Mean and standard deviation of means per book for each story aspect by decade for male and female characters

Story aspect	1970s (*n* = 9)				2000s (*n* = 16)			
	Male *M*	*(SD)*	Female *M*	*(SD)*	Male *M*	*(SD)*	Female *M*	*(SD)*
Central Characters	0.69	(0.43)	0.32	(0.43)	0.57	(0.44)	0.43	(0.44)
Titles	0.74	(0.43)	0.26	(0.43)	0.28	(0.45)	0.22	(0.41)
Illustrations	0.93	(1.26)	0.43	(0.33)	1.06	(1.15)	0.65	(0.63)
Animals	0.57	(0.56)	0.10	(0.16)	0.25	(0.38)	0.23	(0.46)

N = 25

Tests were also conducted to examine whether stereotyping was prevalent in the activities and traits expressed by the central characters. Specifically, ANOVAs were conducted for both time periods, to see if male characters engaged in significantly more instrumental–independent activities and masculine traits than females. Similar tests were conducted to see whether female characters engaged in more passive–dependent and feminine traits than their male counterparts. For these tests, the central character was used as the unit of analysis, since the number of central characters was not uniform across all books. Thus, for each central character, a total score was calculated for the activity or trait type in question, and it was these totals that were used in the subsequent analysis. Table 3 displays the mean trait and activity totals per central character by sex and decade.

Table 3: Mean trait and activity totals per central character by sex and decade

Trait/Activity	1970s (n = 12)				2000s (n = 21)			
	Male (*n = 8*)		**Female** (*n = 4*)		**Male** (n = 12)		**Female** (n = 9)	
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*
Instrumental–independent	1.13	(0.83)	1.00	(1.15)	1.67	(1.23)	1.33	(0.71)
Passive–dependent	1.38	(1.30)	1.25	(1.26)	1.42	(1.16)	1.33	(0.87)
Masculine	2.75	(1.83)	2.00	(0.82)	1.83	(0.83)	2.00	(0.87)
Feminine	2.13	(1.64)	1.50	(1.29)	1.67	(1.50)	2.44`	(0.53)

N = 33

The results from the ANOVAs, in conjunction with Table 3 show that no significant differences were detected in the areas of activities or traits, with male characters engaging in instrumental–independent activities and masculine traits no more often than females, and females engaging in passive–dependent and feminine traits not significantly more often than males, in either time period.

To explore whether male characters were more rigidly stereotyped than female characters, t-tests were carried out to see whether female characters were depicted engaging in more instrumental–independent activities and masculine traits than male characters were depicted engaging in passive–dependent and feminine traits. Results are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4: Means and standard deviations for males engaging in passive–dependent activities and feminine traits and females engaging in instrumental–independent activities and masculine traits in the current sample

Trait/Activity	Male		Female	
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*
Instrumental–independent	–	–	1.33	(0.71)
Passive–dependent	1.42	(1.16)	–	–
Masculine	–	–	2.00	(0.87)
Feminine	1.67	(1.50)	–	–

N = 21

For the test 'exploring activities', no significant difference was found between the number of male central characters depicted engaging in passive–dependent activities and the number of female characters depicted engaging in instrumental–independent activities. Nor did the number of male characters displaying feminine traits differ significantly from the number of female characters displaying masculine traits. Thus it was found that male characters were no more rigidly stereotyped than female characters, at least in the areas of activities and traits that were explored.

Discussion

Overall there was no statistically significant evidence of stereotyping in the ratios, activities or traits displayed in either the books from the 1970s or the books from the 2000s. However, with regard to ratio of male to female characters, certain trends were revealed.

Whilst not reaching statistical significance, the difference between the number of male and female characters named in titles in the 1970s and 2000s certainly appear to differ substantially, with a much greater number of male characters mentioned in titles of books in the 1970s, while, in the recent sample, this difference had greatly reduced. A similar trend emerged with gendered animal characters. Whilst in the early sample there appeared to be substantially more male than female animals, this difference decreased markedly in the sample from the 2000s. This is consistent with the study of Kortenhaus and Demarest (1993) who reported a move towards parity in male and female ratios.

Furthermore, no evidence of stereotyping was found in the areas of activities or traits for either of the time frames explored. The number of males and females engaging in both activity types and both trait types were not found to differ significantly. This is not consistent with the results of Kortenhaus and Demarest (1993), who found activities to be highly stereotyped in both sexes, with males dominating the instrumental–independent activities, and females dominating the passive–dependent activities. However, they do concede that girls had begun to be pictured in more instrumental–independent activities between the 1960s and 1980s (although this area was still largely dominated by males), and males were (even more occasionally) pictured in passive–dependent activities (but again, this area was still almost wholly dominated by females).

Perhaps what the current study found is simply an advancement of this trend. With regard to traits, the current findings were not consistent with those of Evans and Davies (2000), who concluded that male and female characters were stereotyped in many of the traits they explored. In the current study, no such stereotyping was found to occur. This difference could be due to the fact that while Evans and Davies performed trait-by-trait comparisons, the current study employed a more global view of traits, and compared total numbers of masculine and feminine traits exhibited by the central characters. However, Evans and Davies did concede that while the male characters in their sample were *more likely* to display masculine traits, they were also found to display some stereotypically feminine traits in numbers that did not differ significantly from those of the female characters. This is more consistent with the present findings.

It should be borne in mind that activities and traits are only two possible sources of stereotyping. Whilst in the current study, these two measures were used as more 'subtle' indicators of sexism, some (eg Turner-Bowker 1996) have argued that these areas are really quite blatant, and thus, being more visible, may have been under more pressure to change. Eisenberg (2002) suggests that the truly subtle measures of stereotyping are those which examine language, which, she argues, still displays an unconscious bias yet to be eradicated.

Finally, no evidence was obtained to suggest that male characters were more rigidly stereotyped than females. The number of females engaging in stereotypically 'masculine' activities and traits was not found to differ significantly from the number of males engaging in stereotypically 'feminine' activities and traits. This goes against the findings of Reeder (1981) whose results indicated that males were more stereotyped than females. Again, this could represent a change in one of the more 'overt' forms of sexism. Turner-Bowker (1996) argues that the evening-up of ratios and the more equitable portrayal of the traits and activities of male and female characters may be a form of 'reverse sexism'. Reverse sexism is a practice wherein 'the overt behaviours expressed through feelings of prejudice toward a certain group have changed, but the underlying problem remains. The feelings of prejudice continue to exist, but surface in more safe, socially acceptable ways, which are often difficult to identify' (1996: 474–75). It could be argued that it is easier to detect sexism in the activities and traits of characters (particularly main characters) than it would be to detect it in the language associated with, or attached to characters.

Methodological concerns and suggestions for future research

Traditionally, sex-role stereotypes have been studied from one of two perspectives. There are studies, like the current one, that focus on a content analysis of the books themselves to detect the presence of stereotypes. The other style of investigation explores the effects of stereotyping on males and females (Clark et al 1999). Both types of research should ideally be viewed together. Kolbe and La Voie (1981) argue that the concern surrounding sex-role stereotyping is based on the premise that such stereotypes translate into behaviour; however, McDonald (1989) suggests that this is not necessarily the case. Kolbe and La Voie state 'Without question, sex-role portrayal in books has an influence on children, but the magnitude and generalisation of this influence and its impact on behaviour are as yet not totally understood' (p 374). This is an area that may be explored in more detail in the future.

Using a sample of award-winning books seemed appropriate for the current study since these have high sales figures, a wide circulation and are easily accessible (Kolbe and La Voie 1981). In addition, much of the previous research has employed such samples, thus, to enable comparisons, a similar sample was chosen, but it does, however, present certain limitations. Many researchers who have used award-winning samples (eg Clark, Kulkin and Clancy 1999; Kortenhaus and Demarest 1993; Peterson and Lach 1990), point out that the people responsible for presenting such awards are likely to be aware of, and sensitive to, the issue of stereotyping and as such may choose books which promote non-sexist representations of male and female characters. Further, Tepper and Cassidy (1999), who conducted a survey of parents of preschool children, and made up a sample of books that had actually been read by (or to) children over a one-week period, found

> that no award-winning books were included in their sample. Thus, whilst award-winning books do have high sales figures, and are widely distributed and recommended, this does not necessarily result in them being read to (or by) children.

It must also be borne in mind that, due to the time constraints inherent in the current project, and the time-consuming nature of content analysis, the sample was relatively small. As such, power in many of the statistical analyses was low, and the sample was not large enough to detect subtle differences which may have been present. Further, the choice of timeframe may also have led to the lack of significant findings. It could be that by the time of our early sample (mid 1970s), the women's movement and the resulting scrutiny on the portrayal of sex-roles in picture books, had already been successful in producing changes in Australian picture books. Mortimer and Bradley (1979) argued that, in Australia, the 'new' feminism began in the late 1960s and it was in the early 1970s that studies of sex-role stereotyping in children's literature began to emerge (Marshall 2004). It could be that by the mid 1970s, such studies had already had their impact and brought about change.

Further information with regard to stereotyping might have been gained by considering the *status* of characters when analysing the data; however that level of detail was beyond the scope of the current study. Many studies have, however, found that men and women are highly stereotyped, often more so than boys and girls (eg Healy and Ryan 1975; Bradley and Mortimer 1972). As adult characters provide children with potential models of their future selves (Williams et al 1987), this area is worthy of investigation. Further, there is some evidence (eg, De Loache et al 1987) that gender-neutral characters are likely to be represented to children as male. Therefore, a full analysis of all neuter characters may be of interest.

Picture books are but one potential source of sex-typed models that children are exposed to. There is, however, evidence to suggest they are a particularly influential source. Jones, Coombs, and McKinney (1994, cited in Eisenberg 2002) point out that children's literature appears to be better recalled than textbooks, and Miles (1980, cited in Kortenhaus and Demarest 1993) found that children remember books better than television shows. Turner-Bowker points out that watching television is a passive experience, whereas reading is very much an active one. She states 'Even for young children who are not able to read, the experience of having a book read to them is an active process as well as an interactive process with the parent or reader. These variables must be considered in the acquisition of gender stereotypes' (1996: 477).

This leads to another potential limitation. The present study only examined what was physically represented on the page. But, as Turner-Bowker (1996) points out, reading is indeed an active process. Fox states:

> When we read we tend to think of meaning-making as a one-way transaction between us and the words on the page. We assume that the text just sits there passively as we actively drag our own meaning from it. But texts aren't passive at all: they're highly active. They construct us by presenting to us an image of ourselves. They mould us into who we think we are, like plasticine being shaped this way and that (1993: 656).

De Loache et al (1987) argue that the way parents and others interpret and represent picture books to children may be an even more important source of learning about sex-roles than what actually appears on the page. Poarch and Monk-Turner (2001) suggest that future research could aim to examine how children understand the messages and illustrations they are exposed to in children's books. The way in which children understand the mediated story they receive through those who read to them would also be an area worthy of study.

Part of the problem in conducting a study such as the current one is in determining what constitutes a stereotype. Oskamp et al, who reported an overall reduction in stereotyping of male and female characters, make the following point:

> it should be noted that some of the apparent fading of gender-stereotypic portrayals…may be the result of shifts over time in the evaluative criteria for gender-typical behaviour that were used by raters in different decades…It seems to have become less clear over the past 25 years just what constitutes 'traditional gender role behaviour' (1996: 37).

This confusion was, perhaps, illustrated by the lack of significant findings in the current study.

Oskamp et al (1996) also assert that whilst examining qualities such as activities and traits may give a more accurate picture of stereotyping than simple ratios, the exploration of these more subtle measures arguably involves a larger degree of subjectivity. In the current study, whilst the counts of male to female characters in central roles, titles, and illustrations were found to have high inter-auditor reliability, the reliability of the activities and, particularly, the trait measures were much lower. Whilst attempting to make the process as objective as possible by providing a detailed coding scheme, it was an area that inevitably involved some level of subjective judgment.

Kabaji describes children's literature as a 'double-edged sword' (2002: 1). While it can present children with a limited view of their own potential, it can also be instrumental in breaking down sex-role stereotypes and presenting male and female characters who have a wide range of characteristics, behaviours and emotions. He argues that books containing non-stereotyped characters may lead children to question their beliefs about sex-roles and lead them to a more egalitarian view of what males and females can do. However, there seems to be a fine line between advocating positive role models in children's books and endorsing censorship. Deikman and Murnen (2004) make the important point that: 'Limiting children's reading diet solely to gender-egalitarian models may not be the best way to work against sexism. In real life, children will surely encounter gender prejudice; educating children that such constructs exist, and how to work against them, can be more effective than ignoring the reality' (2004: 382).

In conclusion, the current study of award-winning children's literature failed to find any concrete evidence of sex-role stereotyping, but the fact that there were trends in that direction, particularly in a sample of books that have been singled out as the best in their field, should be of some concern. It was pleasing to find, however, that the trend detected between the early sample and the recent one was a move towards a more equitable distribution of male and female characters. It must be remembered, however, that this was only a trend, and not a statistically significant finding. It could be that stereotyping, at least in its more overt form, was simply not present in the current sample. However, whilst results of the present study were inconclusive, it seems clear that this is an area of study which has, hitherto, been largely neglected in the field of Australian children's literature. Given the potential influence of such books on children, it is certainly an area in which more research is needed, particularly on a wider sample of available picture books.

This material is condensed from an honours psychology thesis.

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The *Australian Library Journal*: advice to referees

Published here for the information of potential contributors and referees

Refereeing is a delicate business: we operate on a double-blind system [although it is not always possible to eliminate every hint of an author's identity without rewriting the contribution] so that neither party, author or referee, is normally aware of the others' identity. I say 'normally', because in some cases, and if referees are willing, a productive dialogue which has some of the aspects of mentoring, can be opened thereby. The referee's function is to advise the editor on the article's publishability: the approach should be constructive and aimed at enabling both the author and the editor to arrive at something which is publishable. One of the editor's principal objectives is to encourage and see into print fresh or novice contributors to the literature. It follows that articles sent out for review will inevitably reflect varying degrees of 'ripeness' and competence. It should also be noted that the text which referees will receive is 'raw' in the sense that it has not in any way been edited or prepared for print. *Nor is it the referee's function to do this*. The critical issue is the *content* of the article, in the broadest sense of that word: does it make a reasonable contribution to the literature and to the ongoing debates about the profession? Is the content accessible to the average reader? How, without rewriting the article, might it be improved?

The Journal comes out quarterly, which seems to suggest that about twelve weeks is the *maximum* time which should be taken in the review process: in practice, many referees turn material round in a fortnight, and in the editor's experience as a referee, this results in a certain freshness of approach. An article which is allowed to hang about on one's desktop for too long, or which is read too many times may inevitably induce, through no fault of its own, a certain staleness into the referee's report. Like Roquefort cheese, the referee's report needs to be fresh, tangy and unpasteurised.

John Levett, Editor, ALJ

John Kennedy, take a bow!

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John Levett, Editor

For the pragmatist

Fisher, Patricia H and Pride, Marseille M Blueprint for your library marketing plan: a guide to help you survive and thrive**. Chicago: American Library Association, 2006. 135p US$45.00 (US$40.50 ALA members) soft cover ISBN 0838909094**

Some guides leave one intimidated: this one is likely to enthuse you.

Fisher and Pride's *Blueprint for your library marketing plan* is a practical guide which facilitates adopting a systematic marketing framework. It is aimed at public, academic and special libraries, and although the focus is more on public and academic libraries the book is useful for any type of library. It will provide an easily understood approach for novices, but is also useful for more experienced readers. It is the kind of book, which causes one to make enthusiastic notes on good ideas for later use.

The first two chapters focus on the importance of a strategic plan for marketing and on how to gather needed data. In Chapter 3 the authors argue that having a marketing plan is the best way to show value, thereby gaining financial support. There are some examples of this in the book, but the argument is not supported by scholarly research. The following seven chapters step through the development of a marketing plan. Each chapter begins with objectives and concludes with practical summaries to encourage application. The chapters are followed by 38 pages of useful, photocopiable worksheets for use in creating marketing plans. A positive feature is the reassurance given that one does not need to complete every suggested question in the worksheets to benefit. There is also an index.

A goal of the authors is 'to encourage librarians to embrace the concept that marketing is more than promotion', and this is achieved. Fisher and Pride effectively link the terminology of a marketing mix – product, place, price and promotion – with situations and services familiar in the library environment. They also add a fifth P, Partnerships, as these can supplement and complement the resources of a library. Despite the fact that Fisher and Pride refer to the traditional four Ps of the marketing mix, they do also cover two additional Ps (People and Point in time), which Judith Siess adds in *The visible librarian: asserting your value with marketing and advocacy* (2003). *The Visible librarian* is more inclusive of a range of types of libraries and promotes more discussion but does not have the useful worksheets of the Fisher and Pride's book.

This book is not scholarly research or in-depth discussion, but it is effective as an introduction and manual. Some guides leave one intimidated: this one is likely to enthuse you.

Julia Leong, University of New England

On collegiality

Langley, Anne; Gray, Edward G and Vaughan, K T L Building bridges: collaboration within and beyond the academic library**. Oxford: Chandos Publishing, 2006. 143p £39.95/A$106.00 soft cover ISBN 1843341514**

Aimed at librarians and information technology professionals in universities and TAFE colleges, this book examines collaboration within the context of the academic library. The volume outlines the skills needed to develop a collaborative working environment. All three authors have many years experience in academic libraries. Anne Langley, for example, is head of the Chemistry Library at Duke University, with over 18 years experience in the academic library environment.

I recommend it to new and experienced academic librarians who wish to create a sharing work environment.

The goal of this book is to provide a practical handbook to assist the beginner in the art of collaboration on work projects and to improve the skills of the more experienced librarian. The book offers guidelines, tips and useful tools for a variety of projects. In addition, case studies of real collaborations are outlined and provide useful ideas for initiating new projects and to aid existing ones.

Chapter 1 covers reasons for wanting to collaborate and serves as a checklist for planning. The common reasons include problem solving, increasing supporting resources, responding to needs and goals, building communities and for personal gain. Obvious areas for collaboration considered by the authors include purchasing databases, developing standards for digital information and instruction.

Foundations for collaboration include personal attributes of flexibility, networking, competence, and openness, combined with technical knowledge and marketing skills. The support from supervisors and the freedom to collaborate without having to refer back to supervisor are important aspects. In addition, sharing of long-term and mutual goals by the participants is important, along with having the space, both physical and virtual, to pursue the project.

Each chapter has a useful and comprehensive list of further reading on the topic. Nine pages of further reading and a short index are included in this volume. The chapter on evaluation describes formal methods, including scheduled discussion, feedback forms and surveys (paper, web and e-mail varieties). The real-life case studies outlined are grouped into similar types. The situations are described briefly, followed by action plans and questions to use as a discussion point to analyse the cases. The case studies include peer collaboration (team teaching, writing a book), librarian and faculty collaboration, internal collaboration and external collaboration. The examples vary from the academic (co-authoring a book) to the lightweight (party planning).

Overall, this is a helpful, easily digested volume on the subject of workplace collaboration. While there are many journal articles on the topic of collaboration in the academic environment, there are few published books on this topic for academic librarians. Customer service librarians who conduct workshops and reader education sessions for students will find the case studies on team teaching helpful. My only reservation is the price, which makes it is an expensive investment. However, it provides ideas for projects that librarians in TAFE colleges and universities can utilise to improve their work environment and to develop professionally.

This publication provides an excellent aid in developing guidelines to deal with collaborative situations, and I recommend it to new and experienced academic librarians who wish to create a sharing work environment.

Kay Neville, TAFE New South Wales

Learning from Amazon.com

Woodward, Jeanette Creating the customer-driven library: building on the bookstore model**. Chicago: American Library Association, 2005. 234p US$45.00 soft cover ISBN 0838908888**

...offers libraries the tools to create a customer-friendly facility that will emulate the success of the bookstores.

Jeanette Woodward's assertion that libraries are focused not on making money but on making a difference implies that, if a library is to make a difference, then the community must know that the library exists and know what services it offers. Traditional libraries are currently in danger of entering a downward spiral in which ineffective promotion allows declining patronage, which prompts funding cuts so that services must be reduced, leading in turn to a further decline in usage and so on. By contrast, building on the model offered by the overwhelming success of the new book superstores, Woodward offers libraries the tools to create a customer-friendly facility that will emulate their success.

The reasons for bookstores' appeal include their location, layout, signage, welcoming atmosphere and the customer service. Conversely, many libraries are difficult to find, have drab exteriors, little parking space, resources crowded onto ill-lit stacks with narrow aisles and have limited opening hours. Creating the customer-driven library provides a blueprint for overcoming many of these obstacles. Libraries have the advantage of being highly individual and able to respond to the needs of their community. By placing a high value on customer service and identifying customer needs the libraries have an immediate advantage. The book focuses in turn on ways of maximising this advantage through using technology to enhance services, paying attention to ambience and the arrangement of displays and materials and ensuring that the signage system helps clients navigate the library.

An extensive section on marketing leads the librarian through the intricacies of identifying the community's needs and developing a marketing plan that will help the library achieve its goals. The importance of well-designed promotional material, both in print and online, is examined in detail along with strategies for generating publicity and positive public relations. The final sections canvass the options for responding to the changing environment. Why not consider establishing a library café or going into a partnership with an existing business? How do we work effectively with volunteers? How do we revive a library on a zero budget? And how do we face an uncertain future?

By building on the bookstore model, Jeanette Woodward has developed a guide that enables libraries to compete effectively, even with a limited budget. Using the techniques outlined in this book, libraries will be better able to build on their strengths, to make the libraries into hubs of community activity and to ensure that community members become lifelong committed supporters and friends of the library.

Helen Dunford, TAFE Tasmania

Focuses on the benefit to the individual

Rubin, Rhea J Demonstrating results: using outcome measurement in your library**. PLA results series. Chicago: American Library Association, 2006. 176p US$50.00 (US$45.00 ALA members) soft cover ISBN 0838935605**

Outcomes assessment is a relatively new library service evaluation methodology that aims to move beyond output and quality measures to a user-centred approach to get to the heart of the question, 'What difference does a library make to its clients?' Until recently, the literature has been long on theoretical articles extolling the benefits of outcomes assessment, but relatively short on publications that provide a model of how librarians might go about it in practice. *Demonstrating results* is a contribution to the latter genre. It covers very similar ground to Durrance and Fisher's *How libraries and librarians help* (2005), but at an even more basic level.

What difference does a library make to its clients?

The third in a projected series of six management publications from the Public Library Association, *Demonstrating results* can nevertheless be usefully read in isolation. It is designed for evaluation of particular programs rather than library services in toto, and is targeted at practitioners who wish to carry out outcomes assessment but have little knowledge of how to do so, nor much experience in any library program evaluation methodology. It outlines a very detailed, step-by-step process, from how to choose which services are amenable to outcomes assessment, through data gathering to how to use the results. It is rich in work forms and other practical documentation, and is likely to cover many of the questions librarians new to the area will ask. While it is unlikely that anyone would adopt every aspect of the model, it provides a solid overview of the process.

Librarians who are more experienced in program evaluation techniques will find much of the material a bit too low-level to be useful: the chapter on data gathering, for example, would need to be supplemented by more detailed readings on the art of survey design. The first chapter, which lays out some of the theoretical background to outcomes assessment, is also perhaps pitched at too simple a level; there are many better introductions to the topic available in the journal literature. Aimed very specifically at the public library sector, the book is unlikely to be of much help to those in other library fields. In particular it is based on a fairly narrow definition of outcomes that focuses on benefits to individuals, whereas those working in academic or special libraries will need a methodology that is able to tie their services to institutional rather than individual outcomes.

Demonstrating results will no doubt be of value to its target audience: those in the public library sector who are interested in new service evaluation techniques but have not had much experience with outcomes assessment. Librarians in other sectors, or those more familiar with program evaluation, will probably find the methodology either too basic or inapplicable to their environment.

Patrick Gregory, Victorian Parliamentary Library

For when it all goes pear-shaped

Halsted, Deborah D; Jasper, Richard P and Little, Felicia M Disaster planning: a how-to-do-it manual for librarians with planning templates on CD-ROM. **New York: Neal-Schuman Publishers, 2005. 255p US$85.00 soft cover ISBN 1555704867 (available from DA Information Services)**

...a very good starting point for libraries just beginning to identify threats and plan their responses.

This is not, of course, a book that tells you how to plot and inflict disasters, but one that can guide you through the steps of planning to minimise their effects, surviving them if they occur, and recovering from them as quickly and effectively as possible.

The book consists of four main sections. The first describes an 11-step disaster plan strategy. The steps go from creating a disaster team, considering aspects of disaster response such as security, establishing stocks of disaster supplies, and working out evacuation plans, through to writing a detailed plan and conducting disaster drills.

The second section is divided into chapters looking in detail at various kinds of natural disasters including fires, floods, hurricanes, and earthquakes; and catastrophes of human origin such as terrorism and accidents involving hazardous materials. For each type of disaster attention is given to preventive measures, including building design, construction, and modification; the survival of people, buildings, and their contents while a disaster is in progress; and the later mitigation of damage.

The third section, 'Resources on the web', is less useful to Australian and New Zealand libraries, because most of the websites are those of American organisations and government agencies. In our countries the websites of local agencies are far more likely to be useful.

The fourth section contains various guides, including a template for a disaster plan and a checklist to help optimise preparedness. Other features of the book are numerous examples of existing documentation (providing useful models for those unsure where to start), a bibliography and an index. As the title indicates, the book is meant to come with a CD-ROM, but none accompanied my review copy. The book's text says that the CD-ROM contains an electronic version of the disaster plan template, and a folder containing a kit for a website that can be used as a communication tool.

Because of the practical approach, considerable but not overwhelming level of detail, and constant reference to actual disasters and what has been learned from them, this would be a very good starting point for libraries just beginning to identify threats and plan their responses, and also for those whose plans are more developed but in need of continuing appraisal and development.

Barbara Frame, Dunedin Public Libraries

Mixed bags

Lynn, Ruth Nadelman Fantasy literature for children and young adults: a comprehensive guide**. 5th ed. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited, 2005. 1128p US$65.00 hard cover ISBN 1591580501 (available from DA Information Services)**

Johnson, Sarah L Historical fiction: a guide to the genre**. Genreflecting advisory series. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited, 2005. 813p US$75.00 hard cover ISBN 159158129X (available from DA Information Services)**

Drew, Bernard A 100 most popular genre fiction authors: biographical sketches and bibliographies**. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited, 2005. 593p US$65.00 hard cover ISBN 1591581265 (available from DA Information Services)**

Libraries Unlimited have already achieved a considerable reputation with their genre reference publications. The three volumes under review will certainly add to that reputation, particularly in the American context. The three topics, fantasy, history and popular genre fiction, constitute a significant proportion of bestseller lists. The volumes under review provide in-depth overviews to key sources, albeit restricted to parts of the Anglo-Saxon publishing world.

...useful reference sources, and they are well priced in the context of the purchase prices of many of the novels they describe.

From Tolkien onwards, fantasy has become a very popular genre. Lynn's guide is now in its 5th edition. Lynn, Head of the Children's Services Department at the Cary Memorial Library in Lexington, provides an annotated guide to 7600 fantasy novels and collections, nearly 2800 new to this edition. Books are listed which were published between 1900 and 2004, with Lynn aiming for a readership of children and young adults in grades 3 through 12. Fantasy, however, is a genre that transcends age barriers, and clearly many titles will appeal to an adult readership.

Following an extensive introduction and award-winning lists, Lynn organises her entries by subject category such as alternate worlds, time travel, witchcraft, and sorcery. This approach has its problems, as much fantasy material cannot be so simply categorised, and it might have been better to approach this subject by author entries.

Readers can thus only access complete listings through the author and illustrator index. The largely American focus leads to a bibliographic skewing, with British authors, such as Terry Pratchett and Philip Pullman, being mainly listed through their American publishers/editions, which is misleading for global collectors and buyers. Pratchett is classified in the subject category high fantasy, when he could be classified in several others, including magic adventure fantasy, where we find Diana Wynne Jones. Nonetheless, the scope of this work and its extensive indices will ensure its continued purchase, especially for school and public library reference collections and by fantasy fans.

Sarah Johnson's guide to historical fiction is, like Lynn's fantasy volume, a focused subject approach to a genre. Johnson, Assistant Professor at the Booth Library, Eastern Illinois University, states in her introduction that in the early twenty-first century, historical fiction has finally come into its own. What would 19th century authors such as Stevenson and Scott have made of this comment? Johnson quotes as an example of this current popularity Jimmy Carter's book *The hornet's nest* (2004), which may not survive into historical posterity. In all over 3800 titles are listed – in many cases with critical annotations as to content.

Johnson also divides the text by subject, for example, traditional historical novels, western historical novels, historical mysteries, historical thrillers, literary historical novels (in contrast to non-literary?) and Christian historical fiction, which also leads to some tricky categorisation. The section entitled 'Sagas' includes a subsection on Australia, although the four authors recounting 'family tales of the strong men, women and children who settled in Australia', are decidedly eclectic.

Bernard Drew's compilation suffers, perhaps understandably, because it is less focused and any choice of top authors is bound to be subjective. Thus most people would agree with Drew's choices of Stephen King, Ursula Le Guin and Tom Clancy, but should Catherine Coulter, Francis Ray and Stuart Woods gain a place over, say, J K Rowling and Thomas Keneally? While focusing on such contemporary authors as Tony Hillerman, Dean Koontz, Robert Ludlum, and others, a few older authors such as J R R Tolkien are included. Drew selects authors from all major genres but differs from the other two volumes in providing fuller biographical and background author information and further reference reading.

Despite the American focus, most Australasian public and school libraries will find the three volumes useful reference sources, and they are well priced in the context of the purchase prices of many of the novels they describe. Libraries Unlimited might incidentally consider them as prime candidates for future online access in terms of updating and the sale of digital slices.

Colin Steele, Australian National University

A season for all stories

Benton, Gail and Waichulaitis, Trisha Low-cost, high-interest programming: seasonal events for preschoolers. **New York: Neal-Schuman Publishers, 2005. 265p + CD-ROM US$65.00 soft cover ISBN 1555705022 (available from DA Information Services)**

This title targets library staff who promote literature to preschoolers, either in the public library sphere or within schools and preschools. For each of four themes (Teddy Bear Picnic, Winterfest, Spring Fling and Halloween) there is a brief description, publicity templates, certificates for participants, bookmarks, activity recording cards, signage templates, stories/songs and a list of easy, inexpensive activities with supporting templates for photocopying (or copying and modifying from the CD-ROM). The format for three themes is a large-scale event with a range of 10 activity stations, while the Halloween celebration is in the form of a costume parade with treats.

...there is a great deal of very useful everyday material in this book. For the customary story times in a public library these activities are perfect.

Some of the Teddy Bear Picnic activities/stories seem to have very little connection to teddy bears or picnics, but then the scope for fun at a picnic can be interpreted widely. Two activities are explained, followed by five stories with suggestions for actions, props or audience participation. Then the activity instructions are renewed for the remaining eight activities. None of the stories is acknowledged, so it is assumed that they are original. It is not clear how these stories are to be integrated into the management of the whole event. Winterfest and Spring Fling are similarly organised. The Halloween section offers five supported stories before it gets down to the detail of the parade. The lack of integration of the stories into the overall framework of the event and the curious organisation of some of the information would seem to be an editorial oversight. The CD-ROM offers the templates for reproduction of activities and support material as well as eight audio tracks which could be used wherever the stories are used. These same templates can be photocopied from the book as designed if no customisation is required.

One serious drawback to this book is the contradictory copyright statement. The book invites the copying of the ready-to-use material, yet the copyright statement indicates that reproduction in whole or part without written permission of the publisher is forbidden. For busy librarians on the run, this substantially reduces its usefulness.

The events described are quite large in scale, but if the format is deconstructed then there is a great deal of very useful everyday material in this book. For the customary story times in a public library these activities are perfect. There may need to be some input in the choice of literature to make a cohesive unit, but that would not be difficult. Similarly, the teachers of early childhood could use all these simple activities, stories and songs to good effect through integrating them into programs of suitable literature for their classes.

For Australians and New Zealanders the large section on Winterfest lacks some environmental relevance with its focus on snowmen, ice, snowballs and snowflakes, but with some explanation this could still be useful.

Heather Fisher, New England Girls School

Taking lit. up to the teens

Bromann, Jennifer More book-talking that works. **Teens @ the library series. New York: Neal-Schuman Publishers 2005. 145p US$49.95 soft cover ISBN 1555705251 (available from DA Information Services)**

The enthusiasm… jumps right off the pages of this book.

Books offering skills and strategies for handling a productive young adult service are important, as they address some of the challenges of dealing with this important sector of the community. This worthwhile series usually speaks most directly to public librarians, but this particular title offers firsthand, practical experience related by a young librarian who has worked enthusiastically in both a public library and a school library. Book- talking is not as commonly directed to teenagers in Australia as it seems to be in USA, but reading this book will offer a challenge to think about how such a program could be applied. This title follows *Book-talking that works* (2001) by the same author, and it reviews basic assumptions, offers valuable tips and teaches techniques that she has found useful. Empowerment through owning your own book talk is a vital ingredient and the author constantly offers a range of ideas and broad brush strokes to assist the reader in taking on board the general skill or 'tricks of the trade'. She invites the practitioner to embrace the ideas to develop a unique personal presentation.

The book is divided into two parts. Twenty-two pages are devoted to questions and answers about book-talking: how to create a successful book talk, what the talker needs to know, what kind of books are best, the need for 'book hooks' and 'quick talks', how to begin, how long it should be, how fast the talker should talk, how to cope with the great variety of reading which needs to be covered by the book talk, whether the book talk should be themed, whether parts of books should be read aloud, whether props should be used, what to do about students talking, how many students can be handled for a book talk, what if questions generate no response and so on. This is totally practical in approach and very personal to the author's experience, written in the first person. This first section closes with a reference list that includes both professional titles as well as teen book titles.

Then follows 98 pages of book talks given by the author, and a teen book title section arranged by genre/theme and title. Bibliographic details are given for each title 'talked' as well as the suitable grade level for the talk. Some are quite short, and others longer. Some focus on fiction titles, and some on popular non-fiction. Most of them demonstrate good questioning technique to maintain interest and creativity in thinking of a 'hook' to use in the promotion of a title. The language used by this dynamic librarian/author may not suit all 'talkers', but the general principles of being enthusiastic, informal in language and geared to engaging young adults shines through. The listings of books – by genre/theme and by title – are worthwhile resources, especially as the page number of the sample book talk accompanies each title. Titles are American, and availability may be limited in other countries.

Librarians, and especially school librarians, would find useful skills in this book. We all need to look constantly for ways to promote literature, and the enthusiasm for this role jumps right off the pages of this book.

Heather Fisher, New England Girls School

Plus ça change?

Gorman, G E and Rowland, F (eds) Scholarly publishing in an electronic era**. International yearbook of library and information management 2004/2005. London: Facet Publishing, 2004. 240p £60.00 hard cover ISBN 1856045366 (available from James Bennett Pty Ltd)**

It is a truism these days to say that scholarly publishing is in the midst of a fundamental transformation. Scholarly journals have moved to web-based electronic formats with remarkable rapidity over the last five years or so, to the point where printed versions are quickly becoming obsolete. For academic and research libraries, this is undoubtedly a momentous and deep-seated change, which is forcing them to rethink their services, priorities and resources. Nevertheless, there is still a question mark over the extent to which the system of scholarly communication is *really* changing, as long as commercially published journals remain at its heart.

...a question mark over the extent to which the system of scholarly communication is really changing...

This volume of the International yearbook of library and information management addresses these issues from a variety of different points of view. Its contributors come from libraries, publishing and academia and are based in Britain, Australia and the USA. Most of the contributions revolve around three big topics: commercially published electronic journals, Open Access, and institutional repositories. But there is also a final section with more closely focused papers on the usability of electronic journals, usage statistics and the Counter initiative, and electronic books.

Collectively the papers form an excellent overview of the state of play in scholarly publishing, though with a distinct bias towards journals rather than books. The authors, on the whole, take a judicious and even-handed approach towards often contentious issues. Their views on Open Access are, in general, cautiously optimistic, though contributors with a foot in the publishing world (such as Alicia Wise and John Cox) are predictably rather more sceptical than those from the library and academic worlds (such as Stephen Pinfield and David Prosser).

Several of the authors examine the strategy of the large commercial publishers to offer the so-called Big Deal, where academic libraries are given a publishers entire journal list in electronic form for a single price. The unanimous view is that the Big Deal is harmful for smaller publishers and has significant disadvantages for libraries in the long run.

There are some significant limits to the coverage of this volume. There is comparatively little examination of more radical alternatives to the traditional journal framework, and little discussion of the growing disenchantment with Open Access among some academic librarians. Nevertheless, this collection documents very effectively the ways in which scholarly publishing is changing and the magnitude and implications of that change.

Toby Burrows, University of Western Australia

Catching them young?

Reynolds, Tom K Teen reading connections. **Teens @ the library series. New York: Neal-Schuman Publishers, 2005. 147p US$49.95 soft cover ISBN 1555705065**

...highly recommended reading for both young adult public librarians and secondary teacher librarians.

Any book in a series which examines young adult services in libraries deserves close attention, for this service needs all the tools, strategies, stimulation and focus available to librarians to help them meet the undeniable needs of this diverse and ever-changing segment of the community. This book, like others in the series, targets most directly the public librarian, but it speaks to school librarians as well.

The coverage of this book includes fiction, popular non-fiction, book talking (formal and informal), book promotions, public library-school connections, electronic resources, readers advising and library policies. Unfortunately, the obvious gap is the lack of discussion of the information-seeking behaviour of young adults and necessary information services, both human and in the form of resources, provided by the library. While this aspect is touched upon several times, the importance of the area is overlooked. The need for information, often relating to academic assignments but also relating to life skills and self-education, is critical to the young adult, and librarians need to give it appropriate respect, effort, planning and professional development.

This very readable book has an interesting and useful format: in each chapter there is discussion of an issue followed by a boxed section labelled Quick Connections, which assembles significant points for discussion, case studies, a grab-bag of useful associated titles, websites, book reviews or similar. At the end of each chapter there is a useful summary section headed Core Connection Concepts, which summarises the chapter into key points before a detailed reference list. In each chapter there is generous sprinkling of useful websites and contemporary information such as movie tie-ins for some titles, teen magazines, teen surveys and other supporting material. At the end of the book before the index there are detailed listings by author, title and genre.

This book is an outstanding publication, and it is a worthwhile read for all librarians interested in young adult library service, whether they be beginners or experienced in this specialised service. For librarians handling the young adult service in the public library or a secondary school, this book is refreshingly free from platitudes and strikes a balance between the ideal and the possible in a contemporary setting. While decrying the omission of work on the information service for teens, the rest of the book offers stimulation that enhances commitment and expansion of the knowledge base. It is highly recommended reading for both young adult public librarians and secondary teacher librarians.

Heather Fisher, New England Girls School

Kicking uphill successfully

Gregory, Gwen M (ed.) The successful academic librarian: winning strategies from library leaders. **Medford, NJ: Information Today, 2005. 231p US$39.50. hard cover ISBN 1573872326**

This is a great book for those new to academic librarianship. It is specifically written for them and for those considering working in the field. The first chapter by Rebecca Miller and Nancy Bohm sets the tone impressively. In 10 readable pages they encapsulate a wide range of hints to becoming a competent, positive team player who pays attention both to customer needs and personal professional development. The readability and interest value of the remainder of the book are similarly high.

I...encourage staff to read, discuss and apply much from it.

Chapter 2 looks at building relationships with academics and covers the topic well. It raises the issue of academic status and role distinctions between academics and librarians. The book is firmly set in the US context, with some references to the Canadian scene. There is extensive discussion of the tenure process, including the role of publishing. The US perspective is also dominant in chapters on applying for a position and on the role of unions, as well as in examples of websites of value for continuing education. The book is invaluable for a librarian starting out in, or contemplating work in, academic libraries in the USA. However, there is much to benefit an audience in any country, as much excellent advice of general application is offered throughout all chapters.

Other topics include getting started in publishing, the role of mentors, documenting your career, 'tales from the trenches' by a cataloguer and a tenured librarian, advice on a mid-career move to academic librarianship and advice from a university library director. Near the end of the book, Molly Molloy's rather cynical perspective on the tenure process is highly refreshing. My disappointment at the thought of more on tenure quickly turned into gratitude and amusement. Anna Gold's information for people considering a mid-career move into academic librarianship is also entertaining and insightful. By honestly portraying the current challenging realities and the differences between academic and other types of libraries, Anna has allowed people to make informed decisions based on personal preferences and goals.

A chapter comparing the US and Canadian situations gives a good overview of the university systems, the basis of promotion, copyright and collection development issues. Although a strong geographic bias can reduce general applicability, in this book I found it fascinating and not at all negative.

In addition to 15 well-written and interesting chapters, there is an annotated bibliography of resources that contributors recommend to help develop a career, information on each contributor and an index. I recommend adding this book to all academic library collections and encourage staff to read, discuss and apply much from it.

Julia Leong, University of New England

Telling tales

MacDonald, Margaret Read Twenty tellable tales: audience participation folktales for the beginning storyteller. **Chicago: American Library Association, 2005. 240p $US28.00 soft cover ISBN 0838908934.**

...this is a book about the oral tradition, that timeless communication of tales by tellers to their rapt audiences.

This is a reprint of the original 1986 edition, but with sources updated to include some from this century. The body of the work, however, remains the same: 20 stories from American, Native American, European and other sources are presented, together with notes on telling them and a comment on the sources and history of the tales. This section is followed by one on finding, learning and telling tales; origins of folktale texts; and storytelling styles; while a third section takes the form of a series of bibliographies and deals with the sources of tales, including the use of type and motif indexes and picture books as story sources. The last part of this final section is a list of works consulted.

Some of the stories chosen are quite well known, especially 'The Gunny Wolf' and 'Mr Fox' (both of which were used by this reviewer when a children's librarian in the early 1970s) and 'Sody Sallyrytus', while others, often from a non-Western culture, are not commonly found. Examples of this latter category include the Cherokee legend 'Groundhog Dance', the West African folktale 'Udala Tree', and 'Punia and the King of the Sharks' from Hawaii. All allow for audience participation, and for the excited reaction that a well-told story can have on an audience.

MacDonald certainly knows her field. Not only is her choice of stories for the beginning storyteller appropriate – although some are quite similar to one another – but also her comments on the tales and how to tell them are useful and, in the case of the former, put them into perspective within the tradition. It is unfortunate, however, that only the sources were updated: it seems strange, for example, to suggest that the ideal storytelling collection contains 'an accompanying record…or recording of the actual tale telling event': today, of course, a CD-ROM or DVD would be the perfect accompaniment. Worse, the author uses the pronoun 'he' throughout – even when discussing a female storyteller!

Still, this is a book about the oral tradition, that timeless communication of tales by tellers to their rapt audiences. For this tradition to continue, it is important that works like this by MacDonald remain available.

John Foster, University of South Australia

Thinking critically

Kent-Drury, Roxanne M Using internet primary sources to teach critical thinking skills in world literature**. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited, 2005. 194p US$65.00 soft cover ISBN 0313320098 (available from James Bennett Pty Ltd)**

Educators dedicated to developing their students' ability to think critically believe that the students' future success as learners, citizens and professionals depends on their ability to gather information, assess it critically and apply it appropriately to new situations, as opposed to merely memorising and regurgitating learned facts. *Using internet primary sources to teach critical thinking skills in world literature* is designed to provide resources that will assist educators, librarians and students in the development of these vital critical thinking skills.

...would be useful to educators engaged in teaching for critical thinking and information literacy.

While the line between primary and secondary sources in literature is not always clearly defined, Roxanne Kent-Drury has interpreted the term primary sources as broadly as possible so as to include sites containing material providing cultural context, background and in some cases critical theory, thereby allowing the fullest possible set of resources. The use of primary sources has always required a critical examination of the materials used, but with the proliferation of electronic resources evaluation is more important than ever. Kent-Drury has provided a wealth of creative and interesting activities and exercises to encourage consideration of the authenticity of documents and their providers, facilitate alternative approaches and enhance student understanding of literature and culture.

For those new to the process, the book begins with a tutorial on locating and evaluating web resources followed by a discussion of the tools of traditional literary analysis. Relevant websites are identified and described, along with tips for ease of navigation and lists of similar, related sites. The remainder of the book focuses on specific topics, including religion and folklore, the ancient world, classical Greek and Roman literature, Europe before print, early modern to contemporary Europe and non-European literature. An overview of several trans-national and intercultural projects is included, two of which are the Nobel eMuseum [http://www.nobel.se] and The Modern Word [http://www.themodernword.com]. A comprehensive chapter follows on the major resources of general interdisciplinary interest, which adds to the overall usefulness of this volume. Such interdisciplinary sites include the Humbul Humanities Hub [http://www.humbul.ac.uk], a number of e-text sites providing online access to full text resources, several excellent reference sites, map collections, web-based projects, eyewitness accounts and teaching resources.

Overall this book provides a good balance of the theoretical and the practical and contains activities and resources that would be useful to educators engaged in teaching for critical thinking and information literacy. It is well indexed and contains a site index so that favourite sites can be easily located. Libraries supporting such education would find this book a useful addition to the collection. Given the rapidity of the creation and changing of websites and the instability of many URLs in the online environment, the comparatively modest price of this paperback edition would allow it to be updated as a new edition with relative ease.

Helen Dunford, TAFE Tasmania

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John Levett

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