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**ARGUS**

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Corporation des bibliothécaires professionnels du Québec

Corporation of Professional Librarians of Québec

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# ARGUS

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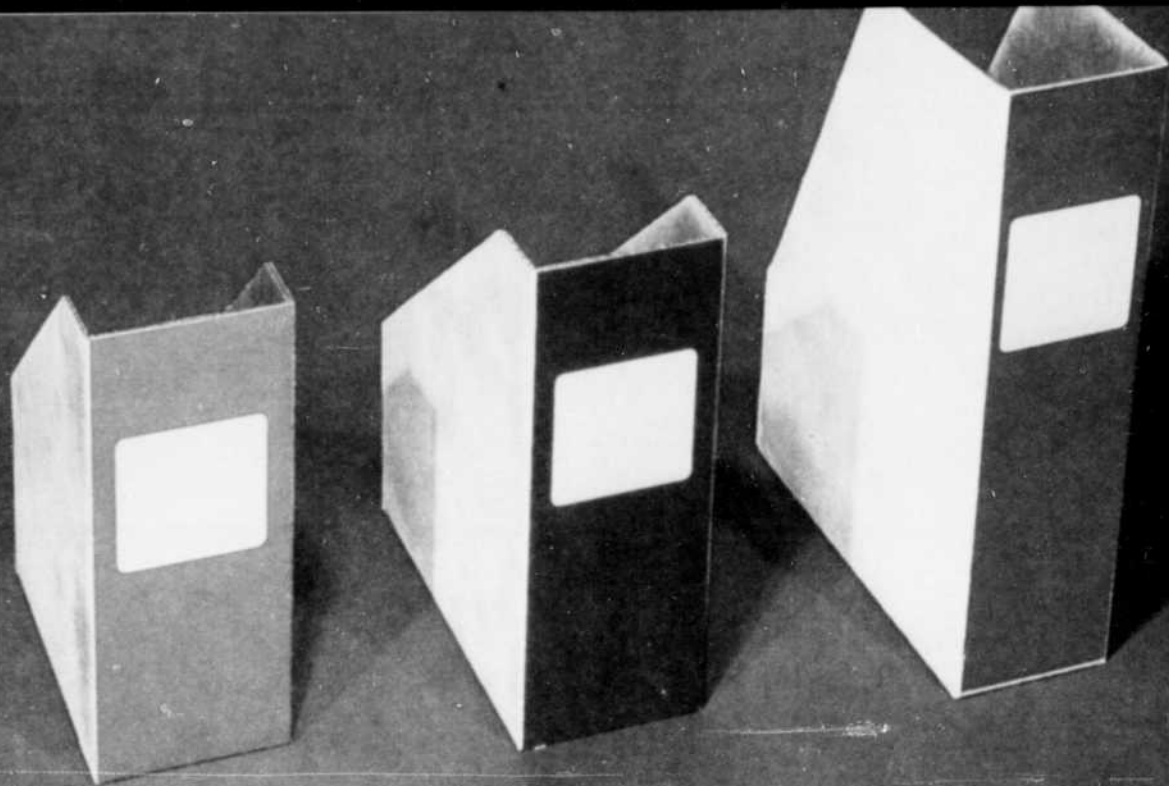
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*Argus* est une revue qui, depuis plus de dix ans, offre aux membres de la CBPQ un service d'information sur le développement de la profession, elle fait le point sur les principales recherches effectuées au Québec et invite à l'occasion des collègues de d'autres pays à rendre compte de ce qui se passe chez eux; *Argus* vise en définitive à l'information et à l'éducation de la profession.

La CBPQ existe depuis plus de dix ans, mais c'est depuis plus longtemps encore qu'on s'interroge sur la notion de professionnalisme. Sommes-nous des professionnels? La question ne se pose plus. Il existe une base théorique reconnue en bibliothéconomie, l'usager est au centre de nos préoccupations, la notion de *service* est donc inhérente à nos activités que nous avons encadrées de codes d'éthique. Mais qu'elle sorte de professionnels sommes-nous? La question en est maintenant à ce stade.

Ce numéro d'*Argus* consacré au professionnalisme montre à quel point la notion de *service* est importante et que de plus en plus le bibliothécaire s'interroge sur son rôle social.

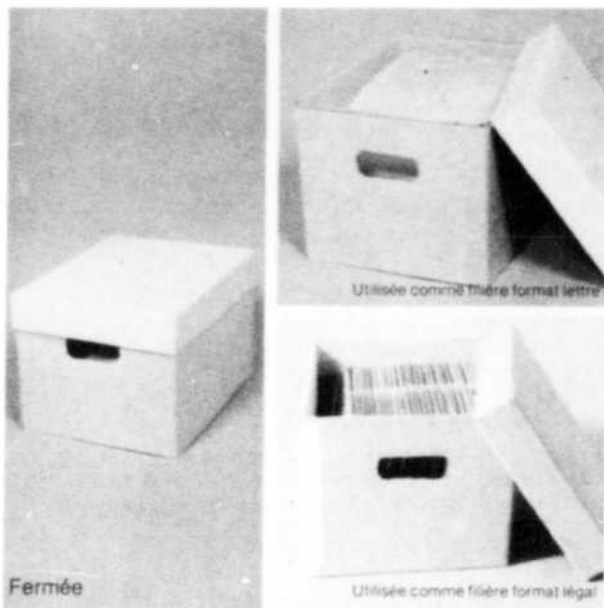
Au sortir de la lecture des articles de William F. Birdsall, Réjean Savard, Laurent-G. Denis, Florence Mackesy et Alain Perrier, nous nous rendons compte que la notion de *service* est à se concrétiser autant dans notre discipline que chez les travailleurs sociaux ou chez les professionnels de la santé par exemple, qui comme nous dispensent des services personnalisés à toute la population. Un cadre théorique reste à établir et des modèles à se construire. Ces recherches, même si leurs auteurs les qualifient d'exploratoires, sont de bonne augure et ne cesseront, nous l'espérons, de se développer. Selon John Wilkinson, elles sont essentielles puisque nous entrerons bientôt dans l'ère de l'information.

Nous avons voulu terminer ce numéro sur une note un peu plus pragmatique mais combien importante dans notre vie de tous les jours et qui bien sur influe sur la qualité des services offerts aux usagers. Helen Howard et Charlotte R. Mudge font le point sur l'administration du personnel dans les bibliothèques et sur la syndicalisation de ce même personnel.

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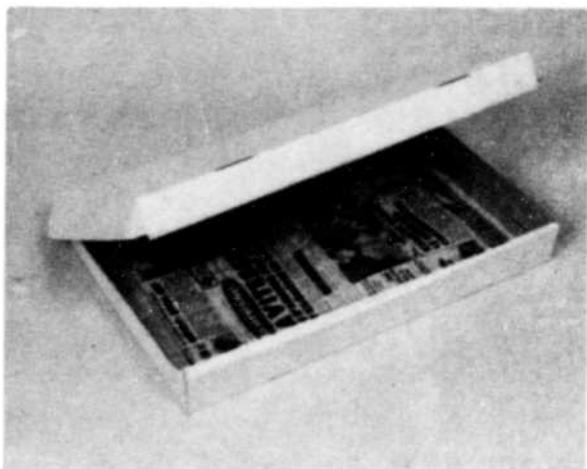
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# Librarianship, A Personal Service Profession?

by William F. Birdsall\*

*Rather than comparing librarianship with the traditional, established professions, the author presents the thesis that librarianship is a different type of profession. It is a personal service profession fundamentally distinct from the typical model of the traditional professions. Librarianship is described in terms of the major characteristics of this type of profession: relation to the client, professional knowledge and bureaucracy and politics. These characteristics make this occupation different from the traditional ones in its objectives, methods and development.*

*On a trop comparé la bibliothéconomie avec les professions traditionnelles et établies, comme le droit et la médecine. Selon l'auteur, la bibliothéconomie est une profession de type différent. Orientée vers le service personnel, son modèle serait plutôt à chercher du côté de l'enseignement et du travail social. La bibliothéconomie est décrite en fonction des caractéristiques principales de ce type de professions: relation à l'utilisateur, connaissances professionnelles, place dans l'organisation bureaucratique et aspect politique de la tâche. Par ces traits, elle se distingue des professions traditionnelles dans ses objectifs, ses méthodes et son développement.*

A common North American approach to analyzing the professional status of a specific occupation is to compare it to attributes derived from such traditional professions as law and medicine. With this approach, occupations such as nursing, social work, teaching, and librarianship are often relegated to the categories of either non-, semi-, or emerging professions. Rarely is the idea advanced that these occupations are a distinct type of profession, that to assess their professional status and objectives on models of the older professions is irrelevant. Drawing on the ideas of sociologists William S. Bennett, Jr., and Merl C. Hokenstad, Jr., it is the thesis of this essay that North American librarianship, in common with other occupations such as teachers and social workers, is a personal service profession fundamentally distinct from traditional professions such as medicine and law.<sup>1</sup> The objectives of this approach is not to prove that librarianship is, or is not, a profession. The concept of the personal service profession is used here for analytical, descriptive purposes to illustrate that librarianship as a profession can be looked at in a more accurate, positive, and constructive way than the usual negative assessments made using models derived from traditional pro-

fessions. Taking this approach may provide a better understanding of the unique role librarianship can play in meeting the informational needs of society.

To describe librarianship as a personal service profession, the professional's relation to the client, professional knowledge, bureaucracy and politics will be examined.

## Relation to the Client

In outlining his conception of an emerging personal service society, British sociologist Paul Halmos makes a convincing distinction between personal service professionals and impersonal service professionals.<sup>2</sup> The personal service professional attempts to change the body or personality of the client; the physician is a personal service professional in contrast to the engineer, an impersonal professional concerned with things. Drawing on Halmos, Bennett and Hokenstad make a finer distinction in their definition of "people workers." For them, "People working professions... are workers who deal with clients' personalities."<sup>3</sup> This definition excludes many medical practitioners because they deal primarily with parts of the body as an object or intellectual problem. The

definition does include teachers, social workers and the mental health professions because their objective is to achieve a change in the behaviour or development of the client.

There is another consideration in the client professional relationship. The doctor, lawyer, architect or engineer prescribes a solution to a client's problem. In contrast, personal service professionals "function as catalysts who, through the communication of information and sharing of insights, attempt to help the client help himself."<sup>4</sup> The personal professional helps the client grow or change through their encounter so that in the future the client can handle the problem, if encountered again, on his or her own; the client is expected to become self-sufficient. This is in marked contrast to impersonal service professionals who expect the client to return for further consultation for any recurring problem; the lawyer or engineer typically do not expect the client to become self-sufficient.

Librarianship is usually given a low score on professionalism because librarians normally do not prescribe

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solutions for the client in the way the doctor or lawyer is perceived as doing. Librarians may guide clients but, critics note, it is the clients who determine their informational needs. Librarians are described as unassertive in dealing with clients, unwilling to strongly recommend specific sources or directions to library users, and incapable of taking the initiative by providing clients the information they need. Instead, the client is directed to a range of printed sources from which the client, based on his or her own judgement, extracts the required information.<sup>5</sup> Unfortunately, critics arrive at these assertions by using models based on the traditional professions and by failing to recognize that librarianship belongs to those occupations that strive to encourage client self-sufficiency. Lester Ashiem rightly observes that "the tendency to instruct patrons in the skill with which they help themselves instead of turning always to us, may be a desirable aspect of our social contribution that we do not wish to change."<sup>6</sup> It is this commitment to client self-sufficiency that is the foundation of librarianship's approach to reference service, user instruction, the functional planning of libraries, and the development of bibliographic tools. It is also one of librarianship's greatest contributions to an open society. If we are experiencing the emergence of an information society, as is so often predicted, then it is increasingly essential that everyone has the opportunity to become as knowledgeable as possible in the techniques of gaining access to information. Librarians are correct in being facilitators who share their technical know-how in accessing information rather than intermediaries monopolizing channels to information.

### Professional Knowledge

The professional/client relationship is also related to the concept of professional knowledge. The possession of a body of specialized knowledge is commonly seen as a crucial attribute of a recognized profession. The exclusive right to apply this knowledge is the basis for the profession's autonomy and for the practitioner's authority in prescribing solutions to the client's problems. The failure to develop a substantive corpus of knowledge upon which to base their practice is ascribed to many of the personal service professions that have emerged during the past one hundred years including librarianship. However, this is a narrow

view of what constitutes knowledge; it excludes "intuitive knowledge, rule making knowledge (as in making rules, devising games, etc., not just knowing the rules), techniques of helping, and perhaps several other types."<sup>7</sup> The personal service professions are most interested in the transference of knowledge and skills to clients and thereby allowing the client to use this professional knowledge independent of the professional. Consequently, the personal service professions are concerned with developing interpersonal skills in their practitioners and with formulating a body of techniques that can be transferred to the client. (As a footnote to this point, librarians should oppose any movement encouraging the certification of librarians, an objective whose primary purpose is to make a distinction between client and professional by further limiting the client's access to professional knowledge.) Because the knowledge base of the personal service professions is more subjective it is harder to codify, hence it appears less substantive than that of the traditional professions.

Elements of these factors can be found in librarianship. Its concentration on method over theory is commonly recognized. If it can be assumed that the transference of knowledge is a core objective of librarianship, then the attention given to developing the technical means of accessing knowledge that can be adopted by the client is appropriate. The attention given to library user orientation and instruction in all types of libraries is another encouraging development in promoting client self-sufficiency. Just as importantly, efforts to identify the interpersonal skills required in the reference interview can be seen as a positive effort to prepare librarians for their work as personal service professionals. None of these developments exclude the need to develop a theoretical foundation for what librarians do, but it should be recognized that the knowledge and techniques of the personal service professions will differ in kind from medicine, law, etc.

### Bureaucracy and Politics

A factor often identified as inhibiting professionalism is the bureaucratic environment in which many occupations are found, including librarianship. The traditional model of professions pictures the professional as a solo practitioner or as engaged in a group prac-

tice where professional authority is presumably assured. Institutional authority is seen to be in conflict with the professional autonomy and decision making of established professions.<sup>8</sup>

However, it is generally recognized that there is hardly a professional group that cannot be found in a bureaucratic organization. The modern medical clinic with its various health professionals, administrative and technical staff, regularly scheduled hours, and massive files of records is an excellent example of a bureaucratic organization of professionals. Not only are most professionals now found in bureaucracies, but this is especially true with personal service professionals whose very existence is due to the growth of bureaucracies, e.g. schools, welfare agencies, libraries. The personal service professionals' authority, in fact, derives from their location within bureaucracies, not from the monopolization of a body of knowledge. While their professional status may be comparatively low, personal service professionals nevertheless exert a considerable amount of power and control over peoples' lives through bureaucracies.<sup>9</sup> This is increasingly so as the welfare state becomes the common characteristic of many societies.

Because of their location within bureaucracies and the power derived from this situation, the personal service professional often serves a gatekeeper role in terms of access to some beneficial resource. The teacher in the school provides access to learning; the social worker in the welfare agency provides access to public funds; the librarian in the library provides access to information. (Client problems dealt with by personal professionals are usually of a social or economic nature.) Because personal service professionals have this gatekeeping power of distributing society's social and economic resources, there is a considerable political aspect to their work: they are involved in the politics of their own bureaucracies; externally, they try to increase the resources available to their clients through the political process; and they often work in agencies that are subject to the scrutiny of political bodies such as school or library boards.

The political characteristics of librarianship are well recognized. Library associations, library staffs, and individual librarians actively lobby to improve library services and funding. Workshops are held to increase the

political effectiveness of librarians. Books are written to help librarians become more politically adept. Librarians are constantly exhorted to become more assertive in participating in political activity. Also, librarians take political positions on many social issues such as intellectual freedom and discrimination.<sup>10</sup>

### Some Implications

It is proposed here that librarianship as a profession, along with other personal service professions involved in education, welfare and health, is fundamentally different from the traditional professions, or different at least from the typical model of the traditional professions. Personal service professionals share their knowledge with the client with the objective of making the client self-sufficient; in short, the objective is for the client and the professional to become more like each other. The personal service professional's knowledge base is subjective and technique orientated. Personal service professionals are usually salaried workers in publicly funded bureaucracies where professional authority derives from their ability to allocate a social or economic resource. Because of this allocating responsibility, the political foundation of their bureaucracies, and the needs of their clients, there is a large political element to the everyday work done by personal professionals. These attributes are characteristic of librarianship and place it firmly among the personal service professions. What might be some implications of conceptualizing librarianship as a personal service profession?

It is hoped that librarians would recognize that as personal service professionals their occupation's development, objectives, and methods are different from the traditional professions. These differences are not the result of professional immaturity but are inherent to librarianship as it has evolved in its efforts to contribute to the cultural needs of society. There have been attempts to determine if there is a "natural" process of professionalization, again using historical evidence based on the established professions. Wilensky, in his often cited article, "The Professionalization of Everyone?", charts the development of established and emerging professions and finds that the latter do not follow the typical process through which the established professions evolved. He observes, for example, that "the newer

and more marginal professions often adopt new titles, announce elaborate codes of ethics, or set up paper organizations on a national level long before an institutional and technical base has been formed."<sup>11</sup> They often go through an adoption process quite rapidly, being inspired by the success of the older professions. (Wilensky includes librarianship as an emerging profession in his analysis.) But can it not be considered as well that perhaps the process differs because the newer professions differ substantively from the older professions? In other words, there could be more than one process of professionalization. Greater historical research on the development of librarianship using the concept of the personal service professions could be very fruitful in giving a more accurate picture of how North American librarianship acquired the attributes it presently displays.

It is possible, of course, that librarianship has attempted to assume the forms of the established professions as Wilensky implies. There is certainly evidence that such a conscious effort has been undertaken. But if it is correct to maintain that librarianship as a personal service profession is substantively different from the established professions, then to adopt the structures and ideals of the traditional professions could actually hinder librarianship's development as a profession.<sup>12</sup>

Typically, the personal service professions have looked to the traditional professions as a model but, if Halmos' prediction of the emergence of a personal service society is accurate, we could see the traditional professions increasingly turning to the personal service professions for guidance. Halmos hypothesizes that the "pedagogical regime of these personal service professionals as well as their professional ethics are influencing the self-image of other professional workers whose calling is not in the area of the personal services. Engineers, architects, lawyers, and others like them, are trained in higher education institutions, which now include in these courses of impersonal technologies the sociological and social psychological tuition originally reserved for students of the personal service professions."<sup>13</sup> As the impersonal service professions accommodate themselves to the bureaucratic settings in which they increasingly find themselves, as they are obliged to give greater attention to social issues that impinge upon their occupa-

tional specialization and authority, and as they learn to cope with a more knowledgeable and assertive clientele, the traditional professions may well look to the objectives, structures, and ideologies of the personal service professions as guides to reform. Therefore, librarians should not feel inferior to other professional groups; instead, they should concentrate on building and improving upon the accomplishments they have achieved thus far in their development as a unique occupational group.

What are the implications regarding the training of librarians as personal service professionals? Bennett and Hokenstad predict that the formal educational requirements for personal service professionals will become more flexible, gravitate away from the University and move toward greater diversity. These developments are due in part to the personal service professions' emphasis on methodological skills, e.g., librarianship's concern with techniques to provide access to information. These skills, to a considerable degree, could be taught outside formal university programs. Indicators of these developments in librarianship are the emergence of library technician programs in community colleges, on the job training of non-professionals to carry out certain levels of reference and other para-professional duties, and proposals to create a more diverse structure of educational programs at the graduate and undergraduate levels. The continuation and perhaps acceleration of these trends could be anticipated. Various levels of training and expertise deriving from multiple levels of entry into librarianship could provide a wider range of services. Within library school curriculums one might see a greater emphasis on developing interpersonal and teaching skills to prepare librarians for dealing with library users, whether it be at the reference desk, through bibliographic instruction programs, or in an administrative role. Perhaps more attention will also be given to the political aspects of librarianship. Economic and social conflict are dominating characteristics of modern society so that all professionals, and especially personal service professionals, will find social conflict a major component of their work.<sup>14</sup> Library schools may give librarians greater preparation for their advocacy role and for the political aspects of social change and information policy.

If client self-sufficiency is a legitimate objective of librarianship, then it is also hoped that more attention will be given in library research and in library planning to developing techniques that are, to borrow an apt phrase from the computer field, "user friendly." The growth of public service functions over the past fifty years or so is an indication of the increasing complexity surrounding the use of libraries during a time of a rapid growth in recorded knowledge. Perhaps it is time to shift the emphasis back to what were once major objectives of early librarianship; the development of fundamental principles and basic tools to increase the access to knowledge. As libraries become larger and more complex with the body of recorded knowledge and the range of formats in which it is embodied expanding at an incredible rate, we might question whether our present methods encourage access to information. After all, many of the methods presently used by libraries were developed over one hundred years ago. Our methods should not be barriers to information, forcing the user to rely on the librarian; instead, simplicity should be the watch word in the formulation of library methods. The use of technology, in particular the computer and the new communications media, gives librarians the opportunity to assess their techniques in the context of client self-sufficiency.

If the concept of librarianship as a personal service profession is a more valid description of what librarians do, then librarians should accept their location within bureaucracies as a logical environment for their field of practice. Rather than seeing bureaucracy as an inhibiting factor, they

should attempt to identify ways of making their bureaucracies more client orientated and accessible. However, they should not let their concerns regarding professionalism obscure efforts to develop more effective bureaucracies. The objective of the reform of library bureaucracies is to make them more responsive to client needs, not to increase professionalism. And it should not be assumed that changes in bureaucratic structures that are designed to presumably increase professional autonomy and professionalism will lead to more effective service. The usual concern about bureaucracy versus professionalism (as conceived according to traditional models) is irrelevant to librarianship.

### Conclusion

Halmos predicts that the personal service professions, as their numbers increase, will have a humanizing effect on the older professions and society in general. Librarianship's contribution, as a personal service profession, to a humane society will be to insure that access to information and knowledge is not confined to economic and social elites or to professionals dedicated to monopolizing the development and use of techniques for collecting, organizing, and providing information. Because a basic objective of librarianship is the equitable distribution of information, it is most constructive to perceive librarianship as a personal service profession promoting client self-sufficiency, rather than basing its structure, ideals, and objectives on outmoded models of the impersonal service professions.

1. William S. Bennett, Jr. and Merle C. Hokenstad, Jr., "Full-time People Workers and Conceptions of the 'Professional'," in Paul Halmos,

ed., *The Sociological Review Monograph*, 20 (Keele, University of Keele, 1973), pp. 21-45.

2. Paul Halmos, *The Personal Service Society* (London, Constable, 1970), pp. 13-62.

3. Bennett and Hokenstad, p. 22.

4. Bennett and Hokenstad, p. 23.

5. Mary Lee Bundy and Paul Wasserman, "Professionalism Reconsidered," *College and Research Libraries*, vol. 29, n° 1 (January 1968), pp. 5-26; William J. Goode, "The Librarian: From Occupation to Profession?" *Library Quarterly*, vol. 39, n° 4 (October 1969), pp. 306-320; John North, "Librarianship: A Profession?" *Canadian Library Journal*, vol. 34, n° 4 (August 1977), pp. 253-257; Lester Ashiem, "Librarians as Professionals," *Library Trends*, vol. 27, n° 3 (Winter, 1979), pp. 225-237.

6. Ashiem, p. 253.

7. Bennett and Hokenstad, p. 34; Dietrich Rueschemeyer makes a similar observation when he notes that the traditional model of professions does not "differentiate enough between different types of knowledge; it over-emphasizes the role of scientific knowledge and its attendant consequences, such as rationality and readiness for change." The emphasis on scientific knowledge fits neither the classical professions of law, the ministry or the military nor many of the new professions. "Doctors and Lawyers: A Comment on the Theory of the Professions," *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology*, 1 (February 1964), pp. 17-30.

8. Richard W. Meyer, "Library Professionalism and the Democratic Way," *Journal of Academic Librarianship*, vol. 6, n° 5 (November 1980), pp. 277-281.

9. Bennett and Hokenstad, p. 38.

10. J.A. Hennessy, "Guerrilla Librarianship? A Review Article on the Librarianship of Politics and the Politics of Librarianship," *Journal of Librarianship*, vol. 13, n° 4 (October 1981), pp. 248-255.

11. Harold L. Wilensky, "The Professionalization of Everyone's," *American Journal of Sociology*, 70 (September 1964), p. 146.

12. William F. Birdsall, "Librarians and Professionalism: Status Measured by Outmoded Models," *Canadian Library Journal*, vol. 37, n° 3 (June 1980), pp. 145-148.

13. Halmos, p. 25.

14. Bennett and Hokenstad, p. 41.

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# La notion de «service» en information documentaire: essai de définition d'un cadre théorique à partir de disciplines connexes

par Réjean Savard

*L'auteur examine l'importance de la notion de service pour la sociologie des professions/occupations. Après avoir constaté l'absence d'un cadre théorique valable, il propose un modèle à partir d'approches provenant de disciplines connexes à l'information documentaire/bibliothéconomie. Sans prétendre à l'exhaustivité, le modèle proposé comporte cinq «pôles» idéologiques s'établissant sous la forme de continuum. Il s'agit de l'attitude générale envers l'utilisateur, de l'approche face à l'utilisateur, de l'évaluation des besoins, de la relation avec l'utilisateur et de la rétroaction.*

*The author examines the importance of the service aspect within the sociology of the professions. Having noted the lack of a valid theoretical framework by which to evaluate this aspect, he proposes a model based on approaches from disciplines related to library/information science. Without attempting to be exhaustive, the proposed model contains five ideological poles, each one forming a continuum. These poles are: the general attitudes toward the user, the type of approach employed, the evaluation of their needs, the relationship with the user and the evaluation of the service rendered.*

## 1. Introduction

Plusieurs spécialistes ont maintes fois énuméré ce qu'il est convenu d'appeler les «attributs» du professionnalisme. Ainsi, en 1957, Greenwood<sup>1</sup> en énumérait cinq: 1) une base théorique systématique, 2) une autorité reconnue par la clientèle, 3) un sentiment d'approbation ou de rejet de la population par rapport à cette autorité, 4) un code d'éthique, et 5) une «culture professionnelle». En 1963, Barber<sup>2</sup>, lui, suggérait quatre attributs: 1) une connaissance généralisée et systématique, 2) une orientation primordiale vers les besoins de la communauté, 3) un code d'éthique et 4) un système de récompenses qui soient une fin en soi. Plus récemment (1970), Moore<sup>3</sup> énonçait six critères: 1) la profession doit être une occupation à plein temps, 2) il doit y avoir un sens de la vocation, 3) une identification avec ses collègues, 4) la possession d'une connaissance basée sur un entraînement spécialisé, 5) une orientation service, et 6) un mode de

travail autonome. Nous pourrions évidemment allonger presque indéfiniment cette liste de critères ou d'attributs du professionnalisme qui, au cours des années soixante surtout, ont fait l'objet de bien des débats parmi les sociologues. Nous ne discuterons pas ici les valeurs et les vertus de chacune de ces typologies, d'autant plus que la sociologie des professions/occupations a quelque peu délaissé ces énumérations plus ou moins arbitraires, qui visaient avant tout à déterminer si une occupation était ou non une véritable profession. De nos jours les spécialistes des professions s'intéressent en effet à des questions beaucoup plus objectives et pertinentes, comme par exemple le rôle social des occupations<sup>4</sup>. C'est d'ailleurs dans cet esprit que s'inscrit cet article.

Toutefois, ces différentes nomenclatures font toutes ressortir qu'il y a fondamentalement deux caractéristiques essentielles du professionnalisme, soit la base théorique ou connaissance spé-

cialisée et la notion de service. Les autres caractéristiques énumérées par les différents spécialistes sont, ou bien des concepts synonymes des deux principaux que nous venons de nommer, ou alors des dérivés de ceux-ci, comme par exemple la formation professionnelle, qui découle de la base théorique, ou le fameux code d'éthique, qui n'est en fait qu'une «émulation» de la notion de service.

## 2. Importance de la notion de service

Selon nous, l'aspect service est sans doute la caractéristique primordiale d'une profession, ne serait-ce qu'à cause de son incidence sur l'utilisation des services. Le concept traditionnel du professionnalisme a d'ailleurs toujours fait une place de choix à la notion de service. Ainsi, Wilensky écrivait que l'orientation service chez le profession-

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nel «is the pivot around which the normal claim to professional status revolves»<sup>5</sup>. Pour nous démontrer cette importance, il compare la profession à la science: les deux concepts recouvrent des réalités fort différentes, et c'est justement la *notion de service qui les différencie*. En effet, toutes les deux doivent indéniablement posséder une base théorique valable, des lois spécifiques qui, chez les professionnels par exemple, dictent la pratique quotidienne. L'illustration la plus intéressante est peut-être celle de la médecine, profession «par excellence»: sans cette base théorique qui lui est propre, qui s'est développée et qui continue de se développer au cours des ans, les taux de mortalité et de souffrance humaine seraient beaucoup plus élevés qu'ils ne le sont aujourd'hui. D'où l'importance de la recherche pour une profession.<sup>6</sup>

Mais cette base théorique n'a plus la même signification «morale» si elle n'est pas reliée à la notion de service, à un idéal de service envers la communauté. Or, la science n'a pas cette orientation service qui est propre à la profession, puisque, comme le dit Wilensky, elle n'a pas de clientèle propre, sauf peut-être la société au sens large, ce qui n'a pas la même incidence. De là, la grande différence entre une

science et une profession, et la primauté de l'orientation service pour cette dernière.

La notion de service est donc essentielle dans la compréhension sociale du professionnalisme, beaucoup plus essentielle en fait que tous les autres aspects du professionnalisme, comme par exemple l'idée de «contrôle social» ou de «corporatisme» qui a souvent été associée au concept de professionnalisme, voire même assimilée à ce concept, la plupart du temps à tort d'ailleurs<sup>7</sup>.

### 3. La notion de service

Malgré l'accord de tous les spécialistes sur l'importance de la notion de service chez le professionnel, il existe très peu de définitions de ce concept et à vrai dire, aucune n'est vraiment satisfaisante, opérationnellement parlant.

Wilensky nous indique qu'un comportement orienté vers le service implique ceci: «devotion to the client's interests more than personal or commercial profit should guide decisions when the two are in conflict.»<sup>8</sup> Il ajoute également que, conséquemment à cet idéal de service, le travail du professionnel doit être reconnu et apprécié de ses clients et que celui-ci doit aimer travailler avec le public<sup>9</sup>.

En ce qui concerne Moore, l'orientation service doit se manifester ainsi: «to perceive the needs of individual or collective clients that are relevant to his competence and to attend to those needs by competent performance»<sup>10</sup>. L'idée de besoin qui est apportée dans cet énoncé enrichit quelque peu le concept en ajoutant une dynamique qui nous semble essentielle à l'orientation service telle que nous la verrons plus loin: il s'agit de l'idée d'échange et de relations entre le professionnel et son client/usager.

Quant à William Goode, sa définition est quelque peu limitative:

The ideal of service, sometimes called a collectivity orientation, may be defined in this context as the norm that the technical solutions which the professional arrives at should be based on the client's needs, not necessarily the best material interest or needs of the professional himself or, for that matter, those of society.<sup>11</sup>

Un an plus tard, dans un autre article, il ajoutait:

"Service orientation" means that the professional decision is not properly to be based on the self-interest of the professional, but on the need of the client. The practitioner defines, of course, what the client "needs"; it may not always be what the client wants.<sup>12</sup>

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Somme toute, peu d'éléments qui nous permettent d'analyser vraiment le comportement professionnel d'un individu ou d'une collectivité et d'améliorer ainsi son utilité et son impact social.

Par contre, si les sociologues sont relativement muets sur cette notion de service, quelques recherches ont été poursuivies sur ce concept, notamment en service social et en sciences infirmières. Ces explorations sont intéressantes et pourraient être adaptées à toute autre discipline professionnelle, notamment la bibliothéconomie ou l'information documentaire.

#### 4. L'approche Service social

Dans un article publié en 1966, et qui faisait suite à sa thèse de doctorat<sup>13</sup>, Barbara Varley s'interrogeait sur l'orientation service des travailleurs sociaux<sup>14</sup>. Pour répondre à sa question (*Are Social Workers dedicated to Service?*), elle avait mis au point un questionnaire de type échelles Likert lui permettant de mesurer ces valeurs ou attitudes envers ce service. Pour ce faire, elle a évidemment établi au préalable des définitions opérationnelles qui nous aideront à mieux saisir cette notion de service.

Sa définition du «service professionnel», que nous retrouvons dans un autre de ses articles<sup>15</sup>, situe le concept en entier à l'intérieur de l'environnement particulier qui intéresse l'auteur, soit la profession de travailleur social. En lisant cet énoncé, il est relativement facile de faire le lien avec la bibliothéconomie qui finalement, est une profession qui sous plusieurs aspects, s'apparente au travail social:

Social work is primarily a helping profession dedicated to the welfare of clients before consideration of the worker's personal gain or benefit. This implies an other — rather than self-orientation — a willingness by the social worker to make personal sacrifices of comfort and convenience for the client's benefit, to subordinate other areas of his life for the welfare of others, to waive bureaucratic rules or provisions set up for his benefit when the interests of the clients impose on these, to accept that the clients' needs take precedence over his own personal aspirations. The commitment of the helping service is based on the assumption of the interdependence of all individuals and their consequent responsibilities toward each other. The foregoing is an obligation of the social worker resulting from his becoming a member of a profession whose societal responsibility is to render service within the structure of a social agency.

Ensuite, s'inspirant entre autres du sociologue Talcot Parsons<sup>16</sup>, Varley ajoute ceci:

... Associated with the service norm are several additional values that govern professional relationships, that is in rendering service, the professional person must be impersonal and objective, limiting the relationship to the technical task needed (UNIVERSALISM); impartial in giving equal service to clients regardless of personal sentiment (EQUAL RIGHTS); and consistent in using a body of knowledge which accounts for the problems presented by the clients and the interaction between the professional and the client (PSYCHODYNAMIC-MINDEDNESS).<sup>17</sup>

Elle identifie donc assez formellement trois éléments supplémentaires de l'orientation service: le caractère *universel* du service, *l'égalité* des droits pour tous face au service, et une certaine sensibilisation au caractère *psychodynamique* de l'intervention en service social. Sa théorie comporte également des définitions de ces trois éléments additionnels<sup>18</sup>. Tous ces éléments, sauf le dernier, sont applicables à l'analyse de la notion service dans toutes les disciplines professionnelles, puisqu'ils sont tirés de la littérature générale sur les professions, celle de Parsons notamment. Quant au dernier élément retenu par Varley (*psychodynamic-mindedness*), il s'agit d'une caractéristique propre à la base théorique du service social en tant que profession, mais auquel il serait certainement possible de trouver un élément correspondant chez toute autre profession.

À partir de ces définitions, Varley produisit une série d'énoncés qui serviront à bâtir le test d'attitudes selon Likert. Elle se servit d'une liste finale de 32 caractéristiques (huit pour chaque élément). Après l'administration des tests, l'analyse démontra un haut niveau de validité<sup>19</sup> de contenu (déterminée selon la méthode des juges), ainsi qu'un niveau de fiabilité<sup>20</sup> particulièrement élevé (déterminé par la méthode «split-half»). D'ailleurs, l'approche de Varley fut utilisée par plusieurs autres chercheurs par la suite<sup>21</sup>

et s'est avéré fournir un instrument d'analyse valable.

Il serait certainement possible d'adapter cette échelle de Varley pour mesurer l'orientation service chez les professionnels de l'information documentaire. Cette adaptation nécessiterait évidemment une nouvelle validation, ainsi que l'application de nouveaux tests de fiabilité. L'instrument pourrait alors s'avérer très utile, notamment dans la sélection de personnel pour reconnaître les candidats particulièrement orientés vers le service, voire même dans la sélection des candidats à l'admission en bibliothéconomie.

#### 5. L'approche Sciences infirmières

Dans un milieu tout à fait particulier, Danielle D'Amour<sup>22</sup> s'est intéressée à l'idéologie de service dans les centres hospitaliers pour personnes âgées. Son approche est intéressante puisqu'elle identifie une série de «pôles idéologiques» par rapport au service du personnel (fig. 1), qui peuvent également être transposés en information documentaire/bibliothéconomie.

Son argumentation est tirée de la littérature professionnelle en sciences infirmières<sup>23</sup>, selon laquelle deux types principaux d'attitudes par rapport au service prévalent chez les agents de soin. Un premier type se définit comme l'idéologie d'*entretien*; selon ce type, le service offert est «dépersonnalisant», «axé sur la maladie» plutôt que sur les possibilités de réadaptation et imprégné de «fatalisme». Le second type se définit comme l'idéologie de *réadaptation*: selon ce type, le service offert vise à «conserver l'individualité du malade», à «maintenir et à améliorer son niveau de fonctionnement» et se veut beaucoup plus «positif» que le premier type.

À l'aide de ce cadre théorique, D'Amour a pu élaborer, tout comme

Fig. 1 Continuum des idéologies de soins dans les établissements (D'Amour 1980)

Idéologie d'entretien		Idéologie de réadaptation
Fataliste	← attitude →	de confiance
Dépersonnalisante	← approche →	individualisée
Biologiques	← besoins →	psycho-sociaux
Déficits	← cible →	capacités
De maintien	← soins →	de réadaptation
Instrumentale	← relation →	d'aide
Rôle de malade	← renforcement →	rôle de personne indépendante

Varley, une échelle de type Likert qu'elle a intitulée: Attitude envers le potentiel de réadaptation (AEPR). Elle procéda également à l'établissement de la validité du test (validité de contenu, validité nominale et validité des concepts), ainsi qu'à des tests de fiabilité (méthode test-retest).

L'instrument ainsi proposé est peut-être plus difficile à adapter à l'information documentaire en raison du caractère trop spécialisé de celui-ci (milieux hospitaliers et personnes âgées). Cependant, le cadre théorique utilisé, lui, peut certes servir de base à une définition plus structurée de la notion de service en information documentaire/bibliothéconomie.

## 6. Adaptation à l'information documentaire/bibliothéconomie

Nous proposons à partir des définitions qui précèdent un nouveau cadre théorique pour l'étude de la notion de service en information documentaire/bibliothéconomie. Ce cadre théorique ou conceptuel intègre des éléments provenant des travaux cités de même que des résultats d'observations personnelles. Il se compose de cinq pôles idéologiques formant chacun un continuum, entre deux idéologies opposées (fig. 2).

Le premier pôle ou continuum est inspiré à la fois de Varley (droits égaux et universalisme) et de D'Amour (attitude générale), en même temps qu'il découle d'idéologies déjà discutées dans la littérature en bibliothéconomie<sup>23</sup>. C'est ce traditionnel conflit entre la *vision restrictive* de la bibliothèque, avec entre autres aspects un

nombre d'utilisateurs restreint, une « portée éducative » ou une « mission culturelle », et la *vision plus populaire* de la bibliothèque, davantage axée par exemple sur la « rentabilisation » de celle-ci, une documentation « facile » et la « vente » de la bibliothèque. Évidemment, il s'agit d'un continuum: donc une personne ou une institution peut se situer à n'importe quel niveau sur ce continuum, et pas nécessairement à une extrémité ou à une autre.

Le deuxième pôle est essentiellement une transposition du continuum « Approche » de D'Amour. C'est l'attitude du bibliothécaire qui attend l'utilisateur, par opposition à celui qui va au devant de celui-ci. C'est l'attente par rapport à la *prévoyance*. La formation documentaire, par exemple, est un indice certain de *prévoyance*.

Le troisième pôle a trait à l'évaluation des besoins communautaires. D'un côté, l'évaluation se fait à partir du document imprimé (le livre surtout), et strictement en fonction de la collection locale de la bibliothèque où les besoins sont exprimés. D'un autre côté, l'évaluation se fait *non pas en fonction d'un support* d'information mais en fonction du besoin d'information comme tel, et la satisfaction de ce besoin est perçue en fonction d'un système documentaire ou d'un réseau. Dans ce dernier cas, cela signifie que la consultation documentaire ne s'arrêtera pas au lieu physique où elle se fait.

Le quatrième pôle concerne la relation directe avec l'utilisateur lors de la consultation. Dans un cas elle est *instrumentale* et froide: on

ne fournit qu'une information brute. Dans l'autre cas elle est attentive, chaleureuse et comporte certains éléments de rétroaction: il s'agit davantage d'une véritable *relation d'aide*.

Enfin, le cinquième pôle concerne spécifiquement la rétroaction ou l'évaluation du travail fourni. Ainsi, d'un côté, elle est axée sur l'*institution* et insiste davantage, par exemple, sur la production quantitative, le respect des horaires de travail (retards), la discipline, etc. De l'autre côté, elle se base strictement sur la *satisfaction des besoins* des utilisateurs. Le pôle rejoint d'une certaine façon l'axe efficacité-efficacités tel que défini par Totterdell et Bird<sup>25</sup>.

## 7. Conclusion

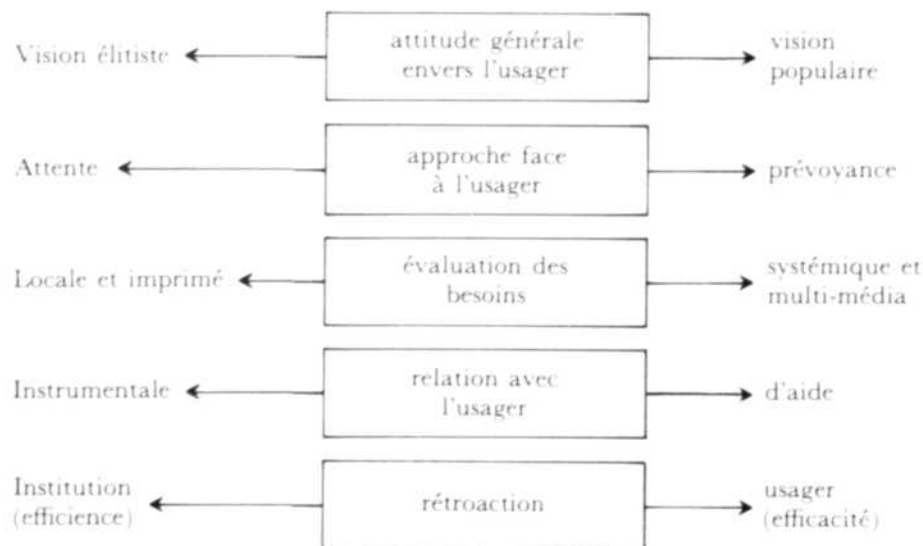
Ce nouveau cadre théorique ou conceptuel n'est peut-être pas exhaustif. D'autres éléments pourraient y être ajoutés, de même que ceux déjà en place pourraient être raffinés. Néanmoins, il a l'avantage de faire ressortir ce que nous croyons être des éléments principaux du service dans un centre documentaire.

Il faudrait maintenant définir un instrument de mesure à partir de ce cadre théorique, valider cet instrument, et puis passer à l'attaque. Car comme le faisait remarquer Larson:

... there are no data about the proportion of professionals who do, in fact, manifestly follow a service ideal, nor do we know how intense this orientation is, or how predominant, relative to other professional orientations; finally, we do not know if the service ideal is more widespread and more intense, in general, among professionals than among other workers<sup>26</sup>.

C'est donc une étape qu'il faudra franchir si nous voulons en savoir vraiment plus long sur ce concept dont il est surprenant qu'il n'ait pas été analysé davantage, malgré toute l'importance qu'on lui reconnaît.

Fig. 2 Les 5 pôles idéologiques de la notion de service en information documentaire/bibliothéconomie



1. Ernest Greenwood, «The Attributes of a Profession» *Social Work*, vol. 2 (July 1957), pp. 44-55.

2. B. Barber, «Some Problems in the Sociology of Professions» *Dardalus*, no 92 (Fall 1963), pp. 669.

3. W. E. Moore, *The Professions Roles and Rules* (New York, Russel Sage Foundation, 1970).

4. Douglas Klegon, «The Sociology of Professions, An Emerging Perspective» *Sociology of Work and Occupations*, vol. 5, no 3 (August 1978), pp. 259-283.

5. H. Wilensky, «The Professionalization of Everyone» *American Journal of Sociology*, no 69 (September 1964), p. 140.

6. Réjean Savard, «Recherche et professionnalisme» *Argus*, vol. 8, no 2 (mars-avril 1979), pp. 4-8.

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7. Voir par exemple: Carolyn Tuohy, «Professional Power: Sunset of Dawn» *Canadian Library Journal*, vol. 37, no 5 (October 1980), pp. 299-306.
8. H. Wilensky, op. cit., p. 140.
9. Id., p. 154.
10. W.E. Moore, op. cit., p. 6.
11. William Goode, «Encroachment, Charlatanism and the Emerging Profession: Psychology, Sociology and Medicine» *American Sociological Review*, vol. 25, no 6 (December 1960), p. 278.
12. William Goode, «The Librarian: From Occupation to Profession» *Library Quarterly*, vol. 31 (October 1961), reprinted in H. W. Vollmer, P.L. Mius, *Professionalization* (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1966), p. 36.
13. Barbara K. Varley, *Socialization in Social Work Education: A Study of the Value Areas of Change and Non-Change During Social Work Training* (Ph. D. Thesis, Case Western Reserve University, 1962).
14. Barbara K. Varley, «Are Social Workers Dedicated to Service?» *Social Work*, vol. 11, no 2 (April 1966), pp. 84-91.
15. Barbara Varley, «Socialization in Social Work Education» *Social Work*, vol. 8, no 3 (July 1963), p. 103.
16. Talcott Parsons, *Essays in Sociological Theory* (Glencoe, Free Press, 1954).
17. Barbara Varley, «Are Social Workers Dedicated to Service?» *Social Work*, vol. 11, no 2 (April 1966), p. 85.
18. Op. cit., 1963, pp. 103-104.
19. Validité: le degré selon lequel l'échelle mesure bien ce qu'elle doit mesurer.
20. Fiabilité: le degré selon lequel l'échelle garde une bonne consistance quand elle est utilisée à plusieurs reprises.
21. Voir par exemple:  
George R. Sharwell, «Can Values Be Taught? A Study of Two Variables Related to Orientation of Social Work Graduate Students Toward Public Dependency» *Journal of Education for Social Work*, vol. 10, no 2 (1974), pp. 99-105.  
Beverly Koerin, «Values in Social Work Education: Implications for Baccalaureate Degree Programs» *Journal of Education for Social Work*, vol. 13, no 2 (1977), pp. 84-90.  
Eleonor H. Judah, «Values: the Uncertain Component in Social Work» *Journal of Education for Social Work*, vol. 15, no 2 (Spring 1979), pp. 79-86.  
22. Danielle D'Amour, «Idéologie de l'agent de soins envers la réadaptation des malades âgés: validation d'une échelle d'attitudes» *Nursing Papers Perspectives en nursing*, vol. 12, no 1 (Spring printemps 1980), pp. 17-30.  
23. D.C. Gilbert, D.J. Levinson, «Ideology and Institutional Policy in the Mental Hospital» *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, vol. 53 (1956), pp. 263-271.  
E. Hefferin, *Caretaker Ideology and Elderly Mental Hospital Patients* (Ph. D. Dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles, 1970).
24. Barry Totterdell (ed.), *Public Library Purpose: A Reader* (London, Clive Bingley, 1978).
25. Barry Totterdell, J. Bird, *The Effective Library* (London, Library Association, 1976).
26. Magali S. Larson, *The Rise of Professionalism* (Berkeley, U.C.L.A. Press, 1977), p. 59.

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# Personality and Professionalism?

By Laurent-G. Denis\* and Florence Mackesy\*\*

*The paper puts together personality traits identified as belonging to various occupational groups in order to see whether a relationship exists and can be measured between personality characteristics of practitioners and the degree of service orientation of an occupation. It is an attempt to extract from the literature some data and some indication of direction for further research. The occupations dealt with are library and information service, nursing, teaching, social work, law and medicine.*

*Cette étude exploratoire juxtapose des traits de caractère identifiés comme caractéristiques de différents groupes professionnels afin de vérifier si un rapport peut être établi entre les traits psychologiques des praticiens et l'importance de l'orientation service pour une profession. Le but visé est de fournir des données en vue de tracer des voies pour des recherches ultérieures. Les professions considérées sont la bibliothéconomie et les services d'information, le nursing, l'enseignement, le travail social, le droit et la médecine.*

This paper seeks to examine librarians' personality characteristics with the purpose of relating them to professionalism. Since few would dispute that professionalism is a continuous variable, it is legitimate to examine any and all independent variables capable of affecting the place of an occupation on this dependent continuous variable. Various occupational groups manifest certain attributes which typify them and identify their members as belonging to the group. The image which occupations project in society is a clear indication that certain traits in occupational groups are so predominant as to become in the collective consciousness the reality of the occupation even though the image may be a gross distortion of the reality. It is difficult to think of any occupational group which has been more characterized, if not caricatured, than that of librarians. With various degrees of scientific objectivity, observers have from time to time confirmed or refuted the prevailing stereotypes of librarians. What is less sure is whether certain types of people are attracted to a particular occupation or whether the occupation imposes constraints which develop into characteristics in successful practitioners. Some researchers have argued that

personality styles such as risk-taking are more important than individual traits because a style is a central theme about which the personality of an individual revolves.<sup>1</sup> Whether dominant characteristics or individual personal traits affect occupations or are affected by occupations matters little here. What does matter is that there is a perceived relationship between psychological characteristics and occupations. In this paper we will juxtapose personality traits identified as belonging to various occupational groups with the intent to see whether a relationship exists and can be measured between personality and the degree of professionalism of an occupation.

This paper is exploratory; it is an attempt to extract from the literature some data and some indication of direction for further research. We make no claim to an exhaustive bibliographic search, nor do we assume that we have identified all the variables which could lead to fruitful investigation. We have conducted on-line and manual searches of *Psychological Abstracts* and of *Sociological Abstracts* and manual searches of *LISA*, of *Dissertation Abstracts* and of *The Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook*. We have not attempted to obtain all the works which

might have had a bearing on the question nor can we claim to have read all the works deemed pertinent.

We have assumed that librarianship, or its more modern designation library and information service, is an occupation tending toward professionalism, defined very broadly as a dynamic process which involves an occupation in the acquisition of various attributes constituting a profession. These attributes can be: service orientation, theoretical knowledge, self-regulation, code of ethics, and lengthy specialized training. Likewise, personality characteristics have been considered in their broadest definitions. We have included personal values, needs, interests, and personality traits whenever they were measured on standard instruments. We have not considered studies based solely on an author's own questionnaire or interview schedule even though these instruments purported to measure personality traits.

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## Research into the Personality of Librarians

McDermoth has reviewed much of the literature mentioned below in her paper relating the personality of librarians to Adorno's hypothesized authoritarian or antidemocratic personality.<sup>2</sup> As part of the Public Library Inquiry, Dr. Alice Bryan, a trained psychologist with experience in carrying out a similar study of her own professional group, examined the post-World War II library personnel in the United States.<sup>3</sup> One thousand eight hundred and eight librarians in the Inquiry sample were asked to complete a personality test, "The Guilford-Martin Inventory of Factors GAMIN." The traits measured by this scale are as follows:

- G General pressure for overt activity
- A Ascendancy in social situations as opposed to submissiveness; leadership qualities
- M Masculinity of attitudes and interests as opposed to femininity
- I Lack of inferiority feelings; self-confidence
- N Lack of nervous tenseness and irritability.

The median scores of the librarians were used to construct a personality profile of the "typical" librarian.

As compared with the average male university student, the typical male librarian is rather submissive in social situations and less likely to show qualities of leadership. He is within the normal range of masculinity in his attitudes and interests, but he tends to lack confidence in himself and to feel somewhat inferior. His feelings of inferiority, however, seem not to worry him excessively, for he experiences less than average nervous tension and irritability. He shows no great drive for overt activity, but is normally sedentary for his age. On the whole, he seems to have made a reasonably good adjustment to life, and one might guess that stomach ulcers would not be his occupational disease.

The typical female librarian has a personality profile that is remarkably similar to that of her male colleague. As compared with the average woman university student, she is submissive in social situations, lacks self-confidence, feels inferior, has an average amount of drive for overt activity, and feels a normal degree of nervous tension and irritability. She is normally feminine in her attitudes and interests. Like the typical male librarian, she seems reasonably well adjusted.<sup>4</sup>

In the mid-1950s Robert Douglass studied 544 students enrolled in various American library schools. Although he used five personality inventories, "...the two upon which chief reliance has been placed in the study are the "Minnesota Multiphasic Per-

sonality Inventory", commonly referred to as the "MMPI," and "The Allport-Vernon Lindzey Study of Values."<sup>5</sup> Douglass provides the reader with a detailed analysis of his findings and with a very guarded set of conclusions which he summarizes as follows:

If the findings of this investigation have validity, the traits that seem to describe the model librarian (assuming a reasonably high level of intelligence on his part) would appear to equip him well for the type of work he will most likely find himself engaged in, that is, work that requires close and persistent attention to details, regular, regulated and systematic performance, conscientiousness, dependability, and a strong sense of responsibility. Many of the traits which characterize the model librarian, however, are not those most closely associated with or predictive of forceful leadership, distinguished scholarship, imaginative research, or other highly creative attainments.<sup>6</sup>

In 1960, Perry Morrison completed a doctoral dissertation which was later revised, condensed and published as *The Career of the Academic Librarian*.<sup>7</sup> The population studies covered seven hundred and seven librarians working in libraries reporting to the Association of College and Research Libraries who had been in service for at least five years. The instrument used was the "Self-Description Inventory" developed by Edwin E. Ghiselli and his associates at the University of California, Berkeley. The six traits measured by the Ghiselli instrument are intelligence, supervisory qualities, initiative, self-assurance, occupational level,<sup>8</sup> and decision-making power. Morrison divided his population into three subgroups which he called Major executives, Minor executives, and Others and he concluded:

As a group, academic librarians can be described as cultured and intelligent, but, like the library science students studied by Douglass, lacking in the traits "which are most closely associated with forceful leadership." In one trait, self-assurance, college and university librarians appear to be stronger than librarians in other types of libraries [...]

Those who have the scarce dynamic qualities of initiative and self-assurance tend to rise in the ranks of the profession. Both male and female librarians in major-executive positions tend to score rather well on the traits studied, but in the middle management and non-executive groups a greater proportion of women than of men made high scores on the more dynamic personality attributes. [...] Many academic librarians have an outlook on life similar to that of people in clerical, rather than professional, occupations [...] As position in the hierarchy of the profession increases, the self-descriptions given by academic librarians resemble more and more those of other professional and managerial people and less and less those of clerical workers.<sup>9</sup>

In a 1969 study of the factors which influenced the decision of Canadian librarians to begin their career in an academic or a public library, L.G. Denis examined the personality traits of some 400 respondents using the Allport-Vernon Lindzey "Study of Values" and the "Edward Personal Preference Schedule" (EPPS)<sup>10</sup>. The "Study of Values" measures six basic interests or motives in personality; the Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political, and Religious. The EPPS provides measures for fifteen personality variables: Achievement, Deference, Order, Exhibition, Autonomy, Affiliation, Intracception, Succorance, Dominance, Abasement, Nurturance, Change, Endurance, Heterosexuality, and Aggression. The author describes the academic librarian as "a pleasant type of person, although perhaps somewhat dull and unimaginative, but reliable... in short, he is like his reasons for becoming an academic librarian: serious, selfless, and a little pompous."<sup>11</sup> The public librarians' profile drafted by Denis shows some differences between men and women librarians.

The male public librarian resembles Mister Average in his personality, except that he is perhaps a little shyer and somewhat less garrulous than most people. The female public librarian differs from the women-in-general in that she has more drive for achievement and more endurance and is more orderly and better organized. On the other hand, she is a loner, a follower rather than a leader, and she is also more independent than most women, although she tends to treat others with kindness and to be generous.

In short, the Canadian male public librarian is not a particularly noticeable person, but his female counterpart shows distinguishing features which make her pleasant, unassuming, kind, reliable, and dependable.<sup>12</sup>

In the mid-1960s, McMahon investigated the personality characteristics of thirty professional librarians working in public, university and special libraries in Tasmania.<sup>13</sup> Among the test measures used were the Allport-Vernon Lindzey "Study of Values" and the "MMPI." The author found that her results were in substantial agreement with those of Douglass and Morrison and that the librarians in her sample lack the traits most closely associated with forceful leadership. More specifically, McMahon found

Male librarians [...] to be sensitive, sociable, prone to worry, self-dissatisfied, idealistic, and insecure, as well as having general aesthetic interests. Female librarians expressed a well-defined feminine interest pat-

tern which showed them to be sensitive and idealistic. They were somewhat withdrawn socially, as well as being insecure. There was evidence of depression and feelings of inadequacy in their makeup, as well as lack of self-confidence.<sup>14</sup>

In order to illustrate a talk given to a number of librarians, Sladen used Cattell's "16PF Questionnaire" on eight women librarians.<sup>15</sup> His subjects scored below normal on the outgoing and venturesome factors and above normal on the self-sufficiency factor, leading the author to conclude that the librarians tested were introverted.

In another study, the "Brook Reaction Test" was administered to 103 students at Leeds Polytechnics Department of Librarianship. This test consists of the reading of a list of verbal cues and the recording of the words which spontaneously occur to subjects in response to each. Analysis of responses produces a profile of interest in 22 categories. The three researchers reported that "The profiles [...] show a clear distinction between men and women and the general tendency is to suggest that the women are more orderly and single-minded than the men, who have a greater variety of more positive interests."<sup>16</sup>

A 1975 doctoral dissertation was devoted to the examination of two dominant personality traits among 272 librarians, then active, who held doctorates in library science or whose doctoral dissertations were on a library science topic.<sup>17</sup> The traits examined were conservatism and rigidity. The "Attitude Toward Change Scale" by Matthews and Prothro and items selected from Rokeach's "Dogmatism Scale" were administered to the subjects, who were mostly library administrators or library educators (ten percent were in other positions).<sup>18</sup>

The author found that attitudes of conservatism and rigidity were not predominant among the members of the doctoral group and that the personality profile outlined by earlier researchers, Douglass *et al.*, was not supported by his data.<sup>19</sup> Schmidt noted that "mean scores on the conservatism and rigidity scales tended to be lower for female and younger respondents than for male and other respondents."<sup>20</sup>

More recently Frankie studied the characteristics of university library cataloguers and reference librarians.<sup>21</sup> Among the variables analysed are the values, attitudes, behavioural styles and work preferences of these librarians. The researcher used the "Job

Analysis and Interest Measurement" (JAIM). She summarizes her findings as follows:

Lacking in an inclination for leadership, assertiveness, social interaction and change, individuals who become university catalog and reference librarians appear to be lacking in self-confidence, and exhibit behaviour motivated by such values as the importance of extrinsic rewards, avoidance of aggression, and a disinclination to encourage challenge on the job.<sup>22</sup>

Robert Turner reported in *College and Research Libraries* a study of sixteen men and twenty-six women students enrolled in the MLS program at a large American university.<sup>23</sup> From his analysis of the results of the "Bern Sex-Role Inventory," the author concludes:

The students studied showed many differences between the male and female endorsement of sex roles. The question becomes: Are males and females in library science different from other males and females in the society in their sex-role orientation as has been suggested by the previously mentioned studies? It appears that they are not.<sup>24</sup>

The characteristics of graduate students enrolled in library science and in educational technology were studied by Katherine McGough Davis using "The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire" (Form B).<sup>25</sup> Form B is comprised of sixteen traits measured on opposites: Reserved/outgoing, Less intelligent/more intelligent, Affected by feelings/emotionally stable, Humble/assertive, Sober/happy-go-lucky, Expedient/conscientious, Shy/venturesome, Tough minded/tender-minded, Trusting/suspicious, Practical/imaginative, Forthright/shrewd, Placid/apprehensive, Conservative/experimenting, Group dependent/self-sufficient, Undisciplined self-conflict/controlled, Relaxed/tense. The author concluded that:

Library school graduate students are outgoing, emotionally stable, venturesome, imaginative, experimenting, self-assured, and tense | | University library science/educational technology graduate students are outgoing, emotionally stable, sober, venturesome, tender-minded, trusting, imaginative, self-assured, experimenting, controlled and relaxed.<sup>26</sup>

Table I summarizes what we know about the characteristics of librarians. Quite obviously there are other studies which bear on the subject, but because their central concern is not personality traits or because they did not use standardized personality inventories they have not been dealt with here.

Among these are Carpenter on public library executives,<sup>27</sup> Plate on management personnel in libraries,<sup>28</sup> Nash and also Farley on library executives,<sup>29, 30</sup> and Presthus on a variety of librarians in one Canadian and three American cities.<sup>31</sup>

Not a single study reviewed above has been heir to another, yet many are somewhat related since they acknowledge one another and compare findings and conclusions. There is no real continuity to these works, but there is a commonality of purpose and the accumulation of related data helps to create a picture even though an incomplete one. None of the studies was made with the purpose of relating personality traits to professionalism *per se*. Each had its own special set of objectives; but in many instances the authors linked their findings about the personality traits of librarians to some aspect of the occupation itself. It is surprising that no one considered an important dimension of the occupation of library and information specialists, namely the organization in which most of them practise. As a consequence of operating in an institution, the library and information specialists must bring to their occupation or they must acquire early in their career the characteristics of the bureaucrat. At the best of times librarians are likely to be ambivalently oriented toward professionalism and perhaps it is not stretching a point to say that the ambivalence is related to some of their personality traits such as deference to authority. Some research, not considered in detail here, has touched upon some aspect of the cosmopolitan/local orientations to professionalism. However, no one has yet designed a study which would examine the particular question of the library as an influence on the librarian's professionalism and as a factor affected by the librarian's personality. Many writers have expressed concern about the limits which administrative authority imposes on the professional authority of the librarian, but to date no empirical evidence has been brought to bear on the question.<sup>32</sup> The literature is replete with articles claiming that the role of the librarian is changing and must change faster and more dramatically in order to meet the demands of an information-rich society.<sup>33</sup> The personality of the library and information specialists assumes renewed importance in light of the change so strongly advocated even by

members of the profession themselves. Newcomers to the profession and its experienced members alike will be affected if library and information service is to be essentially different from what it has been in the past. It may be that what we know now about the practitioners will be of historical value only. In other words, if librarianship is transformed into a new occupation, its practitioners may bear little or no personality resemblance to present-day librarians. Research in this area may have to undergo certain transformations as well.

### Research into the Personality of Other Occupations

This is a selective review of studies done on personality characteristics of students and new and experienced practitioners in a limited number of occupations; two of the occupations are the traditional, established professions of medicine and law; the remaining three are closer to librarianship on the professionalism continuum. These are social work, teaching and nursing described by Etzioni as semiprofessions.<sup>34</sup> The term profession is taken to mean an occupation having the attributes listed in this paper rather than an occupation whose practitioners use the term to distinguish themselves from amateurs or participants in purely money-making endeavours.

The studies discussed here are almost exclusively limited to those using the same personality measurement tests found in the studies of librarians described earlier: MMPI, Allport-Vernon Lindzey Study of Values, EPPS, Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, JAIM, and the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire. Osipow has summarized the research published prior to 1972.<sup>35</sup> Our review concentrates on later studies although some of them contain data which were collected in the late 1960s.

In a December 1974 article in the *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Johnson and Campbell reported on sixty-two occupational groups most of which were tested in 1968 and 1969 by the Centre for Interest Measurement Research at the University of Minnesota in order to develop a number of new occupational interest scales.<sup>36</sup> Samples varied in size from 119 to 1029 subjects and included men only. Twenty-two basic interest categories on the "Strong Vocational Interest Blank" for men were used to classify their interests. It

was found that most of the occupational groups possessed complex interest patterns. The results for lawyers, physicians and social workers are listed in Table II. The different entries for teacher were divided by subject taught and varied widely, with 'teaching' being the only common element among preferred activities and no interest being a common element among rejected activities. The preferred activities listed for librarian were 'writing', 'music', 'teaching', 'art' and 'social service'; the rejected activities were 'agriculture', 'adventure', 'recreational leadership', and 'mathematics.' Among lawyers, physicians, social workers, librarians and most teachers some form of 'service,' either 'social' or 'medical', appeared as a preferred activity although in varying order of preference.

In 1975 Gough reported on studies conducted between 1968 and 1972 using a sample of 184 female students in four occupational groups: law, education, medicine, and psychology, using the SVIB.<sup>37</sup> Profiles for each occupational group were constructed showing occupational scales on which each mean scored high and low. For medical students "among the high scores there are apparent elements of professional practice, therapeutic involvement and diversity of interests. Among the low scores there are factors of entrepreneurial activity, business detail, verbal-linguistic interests, and scientific research."<sup>38</sup>

In 1974 Juan *et al* reported on a longitudinal study of a group of medical students using the Rokeach "Dogmatism Scale" (Form E), the Allport-Vernon Lindzey "Study of Values," The Gordon "Survey of Interpersonal Values," and the "Cancer Attitude Survey." The authors noted that earlier studies had shown that the Gordon and Allport-Vernon Lindzey tests complemented each other indicating "that the person who enters medicine greatly values doing things for others and helping people on an individual basis, but simultaneously evidences only average social or philosophic concern."<sup>39</sup> In the Juan study which was conducted over four years — the original testing on entrance to medical school in 1966 and the second testing before graduation in 1970 — dogmatism decreased significantly but benevolence and theoretical values remained high. Students who had remained high in dogmatism over the years became more pragmatic, placing more emphasis on economic values

while those who remained low in dogmatism continued to remain idealistic, placing greater emphasis on aesthetic and social values. High dogmatism was associated with higher emphasis on conformity and higher emphasis on religious values.

E.S. Lasser's doctoral dissertation completed in 1976 compared 60 male chiropractic students and 60 male medical students using 23 variables in the 16 PF test.<sup>40</sup> The medical group was significantly higher than the chiropractic group on the trait relating to intelligence.

M.R. Morgan's 1973 doctoral dissertation on "A Comparison of Selected Personality, Biographical and Motivational Traits among Women Athletes, Physicians and Attorneys" made use of the 16 PF test for personality measurement.<sup>41</sup> The samples were quite small (fewer than fifteen in each group). "Results indicated that there were no significant differences among groups in personality structure while there were differences between each of the groups and the population norms."<sup>42</sup> Both physicians and lawyers were more intelligent, more experimental and analytical, more controlled, and had more tough poise. Lawyers were more imaginative, tough-minded, suspicious, assertive and competitive, and self-sufficient than the normal population; physicians were more emotionally stable, more apprehensive and less anxious. The Gough study identified lawyers as having high interests in business and financial matters, managerial posts and verbal-linguistic endeavours and low interests in science and biology.<sup>43</sup>

In 1974 R.C. Chope Jr. used the SVIB test on two samples of active members of the legal profession in 1967 and 1968.<sup>44</sup> High scoring lawyers had interests within a narrow range but within this range their interests were clearly directed; low scores were more diffuse in occupational interests and orientation. No difference in interests was found to be based on the variables of field of law, function (trial vs non-trial lawyers), firm size or rural vs urban location.

Using the "Rotter Internal-External Control Scale" to measure free will/determinism attitudes and the Allport-Vernon Lindzey test to measure values, A.S. Kerman (1975) studied lawyers, psychiatrists and psychologists to explore the problem of the communication gap which was widely believed to exist between lawyers and

their expert witnesses who were psychiatrists and psychologists.<sup>45</sup> Data suggested all three professions were biased toward free will rather than determinism. The lawyer group had higher economic and political and lower theoretical values scores than the other two groups.

The "Job Analysis and Interest Measurement" (JAIM) measures behavioural styles which are "the consistent ways an individual organizes his physical, emotional and energy resources."<sup>46</sup> R.C. Trojanowicz used JAIM to study 100 social workers and 100 policemen.<sup>47</sup> The results concerning social workers can be found in Table II.

In 1977 Pihl and Spiers used the "Jackson Personality Research Form" and the "Rokeach Dogmatism Scale" to study four occupational and student groups who participated in a team approach in a rehabilitation setting.<sup>48</sup> The practitioners included eight psychologists, fourteen physical therapists, nine social workers and eleven occupational therapists. There were from ten to thirteen final year students in each occupation doing practicums in the applied setting. Most of the subjects came from a single rehabilitation facility. While practitioners were significantly less dogmatic than the norm the students were not. Social workers were most concerned with the 'helplessness of mankind,' 'uncertain about the future' and least 'intolerant of disbeliefs,' 'reliant on authority' and 'authoritarian' on the Rokeach scale when compared with the members of the other three occupations.

In 1976 H.W. Gardiner used the EPPS to study 167 female nursing students.<sup>49</sup> Compared to nurses studied earlier, the 1976 nurse "appears to be independent and self-thinking, critical when the situation demands, less timid, and ready to take leadership. On the other hand, she shows less endurance and order than her earlier counterpart."<sup>50</sup>

In 1974 Kelly reported on a study of 545 nurses, newly employed in a large eastern hospital between 1966 and 1971, who were all required to take a psychological test battery consisting of the MMPI, 16 PF, EPPS and the "California Psychological Inventory" at the beginning of employment.<sup>51</sup> The variables "which most significantly differentiated promoted from nonpromoted nurses seemed to be related to emotional stability, poise and capacity to withstand pressure rather

than to such variables as dominance, managerial responsibility or sociability."<sup>52</sup>

Three studies of U.S. teachers done in 1972, 1976 and 1977 used the 16 PF test. The earliest of these, Hummel's 1972 doctoral dissertation, describes a study of the correlation between success in teaching at the secondary level and personality factors.<sup>53</sup> Success was measured by pupil ratings. Highest rated teachers overall were outgoing, assertive, happy-go-lucky, venturesome, tender-minded and high in extraversion and leadership. Long's 1977 dissertation focused on both elementary and secondary teachers.<sup>54</sup> Teachers success ratings were determined by the principal of each school. Interpretation of the data indicated no significant differences between male teachers and the general male population nor between females and the general female population. Differences were found to exist between subjects correlated with success, sex and level (elementary vs secondary); female teacher characteristics varied with age but male teacher characteristics did not.

Loyd's 1976 doctoral dissertation compared three groups of women educators: administrators; teachers who were certified (or were seeking certification in administration); and teachers.<sup>55</sup> Both teachers certified in administration and teachers were relatively more intelligent but less imaginative than administrators. Teachers were somewhat less emotionally stable than the other groups. All were relatively conscientious, with the teachers certified in administration being most conscientious. Each group was strong in leadership traits and effective in group performance and democratic procedures.

The data summarized in Table II were based on different scales, terminology, and norms and came from studies for different purposes. The groups were of various composition. Furthermore pertinent studies may not have been located. Therefore our analysis can only be tentative.

While not all the works cited dealt exclusively with professional or semi-professional occupations, we chose to outline those parts dealing specifically with these two types of occupations. No pattern which distinguishes professions from semi-professions emerges clearly to the untrained eye. As the subjects are either university graduates or college students, it is not surprising that their characteristics tend to be

different from the general norms or that common background blurs any difference among occupational groups. However, there are differences but to the authors they are not as sharp as anticipated.

Typical profiles for the occupations under consideration can be drawn from the data only by discounting contradictory findings. For instance, Morgan, whose subjects had basically similar backgrounds, found no significant difference among physicians, lawyers, and professional athletes but Gough did find differences between students in law and medicine.<sup>56</sup> Johnson and Campbell also show varying interests for physicians and lawyers. The only report, Johnson & Campbell, which compared librarians on a similar footing with physicians, lawyers, and social workers, showed the four groups to have a decided interest in some aspect of service, either social or medical; the same held true for most subject categories of teacher mentioned in the report. It also indicated that physicians, lawyers, social workers, librarians, and teachers had a common interest in teaching. Even if all pertinent studies had been examined it might not have been possible for someone untrained in the intricacies of personality theory and testing to make valid comparisons of the data for the purpose of discovering patterns therefrom.

Nevertheless the important fact is that, even with instruments which have been criticized for their lack of precision, we are able to observe some personality differences among occupational groups. Assuming that proper samples can be drawn and adequate measures are used, a researcher could compare various groups on a number of variables dealing with the subjects' personalities.

#### Personality and Professionalism

It will be evident from this review of the literature pertaining to the personality of some occupational groups that, typically, studies relating personality traits and actual or potential occupational membership involve scored personality inventories and comparisons of those scores with scores obtained from control groups representing similar or different occupations or representing no particular career field. In summarizing his chapter on personality and career, Osipow warns that personality measures have serious limitations, and inferences drawn from responses to those inventories may

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have questionable validity.<sup>57</sup> The reader will have noticed also that much overlap exists between the traits observed between members of various occupations. It follows that prediction of membership in a vocational group on the basis of personality variables would be hazardous in the extreme. Also occupations tolerate a wide range of personality differences among their members.<sup>58</sup> These limitations notwithstanding, our review pointed to a number of known facts which can be used for further study of library and information specialists.

At present, personality assessment is questioned. Before accepting the idea that the future of librarianship should be shaped by such assessment, we must pause and resist strongly the temptation to make facile use of premature or incomplete findings. Even if sound test or research instruments existed, is library and information service an occupation so clearly delineated that it should accommodate only members possessing a certain psychological profile or style?

We have said that we would examine the possibility of relating personality and professionalism. At the outset, we were concerned mainly with one aspect of professionalism, namely "service orientation," because it seemed that it was the trait most apt to be influenced by the personality of the practitioners. However, other characteristics of professionalism, e.g. autonomy, might also be influenced by personality. Most writers agree that the service orientation is either the most important or one of the most important characteristics of professionalism.<sup>59</sup> The professional's service orientation requires that she/he be impersonal, objective and impartial with the client. These concepts are related to the professional's personality as are "sense of calling" and "belief in service to the public" — both dimensions of the service orientation of professionalism.<sup>60</sup> At present service orientation, a variable which has been used in a variety of studies, is still inadequately defined.<sup>61</sup>

We are dealing here with two variables: personality and service orientation. Since both are difficult to measure with any degree of precision, relating them will be fraught with danger. Obviously the relationship is multi-faceted and will not be established within the framework of a single study. Intuitively, we can expect that values such as the "social" scale of the

Allport-Vernon Lindzey "Study of Values" and traits like "Nurturance" and "Endurance" on the EPPS would correlate with service orientation as measured on the Hall/Snizek scale, the Varley scale,<sup>62</sup> the Finks scale<sup>63</sup> or some other appropriate instrument. Needless to say these studies would have to take into consideration a number of particular aspects of the library and information specialist's occupation, such as the traditional division between public service and technical service personnel, the generally late entry of persons into the occupation, the varied educational background of the subjects, their socio-economic and professional background, and their career mobility and stability. Above all, the fact that most people practise in a highly bureaucratic institution where rewards accompany administrative promotion rather than technical/professional expertise must be ignored. The fact that women dominate at the lower levels of the organization while men are over-represented at the higher administrative levels may also be a peculiarity to be controlled. It is likely that sub-groups will display significant variance on service orientation as well as on personality measures and that the more fruitful studies will deal with small homogeneous samples rather than large undifferentiated populations. It appears that studies using the same testing methods to compare sub-groups of occupations assumed to be variously placed along the professionalism continuum would help establish benchmarks against which all occupations could be measured on service. While we are considering a wide spectrum ranging from the semi-professions such as nursing, teaching, social work, and library and information service to the established professions like law and medicine, we must refrain from using too broad an approach because our variables are qualitative and difficult to measure. It is better to concentrate on the creation and use of theories on narrow problems than to proceed with a shotgun approach which will produce some sort of correlations and positive results but can also mask more important or essential findings. We are beginning to see studies of our own occupation based on personality style and this may be the direction of the future. It is hoped that more psychologists will join forces with research librarians to produce new insights about an exciting occupational group.

TABLE I PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF LIBRARIANS

INVESTIGATOR	SUBJECTS	METHOD	FINDINGS
Bryan (1952)	1808 professional staff ranging from junior assistant to chief librarian in 60 U.S. public libraries (157 M.; 1,651 F.)	Guilford-Martin Inventory of Factors (GAMIN). Abridged ed.	submissive; not dominant in leadership qualities; lack self-confidence; feel inferior; average drive for overt activity; reasonably well adjusted; M. normally masculine and less nervous and irritable; F. normally feminine, nervous and irritable
Douglass (1957)	124 M. and 400 F. U.S. library school students (1947-48); + 20 M. library school students (1955-57) given only M.M.P.I. test	M.M.P.I.; Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values; a self-rating questionnaire; A-S Reaction Study; Truman-Miles Attitude - Interest Analysis Test; Bernreuter Personality Inventory	orderly; conscientious, conservative and conformist; passive, detached, indecisive and weak in leadership qualities; introspective; aloof and self-conscious; not unduly anxious; M. have a strong sense of responsibility and F. are more self-sufficient than men; M. interests are feminine in aesthetic aspect; M. are strong in theoretical and weak in religious interests; F. are strong in religious and normal in theoretical and aesthetic interests; both are strong in social and weak in economic and political interests
Morrison (1969)	231 heads of U.S. colleges and universities; 232 middle management academic librarians; 244 non-supervising academic librarians. (data collected in late '50's.)	Ghiselli "Self-Description Inventory"	high intelligence; lack qualities and liking for supervision; non-executives were low in initiative and risk-taking, executives were normally so; self-assured with no undue anxiety; occupational-level of psychological characteristics ranges from below top business management personnel through other salaried professionals and middle management to white collar clerical; weak overall in critical decision-making leadership qualities but F. in lower ranks rated higher than M.
McMahon (1967)	30 professional Tasmanian librarians from public, special and university libraries (12 M., 18 F.) (data collected in 1965)	M.M.P.I., Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values	M. were sensitive, prone to worry, sociable, somewhat over-controlled and insecure. F. were sensitive and idealistic, withdrawn socially, felt inadequate and somewhat depressed and insecure. M. and F. placed high emphasis on aesthetic values and low emphasis on economic values; theoretical, social, political and religious values were normal
Denis (1969)	648 graduates from Canadian library schools between 1960 and 1967 who had accepted their first positions in an academic or public library (159 M. and 252 F. academic; 56 M. and 181 F. public)	Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values; Edwards Personal Preference Schedule; Kuder Preference Record-Vocational	academic M. self-sufficient, orderly; has a good drive for achievement, respects authority; likes routine; conservative, conformist; not prone to helping people; kind, sympathetic, unselfish. Public M. self-sufficient; apart from some shyness has normal characteristics. academic F. independent, non-conformist, strong desire for achievement, inquisitive; aloof. Public F. self-sufficient, independent, orderly; a follower; has a drive for achievement; reliable; kind, dependable, unassuming
Sladen (1972)	8 female chartered librarians; 100 librarians attending a conference in 1971	Cattell 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (sample of 8 tested for 16 factors; sample of 100 tested for 3 factors: A, H, Q2)	sample of 8 scored low on A (Outgoing), low on H (Venturesome) and high on Q2 (Self-Sufficient) indicating introversion. Sample of 100 showed similar results.
Kent (1973)	103 English librarianship students tested in 1972	Brook Reaction Test	F. more orderly and single-minded and subdued than M
Schmidt (1975)	272 active librarians holding doctorates whose doctoral dissertations were on library science. Mostly library administrators and educators. (197 M.; 75 F.)	Matthews and Prothro Attitude Toward Change Scale; Rokeach Dogmatism Scale	conservatism and rigidity were NOT predominant. Mean scores on the conservatism and rigidity scales tended to be lower for female and younger respondents than for males and older respondents
Frankie (1980)	193 university librarians (32 M. and 66 F. cataloguers); 22 M. and 72 F. reference librarians; 1 not specified)	Job Analysis and Interest Measurement (JAIM)	lack inclination for leadership, assertiveness, social interaction, change and self-confidence. Value extrinsic rewards; avoid aggression; disinclined to encourage challenge on the job
Turner (1980)	M.L.S. students at a large American university (16 M.; 26 F.)	Bem-Sex Role Inventory	M. librarians are not different from men in general in their sex role orientation; F. librarians are not different from women in general in their sex role orientation

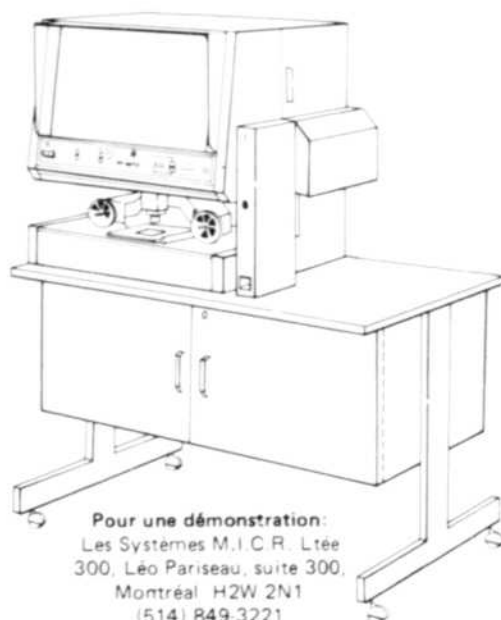
INVESTIGATOR	SUBJECTS	METHOD	FINDINGS
Davis (1981)	76 graduate students in library science (9 M., 33 F.), educational technology (8 M.; 8 F.), and unified library science/education technology (4 M.; 14 F.)	Cattell 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (Form B)	library school graduate students: outgoing, emotionally stable, venturesome, imaginative, experimenting, self-assured, tense. unified library science/educational technology graduate students: outgoing, emotionally stable, sober, venturesome, tender-minded, trusting, imaginative, self-assured, experimenting, controlled and relaxed. all groups scored above average in the outgoing, venturesome, imaginative, experimenting and controlled scales. all groups scored below average on the apprehension scale. all groups scored average on the conscientious and self-sufficiency scales.



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TABLE II PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF OTHER OCCUPATIONS

INVESTIGATOR	SUBJECTS	METHOD	FINDINGS
<i>Physicians</i>			
Johnson & Campbell (1974) [report on studies]	1 of 62 male occupational groups tested in 1968-1969	SVIB	Preferred activities: * <i>medical service, science, mathematics, nature, music, teaching</i> . Rejected activities: <i>sales, business management, merchandising</i> . * <i>underlining</i> indicates that at least 50% of the items in that basic interest area differentiated between men in the occupation and men-in-general in the same direction.
Gough (1975) [report on studies]	51 first year female medical students studied by Cartwright in the early '70's	SVIB (male form)	Compared to other female professionals: high on scales on osteopath, physician, physical therapist and diversity of interests; low on scales on printer, senior CPA, accountant and president manufacturing concern.
Juan et al (1974)	original test: 514 students entering medical schools in 1966; follow-up test: 81 of those students just before graduation in 1970 (i.e. part of those with the 15% highest and lowest dogmatism scores from 1966)	Rokeach Dogmatism Scale (Form E); AVL Study of Values; Gordon Survey of Interpersonal Values; Cancer Attitude Survey	Dogmatism decreased overall; benevolence and theoretical values remained high. Students who remained high in dogmatism over the three years became more pragmatic; persistently low dogmatics remained idealistic. High dogmatism was associated with emphasis on conformity and religious values.
Morgan (1973)	12 F. physicians, 11 F. attorneys, and 11 F. professional athletes under 41	16PF	No significant difference among the 3 groups. Physicians were more intelligent, experimenting and analytical, controlled, and independent, emotionally stable and apprehensive but less anxious and had more tough poise than the normal population.
Lasser (1976)	60 male medical students and 60 male chiropractic students	16PF	MD group was significantly more intelligent, experimenting, creative, introverted, anxious and neurotic than chiropractic students. Chiropractor group was more outgoing, emotionally stable, venturesome, forthright and self-assured than MD students. Detailed relationship to general population norms was not given in the abstract.
<i>Lawyers</i>			
Johnson & Campbell (1974) [report on studies]	1 of 62 male occupational groups tested in 1968-1969	SVIB	Preferred activities: * <i>law/politics, public speaking, writing, social service, teaching</i> . Rejected activities: <i>mechanical activities, agriculture</i> . * <i>underlining</i> indicates that at least 50% of the items in that basic interest area differentiated between men in the occupation and men-in-general in the same direction.
Gough (1975) [report on studies]	40 female law students tested in 1968-1969	SVIB (male form)	Compared to other female professions high on scales on public administrator, social worker, lawyer and specialization level; low on scales on dentists, veterinarian, physicist and carpenter.
Morgan (1973)	11 F. attorneys, 12 F. physicians, and 11 F. professional athletes under 41	16PF	No significant differences among the 3 groups. Lawyers were more intelligent, experimenting and analytical, controlled, independent, imaginative, tough-minded, suspicious, assertive and competitive and self-sufficient and had more tough poise than the normal population.
Chope (1974)	235 female and 177 male lawyers tested in 1967 and 1968; follow-up test in 1974	SVIB	High scoring M. were confident of their verbal abilities and attracted to positions of power. High scoring F. rejected feminine interests; low scoring F. had a neutral or favourable attitude to feminine interests. High scorers had clearly directed interests within a narrow range; low scorers were more diffuse in occupational interests and orientation. Extreme scores on "lawyer" scale remained stable over time.

INVESTIGATOR	SUBJECTS	METHOD	FINDINGS
Kerman (1975)	lawyers, psychiatrists, psychologists	Rotter Internal-External Control Scale; AVL Study of Values	All 3 groups were biased toward free will. Lawyers had higher economic and political values scores and lower theoretical values scores than the other 2 groups.
<i>Social Workers</i>			
Johnson & Campbell (1974) [report on studies]	1 of 62 male occupational groups tested in 1968 and 1969	SVIB	Preferred activities: *social service, writing, law/politics, public speaking, business management, teaching. Rejected activities: mathematics, agriculture. * <i>underlining</i> indicates that at least 50% of the items in that basic interest area differentiated between men in the occupation and men-in-general in the same direction.
Trojanowicz (1971)	100 social workers and 100 policemen	Job Analysis and Interest Management (JAIM)	Social worker preferences: working independently; directing his own activity; utilizing groups for decision-making; work that involves social interaction and congenial co-workers and approval from others; work that permits him to be helpful to others. S.W. wishes to be considered understanding and charitable, feels he can influence future events; values his intellectual achievement; and believes people are motivated by intrinsic-motivation and knowledge of results.
Pihl and Spiers (1977)	8 psychologists, 14 physical therapists, 9 social workers, 11 occupational therapists, 10-13 final-year students in each of the four fields.	Rokeach Dogmatism Scale; Jackson Personality Research Form	Practitioners were significantly less dogmatic than the norm but the students were not so. Social workers displayed the lowest achievement and endurance scores; were most concerned about the helplessness of mankind, uncertain about the future, affiliative, harm-avoiding and succorant, tended toward being the least intolerant, reliant on authority and authoritarian.
<i>Nurses</i>			
Kelly (1974)	545 nurses newly employed between 1966 and 1971 in a large eastern U.S. hospital. 120 were evaluated for promotion; 42 were promoted.	MMPI, 16 PF, EPPS, California Psychological Inventory	Promoted nurses vs non-promoted nurses. promoted nurses were more independent, feminine, distant, self-assured and relaxed; had more capacity for status; were less prone to psychological pressures.
Gardiner (1976)	167 female nursing students were tested in 1976 and compared with a 1959 test of student nurses and a 1973 college women norm which was a revised version of the 1959 norm.	EPPS	1976 nurses vs 1959 nurses: 1976 subjects were significantly higher on Autonomy and Aggression and lower on Deference, Abasement, Order and Endurance. 1976 nurses vs 1973 college women: nurses were significantly higher on Nurturance, Deference, Affiliation and Dominance and lower on Autonomy and Aggression. 1959 nurses vs 1959 college women: nurses were significantly higher on Order, Succorance, Abasement and Nurturance but lower on Achievement, Autonomy, Dominance and Aggression.
<i>Teachers</i>			
Hummel (1972)	117 U.S. classroom high school teachers in language arts, mathematics, social studies and science.	16PF	Teachers rated most successful by their pupils were outgoing, assertive, happy-go-lucky, venturesome, tender-minded and high in extraversion and leadership.
Loyd (1976)	3 groups of U.S. women educators: 1) administrators, 2) teachers who were certified (or seeking certification) in administration, 3) teachers	16PF	Compared to the normal population: 1) administrators were relatively outgoing, emotionally stable, dominant, serious, conscientious, venturesome, trusting, imaginative, shrewd, self-assured, self-sufficient, controlled and relaxed. 2) teachers certified in administration were relatively intelligent, emotionally stable, dominant, serious, conscientious, venturesome, tough-minded, trusting, shrewd, self-assured, self-sufficient, controlled and relaxed. 3) teachers were relatively reserved, intelligent, dominant, serious, conscientious, tough-minded, shrewd, self-assured, self-sufficient, and

INVESTIGATOR	SUBJECTS	METHOD	FINDINGS
Long (1977)	male and female elementary school teachers from 8 Mississippi public schools	16PF	controlled. Administrators were more outgoing, venturesome, trusting, self-assured, controlled, and relaxed than teachers. Teachers certified in administration were more tough-minded than administrators and more controlled and relaxed than teachers.  Successful M. teachers, as determined by principal ratings, were more forthright than less successful M. teachers; successful F. teachers were more out-going than less successful F. teachers; M. teachers were generally more intelligent, venturesome, controlled and tense than F. teachers who were generally more shy, tender-minded, practical and conservative than M. teachers. Successful teachers varied little from their male and female counterparts in the general population.

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# Professionnalisme, communication documentaire et traits culturels: Une trilogie à étudier

Par Alain Perrier\*

*Après avoir défini sa conception du professionnalisme, l'auteur, en utilisant la fonction de la communication documentaire comme exemple, démontre l'influence des traits culturels sur le travail de référence, et soutient que la recherche en ce domaine mérite d'être amorcée afin de maintenir ou d'améliorer le niveau de professionnalisme des bibliothécaires québécois.*

*The author describes his definition of professionalism. Using documentary communication as an example, he demonstrates the influence of cultural characteristics on reference work. He states that research in this area should be initiated in order to maintain or improve the level of professionalism of librarians in Quebec.*

Au Québec, le statut de bibliothécaire professionnel est assez mal perçu par la population. Il est très fréquent que l'on nous demande: «Qu'est-ce que ça fait au juste un bibliothécaire? Quelle formation doit-il recevoir?» Bien que la profession de bibliothécaire existe depuis la plus haute antiquité, elle a subi des transformations radicales au cours des âges, transformations causées principalement par les changements sociaux et technologiques. Toutefois, la bibliothéconomie<sup>1</sup> a toujours été reconnue comme une profession quoique son exercice ait considérablement changé selon les âges et les pays.

Si les modalités ainsi que les conditions d'exercice varient, il en résulte que la perception du rôle et du statut du bibliothécaire varie elle aussi. Différents facteurs influent sur l'exercice: économiques, politiques, sociaux et culturels. Il conviendrait d'ajouter à cette nomenclature, les fonctions spécifiques aux différents types de services documentaires, par exemple conservation pour une bibliothèque nationale.

De quelque manière que l'on envisage la chaîne documentaire, que ce soit de façon linéaire ou circulaire, un consensus se dégage:

Quelles que soient ses tâches, la responsabilité première du bibliothécaire, sa raison

d'être, c'est d'agir comme intermédiaire entre l'utilisateur quel qu'il soit et l'information ou la documentation sous toutes ses formes.<sup>2</sup>

Cette fonction de communication documentaire occupe une place très importante dans la documentation professionnelle.<sup>3</sup> Il s'agit d'un processus d'une grande complexité, mettant en cause tous les intervenants: administrateurs, usagers, ressources humaines et matérielles. Nos connaissances en ce domaine sont très fragmentaires et occuperont nos recherches pour les prochaines décennies.

De même, il a toujours paru évident que l'exercice de la bibliothéconomie découle de valeurs culturelles; un service documentaire sera différent selon qu'il s'agit d'une culture orale ou basée sur l'imprimé.<sup>4</sup> Cette évidence est telle que l'on oublie systématiquement d'en tenir compte dans l'exercice quotidien de notre profession ou, si nous le faisons, c'est à la façon de monsieur Jourdain.

Dans les pages qui vont suivre, nous allons tenter d'examiner les interrelations entre le professionnalisme, la communication documentaire et les valeurs culturelles. Cet exercice se veut plus un effort de systématisation et de sensibilisation que l'exposé scientifique de recherches en préparation.

## Profession et professionnalisme

La notion de profession fait l'objet d'études et de discussions continuelles; on n'a qu'à penser au débat concernant l'entrée des bibliothécaires à l'Office des professions du Québec. Il nous semble utile, pour simplifier, de mentionner les deux définitions suivantes:

... tout groupement naturel d'individus ou d'entreprises concourant à la prestation d'un même service à la communauté, ou à la production et à la mise sur le marché d'un même bien économique, d'un même produit, ou d'un groupe de produits pouvant faire appel dans leur fabrication à une technologie commune et peut-être à des matières premières identiques.<sup>5</sup>

... a profession consists of a number of separate persons who have agreed to set up a system of relationships among themselves for the purpose of carrying out activities and achieving objectives which are beyond their powers as separate individuals.<sup>6</sup>

Selon ces deux auteurs, une profession est un groupe d'individus ayant des intérêts communs et des services à offrir à la collectivité nécessitant un certain partage des connaissances ou des ressources entre les membres du groupe. Il n'est pas fait mention du niveau de service offert, du type d'inté-

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rêt commun ni des tâches à accomplir et de la formation nécessaire à cet accomplissement. À ce niveau, la bibliothéconomie est une profession au même titre que la métallurgie comme le souligne l'auteur de la première définition. Cette absence de distinction entre «profession organisée» et «profession libérale» nous entraîne de plein pied à la notion «d'esprit professionnel» — le «professional behavior» des anglophones —, c'est-à-dire le professionnalisme.

### Le professionnalisme

Qui dit «profession» sous-entend, on l'a vu, un regroupement des personnes exerçant cette profession, c'est-à-dire soit une association, soit une corporation. Le travail spécifique à chaque profession suppose une connaissance et un comportement propres aux divers groupes; il s'agit du professionnalisme. De quoi s'agit-il? Un premier auteur déclare:

Il se définit comme un ensemble de valeurs partagées par des personnes exerçant une même occupation, reliées à la façon dont leur travail devrait être accompli. Ces valeurs sont consignées et sanctionnées par les règlements ou le code d'éthique de l'association.<sup>7</sup>

Retenons ici cette notion de «valeurs partagées» que nous réutiliserons plus tard. Il nous faut cependant avoir recours à une autre citation pour expliciter le contenu du travail accompli:

Professional behavior may be defined in terms of four essential attributes: a high degree of generalized and systematic knowledge; primary orientation to the community interest rather than to individual self-interest; a high degree of ethics internalized in the process of work socialization and through voluntary associations organized and operated by the work specialists themselves; and a system of rewards (monetary and honorary) that is primarily a set of symbols of work achievement and thus ends in themselves, not means to some end of individual self-interest...<sup>8</sup>

Formation professionnelle, protection des intérêts du public, code d'éthique dont l'application est assurée par une association, et reconnaissance professionnelle sont donc les ingrédients principaux du professionnalisme. Si l'on admet ces quatre composantes comme éléments constitutifs, il faudra aussi admettre que tout renouvellement du professionnalisme affectera l'un ou l'autre de ces éléments.

### Le renouvellement du professionnalisme

On a vu que le professionnalisme implique les professionnels eux-mêmes, le

public, les intervenants au niveau de la formation ainsi que — et surtout — le regroupement de toutes ces forces au niveau des associations. C'est dans celles-ci que, comme dans un goulot d'étranglement, tous les intervenants peuvent agir. Selon les pays et les conditions différentes, les formules retenues varieront considérablement.

Il apparaît aussi évident que toute modification substantielle de l'une des composantes entraînera à plus ou moins long terme des changements majeurs des trois autres. Au Québec, à titre d'exemple, l'exigence de la maîtrise pour les bibliothécaires a suivi de près la création de la Corporation des bibliothécaires professionnels du Québec; la parution d'un code de déontologie ainsi qu'une hausse substantielle du traitement moyen des bibliothécaires ne sont certes pas étrangers à cette modification. Les intérêts divergents des intervenants agissent aussi les uns sur les autres et deviennent un facteur permanent de changement. En 1976, les bibliothécaires professionnels du Québec organisaient une marche de protestation dans la capitale provinciale pour obtenir une augmentation de leur traitement; ils partageaient sans doute l'avis de Bengé qui soutenait:

In some societies even now people may be respected because they are not well paid, and the respect is their only reward. Yet sainthood is not a profession.<sup>9</sup>

### Avantages du professionnalisme

Quels bénéfices la population et les bibliothécaires retirent-ils d'un professionnalisme tel que défini précédemment? Une étude récente d'un collègue en illustre les bienfaits pour la population. Utilisant une mesure appelée l'indice composé de professionnalisme qui «consiste, d'une part, à mesurer et à chiffrer le niveau de formation... du personnel, ainsi que son comportement professionnel (participation aux activités des associations, publications, etc.)<sup>10</sup>, il en arrive à la conclusion que «nous sommes en droit de penser... que le niveau de professionnalisme du personnel contribue à augmenter la performance de la bibliothèque au niveau de l'utilisation de celle-ci par la population».<sup>11</sup>

En plus des avantages monétaires mentionnés plus haut, les bibliothécaires professionnels du Québec bénéficient d'un *Code de déontologie* qui détermine leurs obligations envers le public et protège ce dernier d'un mauvais exercice de la profession. Qui plus est,

ces mêmes bibliothécaires ont à leur disposition un document intitulé *Tâches du bibliothécaire professionnel* qui leur permet de renseigner le public sur leurs activités tout en protégeant ce public d'une mauvaise pratique.<sup>12</sup> On peut donc affirmer que le professionnalisme bien compris est souhaitable, rentable, socialement bénéfique et renouvelable.

### Du professionnalisme à la communication documentaire

Nous avons jusqu'ici vu que le professionnalisme passe par une formation et une pratique surveillée par un code de déontologie. Mais le contenu de cette pratique n'a pas encore été défini. Au Québec, il existe depuis 1974 une «Liste des tâches professionnelles du bibliothécaire» qui fut amendée en 1982. Faut-il rappeler qu'une telle liste présuppose une philosophie de service, et que, comme le mentionnait Foskett, parlant en général,

... you will find it very difficult to discover precisely what this philosophy is, for the articles abstracted consist of ponderous platitudes, pious hopes, complaints and criticisms, and, very occasionally, a quest for normative principles by whose light we can illuminate our practice.<sup>13</sup>

Il ne faudrait pas non plus oublier la loi de Mooers avant d'étudier cette liste. En effet, «an information system will tend not to be used whenever it is more painful and troublesome for a customer to have information than not to have it».<sup>14</sup>

Donc, sans plus élaborer sur la philosophie et la quantité de la clientèle, les bibliothécaires professionnels québécois ont classé les tâches qu'ils accomplissent en quatre catégories: administration, gestion des collections, organisation et traitement des ressources documentaires et diffusion de l'information documentaire. Cette division des tâches se retrouve généralement en bibliothéconomie nord-américaine. Les quatre catégories de tâches sont intimement reliées entre elles. Il serait oiseux de vouloir établir une hiérarchie entre elles car elles convergent toutes vers un même objectif ultime: transmettre de l'information à qui en a besoin. L'étape où une telle transmission de l'information se produit se nomme, dans le jargon professionnel, la communication documentaire.

### La communication documentaire

Il existe une littérature abondante concernant les différentes tâches effectuées au niveau de cette fonction. Bien

que les situations particulières peuvent influencer l'organisation d'un tel ensemble de services, les auteurs nord-américains s'entendent à y inclure les tâches suivantes:

- A. Information seekers
  1. Library needs and use
  2. Library instruction
- B. Reference and information librarians (Central information services)
  1. Enquiry work
  2. Dissemination of information
- C. Information sources
  1. Library materials: availability services
  2. Subject bibliography.<sup>15</sup>

Cette diversité des tâches entraîne l'utilisation d'un personnel aux qualifications diverses et de différents niveaux de formation: commis, techniciens et bibliothécaires professionnels. Nous allons nous intéresser maintenant à l'une de ces tâches, à savoir le travail de référence.

### Le contexte organisationnel

Avant de tenter de définir en quoi consiste le travail de la référence, il convient de s'attarder un instant sur le contexte dans lequel il s'effectue. Tout service documentaire dépend d'une organisation plus vaste, dont il est partie et dont les objectifs conditionnent son type de gestion, sa structure, et la qualité de ses services. Cette dimension que l'on oublie trop souvent joue un rôle capital dans l'exécution des tâches de tout service. Douglas J. Foskett mentionne cet impact dans l'un de ses nombreux articles.

... Mr Raymond Smith ... did not have his principles upon a mere administrative formula, but upon the function that libraries carry out, the purpose for which they are established, and which he identified as the implementation, through books and data, of the policy of the organisation to which the library belongs.<sup>16</sup>

Il est à prévoir, à la lumière de cette citation, que la politique de transmission de l'information variera selon que le bibliothécaire de référence œuvre dans une bibliothèque publique ou un centre de documentation du ministère de la Défense nationale!

Le type de gestion joue aussi un rôle important dans la performance du personnel de la référence. Une étude récente réalisée au Québec démontre que les plus importantes sources de stress chez les bibliothécaires sont d'origine organisationnelle, bien que «la très forte majorité des personnes interrogées ont donc le sentiment de réussir relativement bien à composer avec les situations pouvant engendrer

du stress».<sup>17</sup> De même, le climat organisationnel influence considérablement la motivation au travail, la satisfaction personnelle, et, par voie de conséquence, la performance. Une autre étude récente réalisée en Ontario cette fois en arrive à la conclusion suivante:

Despite being better trained, having higher status and greater career opportunities and mobility, graduate professional reference librarians did not express greater motivation and job satisfaction (or less job dissatisfaction) than did technicians or other groups doing reference work.<sup>18</sup>

On voit donc que le contexte organisationnel influence le travail de référence avant même que celui-ci ne s'effectue.

### La théorie de la référence

On entend par théorie de la référence «the formulation of concepts (through the study of ideas, attitudes, and practices), by which reference and information service can be examined and its principles understood».<sup>19</sup> En 1973, Shera affirmait à ce sujet: «I would wager that few reference librarians can explain in any precise way their methods of search, or how their decisions are made».<sup>20</sup> Il se fait présentement énormément de recherches à ce sujet.<sup>21</sup> Mais il faut bien avouer avec Davinson que «research needs to be carried out in the terminology, the nature and purpose, the scope, branches and content, and finally the relationships of information service both within and without librarianship».<sup>22</sup>

Selon le schéma des tâches présenté plus haut, le travail de la référence comporte deux volets, c'est-à-dire la négociation de la question et la réponse à cette question par la fourniture de l'information demandée. Dans le premier volet, il s'agit d'établir une forme de communication personnelle avec l'utilisateur afin de cerner toutes les facettes de la demande; dans le deuxième, il s'agit de traduire la question en langage documentaire et d'établir une équation entre ce dernier et le contenu de la documentation. Tout service documentaire bien structuré essaie de prévoir les demandes et de se préparer en conséquence.

... reference service, at its highest level, consists not only of speedy and efficient supply, but also of the anticipation of readers' needs, so becoming a significant factor in the life of the community.<sup>23</sup>

### La négociation de la question

C'est au niveau de la négociation que toute l'efficacité du travail de référence

se joue; en effet, si l'on a mal compris celle-ci ou si l'utilisateur n'a pas fourni toutes les indications nécessaires, toutes les étapes subséquentes s'avèrent inutiles. Il est donc essentiel d'établir une relation personnelle avec l'utilisateur. Benge prétend même que «the key professional activity is the personal relationship to the reader».<sup>24</sup>

Mais, avant même qu'une question soit posée à un bibliothécaire de référence interviennent deux facteurs liés à la communication non-verbale: les signaux visibles et la façon utilisée pour dire les choses.

Two areas of study with especially important potential for application to the librarian's relationships with library users are kinesics and para-linguistics. ... Kinesics deals with the visible, unspoken, (or 'non verbal' to use the correct jargon) signals which people transmit to, or receive from, each other and interpret as part of an oral communication... Para-linguistics ... involves the analysis not of what is said but of how it is said, or at least how an auditor apprehends something to have been said.<sup>25</sup>

Une section de la para-linguistique serait d'une grande utilité aux bibliothécaires de référence: la présence («immediacy» en anglais).

The study of the immediacy concept is based on the proposition that the use of certain language, perhaps accompanied by bodily non-verbal signals, can convey to an auditor a more or less subconscious feeling of whether the speaker is interested, involved, detached or indifferent about a particular topic under discussion.<sup>26</sup>

Il arrive quand même qu'une question soit posée! Plusieurs auteurs ont étudié cet aspect de la négociation de la question et ont tenté de le systématiser, les plus connus étant Taylor, Bunge et Jahoda.<sup>27</sup> Les techniques d'entrevues proposées sont d'une grande utilité car elles permettent au bibliothécaire de référence de systématiser le deuxième volet dont nous parlions plus haut, soit la recherche de l'information. Il est à prévoir et à espérer que la recherche sur ces techniques continuera et que ses effets atteindront un nombre croissant d'écoles de formation de bibliothécaires. Comme le dit McFadyen:

This broader concept of reader inquiry emphasizes question-negotiation, suggesting that education for librarianship might well include courses on adult learning and interpersonal communication. The need to develop interviewing techniques compatible with experiential inquiries indicates one direction future research might take.<sup>28</sup>

### Le langage

Toute entrevue de référence se déroule entre deux individus utilisant un

même langage. S'il s'agit d'une langue seconde pour l'un des deux intervenants, certains problèmes de compréhension surgiront inévitablement.

Since no language can be fully synchronized with another, it follows that comprehension level for the native and foreign reader will differ since people mostly think in their native language...<sup>29</sup>

Même si les deux protagonistes de l'entrevue parlent la même langue, il n'est pas certain qu'ils se comprennent car ce sont deux personnes différentes. Helen Gothberg nous le rappelle.

There is considerable face-to-face social interaction and non-verbal communication going on in the negotiation of the reference question... but librarians are unaware of that fact... A good case could be made for the fact that there are more than three and a half billion different languages in the world and each of us talks and listens and thinks on his own special one. Our personal language is shaped by our culture, country, age, sex, education, profession, personality and, sometimes rather significantly, strong emotions.<sup>30</sup>

On peut donc conclure avec Davinson: «Probably the perfect act of communication is an impossibility. There is always a certain amount of what the communication scientists call 'noise' in any transaction».<sup>31</sup> Malgré ce «bruit», il n'en reste pas moins que les bibliothécaires de référence répondent convenablement à des milliers de questions chaque jour. Toutefois, la citation de Gothberg nous amène à introduire une nouvelle dimension dans ce processus de la référence, à savoir celle de la culture.

### La culture et les biais culturels

Définir la notion de culture n'est pas une mince affaire! Milton Singer a tenté de faire une synthèse de la question, synthèse qui en vaut bien d'autres.<sup>32</sup> Benge, dans l'un de ses livres, en a fait une discussion et a retenu les éléments suivants.

(Culture is)... that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, arts, morals, law, custom and other capabilities and habits acquired by men as a member of society...<sup>33</sup> "One useful grouping divides culture into three, i.e. first habits and customs, second belief systems; and third: tools, machines and constructions or artefacts (technology).<sup>34</sup>

Tout individu a une identité culturelle et tend à la préserver; s'il ne le fait pas, la société dans laquelle il vit le fait. On n'a qu'à penser aux nombreux livres (blanc, vert, bleu, etc.) que le gouvernement du Québec a émis ces dernières années. Et, comme le déclare

le rapport MacBride, la chose est souhaitable.

Promoting conditions for the preservation of the cultural identity of every society is necessary to enable it to enjoy a harmonious and creative inter-relationship with other cultures...

We recommend:

28. Establishment of national cultural policies, which should foster cultural identity and creativity, and involve the media in these tasks. Such policies should also contain guidelines for safeguarding national cultural development while promoting knowledge of other cultures. It is in relation to others that each culture enhances its own identity.<sup>35</sup>

### Nation et histoire nationale

L'identité culturelle s'incarne dans un groupe d'individus, souvent dans des limites géographiques délimitées. Ces individus parlant une même langue et partageant un même système de valeurs constituent une nation. Parfois, plusieurs nations partagent un même territoire. Et, quand un certain laps de temps s'est écoulé, on assiste à la création d'une histoire nationale.

National history only begins when a people is recognizable as a community or group of communities, settled within geographical bounds that can be defined, and distinguished from others by a rule, a livelihood, and arts of its own.<sup>36</sup>

Il s'ensuit de ce qui précède que les individus, consciemment ou non, préservent leur identité culturelle, parfois au point d'être xénophobes. Il s'ensuit aussi que le bibliothécaire professionnel, œuvrant dans une société donnée, doit s'écrier avec Foskett: «Our role... to sustain and fortify the concept of nationhood».<sup>37</sup>

### Le bibliothécaire de référence et la culture

Le bibliothécaire de référence est d'abord un individu appartenant à une communauté culturelle et en partageant les valeurs. Simsova le constate quand elle déclare:

Culture is a system of values and each librarian incorporates in his personality the value system of his own culture. He is conditioned by his professional training and experience to accept the institutions both within and outside librarianship which fit in the value system.<sup>38</sup>

L'utilisateur qui formule une question de référence possède lui aussi ses valeurs culturelles et professionnelles. Foskett signale cette particularité au niveau des systèmes de classification.

Modern retrieval systems, therefore, have already had to deal with subject matter that is emotive in content, vague in definition, and imprecise in terminology; but does this

help when one is confronted by a field of knowledge in which a classification made to the requirements of one set of scholars may be not only wrong, but actually disgraceful, to another? A 'just wage' to the trade unionist may be scandalous extravagance to the factory owner.<sup>39</sup>

Quelle attitude le bibliothécaire de référence doit-il adopter? Est-il seulement conscient de l'influence de ces valeurs culturelles sur son travail? Il semble que traditionnellement, les bibliothécaires de référence ont résolu d'adopter une attitude objective. Conscients ou non de ces entraves à l'objectivité, ils essaient de se «mettre dans la peau du client». C'est encore Foskett qui soutient:

During reference service, the librarian ought virtually to vanish as an individual person, except in so far as his personality sheds light on the working of the library. He must be the reader's alter ego, immersed in his politics, his religion, his morals.<sup>40</sup>

Les associations professionnelles adoptent le même point de vue. On ne saurait dire si elles officialisent une situation de fait ou formulent des souhaits... À titre d'illustration, voici cinq articles extraits du *Code de déontologie* de la Corporation des bibliothécaires professionnels du Québec:

2. Le bibliothécaire doit avoir comme objectif de rendre la culture et l'information accessibles à tous les citoyens sans discrimination.

4. Le bibliothécaire doit contribuer activement au mieux-être culturel, social et économique de la communauté.

7. Le bibliothécaire ne peut pas refuser de rendre des services professionnels à un client pour des motifs de discrimination fondée sur la race, l'âge, la condition sociale, les convictions politiques et les mœurs.

8. Quand il agit à titre de conseiller, le bibliothécaire doit éviter de fournir des informations incomplètes, désuètes, non-vérifiables, inexacts ou partisans.

9. Le bibliothécaire doit faire preuve d'objectivité et de désintéressement lorsque des personnes susceptibles de devenir ses clients lui demandent conseil.<sup>41</sup>

Il nous semble que ces articles expriment plus un idéal qu'une réalité quotidienne... Il est beaucoup plus logique de croire avec Anderson que:

In any case, a complete freedom from preconceived ideas is a practical impossibility, and in my experience the unbeliever is just as much conditioned by his disbelief as the believer is by his faith.<sup>42</sup>

### Le choc des cultures

S'il est vrai que l'objectivité est impossible entre deux individus d'une même culture, on peut préjuger que l'incompréhension sera encore plus forte entre deux personnes de culture natio-

nale différente. Lance Morrow, dans *Time*, nous y fait réfléchir.

The past is shimmeringly changeable, always different with every change of angle, of perspective. Read the history of the Civil War from the Southern point of view, or of the American Revolution from the standpoint of the English. The past has almost as many possibilities as the future.<sup>43</sup>

Entre Québécois, nous avons l'impression de bien nous comprendre, d'utiliser les mêmes codes. Jacques Bouchard en constate la complexité tout en reconnaissant:

Les publicitaires québécois savent d'instinct que la culture québécoise, comme d'autres, porte en elle ses propres moyens de communication exprimés par des tabous, des statuts sociaux, des barrières sexuelles, religieuses, politiques, qu'il existe tout un code de signaux auxquels les Québécois ont appris à réagir en tant que participants à une culture commune et qui sont autant de clochettes des chiens de Pavlov.<sup>44</sup>

Si ces Québécois allaient consulter des bibliothécaires de référence en Angleterre, ils auraient affaire à des personnes ayant un système de valeurs bien différent. Un amusant petit livre caractérise ainsi les Britanniques:

*Alice au pays des merveilles et À travers le miroir* sont les seuls guides dans lesquels les Anglais acceptent sans réticences de se reconnaître. Leurs titres indiquent assez qu'il s'agit de guides ésotériques...

On peut en compléter utilement la lecture par celle du *Common Prayer Book* de l'Église anglicane et des Oeuvres complètes de ces encyclopédistes élisabéthains que les glossateurs attribuent provisoirement, par simple hypothèse de travail, à un nommé Shakespeare.<sup>45</sup>

Devant des cultures si différentes, on peut facilement déduire que des imbroglios surviendront inévitablement.

### Les biais culturels

On a constaté que les traits culturels varient de nation en nation, et même d'individu à individu. Or ces caractéristiques jouent un rôle considérable lors de l'entrevue de référence. La bataille des Plaines d'Abraham est une défaite pour les Québécois et une victoire pour les Britanniques. L'Église catholique ne soulèvera pas d'hostilité marquée chez un Québécois, mais suscitera un sentiment antipapiste chez un Anglais. De même, tel bibliothécaire ardemment nationaliste aura parfois tendance à ignorer une question justifiant le fédéralisme, ou à y consacrer moins de temps ou d'effort. On peut trouver beaucoup d'informations contradictoires concernant les Îles Falklands ou le Labrador selon que

l'on est Argentin ou Britannique, Terre-Neuvien ou Québécois... Les exemples peuvent être retrouvés à l'infini.

Ces biais culturels, quand on y réfléchit bien, qu'ils soient personnels ou collectifs, n'agissent pas uniquement au niveau de la référence. Bien sûr, c'est au moment de la communication documentaire qu'ils sont les plus apparents et les plus nocifs car ils peuvent entraîner la transmission de fausses informations. Si l'on revient aux quatre catégories de tâches mentionnées au début de cet article, on constate que ces biais culturels influenceront toutes les activités. Il est vraisemblable qu'un bibliothécaire retiendra les services de gens partageant les mêmes valeurs que lui, qu'il choisira la documentation en fonction des valeurs de la population desservie, et qu'il indexera cette documentation en utilisant des termes qui reflètent les valeurs de cette population.

### L'impact du culturel sur le professionnel

Dans la littérature professionnelle, les questions culturelles sont, à toute fin pratique, inexistantes. On a pourtant constaté quel rôle important ces facteurs culturels jouent dans la pratique quotidienne. Serait-ce que nous n'en sommes pas conscients? Serait-ce plutôt que nous les considérons comme secondaires? Serait-ce enfin que nous voulions à tout prix défendre notre identité culturelle? Quelle que soit la réponse à ces questions, il nous semble important que les bibliothécaires consacrent une partie de leurs recherches à ces questions.

Nous avons vu que le professionnalisme implique quatre pôles et que le lieu de rencontre de ces pôles se situe au niveau des associations. Il est symptomatique que ce soit dans la littérature produite par ces dernières que l'on retrouve les notions d'objectivité. Qu'attendons-nous alors pour sensibiliser les bibliothécaires à leurs biais personnels, eux qui se targuent de propager la culture? Qu'attendons-nous pour inclure des cours de civilisation nationale, d'ethnopsychologie dans la formation des bibliothécaires? Avons-nous l'impression de trahir notre société si on lui offre des choix et des options pluralistes? Peut-être attendons-nous un choix de société. Peut-être nous faut-il encore quelques recherches sur ce sujet.

### Conclusion

La recherche relative aux traits culturels dans les sociétés où les bibliothécaires œuvrent est encore à faire. L'impact de ces traits sur la pratique est énorme et méconnu. Les professionnels québécois de la documentation aspirent à l'objectivité. Or, l'objectivité passe par la connaissance de soi... et des autres. Ce type de recherche, pour microcosmique qu'il nous apparaisse, aura des répercussions importantes sur la profession. Un professionnalisme qui se régénère est celui qui favorise la recherche et en absorbe les leçons. Les bibliothécaires professionnels québécois ont un public, reçoivent une formation solide, obéissent à un code d'éthique sérieux, participent à des associations saines et profitent d'une reconnaissance monétaire bien méritée. C'est en renouvelant leur pratique qu'ils maintiendront cette situation. La connaissance des traits culturels de leurs clients et d'eux-mêmes contribuera à cette progression. Qu'ils se disent avec Foskett, que nous citons pour la dernière fois: «... what the world needs now is not so much more information as more wisdom».<sup>46</sup>

1. Il n'y a qu'au Québec que l'on utilise le terme «bibliothéconomie». Il correspond aux termes «bibliothécaire» ou «library science». Étant québécois, le terme «bibliothéconomie» sera retenu par l'auteur, mais il englobe les deux autres.

2. Corporation des bibliothécaires professionnels du Québec, *Tâches du bibliothécaire professionnel* (Montréal, 1982), présentation, p. ii.

3. À l'appui de cette affirmation, notons la citation suivante:

«Les études sur les usagers afin de connaître leurs besoins, leur degré de satisfaction et leurs habitudes de lecture prennent de plus en plus d'importance. Le thème de l'usager occupait la première place dans le choix des sujets de thèses de doctorat en bibliothéconomie pour les années 1977-1978.»

Madeleine Laliberté, «État de la recherche en bibliothéconomie et en science de l'information au Québec: résultat d'un sondage (Partie 2)», *Argus*, vol. 10, no. 5 (septembre-octobre 1981), p. 101.

4. Lire à ce sujet le livre de Ronald Charles Bengtson, *Cultural Crisis and Libraries in the Third World* (London, Clive Bingley, 1979), 255 p.

5. Jean-Réal Cardin, «Organisation professionnelle et syndicalisme», in Claude D'Aoust, «Professionalisme, corporatisme, syndicalisme et... snobisme», *Argus*, vol. 4, no. 3-4 (mai-août 1975), p. 60.

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# Research and the Profession of Librarianship

by John Wilkinson\*

*In reviewing the relationship between research and professionalization in library science, the author concludes that there is little interest in library objectives based on research. However, research will become increasingly important to the profession in the upcoming "age of information". Library science must make the transition to this age by switching to user driven systems. The text concludes with a discussion of some of the issues and implications inherent in this change.*

*Bien que la bibliothéconomie dépende de la recherche pour développer les connaissances et les cadres théoriques de la profession, on s'en tient trop souvent au pragmatisme. Cependant l'importance de la recherche ne cessera de croître à «l'ère de l'information» vers laquelle nous nous dirigeons. La bibliothéconomie doit assurer la transition vers cette ère en structurant ses systèmes non plus en fonction de la technologie ou du contenu, mais en fonction de l'utilisateur. En conclusion, on évoque les implications inhérentes à un tel changement.*

When *Argus* first asked me to prepare a paper on research and the profession of librarianship for this IFLA issue, I thought that I had been given a relatively simple assignment. Now, four months and innumerable drafts later, I have decided that the task is at the same time much more difficult and more crucial than I had at first supposed.

My difficulty arises not in defining research – the rigorous and systematic testing for truth – but in defining librarianship. Few will deny the importance of research to a developing profession; but it has been frustratingly hard to relate research and the essence of our own specific profession.

Let us, however, in approaching that relationship, begin at a less controversial point by establishing the connection between research and professionalization. Although sociologists may disagree on many criteria for professionalism, they do appear to be virtually unanimous in believing that one definitive characteristic of any profession is that it possesses a distinguishing body of specialized and expanding knowledge. Indeed, the possession of such knowledge provides the basis for professional, as opposed to administrative, acts. "The ultimate justification for a professional act is that it is, to the best of the profes-

sional's knowledge, the right act [whereas] ... the ultimate justification of an administrative act ... is that it is in line with the organization's rules and regulations, and that it has been approved – directly or by implication – by a superior rank."<sup>1</sup>

Moreover, of all the ways of acquiring knowledge – by appeals to authority, for example, or by trial and error, or through tradition, or by research – only research provides a rigorous and systematic approach to problem-solving which will eventually not only develop and expand a cumulative body of valid and reliable knowledge, but also will create and utilize a theoretical framework for such knowledge.

There can be no argument, therefore, that, insofar as librarianship is or hopes to become a profession, it must depend upon research to develop its knowledge base and its theoretical framework. This is why, in North America at least, education for librarianship has traditionally been regarded as a post-graduate concern. This is the justification for offering Ph.D. programs in our discipline. This is why courses in research methods are part of many library school curricula. This is why our library associations have developed committees and roundtables focussing on research; and this

realization underlies the formation of research centres such as, in Canada, the Centre for Research in Librarianship of the University of Toronto's Faculty of Library Science.

Yet, despite the existence of a research profile in librarianship and despite the lip-service which we pay to research requirements in the formulation of a disciplinary framework for our profession, the more we clarify the vital role of research the more puzzling does our fundamental research stance become. For the average practicing librarian, including our most senior administrators, Pierce Butler's thirty-year old summation still seems too often to apply:

Unlike his colleagues in other fields of social activity the librarian is strangely uninterested in the theoretical aspects of his profession. He seems to possess a unique immunity to that curiosity which elsewhere drives modern man to attempt, somehow, an orientation of his particular labours with the main stream of human life. The librarian apparently stands alone in the simplicity of his pragmatism: a rationalization of each immediate technical process by itself seems to satisfy his intellectual interest. Indeed any endeavour to generalize these rationalizations into a professional philosophy appears to him, not merely futile, but positively dangerous.<sup>2</sup>

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Partly for this reason, Neal Harlow's appreciation, when as Dean of the Rutgers Graduate School of Library Service he addressed the Canadian Library Association in 1965, also still appears accurate.

Problem 1 in the education of librarians is that no general theory of professional behaviour has been widely accepted; we have generated no distinctive hypothesis concerning ourselves and our mission, established no theoretical base, no prototype upon which to pattern education and practice. We have been content to do what comes naturally.<sup>3</sup>

Moreover, lest you shrug off Butler's and Harlow's beliefs as being out of date, consider the 1981 finding of the researchers for *Project Progress: a Study of Canadian Public Libraries* that they,

could identify no norms or patterns by which libraries could assess their own task personnel assignments ... most surprising, there is no task exclusive to librarians. In other words, the boundaries of the profession are not a social reality in public libraries ... Many appear to regard the world of public libraries as a traditional field of endeavour, little affected by the dynamic process of change.<sup>4</sup>

Nor can we dismiss such a finding as being irrelevant to the growth of the necessary research base for our discipline because, as we have already noted, for librarianship to be a profession it must base practice on research and research upon practice. Inevitably, therefore, given our failure to become a social reality or to produce dynamic responses,

practice has not stimulated research. There is no research front [in librarianship] working towards theory. Neither is there a 'practice front'; that is, practicing librarians who have developed skills which can be articulated and related to the objectives of the institutions employing them.<sup>5</sup>

Thus, with the above points in mind, we can, I hope, agree upon the necessary relationship between research and the profession of librarianship, and we can agree also upon the types of obstacles impeding that relationship. Our profession must be based upon relevant research; but we have so far manifested little of the curiosity, concern for theory, or interest in library objectives based upon research which are prerequisites for the professionalism we claim.

But what is 'wrong', you may ask, with doing what comes naturally? Libraries, after all, have existed for over two thousand years without a generally accepted theoretical base; and the library 'profession' has survived for

more than a hundred years without a research front. To the extent that such arguments may have past validity, however, they point only to the legitimate bases of librarianship in the nineteenth century not to the "dynamic process of change" already harbingered by the approach of the twenty-first.

It may be trite to say that the twenty-first century will be the age of information, an evolutionary consequence of the 'industrial revolution' and of our present 'age of technology'. It may be less evident but equally true that an "effective transition into the information age will require switching from information systems that are technology and content driven to information systems that are user driven".<sup>6</sup> Librarianship was, it can be argued convincingly, concerned with content driven systems up until the nineteen-forties. We would now appear to be enamoured of technology driven systems. More and more libraries are 'automating'. More and more library schools are embracing the concepts and terminology of 'information science' - "The study of information producing processes in any information system in which they occur".<sup>7</sup> The University of Toronto Faculty of Library Science, for example, is not only moving to have its name changed to Faculty of Library and Information Science, but also participated in a recent major Symposium on Information Technology and Society, and is a founding member of the ensuing University of Toronto/University of Waterloo Co-operative on Information Technology. Can we, however, switch "to information systems that are user driven"? Do we, in fact, need to do so?

Let us now address each of these questions in turn. First, can librarianship switch to user driven systems? The issue is, like so many of the issues currently raised in librarianship, by no means a novel one. Twenty years ago Daniel Bergen, having affirmed that librarianship is indeed a separate discipline with "its own area of human experience to analyze, its own body of descriptive and factual data to gather, and its own conceptual schemes to formulate and test for truth" (thus establishing the research validity of our profession), went on to urge that it "should abandon its historical-bibliographical emphasis for a base in the social sciences (particularly sociology, anthropology, social psycholo-

gy, and political science)".<sup>8</sup> Indeed, inasmuch as libraries and librarians have traditionally engaged in 'user studies', librarianship has long flirted with the social sciences and with user needs without, however, developing a strong research competence in the former or a theoretical base for the latter. It is, therefore, presumably feasible for librarianship to make an "effective transition into the information age [by] switching... to information systems that are user driven". To do so, however, will require not only, as Bergen noted, an abandonment, or at least a de-emphasis, of our traditional concerns but also a realignment of our recruitment and selection bases and of our institutional stress upon administrative rather than professional acts.

Do we need to make such a transition? The Toronto/Waterloo Co-operative to which the Toronto Faculty of Library [and Information?] Science now belongs includes representatives from computer science, electrical engineering, law, philosophy, psychology, urban and regional planning, and systems design. It is currently chaired by an internationally-respected computer scientist. One of its purposes, promulgated at its first public meeting on February 11, 1982, is to assist "teaching programs of both institutions by providing support for existing courses and by encouraging, not undertaking, the development of new multidisciplinary courses." The involvement of librarianship in such august company clearly represents an exciting opportunity and a great challenge. It also epitomizes the dangers of joining a game without knowing the rules or our own capabilities. If our profession can lead from research strength, we may at least break even in the interdisciplinary match; but if we cannot even identify our discipline or its theoretical base, our chances of survival become slim.

In fact, given our intellectual environment, the question as to whether we need to make the transition into the forthcoming age of information is somewhat akin to asking whether the driver of an automobile about to go over a cliff should change direction. A transition *will* occur, and our only choice is whether to change voluntarily and remain a distinctive discipline (and profession) or to be trapped in the wreckage.

Presumably we will choose the first alternative; but, when we do, let us recognize clearly the issues involved

and some of the implications of our choice.

(1) The discipline and profession of librarianship must become a true discipline in that it requires of its members a rigorous grounding in a researched knowledge base leading to theory, and an individual responsibility for applying that knowledge.

(2) To some extent, in determining the 'legitimate' foci of research in librarianship, we may adapt Edward Howard's dictum of the early 'seventies in connection with program budgeting: "In any given community the viable role of the public library is defined for it by the information resources already existing in other institutions, organizations and agencies. The public library can legitimately do no more than occupy that part of the local information network which is not already occupied."<sup>9</sup> Thus, we should explore the possibility that 'the viable role for research in librarianship is defined for it by the research roles of already existing cognate disciplines'. Such an approach may suggest that our research legitimately centres upon the relationship between societal ideas and information needs on the one hand and information systems on the other; therefore reinforcing the legitimacy of librarianship's claim to focus (primarily) upon user driven systems.

(3) Librarians must learn to conduct research into user driven systems and must modify both their institutional structures and administrative styles to facilitate and implement such research.

(4) Librarianship must distinguish in its research application between its own peculiar blend of 'socio-scientific' and 'humanistic' concerns and the more technological or sociological and psychological concerns of such cognate disciplines as are represented, for example, in the Toronto/Waterloo Co-operative. For this reason librarianship, though learning from such disciplines as computer science and information science, must neither sur-

render its traditional base in literature (e.g. collection 'quality') nor in ethics (e.g. censorship). Nor, since our transition into the twenty-first century will be an evolutionary not a revolutionary one, can librarianship afford to abandon its heritage; and the history of our discipline will remain, therefore, much more important than many library school students (and librarians?) now seem to believe.

(5) Our library schools, currently facing increased pressure to justify their academic status through more 'advanced' research, need not therefore abandon librarianship in favour of more currently favoured disciplines. Rather should they turn Daniel Bergen's belief into an academic reality by defining as precisely as possible that "area of human experience", that "body of descriptive and factual data", and those "conceptual schemes" which are legitimately ours to "formulate and test for truth". In so doing, the schools need not initially be overly concerned with current practices in the field; but must graduate masters and doctoral students who are prepared to apply their peculiar blend of socio-scientific values to user driven information systems in the decades ahead. Libraries will be but one group of employers for such graduates; but the more forward-thinking libraries have already given clear indications of being ready to accept a disciplinary as well as an institutional approach to the profession of librarianship.

(6) For those who are currently engaged in an effort to distinguish between the responsibilities of 'professional' and 'support' staff in libraries, one implication of the foregoing arguments may be that librarians *qua* librarians should be primarily concerned with implementing user driven disciplinary theory, while support staff should be primarily interested in and responsible for the technology and content driven requirements of a library's institutionalized operation.

(7) Finally, the legitimate connection between research and the profession of librarianship as portrayed above has the potential for placing librarianship in the forefront of twenty-first century disciplines. If, as the late, great Abraham Maslow believed, basic human motivational needs are matched by equally basic cognitive needs; if we are entering an age in which the development of information systems to meet those cognitive needs becomes paramount; and if research in our discipline will focus upon the development of user driven systems to meet such basic human requirements; then it may not be too far-fetched to predict that our professional concerns, along with those of such professions as medicine, law, and theology, will bear directly upon the health or sickness — even upon the life or death — of civilized society in the century to come.

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# Personnel Administration in Libraries

By Helen Howard\*

*A number of key issues in library personnel administration in the Canadian context are covered including staffing, duties, human resources planning, job analysis, job evaluation, performance appraisal, laws against discrimination, staff training and development, and quality of working life.*

*L'auteur passe en revue les principaux aspects de la gestion du personnel de bibliothèque en milieu canadien: dotation en personnel, tâches professionnelles, planification des ressources humaines, analyse des emplois, évaluation des postes, appréciation du rendement, lois contre la discrimination, formation du personnel, qualité de vie au travail.*

Personnel administration can be defined as "the recruitment, selection, development, utilization of, and accommodation to human resources by organizations."<sup>1</sup> The human resources of an organization consist of all individuals engaged in any of the organization's activities. Libraries employ not only large numbers of people, but also very diverse kinds of people. It is not unusual for sixty to eighty percent of a library's budget to be devoted to salaries. Thus effective personnel administration is critical to a library's achieving its goals and objectives. In times of extreme financial constraint, the very survival of a library may be highly dependent upon the quality of personnel administration.

This paper has been organized around some of the key issues in library personnel administration in the Canadian context. The intent in the space available is to provide a flavour of the issues and challenges and to stimulate librarians to examine their own personnel policies and practices, management style, working conditions etc. with a view to providing an improved level of personnel administration.

Personnel administration as practiced in libraries is of a very uneven nature. Size is often a controlling factor with the result that personnel officers or departments tend to be found only in medium and large-size libraries. Personnel functions for staff in

special libraries, school libraries, and small academic libraries may be carried out by the personnel (now often termed "human resource") offices of the parent organization. However, personnel administration is inherent in all organizations. It is an integral part of every administrative, managerial, and supervisory position. Techniques may help in specific instances, but the important consideration is the systematic overall approach to managing human resources.

Martin believes libraries have tended to rely on rather primitive methods of personnel administration and have lacked sophistication in the handling of newer techniques. "This has in turn led to a kind of applied-faddism as one tool after another has been used as the key to salvation... and too much has been expected of them."<sup>2</sup> This paper is approached with a general systems view of organizations and the application of contemporary behavioral science theory, research, and practice.

The impact of financial constraint, a competitive job market, new technologies, rapid change in the environment, more involvement of staff in decision making, new legislation, and an increased demand for accountability have increased the importance of the effective use of human resources.

There is some evidence that greater emphasis is being placed on improved

personnel administration. For example, in December 1973 The Systems and Procedures Exchange Center of the Association of Research Libraries Office of University Library Management Studies reported that 30 ARL libraries had appointed or were planning to appoint personnel officers. By November 1977 some 80 ARL libraries had personnel officers.<sup>3</sup> Also, the amount of literature on specific aspects of library personnel administration as well as on the broad topic has increased in the last five years. This is reflected in the variety of sources used as background for this paper.

A number of factors have been part of an increased and specialized attention to personnel administration. These include an increase in the size and complexity of libraries; a growing number of governmental regulations and guidelines; a need for orientation, career counseling, training, and performance appraisal; unionization; attempts to implement a system involving job analysis and evaluation which involve detailed task analysis; new selection practices including the use of search committees; more sophisticated systems for promotion and tenure decisions; changing types and quantity of work to be done; changing

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ratios of professional to other staff; and general concern about the quality of working life. A selection of these topics which appear to be key issues for personnel administration and for professionals in the 1980's is reviewed in the remainder of this paper.

### Staffing

"Staffing" should be thought of as an integrated system which includes all methods of matching skills available with the tasks to be performed, through hiring, placement, promotion, transfer, job restructuring, and training.<sup>4</sup> Library staffing patterns have been shifting as a result of changes such as those in technology and especially automation, financial constraints, attempts to utilize staff more effectively, and changing forms of governance.

The staffing of libraries is becoming more differentiated. Enlightened library administrators are recognizing that several kinds of staff are needed and that the tasks each type of staff performs should be appropriate to the jobs for which they were hired. Library staff may be distributed into three groups:

- a) professional: including librarians and other specialists with a graduate level degree
- b) supportive: including library technicians with a two-or three-year college degree, and library assistants with a bachelor's degree
- c) clerical: including office staff with high school education<sup>5</sup>

The ALA policy statement, "Library Education and Personnel Utilization" recommends categories of library personnel and levels of training and education appropriate to preparing personnel for these categories:

To meet the goals of library service, both professional and supportive staff are needed in libraries. Thus the library occupation is much broader than that segment of it which is the library profession, but the library profession has responsibility for defining the training and education required for the preparation of personnel who work in libraries at any level, supportive or professional. Skills other than those of librarianship may also have an important contribution to make to the achievement of superior library service. There should be equal recognition in both the professional and supportive ranks for those individuals whose expertise contributes to the effective performance of the library.<sup>6</sup>

There is no comprehensive study to show how many librarians, other professionals, library technicians, library

assistants, and clerical staff are currently employed in Canadian libraries and what their interrelationships are in the work place. However, some scattered data can be assimilated.

The ratio of professionals to other library staff has varied through the years. For instance, Canadian academic libraries showed a ratio of one professional to 2.85 other staff in 1969.<sup>7</sup> The latest data from Statistics Canada for 1978, although not wholly comparable since part-time equivalents are not included, show a ratio of one to slightly more than three.<sup>8</sup> Informal sources indicate that currently the ratio is closer to 1:4 in large Canadian university libraries. However, staffing ratios seem to be considerably different in public libraries. A recent survey of Canadian public libraries showed a ratio of 1:1.65 for librarians to other library workers.<sup>9</sup>

The basic academic qualification for a librarian is an M.L.S. degree from an accredited library school. There is a trend, however, for employers to seek staff with a second masters in a subject area. Priorities of programs and the nature of work in libraries are changing. Thus a staff establishment which was appropriate in the 1970's needs review. The pressure from funding sources to justify programs and staffing has accelerated this activity and is forcing all administrators to look carefully at who is doing what and who *could* do what. It appears that fewer individuals are doing professional work than previously and there is a proportionately increasing number of library technicians, library assistants, and clerical staff.

Except in Quebec the library technician programs require two years of post-secondary education with a recommended 40-50 percent of academic courses, and 50-60 percent of technical courses and required field work.<sup>10</sup> In Quebec, library technicians are trained mainly in the three-year program "Techniques de la documentation/Document Technology" in the Collèges d'enseignement général et professionnel (CEGEP's). This program, which began to replace in 1975 the former Library Technology Program, prepares the student for work not only in libraries but also in archives, records centres, bookstores, and documentation centres.

Although the first two-year program for library technicians in Canada was launched in 1966 and there are now some twenty-two programs, data are

incomplete for the number of graduates and their placement. A survey conducted in 1981 showed that of the 409 graduates reported, the largest number, 122, had found employment in special libraries. Of the remainder, 55 were in academic and public libraries respectively, and nine in non-library jobs but using library skills.<sup>11</sup> It appears that the technicians are having considerable success in finding positions, especially in special libraries. Indeed, many businesses and industries which feel that they can not afford or justify the hiring of a librarian, are turning to library technicians to organize their collections and develop services. A serious problem faced by library technicians, however, is that of gaining recognition as a group with specific academic and experiential training. Most large libraries do not have a separate classification for library technicians. Rather they tend to include them in a general category of "library assistants." This is an obvious problem for personnel administrators to tackle.

Library assistant positions are usually — but not always — similar to the "library associate" advocated in the ALA "Library Education and Personnel Utilization" policy. This group of personnel is described as having

supportive responsibilities at high level, normally working within established procedures and techniques, and with some supervision by a professional, but requiring judgment, and subject knowledge such as represented by a full, four-year college education culminating in the /a bachelor's degree.<sup>12</sup>

The third group of library employees, the clerical staff, needs a knowledge of office practices and a capacity to follow repetitive procedures within specified guidelines.

### Duties

The issue of what duties should be carried out by professionals and those by other staff is receiving increased attention because of the need to make the most efficient use of staff and also to meet the expectations of young, ambitious professionals. Numerous efforts have been made to distinguish between professional and other tasks. For example, the American Library Association published a list of professional and nonprofessional duties in 1948.<sup>13</sup> The Library Association undertook to distinguish professional from nonprofessional duties in 1964 and published a second edition in 1974.<sup>14</sup>

A different approach — that of applying the techniques of functional job analysis to libraries — was begun in 1969 by the Illinois Task Analysis Project (ILTAP). The objective of Phase I of the project was to provide a realistic description of work actually being done in public, school, special, and academic libraries. This phase identified 1,615 tasks performed by eighteen libraries. The project culminated in phase III with the publication of a synthesis of the preceding phases and a list of library tasks arranged by eight major subsystems and three performance levels — professional, technical, and clerical.<sup>15</sup>

Most recently, the consultants for *Project Progress* used as a starting point the Illinois tasks and functional groupings to find out who does what in a selection of public libraries. The task list they developed contained 787 tasks. An analysis of the task survey shows considerable overlap in performance of tasks by various categories of library workers. The researchers state that "We can identify no norms or patterns by which libraries could assess their own task/personnel assignments... Only 9.5 percent of the tasks listed were carried out exclusively by librarians."<sup>16</sup> The consultants conclude that task analysis is not a tool that can enable libraries to rationalize and account for their effectiveness in personnel administration. In addition they conclude that "extrapolating 'who should do what' in libraries from 'who is doing what' is neither feasible nor desirable."<sup>17</sup> Rather, they recommend that model job descriptions should be developed to provide guidelines for appropriate task assignment within public libraries.

The most recent attempt to identify professional duties has been undertaken by a committee of the Corporation des bibliothécaires professionnels du Québec. They re-worked a list published in 1974<sup>18</sup> and in April 1982 sent a revised list to the Corporation members for comment. The committee provides a selected list of duties expected to be performed by professionals in four functional areas — administration, collection management, organization and cataloguing of materials, and dissemination of materials — and a fifth section connected with teaching, research, and professional development.

Support staff, as defined earlier, includes graduates of a library technician program and library assistants

with a bachelor's degree. Because of the variability of library size and working conditions and the lack of clarification of what constitutes professional work, it is impossible to state the specific duties which should be assigned to support staff. As far as library technicians are concerned, the Canadian Library Association's *Guidelines for the Education of Library Technicians* does include a list of minimum skills a graduate library technician possesses in both public and technical services procedures.<sup>19</sup> The Ontario Association of Library Technicians issued a policy statement in 1977 which identifies a library technician as one who has acquired through a two-year program of study "specialized knowledge of library systems and methods to assist in developing, organizing, and maintaining a collection of library material."<sup>20</sup> This document also includes a list of duties in public and technical services.

Library assistants are a diverse group whose duties vary considerably. The main research done on this group is by Mugnier who investigated "library associates" in large public libraries. She found that they not only carried out a wide variety of tasks but also filled jobs which overlapped into the beginning professional level.<sup>21</sup>

The duties of clerical employees also vary considerably from library to library. Typical duties are the preparation of materials, basic circulation routines, and typing.

### Human Resources Planning

Employment planning is an essential part of managing the staffing process. It should be responsive to general environmental conditions with which the library and its parent organization must cope and reflect the organization's goals and objectives. According to French, it includes a skills inventory, an analysis of current and expected vacancies, an analysis of expected expansions or reductions in operating units, and a systematic plan for recruitment and promotion. It is a comprehensive, on-going process which includes, but is broader than, making projections.<sup>22</sup>

Since most libraries are now subject to severe budget constraints and sometimes a freeze on filling vacancies, human resources planning is more critical than ever. It is also more difficult than ever because of rapid change in the environment, factors such as government regulations and unioniza-

tion, and the need to create innovative staffing arrangements not only to provide needed services, but also to ensure that librarians continue to develop professionally in spite of being caught in a "zero growth" economic situation.

### Job Analysis

A major component for effective employment planning is job analysis. Strauss and Sayles state that detailed knowledge is required for every job in an organization in order to know how to recruit and whom to hire, to carry out job evaluation, to design promotional ladders, to set sensible workloads, and to evaluate staff development programs.<sup>23</sup> Job analysis is a major undertaking requiring the specialized knowledge of the personnel administrator and a considerable input of other staff time. An alternative means for carrying out job analysis is using the services of consultants. Consultants do have the advantage of experience and expertise and can approach a study objectively. However, they may have little understanding of library work which can result in misinterpretations and/or strained relations with library staff.

Job analysis is a very complex undertaking and often uses a variety of methods. These may include using job descriptions, questionnaires, interviews, observation, and task analysis. Strauss and Sayles state that "job analysis should go beyond simply recording existing job practices: it should also question whether these practices are appropriate."<sup>24</sup>

Job descriptions or position descriptions are summaries of basic tasks performed on a job. They may contribute significantly to a job analysis study but often they are not updated frequently enough and there may be a big difference between what the job is supposed to consist of and the actual duties carried out by the incumbent.

There is ample literature on creating and using job descriptions and so they will not be treated further here. However, the difference between job descriptions and position classifications should be noted. Position classifications may be referred to as generic descriptions. They group jobs into a number of levels or classes and these are then described to feature gradations of job responsibility, skills required, etc. An example of position classification descriptions are those for general librarian, senior librarian, and principal librarian developed by the

### Job Evaluation

Job evaluation is the process of determining the relative worth of the various jobs within an organization. There are many methods which may be used to enable management to determine how much one job should pay relative to others. The point system is the most widely used though ranking, job classification, and factor-comparison are also widely used. These methods are well described in personnel texts such as French<sup>26</sup> and Strauss and Sayles,<sup>27</sup> and are discussed in relation to libraries, for example, by Creth.<sup>28</sup>

There are many difficult problems related to job analysis and evaluation, not the least of which are human problems. Excellent communication is needed and it is essential that staff understand that it is the jobs which are being analyzed and evaluated and not the individuals performing the jobs.

### Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal may be regarded as "referring to a comparatively formal, systematic program of the evaluation of employee performance, developed to improve the quality of judgment applied to that performance and to insure frequent and timely assessments."<sup>29</sup> The importance of an effective appraisal system can not be overemphasized. However, the difficulty of designing such a system, training supervisors, and implementing the system is immense.

The subject has been and continues to be discussed at such length in the personnel administration and library literature that no attempt will be made to cover its various facets here. The student of performance appraisal in libraries would benefit especially from reading Reneker,<sup>30</sup> McGregor,<sup>31</sup> Rizzo,<sup>32</sup> the ARL Spec kit on performance appraisal,<sup>33</sup> the *Guide* issued by the Library Administration and Management Association,<sup>34</sup> and either French<sup>35</sup> or Strauss and Sayles.<sup>36</sup> Suffice it to say that new approaches to performance appraisal rather than being judgmental are oriented toward contributing to organizational goals, opening the lines of communication between supervisors and employees, and developing staff members.

### Laws Against Discrimination

Personnel administrators must be familiar with an increasing number of laws and regulations affecting the work force. Among the newest legislation is that dealing specifically with discrimination. The *Canadian Human Rights Act*, which came into force on March 1, 1978, applies to all federal government departments, agencies, and crown corporations, and to business and industry under federal jurisdiction.<sup>37</sup> In areas not under federal jurisdiction protection is given by provincial human rights laws. Each of the ten provinces has its own anti-discrimination laws which are broadly similar to the federal law. The main points of the federal law will be outlined here.

The *Canadian Human Rights Act* prohibits discrimination based on race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, age, sex, marital status, the fact that a person was convicted of an offence for which a pardon has been issued, and the fact that a person has a physical handicap. The Act also protects the privacy of personal information stored in government files. It ensures that any person may find out if there is personal information on those files, check its accuracy and the use to which it is being put, and request that inaccurate information be corrected.

Section 11 of the Act deals with equal wages:

- (1) It is a discriminatory practice for an employer to establish or maintain differences in wages between male and female employees employed in the same establishment who are performing work of an equal value.
- (2) In assessing the value of work performed by employees employed in the same establishment, the criterion to be applied is the composite of the skill, effort and responsibility required in the performance of the work and the conditions under which the work is performed.<sup>38</sup>

Librarians have particular interest in this section because data continue to indicate that on the average, female librarians' salaries are lower than those for male librarians. A landmark decision was handed down by the Human Rights Commission in December 1980 as a result of a complaint from the Library Science Group of the Public Service Alliance of Canada. They complained that their occupational group, which was composed of more than 66 percent women, was paid less than historical researchers — a predominately male group whose job duties the librarians alleged were of

equal value. The Canadian Human Rights Commission concluded that the librarians' complaint was justified and awarded some 470 federal government librarians equalization adjustments ranging from \$500 to \$2,500 annually, plus back pay of up to \$5,900 each. This is the first settlement of a complaint comparing occupational groups whose members perform dissimilar jobs.

In Quebec the *Charte des droits et libertés de la personne*, which became law in June 1976, spells out fundamental rights and freedoms. It prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, colour, sex, civil status, religion, political convictions, language, ethnic or national origin, or social conditions.<sup>39</sup> Another document, *Equal Opportunities in Employment: Guide for Interpreting the Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms With Respect to Job Offers, Application Forms and Interviews with Candidates*<sup>40</sup> lists and explains which questions are or are not permissible.

Anti-discriminatory legislation is also embedded in various other laws such as labour codes. These will not be discussed here but one new piece of legislation which may have an impact on personnel practices should be noted. This is Quebec Bill 15, "An Act Respecting the Abolition of Compulsory Retirement and Providing Amendments to Certain Legislation", which was passed in April, 1982. This is the first act of its kind in Canada, but it is likely similar legislation will follow in other jurisdictions. Although one may sympathize with the intent of this legislation, it could be another factor inhibiting the opportunities for younger librarians to advance and achieve more responsibility in senior positions.

### Staff Training and Development

As staffing patterns change, new technologies are introduced, and new societal needs are expressed, library staff have an increased need for opportunities for training and development. Dunlap points out that for libraries faced with staff cuts a greater proportion of time will have to be devoted to basic tasks and this leaves less opportunity for extra programs and for staff movement, such as staff rotation. She argues convincingly for making a special effort to provide opportunities for growth for all staff and believes that as a result they will be more receptive to change because they will not feel threatened.<sup>41</sup> Although train-

ing is time-consuming and costly, cutting the budget for it is short-sighted in the extreme. On the other hand, staff, especially professionals, have as much obligation to assume responsibility for development and continuing education as management has for encouraging it.

The needs and opportunities for training and development are amply documented in the literature. Creth provides a good overview of the factors to be considered as well as sources of additional information.<sup>42</sup>

Programs that support the development of the library's human resources are the most rewarding of any activity — for the individual, the library, and the public that the library serves — and they provide the library with an insurance policy on the largest investment it has, its people.<sup>43</sup>

### Quality of Working Life

Staff development encompasses aspects of a "Quality of Working Life" program. This has become an increasingly familiar term that means different things to different people. Explicit in the concept and its application is a system of thought that stresses the humanizing and self-fulfilling potential of work.<sup>44</sup> Job design and socio-technical systems are sub-sets of the key issues in the quality of working life.

Job design represents an approach to designing specific jobs to make them more interesting and rewarding for the individual job holder and more productive for the organization. Sociotechnical systems represents a more comprehensive approach to designing total work systems as well as individual jobs.<sup>45</sup>

Martell provides an excellent review of the topic which has been evolving during the seventies but has only recently appeared in the literature of librarianship.<sup>46, 47, 48</sup> His view is that "The tendency to look at tasks and jobs rather than organizational roles is a major factor that constrains efforts to develop more effective organization structures for libraries." He acknowledges that the implementation of work system design is very difficult and speculates that "the perceptual and technical skills required to develop and implement contemporary work system design may not yet exist within librarianship."<sup>49</sup>

Redesigning work is a broad undertaking which requires a holistic approach to change. It is a long and difficult task which challenges the ingenuity of all professionals and, in

particular, those directly responsible for personnel administration.

### Summary and Conclusion

This paper has covered a selected number of key issues in library personnel administration in the Canadian context. Some topics which are very important, such as unionization, have not been dealt with because it is expected that they will be treated in other papers. The importance of the personnel process has been stressed, including the need for expertise to enable the profession to make good use of technology and research in the behavioral sciences in adapting to change. Library managers are faced with the difficult problem of improving the effectiveness of their staffs while at the same time providing an opportunity for staff development in times of zero growth or retrenchment. There is a real danger of unfulfilled expectations leading to lowered morale and its attendant problems. Some suggestions have been made for improved personnel practices. However, there is no "one right way." Each library must devise its own strategy for maximizing the potential of its human resources.

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# Collective Bargaining of Librarians in Canada: Issues and Concerns

By Charlotte R. Mudge\*

*This article begins with a brief history of the unionization of librarians in Canada. Three possible reasons are cited to account for this movement on the part of professionals; they are the bureaucratization of work, the decline of economic and social status and severe fluctuations in demand and supply conditions. The author then discusses the role of labour legislation in determining bargaining unit composition and the scope of bargaining issues.*

*Après un bref historique de la syndicalisation des bibliothécaires au Canada, l'auteur invoque trois raisons qui peuvent expliquer ce mouvement de la part de professionnels. Il s'agit de la bureaucratization du travail, du déclin du statut économique et social, et enfin de graves fluctuations dans l'offre et la demande. On conclut par une discussion sur le rôle de la législation du travail dans la détermination des unités de négociation et l'ampleur des problèmes négociés.*

## Introduction

Since the mid 1960s librarians in Canada have been turning to unionization in increasing numbers. Some (those in public and academic libraries) have actively sought some form of collective bargaining, while others (such as librarians in the federal and provincial governments) have been swept into massive bargaining units as a result of legislation. Some librarians have formed bargaining units consisting only of their own profession, while others have joined with non-professionals. Some librarians (mostly public librarians) have become part of certified bargaining units, while others (mostly academic librarians) have gone the route of voluntary recognition.

This paper will discuss the unionization of librarians in Canada, the reasons for their unionization and the role of labour legislation in determining bargaining unit composition and the negotiable issues. This paper will conclude with some predictions by the author of the future impact of unionization on the library profession.

The unionization of librarians in Canada is not a recent phenomenon. In 1944 the British Columbia Library Association (BCLA) affiliated itself with the Trades & Labour Congress of Canada (TLC). Although no formal

contract existed, both groups helped each other out. For example, the TLC lobbied on behalf of the BCLA for a new library building and in return its members paid \$.25 monthly to defray TLC's organizational costs. And in 1945, the London Public Library employees affiliated themselves with the Federation of Civic Employees' Union to further their cause for better working conditions. However, these seemed to be isolated cases of unionization and did not serve as an impetus to further union growth among librarians in Canada.

A major impetus was the passage of the *Public Service Staff Relations Act* in 1967 whereby federal government employees (including librarians) were unionized. The unionization of these white collar employees gave a new respectability to collective bargaining. During this same period (mid-1960s), public librarians began to unionize and later, in the early 1970s, academic librarians turned to collective bargaining. In Canada, public librarians are represented most frequently by the Canadian Union of Public Employees (CUPE), academic librarians by the Canadian Association of University Teachers (CAUT), the federal employees by the Public Service Alliance of Canada (PSAC), and the provincial government employees by their pro-

vincial government bargaining agent (e.g. Ontario Provincial Service Employees' Union (OPSEU)). To date, the percentage of librarians unionized in Canada is approximately as follows: public librarians 60%, academic librarians 50%, and government librarians 90%.

## Reasons for Unionization

According to a survey by the Association of Research Libraries<sup>1</sup> in 1980, reasons for this trend toward unionization in libraries are:

- librarians see unionization as a means of responding to budget cuts and limitations brought about by increased pressures for accountability from administrators and governments
- occasionally unions are a response to perceived managerial inequity or arbitrary decisions, especially in regard to personnel actions such as promotions, raises and job assignments
- collective bargaining is seen as a way of increasing library personnel's involvement in policy formulation and decision-making
- for academic librarians collective bargaining is seen as a way of upgrading their status by participating in a faculty movement toward unionization

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On the other hand, some librarians are fearful about the effect this trend toward unionization could have on their status as professionals. There is little consensus in library literature on the effect of unionization on the library profession. Berry<sup>2</sup>, Schlachter<sup>3</sup> and Taylor<sup>4</sup> fear unionization will eliminate such professional characteristics as self-direction, decision-making and autonomy. Others such as McCormack<sup>5</sup> and Parker<sup>6</sup> assert that unions will enhance the librarians' profession by enshrining such professional activities as sabbatical/research leaves and career development into the collective agreement.

Morley Gunderson, in his work on the unionization of professionals, identified three other reasons why professionals, in general, have turned to unionization<sup>7</sup>. He cites the following:

- a) bureaucratization of work
- b) decline of economic and social status
- c) severe fluctuations in demand and supply

#### **Bureaucratization of Work**

Government, universities and public libraries tend to be organized along bureaucratic lines which allows little room for autonomy and decision-making

on an individual basis. Professionals are encouraged through their training and professional associations to believe that their expertise allows them to make the best judgement on how a specific task ought to be accomplished. Professionals come to expect autonomy, self-direction and decision-making as part of their job jurisdiction. Thus the characteristics that define a bureaucratic organization and a professional employee can easily come into conflict.

Bureaucratic organizations can also conflict with the professional's perception of how best to perform a task. According to Cuviller<sup>8</sup>, there exists a privileged relationship between the professional and his work. This relationship implies the exercise of judgement, acquisition of new knowledge, includes a creative element and a degree of initiative, responsibility and independence. There is a need to maintain this creative spirit, for those who do not, stagnate into performing routine work. To many professionals, working in an organization limits decision-making and emphasizes procedural control which is the antithesis of professionalism with its emphasis on individuality, autonomy, flexibility, self-determination and close relationship with the client.

As more professionals become part of large bureaucratic organizations (such as libraries) they find themselves channelled into inflexible and unresponsive classification schemes which generalize rather than individualize each employee's worth to the organization. These organizations often have long lines of communication which create an impersonal atmosphere making identification with management more difficult. This aspect is important because professionals tend to view themselves as an elite group in the workplace and feel they have more in common with management's goals and objectives than with those of other workers. The career aspiration of many professionals is to join management, and therefore, professionals identify more readily with management than do many other sectors of the workforce. Thus any mechanism that would distance the professional from top management and its decision-making power would be perceived as a threat to his/her future career prospects.

Management has been successful in using a professional's identification with them as a means of forstalling

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unionization among librarians. According to Kleingartner & Kennelly<sup>9</sup> employers have used the concept of harmony of interest (between management and librarians) to undermine their efforts to organize. This is based on the belief that unionization will establish a permanent adversary relationship between librarians and their administrators. In effect, these administrators argue that professionals should avoid collective bargaining on the grounds that it constitutes unprofessional conduct. This rationale equates professionalism with loyalty to management according to Kleingartner.

Neither library associations nor the library literature has been very supportive of the notion of collective bargaining for librarians. In part this could be due to the fact that many library associations are run by library administrators and many library journal articles on management are also written by library administrators. Consequently, the message that professionalism and unionizations are incompatible has received much support (Shaunessy<sup>10</sup>, Schlachter<sup>11</sup>, Meyer<sup>12</sup>, Berry<sup>13</sup>, Commerton<sup>14</sup>).

Librarians generally expect to work within the formal organization of a library setting. However, as libraries became larger during the 1960s and 1970s, librarians too began to experience the impersonality of the bureaucratic structure. As libraries had to cut budgets, decision-making became more centralized, and offered less opportunity for input by librarians into decisions affecting their work. Arbitrary decisions by administrators has caused insecurity and discontent among the library personnel<sup>15</sup>.

### Declining Social and Economic Status

The bureaucratization of work in itself has caused a decline in the social status of the professional employee. Also, as skills become more specialized and compartmentalized, the employer who is cost conscious will want to use his employees in the most cost-effective way. Consequently, less educated people might be taught to perform some task which had once been done by a professional. Similarly a professional might be asked to perform work which a less educated but unavailable person could perform, thus saving the employer, in the short run, the cost of recruitment and training. Replacing professional employees with nonpro-

fessional or more specialized employees has already occurred in the library field. For example, in 1981, elementary teacher-librarians in Peterborough, Ontario, were replaced with technicians, and in rural Alberta, nearly half the school districts have phased out teacher-librarians in favour of support staff<sup>16</sup>. Librarians, therefore, might turn to collective bargaining as a means of preserving or recovering what they believe to be their exclusive work jurisdiction.

The problem has been further aggravated by the way in which the education of librarians has become diluted with educational variations. Previously, a B.L.S. or an M.L.S. defined librarianship and a diploma from a community college, a library technician. Now, for example, Concordia University, is offering a B.A. with a major in librarianship. Where would such a graduate fit into the library's organization? Would they perform a librarian's job or a technician's? Or would a new job jurisdiction be created for these graduates, and if so, at the librarian's or the technician's expense? What job role would they be filling that is not currently being filled? This overlapping of educational training could affect the boundaries of the librarians' and library technicians' work jurisdiction making them even less distinguishable than they are now.

### Fluctuations In Demand and Supply Conditions

In the latter part of the 1970s, professionals employed in the government, universities and public service became aware of budget cuts. The government's deficit spending has subjected libraries to close public scrutiny and accountability than ever before. The dilemma of the professional working as a salaried employee is compounded by what economists term the 'public goods' nature of some professional's work. With 'public goods', the benefits are equally available to all users; however, it is not feasible to extract payment from these users. Public libraries are particularly vulnerable to this. These 'public goods' services are often perceived by politicians as non-essential and thus more likely to receive a low priority in funding allocations.

Fluctuations in demand and supply of professionals has also been affected by the 'cobweb cycle'. This refers to the situation where there is a great demand for a particular profession and

this causes an increase in its members' earnings. This occurs in the short run because it is not possible to replenish the professional pool quickly due to the long training requirement. The long term effect of this demand plus the high salaries being offered, serve as a signal to attract new students to that profession. It also serves as a signal for the employer to utilize alternatives (such as nonprofessionals or technicians) to fill the void created by the shortage of professionals on the labour market. By the time the new pool of professionals graduates and enters the job market, employers no longer demand their services as their jobs have been filled by paraprofessionals, technicians, or replaced by automation.

The demand and supply of librarians has also been influenced by other factors. For example, immigration statistics show that the number of librarians entering Canada between 1964 and 1970 increased from 57 to 217 annually<sup>17</sup>. During the same time period, the number of graduates from Canadian library schools increased from 290 graduates in 1964 to 452 in 1968<sup>18</sup>. As the supply of librarians increased, the demand for their services decreased. In 1965/66, 26.5% of library positions required librarians, by 1970/71 this had decreased to 21.5%<sup>19</sup>. A survey of job advertisements in 1977 indicated that the number of jobs for librarians was continuing to decline<sup>20</sup>. Thus, with an increasing number of librarians entering Canada, and with more librarians graduating at the same time that library positions are decreasing, librarians have become very concerned about their future prospects, their career mobility and their job security.

### Labour Legislation

In Canada there is no legislation which specifically excludes librarians, as a profession, from bargaining collectively. Legislation such as the *British Columbia Universities Act*, 1977 prevents librarians from forming certified bargaining units; that is, they cannot bargain for their working conditions under the jurisdiction of their provincial labour relations board, instead they must bargain under the jurisdiction of their university. This also means that their bargaining unit can only be recognized voluntarily by their administration, that is, there is no legal obligation by the administration to bargain with them.

Labour legislation in Canada, does however, give rise to two concerns for librarians:

1. determination of the appropriate bargaining unit, and
2. the scope of bargaining issues.

### Appropriate Bargaining Unit

The term 'appropriate bargaining unit' has been defined as

"a group of employees among whom there is enough of a 'community of interest' to make it appropriate that they have all their terms and conditions of employment negotiated at one time by one bargaining agent."<sup>21</sup>

Provincial labour boards have tended to include librarians and support staff in the same bargaining unit in public libraries but have segregated them in university libraries. One reason for this may be the differences in the size of the bargaining units. Public libraries, except those in large metropolitan centres, tend to have relatively small staffs and, in order to avoid fragmentation into small powerless units, the boards have recommended a single all inclusive bargaining unit. For example, in the late 1960s and early 1970s, the Ontario Labour Relations Board established the precedent

of placing librarians in the same bargaining unit as support staff. With the exception of Metropolitan Toronto, Thunder Bay and Scarborough, all public library bargaining units in Ontario are mixed; that is, librarians are in the same bargaining unit as support staff. Despite protests against their inclusion, librarians have been unable to convince provincial labour boards that their job interests were sufficiently different from those of the support staff to warrant a separate bargaining unit. As well, being considered professionals was also not considered sufficient grounds for a separate bargaining unit.

In academic libraries, librarians have generally been successful in joining faculty associations and becoming part of their bargaining unit. At large academic universities such as Dalhousie, Ottawa, York, Windsor and Manitoba, librarians were included in the same bargaining unit as the faculty at certification. Smaller universities such as Acadia, St. Thomas More, and St. Mary's have excluded librarians from the faculty bargaining unit. In Quebec, librarians also tend to be excluded; for example, Laval, Montreal, Sherbrooke, and Quebec have all excluded librarians from the faculty

bargaining unit. Considering that these units were some of the earliest to become certified, and that our law tends to be set on precedents, it is thus surprising that librarians managed to be included in the same bargaining unit as faculty so consistently in later certifications.

### Scope of Bargaining Issues

According to Kleingartner<sup>22</sup>, professionals want to bargain for more than just the traditional issues of wages, hours of work, vacations, etc. In addition, professionals are interested in such issues as autonomy, decision-making authority, and career development. Kleingartner justified his assumption that professionals want and need these latter issues on the basis that the goals of professional employees differ from other employees. He attributes this difference to the fact that "...professionals as a group have a stronger attachment to their work and expect to derive more from it than do the nonprofessionals."<sup>23</sup> This viewpoint is supported by the work of Strauss and Rainwater<sup>24</sup>, Orzack<sup>25</sup>, and Dubin<sup>26</sup>. For professionals, their work is not 'just a job' but a career which requires a great deal of exper-



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tise, training and effort to accomplish, and for this professional employees want to be recognized and rewarded.

As well, management has not accepted as readily issues such as decision-making authority, autonomy and career development as appropriate bargaining issues. These issues represent a challenge to management's authority and can erode their prerogative to manage as they see fit. Although these issues seldom translate into actual dollar costs to management, there has been a greater resistance to their inclusion as bargainable items, as have such issues as wages, fringe benefits and job classifications.

According to Ponak<sup>27</sup> an 'expansion in the scope of bargaining' must take place before issues, such as autonomy and decision-making, will be accepted as bargaining issues by management. Gluck<sup>28</sup> contends it is impossible for an expansion in the scope of bargaining to take place because of the 'sovereignty doctrine'. This term refers to employer resistance to discuss issues other than traditional ones, and represents a fundamental belief in management rights. In recent years, according to Kleingartner and Bickner<sup>29</sup>,

disputes over bargainable issues have been most pronounced between professionals and their employers, reflecting the difference in goals and objectives between professional and non-professional employees. These researchers predict that the expansion of the scope of bargaining issues is a long and slow process. Kleingartner further stipulates that traditional bargaining issues (such as wages, fringe benefits) must be satisfactorily resolved before professional issues (such as autonomy, decision-making) are pursued.

Generally, there are no legal restrictions on what matters may be discussed at the bargaining table. An important exception to this is the *Public Service Staff Relations Act* under which government librarians negotiate. Both at the federal and the provincial level, the respective acts restrict what issues can be bargained for. For example, under section 17 of the Ontario *Employees Collective Bargaining Act*, it is not permissible to bargain about the principles and standards governing classification, promotion, demotion, transfers, lay-offs and reappointments. However, under section 6 of the Act, it is permissible to bargain about the

methods of classification, promotion, etc. This fine line between bargainable and nonbargainable issues, and the inability to strike in some provincial jurisdictions, limits the kind of issues librarians in government libraries can bargain for. It is interesting to note that where librarians have been prevented by legislation from grieving certain issues, they have circumvented the restriction by seeking a remedy under other legislation, such as the *Canadian Human Rights Act*<sup>30</sup>.

### Conclusion

Research has shown that professionals have turned to collective bargaining in reaction to environmental factors which have impacted on their work. Factors such as the bureaucratization of their work, decline of their economic and social status, and fluctuations in the demand and supply of professionals have been instrumental in the increase of unionization among professional employees. Librarians are also affected by these environmental factors and, in order to resist, their impact will have to bargain for such issues as decision-making authority,

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DELTA SPES  
DERVY  
DROZ  
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NOUVELLE CITE  
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VRIN  
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peer review of their work, job descriptions and career development programs. Occupational recognition will also become an important issue if the librarian's job jurisdiction is to be protected.

Few librarians are in bargaining units consisting only of other librarians. Usually librarians bargain with support staff, other professionals or with faculty. In each of these bargaining units, librarians are in the minority. If the interests of librarians are to receive priority at the bargaining table, librarians will have to become actively involved in the affairs of the union. To be effective within the union takes time and energy as well as a thorough knowledge of one's rights and obligations under the collective agreement. Hopefully this could be accomplished through continuing education or with a new emphasis on collective bargaining in personnel and administration courses at library schools.

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