

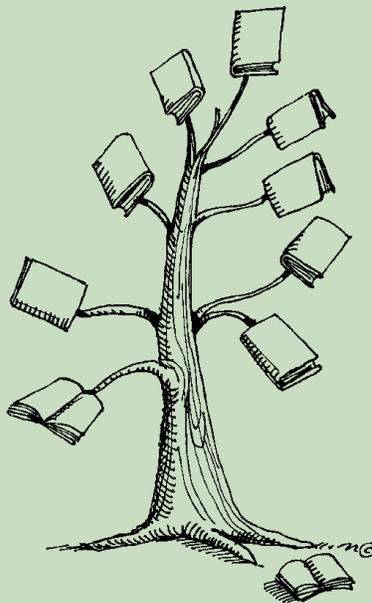
PNLA QUARTERLY

THE OFFICIAL PUBLICATION OF THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

70:2 Winter 2006

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"If winter comes..."



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volume 70 number 2 (winter 2006)

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Cover graphic from Discovery School's Clip Art Gallery, created by Mark A. Hicks, illustrator.

THE OFFICIAL PUBLICATION OF THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

PNLA QUARTERLY

PNLA Quarterly: The Official Publication of the Pacific Northwest Library Association

Subscriptions to libraries in the PNLA region are by membership in the Association only. Yearly rates for other regions of Canada and the United States are \$30 (in the currency of the subscriber's country). Yearly overseas subscriptions are \$40. Single copies are \$10.00, available from the Pacific Northwest Library Association, c/o Editors. Membership dues include a subscription. The subscription fee represents \$20 of annual fees.

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The Pacific Northwest Library Association retains electronic representation and distribution right to contents. PNLA reserves the right to re-use text, photos, and artwork in subsequent editions, with notification to the submitter if possible. *PNLA Quarterly* (ISSN 0030-8188) is published quarterly: fall, winter, spring, and summer.

POSTMASTER: Please send all address changes to: Mary K. Bolin, Editor, *PNLA Quarterly*, 319 Love Library, PO Box 884100, 13th & R Streets, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln NE 68588-4100 USA.

ALA-H.W. Wilson Library Periodical Award Winner: 1964, 1974, 1993.
The *PNLA Quarterly* is indexed in Library Literature and Library and Information Science Abstracts.

President's Message

CHARLOTTE GLOVER



There has been a lot of talk about building bridges in my hometown of Ketchikan, Alaska. As usual, the whole story is a lot more complicated than the sound bite. While you have probably heard about our proposed airport bridge, you likely have not heard about the bridge between the libraries in our community. As far as I know, we are the only library system in the Pacific Northwest, if not the entire United States, that links a University, Public School and Public Library together via a shared on-line database and circulation system. Our "First City Libraries" consortium began in the early 90's as a way for our local libraries to afford the costs involved with automation. This unique shared system has provided the citizens of Ketchikan and the surrounding area a way to see every single library item on our island at the touch of a button from any library location or from the comfort of their own home. Library patrons can also return items at any circulation terminal in town, or pick up holds at the location of their choosing, with a courier moving items around the community five days a week. The libraries do not share budgets, staff or mission statements, but they do share library materials freely and the cost of maintaining the system, including the cost of a full time technical support person. It's also common for school library staff to sub at the public library during their weekends and holidays, giving them a fuller understanding of the materials and services our largest library can offer them and their students.

More importantly, what the libraries share is a common interest in seeing all our libraries succeed. Having school, public and academic librarians working together has raised all of our awareness of the different types of libraries in our community, their unique user groups and their unique challenges. Our libraries work closely together on staff training, policy decisions, advocacy, problem patrons and fun projects such as our yearly "Holiday Book List" in which we recommend children's books from the past year that would be appropriate for gift giving.

When our local chapter of the Alaska Library Association meets each month, we are just as likely to be talking about requesting the school board increase their library funding as we are about an upcoming author visit whose costs will be shared between the school and public libraries or how we can help the college librarian weed books. While our collections and budgets are vastly different, our common ground is information power, and the shared desire to provide our community with the best service and materials possible. This rare collaboration has given us all a greater understanding of the challenges all libraries face, regardless of user group. This understanding empowers us to think outside the box and seek training opportunities, funding and fun projects that we can all benefit from, and, as a result, we are all better librarians with better libraries. ■

MISSION

The Pacific Northwest Library Association is an organization of people who work in, with, and for libraries. Its mission is to facilitate and encourage communication, networking, and information exchange for the development and support of libraries and librarianship in the Pacific Northwest.

From the Editor

MARY K. BOLIN

Patience Rogge's article on library advocacy is a preview of coming attractions. The theme for the Spring 2006 issue is advocacy. See this issue's submission guidelines for deadlines and other instructions. This issue also contains a number of articles that explore the use of electronic resources, including the role of digital archives, a look at library history, and some guidance for small libraries on the use of a collection development policy.

Correction to a previous issue: the photos of the PNLA Leadership Institute that appeared in the Winter 2005 (69:2) issue were taken by Carol Reich of the Hillsboro Public Library, Hillsboro, Oregon. ■

Call For Submissions

All contributors are required to include a short, 100-word biography and mailing address with their submissions. Each contributor receives a complimentary copy of the issue in which his/her article appears.

Submit feature articles of 1,000-6,000 words on any topic in librarianship or a related field.

We are always looking for short, 400-500 word descriptions of great ideas in libraries. If you have a new project or innovative way of delivering service that you think others might learn from, please submit it.

Spring 2006 Issue (Deadline March 1, 2006):
Summer 2006 Issue (Deadline June 1, 2006):

The theme for the Spring issue is "Library Advocacy." There is no theme for the Summer issue. Please submit any articles or items of interest.

Please email submissions to mbolin2@unl.edu in rtf or doc format.

Submission Guidelines

Format

Please submit all documents as either a .doc or an .rtf

Font style

PNLA Quarterly publishes in the Verdana font, size 8.

Spacing and punctuation:

- Please use a single space after a period.
- Please use full double dashes (i.e., "--" not "--")
- Please place punctuation within the quotation marks.
- Please omit <http://> when quoting Web site addresses
- Please place titles within text in italics (not underlined).

- Please do not capitalize nouns such as "librarian" unless the word is included in a title.

Spelling

Web site, Internet, email, ILL; please use the spelling conventions of your country.

Citation Style

Please use whatever style you wish, as long as it is used consistently.

Additional Information

Please submit a 100-word biography and postal address with article.

Do People Want To Jump the Digital Divide? Exploring Digital Strategies

ELAINE PETERSON

Most people would not think of Montana or another western state when they envision the distant green islands in the Pacific Ocean called New Zealand. Yet, Montanans and New Zealanders do share the same vistas of glaciers and snow-capped, rugged mountains, and even geo-thermal hot springs. We both have native cultures, with indigenous peoples the largest minority population. Our citizens also share rural roots. We in Montana like to say that there are more cattle than people (population 927,000, with 2.4 million cattle), but New Zealand can make even a stronger claim, with 4.1 million people, 4.4 million cattle, and a whopping 46 million sheep.

Economically we share much as well. We both rely heavily on agriculture and tourism as two of our top industries. We both try to lure the movie industry, now a key part of our economic incentive packages. We both want "clean industries" to come to us, those that can preserve our air and water quality along with the natural beauty of the area.

But perhaps the most important piece that we share is that we are both entering the 21st century trying to see if a rural state/country with a few concentrated population centers can become a leader in creating a digital future for all its citizens. I have been studying New Zealand for some time, planning a research sabbatical in 2006. It now appears that New Zealand might just be the most exciting place on the planet for all things digital. In May 2005, the New Zealand government, after a public comment period, released the final version of *The Digital Strategy: creating our digital future*. With the publication came a promise of an additional \$400 million over the next five years to implement the strategy. That is \$80 million per year for 4 million people, or \$20 per person. What can a government accomplish with that kind of supplemental funding for digitization? What would each of our states or provinces do with that kind of money? If it happened, would we have a digital plan in place? Perhaps New Zealand's strategy can give us some insights into digitization here in the northwestern United States.

Tied to Economic Success

In New Zealand, their digital strategy is tied directly to the economic success of the country. As stated up front in the plan, "New Zealand will be a world leader in using information and technology to realize its economic, social, environmental, and cultural goals, to the benefit of all its people" (Digital Strategy, 2005). The government believes that ICTs (Information and Communication Technologies) will promote innovation, increase productivity, and enrich the quality of lives. Indeed, one of the targets is to lift the growth rate of the ICT sector and link it directly to the GDP of the country. The overall lead agency for the digital strategy is the Minister of Information Technology, but key partnerships have been formed with the National Library, as well as the ministries of Commerce, Education, and others. A digital plan tied to economic success guarantees that all agencies have that goal uppermost in mind when working on secondary goals and objectives. Moreover, most citizens will readily buy into an economic success plan.

The key to having every citizen partake of the benefits of economic success is first bridging the digital divide. The phrase, digital divide, has been used to describe the perceived gap that exists in most countries between those with reliable access to ICTs and those without (OECD, 2001). "The 'digital divide' has become a convenient metaphor to describe the perceived disadvantage of those who either are unable or do not choose to make use of these technologies in their daily life," (Cullen, p. 247). In her study of rural and urban New Zealanders, Cullen goes on to point out that even as some countries surge forward technologically, the digital divide itself can become even greater within such countries between the urban and the rural populations. Developing countries probably should first use technology to advance basic health care and agriculture. However, in developed countries, the focus shifts to closing the gap of the individual's information needs, and that gap can become quite apparent in rural areas.

cont. on page 17

Elaine Peterson is an Associate Professor at Montana State University Libraries, where she works in both Information Resources Development and Cataloging. After receiving her M.A. in Library Science from the University of Michigan, she worked in Michigan, New York, and Washington State before coming to Montana sixteen years ago. Her research areas include the construction and organization of Digital Libraries, as well as their ongoing development through various evaluation methodologies. She will spend Spring Semester 2006 on sabbatical in New Zealand to learn more about their *Digital Strategy* and its implementation. Elaine can be reached at: elainep@montana.edu

The Death of Full-Text Searching

JEFFREY BEALL

Full-text searching is an inefficient way to discover and retrieve information. As the number of online resources on the World Wide Web continues to increase at a rapid pace, full-text searching will become even less efficient and will eventually die out as an information seeking method. Metadata-enabled search engines can solve all of the inefficiencies of full-text searching. Although full-text searching systems are cheaper than metadata-enabled ones, cheaper is not always better. The efficiencies generated from high-quality metadata are a valuable addition to Internet searching that will be absolutely necessary to efficiently access information in the future.

Metadata is structured data about data. A metadata-enabled search engine is one that searches the metadata associated with online resources rather than the resources themselves and presents the results to the searcher, with links to the full-text resources. Metadata is generally created by humans, and its content conforms to strict standards that provide consistency and eliminate ambiguity. Metadata records exist separately from the resources they describe and function as surrogates for these resources.

Metadata-enabled search engines facilitate discovery and retrieval by collocating information for the searcher and by improving search precision and recall. Collocation means displaying or aggregating data along with other similar data, such as displaying titles of works by a single author under the name of the author or displaying titles of resources about the same subject together. In the future, full-text search retrievals of information from the Web will be so large that it will be almost impossible to find anything.

Most people who have used a full-text search engine such as Google have experienced times when they've had trouble finding a resource they knew "had to be out there." These full-text search engine difficulties will increase as the volume of data in the indexes increases. Here are the reasons why full-text searching will soon die out as an information-seeking strategy:

Precision. Full-text retrievals are very imprecise. Search precision is the proportion of relevant items retrieved in a query to the number retrieved overall. Most searches done on Web search engines have very low precision. For example, a search on "Colorado history" in Google retrieves over 19,000,000 hits—far too many to sort through. Searches such as this one have low precision because of the many irrelevant pages returned in the search, most of which surely have nothing to do with Colorado history; they just turned up because they happened to contain the words *Colorado* and *history*. On the other hand, a metadata-enabled search engine would have no trouble separating out the resources that are really about Colorado history, because the metadata records for each resource would tell the search engine precisely which resources are about the topic.

Polysemy and Synonymy. Polysemy refers to one word representing different concepts. For example, the word *mercury* can refer to an element, a planet, a Roman god, and an automobile. Web search engines lack the sophistication to differentiate among these meanings. Searchers search with words but want information about concepts. A search system that adds and exploits metadata can solve this problem, however. In this system, a human indexer or cataloger looks at each page and assigns it a tag or metadata element—in this case a subject tag—that describes the content. In the case of mercury, the indexer might assign one of the following tags to the metadata of a Web page:

Mercury (Planet)
Mercury (Element)
Mercury (Roman deity)
Mercury (Automobile)

cont.

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The Death of Full-Text Searching - cont.

The search system can then collocate resources about any one of these topics by searching the metadata and pointing to the pages that are about that one topic—and excluding the pages about the others.

Synonymy is when different words mean the same thing. For example, some use the term “botany” and others use “plant science” to describe the same concept. A search in most search engines on the term “botany” would probably miss Web pages that only refer to the discipline as plant science. Although some search engines have sophisticated algorithms that automatically search on synonyms, most don’t work too well and they usually just increase the number of pages retrieved, contributing to a lower precision. Metadata that employs a rich ontology, or vocabulary system, solves this problem by selecting a single term, like “botany” for the concept and by creating a reference from the other:

Plant science see Botany.

By using a controlled vocabulary, metadata increases search precision and solves the problem of synonymy.

Recall. Recall is the proportion of relevant items retrieved compared to the total actually out there. Full-text search engines can miss resources that contain information relevant to the search but fail to be retrieved because the term does not occur in the resource. As with the problem of synonymy, this search failure can occur when the words the searcher inputs into the search box do not match any words in the relevant resource. This failure occurs when the terms are in a different language, when the term is an acronym, and when the term has a different spelling. For example, a user doing a full-text search who wants information about the National Rifle Association will not retrieve all the resources that only refer to the organization as the NRA. The recall will be lowered because of the missed hits.

Term not searchable. Full-text search engines frequently miss data that is presented in a way that they are unable to read, such as text that occurs in a graphic, or words that occur in a sound recording. Generally, Web crawlers do not cover non-text resources. Metadata solves this problem by describing visual and sound resources with data that can be read and displayed for searchers.

Buried too deep. Often, the information a searcher wants ranks very low in the search engine’s ranking, so the searcher does not find it. But it is very important to the searcher even though it ranks low. Internet search engine ranking algorithms work well for popular information but poorly for esoteric knowledge. Many commercial enterprises “optimize” their Web pages to exploit the ranking systems of large search engines to force their pages to appear near the top of search results, leaving other relevant sites buried.

Non-public Web. The non-public Web refers to material behind a password or search interface. The World Wide Web exists at two levels. There is the public Web, and then there is the Web that exists only behind passwords and search platforms, places where Web search engines cannot crawl. Metadata can direct users to these sub-surface Web sites. Full-text search engines generally cannot do this because they

generally don’t crawl beyond the limits created by passwords or search interfaces, and when they do go beyond these boundaries, users may still have difficulty getting there.

Spamming. Spamming in the context of the Web refers to Web page authors and others manipulating the text on the page to force the pages to appear near the top of the lists of results or in the results that search engines generate. Most users have had the unfortunate experience of having to wade through often unsavory material that has nothing to do with what they were looking for. Although the search engines have taken steps to eliminate this problem, the spammers seem to always be one step ahead of them. As this practice increases, it will generate more noise that will seriously affect information retrieval. Metadata-enabled search engines solve this problem by separating out only relevant resources that match what a user is looking for.

Abstract topics and common names. If you’ve ever tried to search for information about an abstract topic on the Web, you know how difficult it is to find information on these topics. Take the concept of “the state” for example, or “ethics” or “will.” Moreover, maybe you’ve tried to find Web pages that contain information about someone with a common name, such as Bill Wise or Brian Lewis. Names that function also as words, such as *bill* and *wise*, are especially difficult, for they generate many search results that are irrelevant. The name *Bill* is an example of another problem, for an individual may appear sometimes as *Bill* or as *William*. A metadata-enabled system has no problem with this, however, because it has separate name indexes that search only names, and it can take advantage of cross references to refer from variant forms of a name to a single authorized form.

Influence of the simple search box. Google’s popularity has spawned many imitators of its simple search box. Google dumbs down the full text experience and expectations by using the simple search box. The box doesn’t offer ways to qualify or limit searches (though these features are available in a limited way on Google’s so-called advanced search) and it doesn’t offer the ability to search only for authors, or titles or subjects. Unfortunately, this simple approach is being copied by Web sites everywhere, and full-text searching—with its increasing weaknesses—is often the only search option available. Metadata-enabled search engines exploit the discrete information in the metadata, such as the author’s name or the subject designation, and offer specific search options that precisely and selectively search the desired information. Full text search engines cannot do this and never will be able to, for they cannot separate out these types of information from among the data on the pages.

Computers cannot think like people do. Currently, the best and most efficient way to index the Internet is by using metadata and metadata-enabled search engines. Sooner or later, full-text searching will decline in popularity as its efficiency decreases and as metadata-driven search platforms become popular. Full-text searching is comparable to riding a bike to a destination: you’ll probably get there, but it will take longer, and you might get wet. Metadata-enabled searching is like driving a new car to a destination: you get there quickly and efficiently. ■

Digital Archives

IAN HUNTER

Large and small libraries have traditionally been involved in preserving materials. Damaged books are routinely repaired, newspapers are copied onto microfiche, and journals are grouped together and bound into sets. Books are stored on shelves away from extremes of heat, light, and humidity. Normally, paper materials will easily last for several decades or more. With proper care, books can even be preserved for hundreds of years. Digital materials however, are very fragile and care must be taken to preserve them. The purpose of this paper is to identify advantages and disadvantages of digital archives, the complex technical difficulties associated with preserving digital archives, and the legal implications of copying and archiving digital material.

Libraries now provide a wealth of multimedia materials and services; much of it is now in non print format. Examples of digital materials provided by many libraries include electronic books, electronic journals, digitally recorded sound, DVD movies, music on CDs or Digital Audio Tapes (DAT), and computer access. In addition, multimedia services in analog format may include VHS tapes, records, and music on vinyl records or tapes. Computers now make it possible to convert books or analog media into a digital format.

Librarians have a strong interest in preserving materials for future use. Recent technological advances and price reductions in computer hardware and software now make it possible for libraries to archive a wide variety of media. There are numerous advantages in having access to digital media. However, long term preservation of digital media has many challenges. Also, librarians need to have a firm understanding of copyright law before creating a digital archive so they can avoid copyright infringements. As librarians move into the digital age, care must be taken when using computer technology to archive library media.

The purpose of a digital archive is to ensure that media is preserved and also to provide convenient access (Besek, 2003). Digital records have numerous advantages over traditional paper records. If cataloged properly, digital records can be found and retrieved quickly. Searching for specific records can be accomplished simply by typing words or phrases. Access can be nearly instantaneous and it is also very convenient. For example, using Lexis-Nexis, it is possible to find specific legal court decisions in minutes, which would have taken hours or days if done manually.

One of the greatest advantages of digital media is its size. For example, a DVD can hold the equivalent of more than 400 pounds or two million pages of printed text (Building a National Strategy, 2002). Advances in storage technology for digital data are constantly improving. The cost of hardware to store digital data is dropping every year. Also, the amount of data that can be stored is ever increasing. For instance, twenty-five years ago, a 20-megabyte hard drive in a home computer was considered large. Today, typical hard drives in inexpensive home computers can hold 10,000 times that amount of data.

The amount of information available in digital format is enormous and growing daily. For example, although the Web is about 10 years old, its size is approximately 50 times as larger than all the texts collected in the library of congress. About seven million new Web pages are added each day, and millions of Web pages also disappear at the same time (Building a National Strategy, 2002). Use of the Internet has grown enormously because of technical advances and because of its ease of access and speed.

One of the most attractive features of digital information is that it can be copied indefinitely. Digital information can be copied repeatedly without loss of quality. A copy of a copy of a copy of a digital record will be identical to the original. Unlike analog data, there is no degradation from making copies of copies. For example, a 3rd generation copy of a VHS tape will be noticeably different from the original. However, there will be no noticeable difference in a 3rd generation copy of a DVD.

The advantages of digital media in terms of size, accessibility, speed of access and ability to copy without degradation makes it extremely

cont.

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Digital Archives - cont.

appealing for archiving. However, there are significant drawbacks to consider. The two most significant problems with digital archives are media deterioration and technological obsolescence.

Digital media is very fragile. It can be easily damaged from improper handling or care. For example, dropping a book on the floor will likely cause no damage to the book. Dropping a hard drive on the floor can cause a complete loss of data.

Even when the best of care is provided, digital media will not last indefinitely. For example, the life expectancy of a recordable DVD (DVD-R) is only 30 years. This is assuming it is kept out of the light and stored at 77 degrees with 50% relative humidity (Byers, 2003). The life expectancy of CD or DVD is dependent on how they are cared for and the environmental conditions in which they are exposed over time. The disks contain an aluminum layer which degrades when exposed to oxygen or moisture. Oxygen and moisture can easily penetrate the polycarbonate outer layer of the disk. Over time, the shiny aluminum will lose its reflectivity, resulting in a degradation of data (Byers, 2003).

Light can also damage recordable CD and DVD media. Exposing recordable discs to prolonged sunlight or other sources of ultraviolet light can increase the degradation rate of the recordable layer of the disks (Byers, 2003). Over time, although the disk will still appear normal, the recordable layer will lose its ability to reflect light. This will result in read errors or data loss when a laser is used to read the media.

Non-recordable CD and DVD media are much more durable than recordable CD-R or DVD-R disks. CD-ROMs are typically sold in retail stores for music and DVD-ROMS are generally used for movies. They are sold prerecorded and cannot be used to store data other than what is already recorded on them.

Digital information stored on a computer hard drives or tape is also subject to deterioration over time. Tapes are even more fragile than CD or DVD media. Both magnetic and optical media are extremely fragile and subject to data loss. Regardless of whatever type of media is used, hardware must also be available to play the media. The problem of technical obsolescence must be seriously considered. It doesn't do any good to have the media preserved if the hardware is no longer available to access the data.

The rapid change and obsolescence of numerous media formats make it difficult to select the best media to use to archive data. Since 1987, more than 17 digital video tape formats have been marketed (Building a National Strategy, 2002). Since 1960, more than 200 forms of digital storage formats have been marketed, and no single format has lasted for more than ten years (Building a National Strategy, 2002).

Different forms of storage media are machine dependent and may quickly become obsolete (Digital Preservation, 2005). A good example is the obsolescence of the Betamax video recorder. If a library were donated a large collection of Betamax movies, it would be extremely difficult to obtain a Betamax VCR to play the movies. Another example is the 8 inch and 5 inch flexible data disks that were once commonly used to store computer files. Computers today can no longer read these disks. Even if the data were migrated to a 3.5 inch disk or CD-R, it would be unlikely that the operating system in a modern computer could access and use the data. The

operating systems in personal computers have evolved making it difficult or impossible to use the data.

Migrating digital data from obsolete media to a new form of media may or may not prove successful because of changing computer operating systems. Therefore, it may be necessary to archive computer hardware used to read digital media. This presents additional problems in terms of storage and maintenance costs.

The use of emulation software, as well as converting between digital formats and media, may resolve some of the difficulties that result from technological obsolescence. However, this process comes with its own set of problems and increases overall costs. For example, emulation software is operating system dependent, and can easily become obsolete and unusable in newer operating systems. Converting between digital formats can result in information loss and can change the appearance of the media. Although emulation and digital conversion between formats may be useful in some cases, in many cases it doesn't offer a practical long term solution.

Finally, legal issues must be carefully evaluated before a librarian begins making a digital archive. Digital preservation of media has much wider legal implications than non-digital reproduction of print media. For example, although in many circumstances it may be legal for a library to photocopy a book, it often isn't legal to scan the same book onto a computer. Even in limited circumstances where a library can legally archive in digital format a piece of published or unpublished work, in many circumstances it would still not be legal to make it available outside the library.

A library is legally permitted by law to make up to three copies of a published work in their collection to replace an item that is deteriorating, damaged, or lost (Besek, 2003). When a library owns a copy of a book or other print media, the library gains specific legal rights to duplicate the material under specific circumstances. However, the same rights do not apply to digital material such as subscriptions to e-journals or DVD movies (Flecker, 2003). Licensing agreements determine what legally can or cannot be done with the material and how it may be used. Specific legal protections are given to copyright holders of digital material through The Digital Millennium Copyright Act (DMCA) which went into effect in October 2000.

Despite the many legal restrictions, there are many things a librarian may choose to include in a digital archive. Frequently, a library has many pieces of media where copyright issues are not a concern. For example, a small school library may want to digitally archive samples of student artwork, recordings of student plays or performances, and student work samples. Home videos of special ceremonies or local events may have historic local value to a small library. The archive can be made available over a local network or over the Internet. There are numerous examples of items that a large or small library may have that can be digitally archived where copyright issues do not apply.

In conclusion, a librarian must carefully consider what can and cannot be digitally archived. Copyrights must be carefully evaluated. There are also many things a librarian can digitally archive where copyrights are not an issue. Creating a digital archive has many advantages, but long term storage of digital data presents many technological challenges.

Digital Archives - cont.

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The Idaho State Library – 1901 to 2005

RICHARD A. WILSON

The Idaho State Library was established by the 1901 Legislature at the behest of the women of the Boise Columbian Club. The two-fold statutory charge of the State Library was to provide reading materials to Idaho citizens via a traveling library and to assist in the establishment and improvement of free public and school libraries throughout the state. Between 1901 and 1956, the Legislature appropriated a total of \$393,770 from the state general fund to support the efforts of the State Library to deliver, foster and promote library services in Idaho. During this era, Margaret S. Roberts served as State Librarian for 27 years under four separate appointments by the State Library Commission. Her first concern was the survival of the State Library. Working through her network of women's organizations and Republican Party contacts, she was successful in maintaining the State Library as a state entity. Next, she focused her efforts toward working with limited staff and fiscal support to build the traveling library and to deliver good reading material to Idaho citizens. Margaret Roberts was successful in providing books to almost every community in Idaho through the traveling library and the direct loan program.

The State Library began as a collection of books that were shipped in crates to local library stations. The library stations circulated the books to readers within their communities. The State Library collection was a representative public library collection with a heavy emphasis on juvenile literature. As locally-funded public libraries were created, the State Library provided books to supplement their local collections. The State Library also attempted to reach out to the schools with the traveling collections and provided direct loan services to Idahoans not living within a local library jurisdiction.

The major exception during the 1901 to 1956 era was Lalla Bedford's tenure as State Librarian from 1933 to 1939. Lalla Bedford saw the State Library as more than a passive provider of books. She voiced strong opinions about bringing more professionalism to Idaho's libraries. Among her many accomplishments, Lalla Bedford established training programs for both the State Library staff and public library employees throughout the state to increase their knowledge of and skills in professional library practices. She was the first State Librarian to fully organize the State Library's collection, using the Dewey Decimal system, and to provide a card catalog. Lalla Bedford pushed for a library development plan for Idaho and successfully got the plan endorsed by the Idaho State Library Association, by a number of statewide civic organizations, and by the Republican and Democratic Parties in 1935. Lalla Bedford established the philosophical and working bases for the State Library's unique role among Idaho's libraries. Her blueprint for library development was subsequently used to build State Library programs and services into the 21st century.

The turning point into the next era of development for the State Library was the receipt of federal funds under the Library Services Act in 1957. Governor Robert E. Smylie supported the State Library Board's efforts to extend and expand library services to rural Idahoans through participation in the Library Services Act. The Governor and Legislature provided a 76.4% increase in the general fund biennial budget between 1955 and 1959 (an increase from \$29,500 to \$125,000) to provide the match necessary to receive Library Services Act funds.

The Legislature appropriated at total of \$55,576,300 from the state general fund between 1957 and 2004 for the State Library. The State Library received awards totaling \$25,922,842 under the various iterations of the Library Services Act between 1957 and 2004. Even accounting for inflation, it is apparent that the advent of federal funds provided the resources for the State Library to begin an era of growth and expansion. The library development programs outlined by Lalla Bedford in the 1930s and

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Sometimes the stars need a nudge to align. That nudge is advocacy. The restoration of the Port Townsend, Washington School District #50 school library media specialist position proves the point.

Advocacy Works: A Case in Point

PATIENCE ROGGE

In late April 2005, a small item in the Port Townsend *Leader* caught the attention of Patience Rogge, former Washington Library Association (WLA) representative to the board of the Pacific Northwest Library Association (PNLA). The article stated that four citizens had spoken at a school board meeting decrying the elimination of the last remaining school librarian position in the district. Rogge checked the school board minutes on line and could find no mention of how this decision was taken. She then wrote a letter to the editor based on the December 2003 WLA Board resolution in support of school libraries and librarians, which she had introduced at PNLA's behest.

The letter emphasized the importance of retaining a certified library media specialist and asking other interested citizens to contact the school board with their concerns. She emailed Jennifer Maydole and Kay Evey of the Washington Library Media Association, asking for information on the newly revised Washington Administrative Code (WAC) standards pertaining to school libraries and the pertinent section of the Revised Code of Washington (RCW).

Rogge sent a version of this letter to the school board, and gave William Maxwell of the Port Townsend Library Board copies of the WAC and RCW, which he brought before his board. The PTL board drafted a letter to be sent to the school board and the newspaper after approval by City Manager David Timmons. Meanwhile, letters from library supporters began to appear in the *Leader*, emphasizing the importance of a certified librarian to students' progress.

To keep the issue on the school board and administration's radar screen, Rogge wrote a request to examine the records on this matter, citing Washington's Public Disclosure Act. Examination of the records showed that this decision was the work of the administration, and that the school board had simply rubber stamped the personnel schedule for the 2005-06 school year. No vote had been taken on this specific position.

At this point, the stars began to align. The Superintendent of Schools retired, and the school board hired Tom Opstad, former superintendent of Lynden, WA schools to replace her on July 1. Opstad was auditing a distance learning program from Mansfield University on the subject of school libraries and was familiar with the research conducted by Keith Curry Lance on the relation of student achievement to the presence of a school library staffed by a certified media specialist. He had requested further information from the Lynden Library branch manager, and received a stack of material to peruse.

Rogge met with Opstad to discuss the situation, and then followed up the meeting with a thank-you note and another letter to the editor noting Opstad's thoughtful concern and urging supporters to keep up their interest.

In August, Beverly Goldberg of *American Libraries* interviewed Rogge by phone about her effort. A portion of the interview appeared in the September issue of the American Library Association's journal as part of the lead article on nationwide campaigns in support of school libraries and librarians.

Rogge learned that the school board was planning a retreat later that month, she phoned a member of the school board who assured her that "they are working on it." To emphasize the importance of restoring the position, Rogge sent another letter to the school board citing the Northwest Association of Accredited Schools Standard IV, which requires the employment of library media specialists in schools with enrollment of 500 or more students.

When Rogge returned from vacation in October, she received an email from Jody Glaubman, former Port Townsend Library trustee who had been among the citizens who had spoken to the school board in April. The email stated that Sup. Opstad had rehired Mary Stolaas, the library media specialist whose position had previously been eliminated.

At a follow-up meeting, Sup Opstad explained that enrollment had exceeded the numbers projected in the budget, so funds were available

Patience Rogge served as Washington Library Association representative to the PNLA Board from 2003 to 2005. She was a member of the Jefferson County (WA) Rural Library District Board of Trustees from 1994 to 2005, and has chaired the Grassroots! Interest Group of WLA and Washington Library Friends, Foundations and Trustees Association. She currently represents WLA on the board of the Washington Coalition for Open Government, and was named to the American Library Trustees and Advocates Honor Roll in June 2005. She holds an MLS from the University of California Berkeley and has worked in academic, school and public libraries in Delaware, California and Saudi Arabia.

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Collection Development Policies for Small Libraries

ROSE ANJEJO

What is a Collection Development Policy?

The American Library Association (ALA, Guide for written collection policy statements 1987:15) defines collection development policies as, "documents which define the scope of a library's existing collections, plan for the continuing development of resources, identify collection strengths, and outline the relationship between selection philosophy and the institution's goals, general selection criteria, and intellectual freedom".

Vogel (1996:65) sees them as sets of "directions for the orderly selection, acquisition, and management of the materials librarians make available to their patrons". Collection Development Policies are also defined as "guidelines for decisions on the selection and retention of materials in specific subjects, to specific levels of collection depth and breadth" (Vogel 1996:65). Clayton (1993:1) sees a collection development policy as a "statement of general collection building principles that delineates the purpose and content of a collection in terms relevant to both external and internal audiences".

It can therefore be said that collection development policy (CDP) is a written statement of your library's intentions for building its collection. It describes the collection's strengths and weaknesses and provides guidelines for your staff. Producing one is a commitment; it takes time and careful consideration to develop a useful and relevant document. Once you have completed the document and your Library Board has approved it, it is a good idea to put your collection development policy on the World Wide Web as an example for other librarians so that it is available beyond your local community. A collection development policy should be a living document, adaptable to change and growth. It provides guidelines that can be modified, as your library's collection needs change (Collection Development Training for Arizona Public Libraries p.1).

Why Should a Library Have a Collection Development Policy?

Cassery and Hegg (1993:252) surveyed academic libraries in the United States and found that 71.6% of those responding have written CDPs. Snow (1996) is a vociferous opponent of CDPs, concluding that written CDPs are just wasted words. Snow asserts that a CDP must be founded in a continuous evaluation of the library's collection and this process is difficult and confusing. Other weaknesses are the inflexibility of the CDP and its failure to adapt to changes in the parent institution. Moreover, revision of the policy is time-consuming and never-ending, albeit essential. Snow also believes that CDPs have no value for resource sharing in consortia, because each library needs immediate access to certain items and therefore tends to develop its own library collection, not a communal collection (Snow 1996:193).

Having worked for many years in a library that lacks a CDP, the author has encountered several problems that occur when material is purchased without guidance from a policy. When confronted by an irate lecturer or librarian, it is impossible to rationalize why some material is purchased while other material is rejected. Faculty and administrators may demand that the library purchase items which serve the needs of only one or two users, and sometimes expect such material to be housed in their own offices permanently. The collection developed rapidly in the subject areas of enthusiastic and pushy faculty members and staff, while the more submissive group failed to keep up with advances in the field or with changes in user needs. As a result, the collection did not develop in a rational, orderly way, which has led to frustration and even anger when users realize that their subject fields appear to have been ignored. During an accreditation visit, it was discovered that in one subject field only six items had been purchased over the course of many years.

Sometimes there is confusion about who is actually responsible for selecting items to ensure a balanced and current collection, with both teaching faculty and librarians waiting for each to perform better. In the current situation where material is often available in several formats and where decisions have to be made regarding periodical subscriptions or

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subscriptions to electronic resources, the decision-making process is even more complex. The need for a CDP becomes more pressing as libraries move towards access to electronic media instead of ownership of print items.

The main reasons for having a written CDP are these:

Planning

The CDP is an important planning document for the library. Reduction in funding is a universal phenomenon, and funds must be spent with more care. Added to this problem is the rapid inflation in the price per item, and especially for electronic resources. The confusing array of formats exacerbates the problem. A policy with clear and simple guidelines benefits bibliographers and leads to them making more consistent and informed decisions (Johnson 1997:83). White and Crawford (1997: 55) advocate the use of a CDP, particularly with regard to electronic resources, in order to "guide us in our decisions, to address faculty/student needs and concerns, and to help us plan for future changes." Intner (1996:10) also sees the CDP as a valuable planning tool without which there will be a mismatch between the materials and user needs.

Selection

Selection is complex and many bibliographers approach the task with little or no training or guidance. This can lead to haphazard growth of the collection, which will eventually stop supporting the mission of the library (Vogel 1996:65). Over- and under selection of material can lead to a library collection which does not meet the needs of users (Carrigan 1996:274). On average, it has been found that 80% of the circulation needs in a library are satisfied by about 20% of the library's collection (Carrigan 1996:275). A good CDP can be used as a training document for bibliographers. This could result in more consistency in selection and management of the collection and could foster shared values among the selectors (Johnson 1997:85).

Protection

A CDP protects the library and bibliographers by providing them with a firm framework in which to make decisions. Hazen (1995:29) maintains that these policies "keep us out of trouble with our users." Bibliographers can be subjected to unethical and unreasonable pressures regarding certain material. Groups might strive to impose their ideologies on the library through pressure to purchase or to censor certain material. Patrons can be unreasonable when their gifts to the library are not accepted. Weeding is also sometimes a bone of contention (Johnson 1997:88). The CDP can be used to justify all these practices. Not only will the CDP provide protection to the library, but it could also be used as a tool to communicate the collection development plan to outside bodies and can be used to get additional funding (Vogel 1996: 67). It is a good idea to disseminate the completed policy as widely as possible to inform others about decisions contained in it.

Decision-making

The proliferation of electronic formats has made the task of selection even more complex than in the past. A selection tool for Internet resources and expensive online databases would be very valuable to selectors and bibliographers. It would be naive to see the CDP as a panacea; however, having guidelines criteria carries benefits and provides guidance to anyone who is involved in collection development.

Use in a wider context

Individual libraries are increasingly forming cooperatives, alliances, and consortia. For these ventures to work, there

must be agreement on shared collection building. A written CDP serves as a basis for wider cooperation and resource sharing, locally, regionally, nationally, or even internationally. (IFLANET International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions 2001 pp. 1-2).

Arguments against a CDP

Why do many libraries fail to formulate or update a collection development policy? One reason is that a good policy requires a lot of data. It is necessary to know the strengths and weaknesses of your collection, the community you are serving and how it is changing, other resources available to your patrons locally, or accessible through interlibrary loan.

CDPs require a great deal of thought. A policy must change to reflect the changing community. Some librarians may feel it is not worth the trouble: as soon as the plan is on paper, the situation changes so much the plan is not of date. Of course, after the library completes the basic work and writes the policy, updating the policy is not a monumental problem. Updating does take time, but if it is done annually, it is almost painless (Evan 1995 p.79).

Elements of the Collection Development Policy

Community Profile

Many policies start with a brief descriptive community profile that identifies general characteristics of the community the library serves, the library service area, or the library's general goals or mission.

Community Needs Assessment

Following the community profile, there is often a needs assessment of your community. This gives a more detailed understanding of your community, focusing on descriptions of the services offered by your library and how they relate to the needs of your community. Formal needs assessments require learning about the people in your community by conducting research, e.g., through surveys or reviewing demographic data and trends.

Collection Goals

Collection goals represent library's priorities for various aspects of the collection. Many policies address the library's collection goals by collection category, for example; Adult Fiction, Adult Non-Fiction, Children's Books, Reference Materials, Periodicals, Non- Book Materials, Large Print, Spanish Collection, Paperbacks, Vertical files, etc.

Selection Responsibility

If there is more than one staff member at your library, you must decide who will be in charge of selection. Sharing this responsibility may help avoid biases and allow discussion, but this may not be possible. With only one staff member, a community panel could be organized to help determine what to select or discard.

Selection Criteria

Collection development policies typically include a description of the criteria used to make selection decisions within specific subject areas, including the preferred formats. It is important to identify the selection criteria for books, media, periodicals, electronic resources, and Internet resources.

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Collection Development Policies for Small Libraries - cont.

Some statements are commonly seen in collection development policies, depending on the library's selection criteria

- The library will collect non-fiction in all subject areas, including opposing viewpoints.
- The majority of best-selling fiction materials will be purchased during the extent of their popularity.
- The selectors will acquire only those items favorably reviewed in two or more selection aids.
- The library will not select items that contain violent or sensational material.
- The library will only select items that reflect the needs of our community.

Acquisitions

The policy should describe your acquisitions procedures and include a statement on how you handle gifts. For example:

Gifts of books and other materials are accepted with the understanding that the library may make whatever use of the material it feels appropriate. The same criteria are used for gifts as for collection development. Items not needed in the collection will be sold and the proceeds given to the friends of the library.

Collection Evaluation and Assessment

The collection needs continuous evaluation. Statistical tools such as circulation reports, collection turnover rates, fill rates, reference fill rates, shelf allotments, and volume counts are studied to determine how the collection is being used and how it should change to answer patron usage. Patron input and community surveys are also used in evaluating the collection.

Weeding

It is a good idea to include weeding guidelines and criteria in the CDP. This protects your library from some questions that the community may have as you discard or remove books from the shelves. Your weeding policy can be a fairly simple statement as: "As materials become worn, dated, damaged or lost, replacement will be determined by the appropriate staff members, who will determine whether or not:

- A. The item is still available and can be replaced
- B. Another item or format might better serve the same purpose
- C. Their remains sufficient need to replace that item;
- D. Updated, newer or revised materials better replace a given item;
- E. The item has historical value
- F. Another networking agency could better provide that or a comparable item."

Reconsideration of Library Materials

Collection development policies often includes a section on patron requests for reconsidering library materials (often called "challenges"). Having a clearly written policy before facing a challenge ensures that the situation will be handled properly. Many libraries also include a statement saying that they endorse ALA's Library Bill of Rights.

Policy Review and Revision

When the policy is finished, it needs approval from local officials. Their approval gives the right to maintain the stan-

dards set out in the document. Should situations arise that because discontent, the library should find support from its governing body if the procedures in the policy have been followed. The policy should be renewed and revised on a regular basis to keep up with changes in the community. A statement in the policy should be included, which provides an idea of how often this may occur (ALA, 1996 pp.6-7).

What Should Be Included in a CDP?

It is difficult to be prescriptive regarding the contents of the policy as the environment of each library is unique. The library's mission, subject coverage and user population largely dictate what should be included in the CDP. There is even some speculation as to whether there should be one comprehensive policy or a collection of separate policies for different formats (White & Crawford 1997:54). Certain issues are usually considered for inclusion in collection development policies.

These include the following:

The mission and goals of the library and the parent institution are usually part of the policy's introduction. Intner (1996:10) sees the translation of the mission and goals of the institution and the needs of its users into a set of long-range collection goals and objectives as the most important feature of a real CDP. In her view, this leads to all other aspects of collection development like allocations from the budget, target collecting levels and also the selection of individual titles. It is also useful to include the purpose of the CDP in the introduction. This includes intended users or readership of the policy, how it is to be used, and what authority the policy carries (Clayton 1993:1).

The composition and nature of the user community or clientele is also important. Clayton (1993:1) suggests that unusual and unexpected features of the user group served be referred to, as well as specific needs and possible differential treatment of certain classes of users. It is particularly important to explain how much and what level of research do users undertake as this is of crucial importance in selection of material and in development of the collection.

An evaluation of the collection -- past, present and future -- is important. This section could include the background or history of the collection, and what strengths and gaps are encountered (Johnson 1997:84). One could include an overview of the categories of materials that make up the collection such as monographs, journals, electronic media and audiovisual material and any distinguishing features of the collection. The desired levels of collection depth and breadth should be given as well, to provide a meaningful planning document for the library. This section is usually subject-area specific and will be dealt with in more detail further on.

It would be valuable to include a section clarifying what access is provided to the collection. To access electronic media some kind of hardware is always required. The type, availability and limitations of user access would have a definite influence on the choice of format, which should be preferred when making decisions in collection development. In many cases, some or all categories of users are denied direct access to electronic resources. Increasingly, resources are shared amongst members of consortia, which mean that although the resources of the consortium are available to all members, the access is not immediate. The holdings of the consortium's

Collection Development Policies for Small Libraries - cont.

joint catalogues are virtually also those of a particular member library and the relationship should be explained in a CDP. Johnson (1997:85) suggests that all co-operative programs in which the library is involved be explicitly stated in the CDP. Interlibrary loan and electronic data transfer might also need to be considered as additions to the collection. Clayton (1993:2) suggests that one include possible restrictions to interlibrary loans requests and remote access to electronic media in the CDP. It is also possible to include hot links (hypertext links to Internet web sites) to curriculum-related sites available on the Internet on the library's OPACs as an additional means of providing access to information and responsibility for this could be spelt out in the policy.

It is common practice to include information on how funds are allocated. Many libraries have separate budgets for different types of media, such as monographs, serials, electronic media and audiovisual media. Another consideration is how the budget could be divided between the subject areas covered, and the departments at the institution. The way in which funds are to be allocated should be specified to help bibliographers in their selection activities and also to explain to outside parties how funds are spent. Clayton (1993:2) suggests that the expected ratio between expenditure on serials and on monographs should be included. This ratio should also include the proportion of the budget to be spent on electronic media and databases.

Clear selection guidelines are an important part of any good CDP. The following is a list of some criteria, which have proven useful in the selection of all formats of material.

- Relevance and use -- is the material relevant to the curricular requirements of the institution? (White & Crawford 1997:56). Will several departments use the source? How large is the potential use of the source? In determining relevance, it is essential to have a clear understanding of the user population of the library.
- Redundancy -- is the material or similar material available in another format in the library (White & Crawford 1997:56) or is it already in the collection of a nearby library or other members of the consortium to which the library belongs?
- Relationship to the existing collection -- does the item complete, supplement, duplicate or supplant items already in the collection? (Oise/UT ... 1995:3) What other materials are available on that subject? Does that item fill a gap in the collection, or is it merely a rehash of information already available?
- How authoritative is the author, the issuing body, or the publisher?
- Suitability of the subject and style -- is the desired level of coverage attained? Is the style appropriate for study and research at the level for which the item is intended? (Oise/UT ... 1995:3)
- The cost of the item -- does the item merit its cost and what is the cost difference between the different formats in which the item is available? Is it possible to acquire information of the same standard and coverage more reasonably?
- Is the information accurate and impartial?
- Is the item recent? This is particularly important when the material covers the applied sciences, technology and computer science, which are constantly progressing.
- Presentation -- is the information presented in an accurate, clear, logical manner? Does it adhere

to high standards with regard to format, content and literary merit? Does it have aesthetic appeal? Are figures and illustrations adequate?

- In the case of periodicals, is the item indexed in major indexing and abstracting journals and databases?
- Are there any features, which make the item unique? Is the approach to the subject matter original? Do the illustrations have particular merit? What makes the item under consideration more valuable than other similar items?
- Language -- what is the language in which the item is written? Will the users be able to understand the text? Is the language of a standard appropriate to the education level of potential users?
- Is the item listed in standard guides? (Reinert/ Alumni ... 1996:6)
- Timeliness -- is the material appropriate for the present time, is the information current and does the item fit in with the climate of the times? Van Zijl 1998:99)

How to Write a Collection Development Policy

According to Van Zijl (1998: 99) writing a policy is time-consuming and requires a lot of consultation and referrals. There are other rural public librarians who are either going through the process or have just completed it. Contact these people through library listservs or other channels, to ask for advice and encouragement. In addition, here are some guidelines you might find useful to help you get started writing a policy.

Determine who will write the policy: Collection development policies may be written by committees in larger libraries. No matter who writes the policy, outside input should be solicited during the writing process to make sure that the policy reflects the collection goals of the library and the community.

Gather data: Pull together all of the data you can about your community, focusing on their information needs. It is also important to have a clear understanding of your collection's strengths and weaknesses.

Write the policy: Address the relevant components of the collection development policy. Think carefully about the statements presented in the policy and how your library constituents will perceive them. The CDP can be a public relations tool for your library, as well as your protection against questions about library's collection practices.

Get the policy approved: Once your policy is complete and thoroughly revised and edited, it is time to get it approved by your local officials, so you can be sure of their backing in times of controversy.

Revise your policy: It is critical to review your policy on a regular basis to make sure it reflects current practices and procedures in your library. (Collection Development Training for Arizona Public Libraries pp.6-8 & Woods 1995 pp. 16 -24).

Collection development is a complex process that is subjective and rife with problems and traps for the unwary. A comprehensive written policy developed with the advice and involvement of all parties concerned, helps regulate the process. A written CDP is helpful for the effective and efficient running of the library.

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Collection Development Policies for Small Libraries - cont.

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Do People Want To Jump the Digital Divide? Exploring Digital Strategies - cont.

The 3 C's

A hallmark of the New Zealand strategy is that it does not view the digital divide as a gap merely bridged by enough broadband, wireless, or fiber networks. One of the most attractive things about the *Digital strategy* is its interlinking of what are termed the 3 C's: Connection, Content, and Confidence. Although each of these pieces should be obvious to any librarian, they are all too often pulled apart and do not appear in a single, coherent plan. *Connection* is the basic infrastructure needed for the rest to follow, whether it is open-access fiber networks, high-speed networks, or general communications. New Zealand's targeted goals include supporting open access fiber networks in a minimum of fifteen cities and towns, and to have a fast connection for all public institutions, including libraries, hospitals, schools, and town councils. In addition, under consideration for rural areas are community access centers, senior centers, and tax credits for the purchase of home computers.

In the *Content* piece of the strategy, the National Library of New Zealand and the Ministry for Culture and Heritage are the lead institutions. Immediate goals include development and launching of a National Content Strategy and development of an online Cultural Portal. The Cultural Portal will begin with an online presence for the cultural sector, starting with an events portal. Another goal after the planning phase is to digitize existing content and then to develop new content through a Community Partnership Fund. Work towards another goal has already started with the implementation of a National Digital Heritage Archive. This includes *Te Ara - The Encyclopedia of New Zealand* and the Maori Language Information Program. An early version of the encyclopedia with interlinking text and images can be viewed online. It will be a comprehensive guide to the New Zealand environment, history, culture, economics, and government. *Te Ara* is also a bilingual encyclopedia with easy toggling between English and Maori.

The third C, *Confidence*, will be led by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Economic Development. Initiatives under this rubric include extensive ICT training programs, a national computer security education campaign (for both home users and businesses), cyber safety courses with a national toll-free hotline, and anti-spam legislation. Overall, the goal is "to provide all New Zealanders with the digital skills and confidence to find and use the information they need; and to ensure that telecommunications and the Internet in New Zealand are reliable and secure." (Digital Strategy, p. 5).

What We Have in the West

From my perspective, we have a number of initiatives in the United States that are addressing digitization from various angles. Although more of an operational plan, the U. S. Government Printing Office (GPO) in its *Strategic Vision for the 21st Century* deals with the production, reliability, and management of electronic resources, as well as its availability to its citizenry. Since 1998, the Institute of Museum and Library Services (IMLS) has been granting money for libraries and museums to plan and digitize information. The National Science Foundation (NSF) as well has been a lead agency in digitization efforts. Although each of these national efforts has involved states, none has mandated that a state have a comprehensive plan, or even a ranked list for digitization efforts. Thus, although much is being accomplished, there appears to be a lack of overall coordination or a comprehensive strategy.

On a state level, Montana, like others in the region, has a State Library and a separate Information Technology Services Division. The Montana State Library and other Montana institutions have been involved in digitization efforts, as well as the education and training of the public through LSTA and other funds. The Technology Services division has put together a plan for the connectivity piece in its biennial report, focusing on reliable broadband, e-government for cost savings, and a vision of government online permits and forms (Montana ITSD, 2004). Additionally, the Montana Department of Commerce recognizes the benefits of Internet access and its importance to the economy.

I believe that Montana is typical in our region, in that no one appears to have a comprehensive, inter-agency plan for digitization, which encompasses content, connectivity, and training. Research into PNLA states and provinces shows much the same pattern as Montana, with large connectivity plans, such as Alberta's SuperNet or British Columbia's Network BC. Alaska's LSTA plan, revised in July 2005, attempts to link a few of the strategies, most notably services and connectivity. Planning for digitization and resource development remain separate from the larger connectivity plans and usually reside within the state library. The extensive Washington State Digital Library Resources homepage is a wonderful example. However, it does appear that for all the digitization efforts in libraries, other important factors, such as connectivity and training, usually remain outside of the purview of the library or as a separate program without an overall statewide plan for digitization.

Do People Want To Jump the Digital Divide?

Perhaps the most intriguing question asked in New Zealand was in a postal survey commissioned by the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (Botha, 2001), which helped to set the stage for the digital plan. After Botha queried rural residents about their connectivity and the affordability of Internet access, he posed several questions to surface other possible barriers to users. Concerns over confidentiality of personal information on the Internet, as well as unsuitable content on the Internet were key factors in not connecting to the Internet. Indeed, over 75% of the nationwide sampled population expressed concern over these two potential barriers. Additionally, he also registered interest to a list of items including email, online education, news, e-business/commerce, e-government, and entertainment. After e-mail, online education was the top ranked category, followed by e-business (farm, professional services, banking) and information (government, business, health, and technical). Quality online Internet information was a clear two-to-one preference over other survey options such as entertainment or searching for a job on the Internet. Unconnected users were cautious about the Internet, but perceptive enough to know what would be useful information to them.

No one really knows if solid, relevant content on the Internet would cause someone to go online. In my own research, I believe that there is ample anecdotal evidence that good content can make that difference. In my work on evaluating the Montana Natural Resource and Information System (NRIS), users showed a clear idea of what they wanted--accurate, current, and unbiased information relevant to Montana. Popular databases from NRIS include topographic maps, water information, field guides to plants and animals, and fisheries information. Although these users were already online, they asked for very specific items on a wish list, such

Do People Want To Jump the Digital Divide? Exploring Digital Strategies - cont.

as satellite imagery, mineral rights data, floodplain maps, and soils information.

As was done in New Zealand, it would be interesting to survey our Montana citizens about why they are not on the Internet. In our zeal to connect the state with fiber (an achievable and measurable outcome), perhaps we have forgotten to ask people if they want to connect to the Internet, and if not, why not. In my research on evaluation of digital collections, one is really asking people after the fact. Connected users will have clear opinions of what is and is not working. However, I believe that one should also consider those that are not connected and only reachable by rural postal service. What content do they want developed? Is there content that if developed might even spur on their connectivity? I believe we owe it to those citizens to reach out before the digital divide widens in our rural areas.

Furthermore, I think the library community already has some indication of what that content might look like. I know that at my university library, the Montana newspaper index we have developed and put online is always among the top in MSU statistics for Internet use. Similarly, the local image database MSU developed, *Indian Peoples of the Northern Great Plains*, is also popular. I expect that an online encyclopedia of Montana would also be well used by many. Nevertheless, we should be asking our citizens about their online needs and wishes.

Conclusion

In 2006, I hope to answer at least three key questions. First, is the integrated, interagency model working in New Zealand? What have been the successes and the problems? If it is being effectively implemented, could it serve as a useful model for a rural Western state like Montana? Is a key element the linkage of the digital strategy to an economic strategy for the entire country? And, can an economic competitive edge be established by Internet connectivity and ICT training.

Second, do people want to jump the digital divide? New Zealand asked its citizens and received a resounding yes. For Montanans, I believe that the answer is also, yes, if they can be *Connected* (have computer access and a reliable Internet connection), if they are *Confident* (trained), and if they have *Content* that is compelling. However, we still should ask. Key issues of security and content on the Internet surfaced in the New Zealand user survey. I hope to undertake a similar rural survey in Montana to uncover factors of Internet non-use, as well as the issue of compelling content. Even as technology gains are made, one must be aware of the persistence of a digital divide between rural and urban populations.

Finally, how can statewide digital projects get prioritized? Past digitization endeavors have been marked primarily by individual efforts and been devoid of an overarching plan.

How did an integrated approach get hammered out in New Zealand, which apparently had disparate projects before the national plan was outlined? How is it possible to prioritize and coordinate projects to achieve a coherent, comprehensive product such as an encyclopedia? Perhaps libraries should be part of a statewide plan before embarking on digitization projects (similar to how Montana requests a current Collection Development policy from a library before releasing funds).

The New Zealand plan is an interesting one to ponder, especially as we try to peer into our digital future. We and New Zealanders are similar in too many ways to ignore their pioneering efforts for a 21st century digital world available to all citizens.

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The Idaho State Library – 1901 to 2005 - cont.

refined by other Idaho librarians in the 1940s and 1950s were financed with the influx of federal funds and the increases to the State Library's general fund budget. The State Librarians between 1957 and 1961, Eugene Hart and Henry Drennan, provided leadership and direction to the State Library Board in establishing the requisite plans, securing authorizations, and completing paperwork to make the State Library eligible to receive and expend funds under the Library Services Act.

Helen Miller, State Librarian from 1962 to 1980, used the increased funding and variety of initiatives from the Library Services and Construction Act to provide the impetus for the State Library to expand programs and services. In recognition of the sparse population, large geographic area, and low tax base in Idaho, the Baillie plan of 1963, like Lalla Bedford's plan of 1935, suggested that the path to strong library services for every citizen in Idaho was to build regional libraries. The State Library directed resources into creating six regional libraries to anchor the public library system in Idaho. The juvenile and adult fiction materials in the State Library's collection were distributed to the regional libraries to increase use by public libraries. This decision also decreased the State Library's role as a public library to Idaho citizens. The six regional headquarters, working with the State Library, provided the other public libraries in the state with access to professional library staff, increased opportunities to attend continuing education events and network with peers, and larger and more diverse collections of library materials to supplement local holdings. The school libraries were encouraged to route requests for materials through their local public library to increase the cooperation and sharing of local resources. The State Library eliminated direct loans from the general collection to patrons to encourage them to create local library districts and/or to support their existing public library.

The State Library, after relocating in the Capitol Mall complex in 1970, began to pursue a more active role as the library for state government. Reference services, films, videos, books, and magazines were acquired to meet the information needs of government employees. The State Library served as the depository library for Idaho state government publications.

Under Helen Miller's leadership, the State Library established or expanded partnerships with other organizations to promote and develop library services to Idahoans. The State Library affiliated with the hospital libraries and medical profession to establish the Health Information Retrieval Center. The State Library cooperated with the State Historical Society to locate and microfilm the back issues of almost every newspaper published in Idaho. The State Library worked with the National Library Service for the Blind and Physically Handicapped of the Library of Congress, the Idaho Commission for

the Blind, the National Federation of the Blind, KBOI-radio in Boise, and the Lion's Clubs of Idaho to improve library services to patrons with print impairments. The State Library joined other with State-supported institutions to provide services to inmates and patients, and with the Indian Nations to improve library services on the reservations. The State Library had every finger in a pie as it stretched to address the library and information needs of every Idahoan.

When Charles Bolles became State Librarian in September of 1980, he was immediately faced with decreasing resources, the high expectations of stakeholders and user groups that their program would be protected, and greater scrutiny and intervention from state and federal officials. Over the next 18 years, the State Library experimented with variations of the mission to foster, promote, and deliver library services in Idaho. The Library Development Division focused on fostering and promoting services—primarily through consulting, teaching, and grant awards to local libraries. The Information Services Division focused on delivering services—primarily to government employees and citizens with print impairments.

Following the terrorist attacks on the United States of September 11, 2001, and the sharp downturn in the economy, it became increasingly apparent to the State Library Board of Trustees that systemic changes would be required to survive as a viable state agency. Governor Dirk Kempthorne's staff advised state agencies to conduct thorough reviews of all programs and services. Faced with severe revenue shortfalls, other states were suggesting draconian measures to balance budgets. Florida, Washington, and Minnesota suggested closing their state library agencies.

The Idaho State Library tested every program and service against a single question—what do we do that is unique? Faced with a 20.71% budget reduction in fiscal year 2002, the State Library Board choose to cut programs and services to direct the remaining resources towards the State Library's new mission—to assist libraries to build their capacity to better serve their clientele. The State Library Board identified three unique functions—the library development activities, the relationship with the National Library Service of the Library of Congress to provide supplemental reading materials to people with print impairments, and the statutory responsibility to operate the State documents depository program. The role of the State Library as a traditional provider of library services was no longer feasible, or necessary, to achieve the goal of providing access to library services to every citizen in Idaho. At just over 100 years old, the Idaho State Library focused on its unique role as the only institution in state government with the responsibility to develop and promote library services. ■

Advocacy Works: A Case in Point - cont.

to reinstate the school librarian as a .8 Full Time Equivalent. Stolass ` schedule includes one day per week at each of the schools, where she is assessing media resources and working with teachers. Opstad assured Rogge that strengthening and updating the school libraries' collections and the employment of a certified school library media specialist would be high priorities of the Port Townsend School District for the current school year and in the future.

The stars are aligned over a portion of western Washington.

Citations:

Goldberg, Beverly. "Why School Libraries Won't Be Left Behind," *American Libraries* v.36:no.8, pp.38-41, Sept. 2005

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