THE LIBRARIES UNLIMITED
LIBRARY MANAGEMENT COLLECTION

Managing the Small College Library

Rachel Applegate

MANAGING THE SMALL COLLEGE LIBRARY

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Gerard B. McCabe, Series Editor

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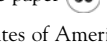
This book is printed on acid-free paper 

Manufactured in the United States of America

For my mom, for Sarah, and for MOST:
you all were there for me

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CONTENTS

I. Thinking About Managing

II. People and How They Fit Together

III. Core Responsibilities of Managers

IV. Supporting Teaching, Research, and Service

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I

THINKING ABOUT MANAGING

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1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this book is to give men and women who direct libraries at small colleges the tools and ideas they need to be effective managers. On a daily basis, in yearly cycles and looking at the longer view, there are responsibilities and opportunities. This book reviews the most important core functions of a director—managing people, processes, and ideas—and does so in the context of a small library, one that has one or two or five but no more than 10 master's-level librarians.

WHO SHOULD READ THIS BOOK?

The narrowest audience for this book is new directors of small academic libraries; the broadest, academic librarians; and library school students. The experienced director should be able to read this and say, "Yes, that's what I know and have experienced," "Hummm . . . that's an interesting perspective," and "I should give that some more thought." The more experienced the reader, the less the book will be novel; it should be like having coffee with a peer.

People who are not library directors but who want to be can use this book as a springboard and background briefing. Rather

than having to pester mentors about all sorts of basics, they can use this to get the big picture and general insights before seeking specific advice. The book fills in holes and provides information and reminders about aspects of the job for which the director needs to be prepared.

What about the librarian who is just a librarian with no immediate prospects for directorship, and perhaps, at least currently, no desire? The goal for that person is to understand better how the library functions, in itself and on campus. Everyone should wish success for their libraries. Especially in the small library, everyone inevitably bears a large part of the responsibility for that success. Management means making things happen, and the more people know how things can happen, the more successful the library as a whole will be.

For librarians at larger institutions with many more than five to 10 professionals and who make up the majority of academic librarians, their situations may be more similar to the small library than they realize. Half of all librarians in research libraries who are members of the Association for Research Libraries (ARL) have some sort of administrative title. Moreover, library systems on large university campuses have smaller specialized and departmental libraries. If librarians at large institutions desire leadership or even just greater independence, they too should learn to understand those managerial qualities that make one stand out in the crowd.

The definition of a small library in this book is one that has a small staff. When a school of fish is very small, no fish can hide in the middle. In a small library, no librarian really can hide within the library's walls and not think about the campus as a whole. Everyone who wants to know more about how libraries can be successful can get insights from this book.

PERSPECTIVES

The topics covered herein are the same as in any library or management text: selecting, developing, and evaluating people; planning and budgeting; and attending to the core functions of academic life—teaching, research, and service. Basic descriptions of essential elements are provided. However, all of this is

conditioned by the small college situation. Both large and small libraries serve their mission and patrons, but there are significant differences in how they are structured, how they interact with other groups on campus, and how individuals relate to each other.

Structure, alignment, and relationships are reflected in what is termed in this book, "perspective" or "organizational theory." Since the turn of the nineteenth century, theorists have attempted to describe organizational features and development in various ways. No one single management theory has universal application, and no one institution can really be understood with one single theory. That is, some theories are more suited to some industries than others, and each theory is inadequate in itself for any specific real case.

This book focuses on three main organizational perspectives:

- Bureaucratic: The legacy of Weber, "scientific management," and Taylorism, which stress rational, impersonal structures and rules
- Political: a recognition that people form alliances and interest groups that work within and alongside rational structures to promote agendas
- Human resources: the idea that men and women have their own personal goals, motivations, and hence reasons for doing or not doing things

These should not be seen as singular and separate theories, but are used here as convenient ways of grouping the wide array of approaches organizational sociologists have used. In brief, they provide three different ways of explaining why things happen.

An initial chapter reviews the concepts in more detail. Then, throughout the content chapters, different perspectives will be brought to bear on all of the issues. The ultimate effect will be to see that all of them provide insight into what happens and why and that they collectively provide the manager with tools for both understanding and influencing what happens in the library and on campus.

Professor Y calls the director:	
I need statistics on the elderly in China	
Because that's the rule: bureaucratic	Every phone inquiry is worked on in turn. *or* All calls from faculty are worked on first.
Because a group wants it to happen: political	Calls from faculty are worked on first because the faculty needs to see that the librarians are useful.
Because individuals want it to happen: human resources	Librarian Z has a good relationship with Professor Y, who always remembers to give Z sufficient time to work on her requests. Requests from Professor X, who always delays to the last minute and never acknowledges assistance, are referred to the "first come first served" rule.

TERMINOLOGY

Director. "Influencing what happens." The word "director" rather than "manager" is used throughout. There are overlapping definitions for supervisor, manager, director, and leader. In particular, many have argued that "management" is too weak a word and concept and what organizations and individuals really need is leadership. This author does not disagree, nor does the book specifically tackle leadership. Leadership is crucial, yet whether it can be taught or even adequately described is arguable. Is "vision" something that one can develop by effort?

This book takes both a lower and a higher perspective on this. Extraordinary vision is by definition extra- and non-ordinary. It is creative and exciting and unique. Leaps of imagination are key to the advancement of society, organizations, and the library profession. On the other hand, are "leaders"

the only ones with vision? This book takes the position that professional-level librarians, those with graduate degrees or the equivalent, always should be open to imagination and forward thinking. Everyone can "lead" in terms of ideas, even if relatively few "supervise" in terms of personnel. Not only that, but every professional librarian *should* lead. Fifty years ago, it could be argued that the technical demands of librarianship, such as cataloging, indexing, and computing, were so mechanically complex that a professional degree was needed to practice them adequately. In the subsequent decades, both computers and support have taken over virtually everything that can be done routinely, leaving, by definition, professional-level activity to be defined as non-routine. This is non-ordinary; it is extraordinary, in fact, visionary on a real, day-to-day basis.

This book focuses neither on technical skills such as how to catalog an item, how to negotiate a database contract, how to teach a class, nor on leadership or how to initiate something new. It focuses on the essential middle management. Management is the way that ideas become reality; management provides the essential conditions for new ideas to be born and old ideas to honorably retire.

Small (college) library. For this book, "small" is defined as a library that has at least one, perhaps three or four, and up to a maximum of 10 full-time MLS-degreed librarians. Why one? This book presumes a level of library-specific preparation and skills equivalent to the master's level in librarianship. Certainly, sometimes people with degrees in other fields are found in smaller "learning centers" and such, but that is taken as the starting place here. Why is 10 the maximum? Two reasons: hierarchy and responsibilities.

A library with fewer than 10 librarians is likely to have a relatively flat hierarchy, generally with two or at most three levels (staff→director, staff→department heads→director). This derives from theory and practical aspects of the "span of control," that one person cannot provide effective supervision to or be a leader for an unlimited number of people directly reporting to the leader, termed "direct reports." Ten is a common number for a reasonable upper limit for direct reports. Because in academic libraries support staff generally are one to two times as numerous as degreed librarians (a ratio of one to

two per librarian), a 10-MLS librarian library might involve 20 to 30 personnel. With 30 people, there would almost certainly be three levels at least for support staff (staff→department head→director), but among the 10 librarians, there might only be two (librarians→director).

In terms of responsibilities, a certain number of managerial tasks are needed for any library. Some aspects are directly related to magnitude: the time spent managing (communicating with, mentoring, and/or assessing) many people is greater than the time spent managing fewer. Others are simply a quantum, necessary in any size of library, such as preparing a budget, reporting to a supervisor, or handling gift decisions. The smaller the libraries, the more likely it is that directors, while handling directorial duties, will also spend time as "regular" librarians; they will have a dual role. It is only in libraries over a certain size that managerial duties are so numerous that the organization can afford to devote someone full time to them.

Whether the director of a large library does or does not continue to do regular librarian tasks is a different issue. The point here is that the smaller the library, the less likely it is that the director is only a director. This is also the case in reasonably independent special or departmental libraries on very large campuses: the director of an art, chemistry, or museum library generally also has a role as an art librarian, chemical librarian, or museum librarian.

(small) College (library). This book is concerned with small academic libraries, those serving post-secondary colleges and universities. In the United States, most doctoral-level institutions are large (228, compared to only 23 small), master's institutions are evenly divided, large and small (324 and 223 respectively); and most baccalaureate and associates institutions are small, 10 times as many small as large (baccalaureate: 476 versus 53 and 990 versus 87).[1]

Religious or denominational issues are discussed throughout this book as an aspect of organizational culture. Almost 40 percent of master's-level institutions have denominational affiliations, and this is over 60 percent for baccalaureate colleges. A denominational culture can range in strength and intensity. Catholic institutions tend to be master's or doctoral level and comprise about half of all religiously affiliated institutions at those levels, while a

Protestant affiliation is the dominant type at the baccalaureate level, comprising almost 90 percent of religiously affiliated institutions.

The for-profit sector is strongest at the associate's level. In fact, only 4 percent of all associate's institutions are private and not-for-profit.

Director. The word "director" designates the individual who bureaucratically, formally, and structurally has overt responsibility for the library unit on campus. It may be a one-person library, or one with 20 to 30 employees.

Librarian. The terms "professional librarian" and "librarian" refer to a person employed as a librarian and possessing either the ALA-MLS (representing the vast majority) or a similar graduate-level degree that is recognized on that campus as being equivalent. Permanent employees, full or part time, who do not have the MLS are generally referred to as "support staff" (paraprofessionals) and not as "librarians." "Library staff" mostly includes both librarians and support staff; "library workers" refers to everybody who works at a library, whether librarians, other professionals, support staff, or student workers. "The library" is also used as a collective noun to represent the interests of the unit as a whole.

Faculty. When "faculty" means people who teach for-credit courses in a discipline, it is generally qualified as "classroom faculty" or "teaching faculty" because librarians are often also considered "faculty." "Administration" and "administrators" generally refer to personnel who are not faculty or librarians (or employed in offices of academic departments or the library) and who work at higher vice-presidential levels in academic as well as support units such as student services and human resources.

College. For consistency, the word "college" here is always used to refer to an entire academic institution. Sometimes, the word "university" is also used to designate this level, the whole, singular, accredited institution: College of Mary or University of South State. The word "school" is used to refer to an academic grouping that is larger than an individual disciplinary department: the school of health sciences or school of education. "Deans" refers to people in charge of "schools"; the word "provost" is used for the person in charge of all departments, schools, and academic affairs. "Unit" is an all-purpose word that can refer to several levels on the academic side (department and/or

school) and administrative side (e.g., purchasing, finances, or human resources).

FORMAT AND CONTENTS

After an initial chapter describing management's theoretical perspectives, the main sections of the book cover the library as a unit (organizational structure), people (personnel recruitment, development and evaluation, and faculty status), and the essential processes of an academic library: planning, budgeting, and managing for teaching, research, and service support.

Stories appear in the text to illustrate features of the issue being discussed. These stories are based on true incidents, generally camouflaged or made composite to guard the real institutions from embarrassment. They are drawn from the author's personal experience as a library director, tales from other libraries, and incidents or situations related in articles. In order to avoid singling out institutions, citations to original articles are not provided when the item being discussed is used generically. For example, an article about reference services happened to describe its setting as an eight-librarian library that had four levels in its hierarchy. This book does not provide the article's research conclusions, which would be plagiarism, nor use its specific wording, which would be a copyright violation since a citation might identify the college.

The annotated bibliography describes some key articles and books that will help the reader more fully understand the concepts and context of managing small college libraries. When a discussion refers to a specific publication, a specific citation is given in that chapter's endnotes.

NOTE

1. These figures are derived from National Center for Education Statistics data from 2006 in the Academic Libraries Survey, which has 70 (associates) to 95 percent compliance rate; religious affiliation and control data come from the NCES Integrated Postsecondary Education Data Service (IPEDS) (100 percent compliance for Title IV eligible institutions). It includes only responding institutions with at least one professional librarian.

2 PERSPECTIVES ON ORGANIZATIONS

Throughout this book, each topic in the management of the small academic library benefits through considering it from perspectives drawn out of general organizational theories. This is not the place for a full examination of each particular theory, especially since all theories or theoretical perspectives have themselves grown, changed, splintered, and recombined over the years. Certainly, no single theory or perspective is complete in itself, and no single theory can really explain what is going on in most circumstances. Each individual perspective tends to leave out important elements and issues.

Even organizational theories that take a "contingent" approach, where levels of communication and complexity depend on specific circumstances of very specific tasks, are in a sense too limiting. Contingency theory is organization centric: it implies that an organization has a known, single, or focused purpose, and that managers and others work with and develop organizational arrangements to match that purpose.

Instead, this book takes a broad, flexible, ad hoc, pragmatic, and diverse approach to the use of theory in understanding organizations. Much of the day-to-day managerial decision-making is done on the fly, from a basis of personal experience, and in response to immediate input and concerns. It is hard to

detect administrators, at least academic administrators, working out formal decision trees, practicing decision-making steps, and employing specific conflict-resolution techniques. This is not to say they are ineffective, capricious, or ignorant. It is rather that they work primarily from a variety of assumptions and habits, rather than fitting themselves into the neat categories or innovative models described in organizational research or prescribed by management gurus.

Organizational theory is not irrelevant or unimportant. Instead, its greatest value to managers is when it helps them understand more clearly what is going on in the institution and form more consciously designed plans for success. In this light, having multiple perspectives sheds much more light than one overarching schema.

Many organizational theories have been developed since the original and influential theory of management, Max Weber's description and definition of bureaucracy. In this book, these are grouped into three main approaches: bureaucracy, politics, and human development. A bureaucracy assumes the organization is a rational structure geared to achieve objective ends; decisions are crafted according to rules and data. A political perspective sees groups of employees who have group interests and goals, and leaders who have reputational or charismatic power, along with or in contradiction to formal hierarchical power. The human-development perspective points to the individual aspirations of each person who happens to be an employee: not just a cog, not just a group member, but someone with personal goals, habits, and tendencies that fit those of the organization to a greater or lesser extent in differing circumstances.

BUREAUCRACY

The Encyclopaedia Britannica defines "bureaucracy" as "[a] specific form of organization defined by complexity, division of labor, permanence, professional management, hierarchical coordination and control, strict chain of command, and legal authority. It is distinguished from informal and collegial organizations. In its ideal form, bureaucracy is impersonal and rational

and based on rules rather than ties of kinship, friendship, or patrimonial or charismatic authority. Bureaucratic organization can be found in both public and private institutions."[1]

Some key features of the organization as bureaucracy are the existence of policies, clear lines of reporting and authority, and impersonal consistency in product delivery as well as internal organizational activity. That is, much of what to do is determined by a set code of rules. Everyone reports to a specific supervisor (who is responsible for those whom he or she supervises), and changes are derived from rational approaches to decision-making rather than through ad hoc personal choice.

The term "bureaucracy" has an uncomfortable connotation in U.S. society, especially around professional and knowledge workers. The industrial-production model of the assembly line, an object-oriented example of bureaucracy in action, seems anachronistic at best and inhuman at worst. Moreover, specifically in academia, an influential work by Karl Weick argued that the mechanisms in the context of the university are not very mechanical; they have exceedingly "loose coupling." That is, an action or decision taken at one level or unit seldom had a straightforward, predictable relation to what actually happened elsewhere.[2]

Despite its poor reputation, the bureaucratic (scientific, rationalistic) model is not only desirable, but valuable. Whenever impersonal consistency is desired, a bureaucratic approach is necessary. If fines are levied at your library, your offenders want to know they are paying a "fair" and consistent fine. If you include tables of contents in your bibliographic records, you don't want some of your books to lack them simply because the cataloger wasn't interested in them. If you shelve books, you need to follow the conventions of Library of Congress call numbers, however arcane the "decimals only after the first dot" rule is.

Some parts of a library are bureaucratic: impersonal, mechanistic, and hopefully consistent with thoughtfully established policies. In addition, some individuals in a library will react to problems or issues with bureaucratic responses, looking for something impersonal, mechanistic, and reliable for the future. This can be cumbersome, and someone can call it a staff that

Story: Early one fall semester, a new student worker wondered aloud what the order was for books on the reserve shelves. The director, who helped out at the circulation desk, replied aloud, "Oh, they are on whatever shelf is the first letter of the main book title." This got a stern look and quick correction from the circulation supervisor, who knew the reality of full alphabetizing by book main entry (carefully noted on reserve cards) and also had to deal with searching for items that were "lost" only because someone had just stuck them anywhere.

resists change, but it is also possible that the staff simply want to avoid personal caprice and unknowable results.

Likewise, on the campus as a whole, some bureaucratic elements exist, and some people want bureaucratic answers. Auditing and financial control functions necessarily are rules-based. A library manager's personal preference as to when a set of new shelving is a capital or an operational budget purchase just does not matter. Most steps in recruiting and paying personnel must conform to state and federal laws.

In more academic areas of campus, a rules or procedural approach may be more or less in evidence. The faculty handbook or the faculty assembly or senate constitution may be available and short or extensive. If the campus is unionized, there will be a bargaining agreement. Strategic planning or budget setting processes may be explicit, public, or formal.

It's important not to over-generalize, yet it is not inaccurate to predict that the smaller, older, more denominational, and private an institution, the less extensive formal bureaucratization will be. If a college is public, even if it is small, it generally will conform to state governmental expectations and perhaps university-system procedures. In some states, it may be unionized. Some private institutions have strong denominational cultures, which often substitute for formal procedures. Long institutional or personal history, when the same people have

been in their jobs a long time, tends to turn decision-making into a personal rather than a formal process.

Situations always have some bureaucratic elements. In one sense, a drive toward organizational development, in the sense of a data-driven approach to rationally improving an organization, is a bureaucratic, impersonal approach precisely because it outlines a reliance upon impersonal and theoretically objective facts.[3] Library directors can always look for which rules govern a situation, seek out data to support evidence-based decision-making, and work to create new policies as circumstances change.

But similarly, there are always parts of the academic enterprise that cannot be effectively understood or dealt with only with a scientific, rational, rules-based approach. The political and human development perspectives add the personal dimension.

POLITICS

A political perspective on organizations does not refer primarily to formal constitutionalism, separation of powers, or voting. It does include an informal equivalent to political parties. In a political perspective, people within an organization use not only formal hierarchical power, but powers and influence involved in personal charisma and in interest groups. In other words, things get done because they are important to greatly respected individuals or groups. Groups in this sense can be both internal and external: faculty as a group, students, alumni, and/or denominational affiliates.

Story: A small college was reviewing all academic programs to see which could be viable, since over the years, student preferences had changed. On the formally agreed criteria for the review, a performing-arts program was clearly identified for closure, as it had extremely few majors or student credit hours compared to the number of faculty. It did not close because some faculty contacted members of the board of trustees and successfully argued that it was part of the history and culture of the college.

A political understanding is important for a small library director in two ways. The first is for understanding: library directors, especially new ones, will be sorely handicapped if they attempt to interpret and predict decision-making by paying attention only to formalized procedures. The second is for effectiveness: as the political element is identified, the director needs to align the library with those influential individuals and weighty interest groups in order to achieve what the library needs. Who and what the library is seen as part of and important to, in a broad cultural and relational sense, will be as important as its formal position in the institution's organizational chart.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

Human development here is used as a sort of catchall category for a variety of theories of motivation and social behavior that bring one's perspective down to the individual level. The bureaucratic and political perspectives have one thing in common: they assume that the parts of an organization, either its formal units (bureaucracy) or its interest groups (polity), have goals and intentions tied to the success of the organization as a whole or of a particular subunit.

The human-development perspective corrects this oversimplification with the idea that individual men and women each have their own lives and goals that may be more or less aligned with, but never solely identical to, those of the organization. In the broader field of organizational theory, this perspective developed from the obvious and painful limitations of the scientific bureaucratic approach, the mechanistic treatment: we pay X wage and expect Y actions foundered upon the needs, desires, and boredoms of real people.

The reality of a human-level perspective can be illustrated in two very different ends of the academic-employment spectrum. Even though student workers shelve books, and even though shelving books or shelf-reading (checking for shelving errors) is important and necessary, it is simply not possible to retain employees in the long term, or even achieve reasonable accuracy in the short run, if a student worker is expected to

shelve or shelf-read for hours on end. They want more out of their lives. Similarly, very far away in their corner offices, star professors are plotting what institutional moves will adequately allow them to achieve whatever degree of fame and fortune they desire.

> **Story**: At a fall faculty retreat, a nun with a PhD in sociology and more than 30 years of teaching made it clear that she considered herself a X College faculty member before she was a sociologist. She was both, but her loyalty was to the institution (which was affiliated with her order), rather than to her discipline. Stars of academia who move from Ivy League to West Coast powerhouses to flagship state research universities are the exact opposite.

It can be seen from these two examples that the human dimension is important at both small and large colleges. Small colleges may not worry about the star professor, but they do need to have a productive group of people and hence those who feel relatively fulfilled. Moreover, the way things are decided at an institution often involves the human element in addition to political (group) considerations ("What's in it for the faculty?") and a set bureaucratic apparatus ("What's the rule about recording overtime?").

Somewhat artificially, to simplify the use of theory in this book, additional useful theories about human or organizational condition or behavior are considered part of this "human-development" group. Maslow's theory of personal fulfillment is considered part of this perspective. External and internal aspects of culture or values also have been intensively studied as part of understanding organizations. Employees bring expectations, habits, and motivations from their own family and civilian societies. Companies themselves form and pass on their own cultures, as sets of expectations and assumptions.[4] It is important on the one hand to avoid unwarranted stereotyping, "pre"-judging individuals according to group characteristics. On the other hand, societies and cultures are real and are part

Bureaucratic	Political	Human
Impersonal	Group interests	Personal interests
Authority from hierarchical position	Authority from individual charisma or group's perceived centrality or power	Concerned about personal, not necessarily organizational, goals
Rules-based		
Rational	Decisions made to sustain or extend group power *within the organization*	Works with and around other sources of authority to achieve individual ends
Organization-directed		
What the policy says	**Who you know and hang out with**	**What you want for yourself**
I am reliable	People trust me	I like being thought of as a good . . .
I can't do that without a policy	Have you checked with him/her/them?	You ignored me and I'm having a bad day . . .
It's a college: of course it has rules	We are essential to the heart of the college	I like the college and I'm glad I have a good job

of the diversity that is a strength of the American culture itself. These are part of this "human-development" group because they pay attention to how individuals perceive their own goals and proper societal connections.

The rest of this book pays attention to these perspectives in relation to each issue at hand. All three aspects are usually useful. Although each one may be stronger in a given case, in general a manager does well to incorporate each one of them. When it comes to effective leadership, there is no such thing as too much understanding.

NOTES

1. "Bureaucracy." *Encyclopædia Britannica*. 2009. Encyclopædia Britannica Online. http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/84999/bureaucracy. Accessed June 17, 2009.

2. Weick, Karl. "Educational Organizations as Loosely Coupled Systems." *Administrative Science Quarterly* 21 (1979): 1–19.

3. See a pro-organizational development review in Russell, Keith. "Evidence-Based Practice and Organizational Development in Libraries." *Library Trends* 56, no. 4 (2008): 910–30.

4. Collins, James C., and Jerry Porras. "Organizational Vision and Visionary Organizations." *California Management Review* (2001): 30–52. Developed in more detail in Collins, Jim. *Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap . . . and Others Don't*. New York: HarperCollins, 2001.

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3 ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Organizational structure defines the formal relationships between positions in a unit and between one unit and another. It means people and organizational charts. Someone is a supervisor and others are supervised by that person. One unit's leader or representative reports to a particular position upward in the hierarchy or chart tree. Structure includes which positions are included in or excluded from different meetings or groups. Structure is not limited strictly to command-and-control, where higher positions dictate to lower positions. Decision-making can be based upon discussion, debate, democracy, and consensus, but even in that situation, which positions are included in the debates is a structural issue.

The formal structure is *position*-based, not *person*-based. The director of the library, the head of information technology, the chief financial officer, these positions have their designated spots in the organizational structure. Some people may consider "bureaucracy" to be a negative term implying mechanism and soul-destroying formality. However, an impersonal approach can be a more polite and less confrontational way of managing organizational workflow than a purely personal approach. Say the library director and information technology director need to be involved in a meeting because it concerns their organizations,

but Sarah is invited because she's easier to get along with, and no one likes Mary, who bores people with her long-winded speeches. If Sarah is truly easy to work with, knowledgeable, and productive, she will gain the positional titles that fit her appropriately into the organizational structure.

Position-based structure is a core feature of a bureaucratic or rational approach to management and to the exercise of power. Someone's position gives him or her the right and duty to do certain things and, more importantly, to make certain decisions. Positional power is not the only power that exists in an organization, but it is a factor in even the most personal and charismatic situations.

In the small college library, structure seems an overly complicated consideration for a unit that has only a handful of people. Surely it is a simple matter of director, librarians, and support staff. Have all the student employees report to a support staff person (because managing student workers is time-consuming) and everyone else report to the director. The director listens, asks questions, and decides. The pleasure of the small organization is simplicity.

But it is not that simple. Effective management is a blend of the bureaucratic, political, and human perspectives. And even in the smaller library, the smaller but larger than the one-person library, elements of formal structures and different possibilities are very much in evidence. The purpose of this section is to review what the two main alternatives (collegial and bureaucratic) mean and consider their political and human resources implications on three levels. The first level is the director's own role, the second level is the effect on how the library is organized, and the third level considers how the campus is organized.

MANAGER'S DUAL ROLES

One of the first issues that directors in small libraries face is that they themselves play two roles within the library structure: from the start, any "organizational chart" has overlapping boxes, without the neat separation of powers that is a hallmark of a standard bureaucratic approach. Key elements of scientific management are clear reporting lines, fixed roles and responsibilities,

unity of command (one person supervising specific people, who are supervised by only one person), and a division between management (decision-making) and labor (doing).

One of the defining characteristics of the small academic library is that the library director has simultaneous responsibilities for *doing* as well as *directing*. That is, these directors spend at least part of their time being librarians: dealing with students and faculty about their information needs, thinking about the development of part or all of the collection, and implementing new technologies. This is not necessarily absent in larger libraries. Many large institutions have a corporate culture that expects that all the people who are librarians will do at least some hands-on librarian or professional-level activity. Nevertheless, the larger the library, the more common it will be that the director's duties will include less and less frontline work.

This feature has both positive and negative effects on the life and managerial role of the library director. The negative effects are thoroughly examined in standard commercial business organizational literature; the positive ones arise out of the non-commercial, professional environment in general, and the academic environment in particular.

In classic company organization, the standard advice for new managers in business is to remove themselves as cleanly as possible from their previous status and responsibilities. That is, no longer try to be a friendly colleague to one's work-mates. Trying to maintain social-professional ties is thought to tempt the manager into micromanaging ("I know how to do that better") and muddy former friends' expectations of the authority and decision-making that is necessarily part of the manager's job. Obviously, this separation is feasible only when there is no need for the manager's labor in actually doing those "worker-bee" tasks.

This perspective is a largely bureaucratic one. The strength of the bureaucratic framework is largely seen as a function of its clarity of responsibilities, both for directing and for division of labor. Continuing personal friendships with formerly coequal colleagues is contrasted with an impartial attitude toward all of those who are now subordinates, and equally subordinate, not less or more important because they are friends or not with the

boss. A political approach is generally shunned: what worse situation could there be than for a manager to create or encourage special "in" or "out" groups among employees?

Business managers develop and evaluate employees, determine their compensation, and assign their duties. In the impersonal bureaucracy, they do so with respect to the employees' value to the organization, not their personal relationships with the manager.

Contrast this business framework with the experience of the typical academic teaching department. In a small college, there are generally three to six faculty members in many departments. Very few academic departments will be large enough to have a chair who has no teaching responsibilities. Indeed, not only will the chair teach, but in the three- or four-member department, the chair often teaches full time while doing much of the work that the chair of a larger department does as a sort of overload. The chair may receive a special stipend for this, rather than a reduction in teaching responsibilities. If the stipend is considered hopelessly inadequate, a rotation of the chair's duties among the department members can compensate.

The larger the department, the more the payment for doing chair duty will be compensated for by a reduction in teaching responsibilities, but it is very rare that the chair would not teach at all. Ordinary, non-chair faculty often insist upon this. They are suspicious of a chair who no longer experiences the core daily life of a faculty member.

> **Story**: At a meeting of faculty from several disciplines who were all beginning projects involving portfolios, when people introduced themselves, one person said he had been the department chair and was now "a real faculty member."

Talk of "real" faculty members as those who teach, not those who administrate, reflects a political perspective. Do I as a faculty member want to be managed, to have important aspects of my life such as my teaching schedule and tenure

expectations controlled by someone who is *not like me*? Someone who is not part of my own interest group, the teaching faculty, is in danger of being seen as someone who is part of another group, the administration. The fear is that a person who does not understand fully the life of a teacher may try to control it in ways that are detrimental.

> **Story**: Promotion and tenure reviews at a small college were shot through with suspicion of non-teaching faculty. The school-level committees were not elected or selected, but consisted of all qualified (tenured) faculty in grouped disciplines (e.g., all natural sciences, all health sciences). These individuals tended to insist that no candidate could be truly evaluated without significant student course evaluation data. They attempted to get this provision written into the tenure policies in such a way as to eliminate the ability of an administrative-only person achieving tenure and full faculty status.

Parallels to this we-real you-manager suspicion exist in other fields, especially those with professional activities. Doctor-administrators are expected to continue to practice, managing partners in law firms still interact with clients, etc. All of these individuals who are managers consider it vital to maintain their ties to their own group, the professional practitioners. The drawbacks that non-professional bureaucratic theorists point out seem to pale in comparison with the benefits of continued professional allegiance. This is a prime example of how a political, group-affiliation perspective explains more about how academic management is conceived than does the rational, bureaucratic approach.

The human resources, individualistic perspective can be detected in the distinct lack of interest on the part of many librarians toward managerial responsibilities. Library school faculty often report that many students are indifferent or even hostile toward learning management skills. The ability to exercise control over others does not appear to be a common career

draw for library students, even at the graduate level. This contrasts with those who go into business and in particular those who pursue graduate-level education in business. The MBA is widely perceived as a leadership degree and often requires some post-baccalaureate business experience so that the graduate will have the ability to assume higher roles in an organization. This is one area where the MLS degree bears the characteristics of a classic "profession," based on a complex knowledge base and personal responsibilities, rather than organizational power.

Small library directors have dual roles as managers and as librarians. The first person they must manage, there, is themselves. How do they view their own normal daily professional duties, both internally and externally, within the library and interacting with the rest of the campus?

Externally, the library director will be doing, and be seen doing, professional work. The higher the value the campus population places on that work, and the higher the status that librarians in general possess, the easier it will be for the director-librarian to be seen as a leader on campus. The situation will be seen as parallel to the teaching department chair. On the other hand, if librarians in general are viewed primarily as support or technical staff, the role of the director will suffer correspondingly. Even the administrative responsibilities they have may be considered of not much consequence since, by definition, a small college library director has a small staff. Only lower-level administrators on the administrative side supervise so few individuals.

Internally, the profession orientation, the desire to focus on librarian work, of the other librarians and support staff will be beneficial for the director's relative power. They will be well aware of the director doing professional (librarian) activities, and they may well be content to leave everything else to him or her. The non-director librarians can concentrate on their own librarian activities and leave all of that "administrivia" to someone else. Dictatorships are said to be odious, yet a benevolent dictatorship in which directors divert all administrative work from the other librarians to themselves and leave others in peace can be seen very positively by library staff.

Story: An early textbook on college librarianship insisted that the "librarian" have faculty status.[1] Close reading reveals that this early work assumes that the (male) director of the library is the only one who is called "librarian." No one else working at the library is a "librarian," and none are seen as deserving or needing any status comparable to faculty.

This dynamic can work against the director, though. If "regular" librarians focus their attention primarily on the library, the more they will focus on technical specialty activity, and the more behind the scenes they remain, the more administrative power the director will have as the only person connecting with the larger campus structure.

However, this inward focus will lead to a less positive and even less professional view of librarianship generally on campus. It will lessen the likelihood that the library "department" will be seen as the equivalent of a teaching department. Academic teaching departments are important, even when they are small; each is essential to the entire educational enterprise. Is the library important? Is it seen as important, or is it a one-person show? If library directors are vigorous but nothing else is seen from the library, then they will be only directors of an auxiliary unit, small and marginal. Therefore, diminishing the responsibilities of all librarians to the level of technicians might in the short run make the library director more important, yet it leaves the director in a very weak position on campus. Eventually in that case, even the library staff will notice that the library does not get what it needs.

Therefore, when it comes to the relative importance and power of the director's managerial position compared to professional responsibilities, a careful balancing act involving all librarians is required. Directors need to continue to do professional work, which will enhance solidarity with other librarians and at the same time improve their standing among the academic teaching professionals who typically disdain administrative credentials. Other librarians need to do professional

work that is visible within the library and also be visible across the campus, reinforcing their integration with the academic enterprise.

Some aspects of managing the library should include librarians. Administrative responsibilities can be structured in one of two main models: collegial and bureaucratic. In a collegial form of organization, the goal is consensus (or majority opinion) among equals in decision-making. In the bureaucratic form, someone is recognized as being unequal, of having specific authority to make decisions, "because I said so" and "because I'm the director," even if those words never pass anybody's lips.

COLLEGIAL ORGANIZATION

Collegial is a term and a concept close to the academic heart. The permanent "college" is a collection of faculty: note that in Canada, what is usually called a "school" in an American university is called a "faculty." One is admitted to, studies in, and receives a degree from the faculty of X at Y University. The archetypal academic department consists of faculty who feel themselves equal, and who often rotate into (or strive to rotate out of) administrative responsibilities. This approach is often very culturally attuned to religiously affiliated colleges where there is a strong tradition, ethic, or general sense of egalitarianism.

> **Story**: At an Anabaptist denominational institution, when the director was asked if librarians were faculty, she replied that "everyone" was considered faculty. But then, she added, that meant that really nobody, except the classroom faculty, were.

At one end of the collegial spectrum is a situation where all professional librarians are considered equal, one is chosen to speak for the library for a period of time, and this role is rotated equally. A distinguishing feature of this situation is that there will never be a search for a director as such; no one is hired into a formal position of director. People are hired as librarians