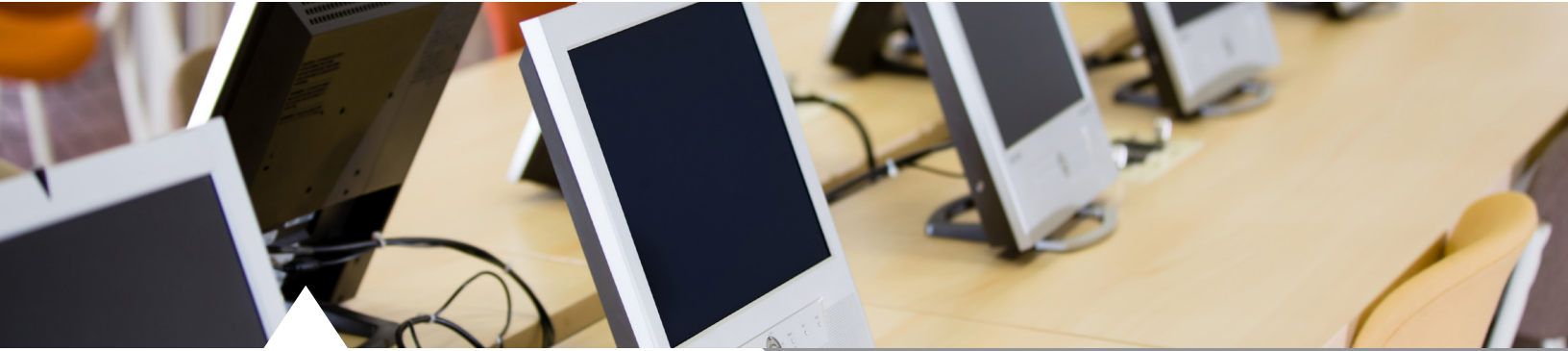» *"Outside of a dog, a book is a man's best friend. Inside of a dog it's too dark to read."*

– GROUCHO MARX

Strategic Library ™

Librarians Leading Short-Term Study Abroad

BY KELLY MCELROY AND LAURIE M. BRIDGES

INTRODUCTION

The benefits of study abroad for students are well-documented, and many colleges and universities have ambitious plans to expand the numbers of students who participate. Librarians can absolutely be a part of these initiatives, although it may take some creative work to get you there. Using our course, Information and Global Social Justice as a case study, this article will help you consider how to develop a librarian-led short-term study abroad at your university or college. We will take you through key steps in our process: making the case for faculty-led study abroad, investigating possible options, preparing a study abroad course proposal, promoting the course, through teaching your first study abroad course.

The term "study abroad" may make you think of students spending a semester or full year in another country, perhaps enrolled in courses at a local university.

However, over the last decade, faculty-led short-term study abroad has surpassed the longer, more traditional experience in popularity. In the 2014/2015 academic year, 63% of US students who studied abroad did so for durations of eight weeks or less (Institute of International Education, 2016). Only 2.5% of US students who studied abroad during that same period did so for an academic or calendar year. Although your institution may offer other ways to participate in study abroad, this article focuses on the process for developing and running a short-term study abroad course. Even if you have other options, much of the following may still prove helpful.

Although these courses are developed and led by faculty from all disciplines, librarians rarely lead these programs, despite our qualifications as educators. When we tell faculty and librarians we lead a study abroad course, both groups seem equally mystified. Reactions vary, but we have often heard things like, "You are the leaders? Not the assistants?" That's why, when you

approach your supervisor or administration with a proposal to lead study abroad, you should go prepared with evidence about the positive outcomes of study abroad for students as well as its connection with information literacy and libraries.

OUR COURSE

When we talk with other librarians about our study abroad course, *Information and Global Social Justice,* the initial response is generally one of two things. Folks either say that their sole regret in college was not studying abroad...or they tell us that studying abroad changed their life. Our own experiences reflect those two extremes. Laurie wanted to study in Australia, but didn't due to family concerns. Kelly studied for a full academic year in Italy, which led her to other international educational experiences. Given our backgrounds, when we saw the call for increased faculty-led course proposals at our institution in fall 2014, we both thought about the potential for developing and leading a course. We will discuss the process in greater detail below, but a general understanding of how we conceptualized and structured our course may help you begin to consider what would make sense for your institution.

Our course topic evolved as we developed our proposal. From the beginning, we wanted to focus on creating opportunities for first-time overseas travelers, and to highlight the opportunities for information literacy skill-building in all steps of international travel, from deciding what to pack to navigating a new city. Given our shared personal and professional interest in social justice work, and growing coursework in this area on our campus, we decided to create a course that would introduce students to social justice and to a series of information literacy skills, within a cross-cultural frame. We created the course with the intention that it could be adapted to locations across the globe, depending on the librarians leading it each year. Because we wanted

to recruit first-time international travelers, we looked to the most popular locations to study abroad: given Laurie's experience and interest in Spain and Kelly's in Italy, it was natural to begin with those two locations. As a result, the course learning outcomes include the following:

- Build your own self-awareness, particularly your cultural self-awareness.
- Develop a deeper understanding of social justice in a global society.
- Deconstruct assumptions, describe how assumptions are formed, and challenge assumptions through critical reflection and by considering new perspectives.
- Locate and synthesize knowledge/information from a variety of sources to research a global social justice issue.
- Analyze some key similarities/differences between US and Spanish/Italian cultures.

Based on study abroad best practices Laurie learned about during a one-week immersive faculty seminar, "Learning While Leading: Supporting Intercultural Development Through Study Away," we designed the course to begin with a week of classes on our home campus before departure. This classroom time allowed our group to build community and confidence, as well as building a foundation of course content. Because the main assignment for the course is a comparative project looking at a social justice issue at home and in the host country, students also began considering potential topics during that week.

We worked with a third-party provider, CIEE, to coordinate our excursions to museums, libraries, non-profits, and other sites, and homestays for the duration of the trip. While some faculty choose to do all these logistics themselves, that means dealing with hotel cancellations or missed trains on top of teaching. Working with a third-party provider allowed us to focus on our students throughout the entire course.

In-country, the line between educational and recreational activities blurred

together, in the sense that we were all constantly experiencing and learning new things. Although we wrote up a rough lesson plan before we left for Barcelona, we found ourselves revising nightly in order to incorporate unexpected new information. Regardless, our two hours of classroom time always began with a short guided meditation, and a prompt for written reflection, to provide students time to gather and process their thoughts on everything they'd been experiencing. Each day also included tours, workshops, and social activities. We built in a long weekend without scheduled activities or class time (Friday-Sunday) in the middle of the course, to give our students time to relax and explore on their own.

After the end of our two weeks, we required students to meet with us two additional times to discuss their final projects, before submitting it at the end of the summer. We worked with a library intern to compile the final project as an e-book using the Scalar platform.

In order to make the course more accessible to students, we aggressively sought financial support. The College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP) at Oregon State provided assistance to two students. Our university librarian created a full scholarship for a current or former student worker in the library, funded by donors. We requested funding from the Division of International Programs for our Pell-eligible students, ultimately arranging for $750 additional funding for each of them. We also worked with students individually to set up or support crowdfunding and other fundraising initiatives; one student raised nearly $1000 through a tamale sale. We also worked with CIEE to identify ways to trim costs on the activities in-country.

BUILDING THE CASE FOR STUDY ABROAD

In order to develop a study abroad course at your institution, it is important to start with a strong understanding of the benefits of study abroad for students, as well as under-

standing what librarians are positioned to contribute.

Benefits to students of study abroad

The positive impact of study abroad includes increased intercultural communication skills, language acquisition, and complex reasoning skills (Williams 2005, Hadis 2005). Because the popularity of short-term study abroad has grown so quickly, many faculty and administrators remain uninformed of its benefits. Research about the benefits of study abroad, including short-term study abroad, support the investments made by students, faculty, and institutions in developing study abroad experiences (Redden, 2010; British Council, 2015; Donnelly-Smith, 2009; Paige, R.M., & et. al, 2009; Paige, R.M., & et. al, 2014).

Faculty and administrators in universities and colleges in the US often use the American Association of Colleges and Universities (AACU) high-impact practices (HIPs) when developing and implementing new programs including study abroad. HIPs are learning and teaching practices that have been shown to increase rates of engagement and retention (Kuh, 2008). A carefully crafted study abroad course can incorporate a majority of the high-impact practices including common intellectual experiences, learning communities, collaborative assignments and projects, undergraduate research, diversity/global learning, and service and community learning.

High-Impact Practices from the AACU (Kuh, 2008)
- First-Year Experiences
- Common Intellectual Experiences
- Learning Communities
- Writing Intensive Courses
- Collaborative Assignments and Projects
- Undergraduate Research
- Diversity/Global Learning
- Service Learning, Community-Based Learning
- Internships
- Capstone Courses and Projects

Short-term study abroad experiences appeal to students because they are less expensive than longer programs. A shorter timeline allows students who are enrolled in lockstep-sequence majors, like engineering and education, the opportunity to go abroad without extending their time to graduation. For students who work full time or have family commitments, a shorter course may

Race/Ethnicity	% of All University and College Students	% of University and College Students Who Studied Abroad
White	58.3	72.9
Hispanic or Latino(a)1	16.5	8.8
Asian or Pacific Islander	6.6	8.1
Black or African American	14.5	5.6
Multiracial	3.3	4.1
American Indian or Alaska Native	.8	.5

Table 1: Percentages of students, by race/ethnicity, who were enrolled in U.S. universities and colleges compared to the percentages that studied abroad in the 2014/15 academic year.
(National Center for Educational Statistics, 2015; Institute of International Education, 2016)

be the only viable possibility.

As librarians committed to social justice, we were especially interested in increasing the representation of students from communities historically underrepresented in study abroad. Underrepresented is a term that is often used in higher education in the United States to describe students who are not members of the majority (white, cisgender, heterosexual, able-bodied) and includes students who identify as LGBTQI, veterans, women, students of color, first-generation, lower income, and/or people with disabilities. The Institute of International Education, which produces the annual Open Doors report about international education related to the US, also gathers and reports race and ethnicity data. Using the Open Doors 2016 "Fast Facts" report, we can see that approximately one quarter of those who studied abroad in 2014/2015 were students of color (**see Table 1**).

When this percentage is compared to enrollment data provided by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCEE) we can see that students of color are studying abroad at a much lower rate than their white peers (**see Table 1**). As we developed our course, we made purposeful decisions to appeal to and support underrepresented students. Besides the fundraising efforts noted above, we used our relationships with student affairs staff on campus to get the word out to students through the Cultural Resource Centers and other units that work closely with particular communities of students. We chose a two-week period in-country to keep the costs down for students, as well as to be less intimidating to first-

time international travelers.

All students experience at least some trepidation when they begin investigating study abroad. Concerns include being away from home, possibly increasing time to graduation, and affording the costs. However, students of color express specific concerns about racism and microaggressions in the host country, racism and micro-aggressions from their fellow students, and traveling to locations where locals may not have encountered people of their race before (Picard, Bernardino, & Ehigiator, 2009). When talking with students of color, or any student from an underrepresented community, about your course, it is important that you are able to address their concerns while also informing them of the benefits. As the faculty, familiarize yourself with issues in the host country, and be purposeful with your goals and preparation.

In addition to these broad reasons, consider your local context as well. Your institution may have its own particular set of learning outcomes, or stated goals for increasing the number of students going abroad. In our case, at Oregon State University, the Provost stated a goal of tripling the number of students studying abroad within 3-5 years, as part of an initiative to internationalize the university. This push has included greatly expanding the number of faculty-led offerings.

Why librarians are well-suited to lead study abroad

Given the surprised reactions we often get from librarians and others in higher education when we speak about our class,

we want to discuss the natural connections between information literacy and study abroad. Although the specific topic of your study abroad course will depend on your areas of interest and expertise, there are several general ways in which study abroad is a natural fit for building information literacy. On the most basic level, being in a new country, surrounded by new signs, language, and culture, requires the ability to find, process, and use information quickly.

A few examples from our class may demonstrate. In order to navigate the Metro public transportation maps in Barcelona, our students had to build a number of skills. Although several students were native Spanish speakers, nearly all of them had grown up in small towns in Oregon with little public transportation, so they had to learn to read the map and discover the process of making payment, in addition to actually getting themselves around and arriving on time, and negotiating the cultural norms of being in crowded subway cars. As the instructors of the course we also learned a lot about the information-seeking behaviors of our students. All of our students were between the ages of 18 and 21, and their automatic practices searching for necessary information—whether something fun to do at night or where to find good Mexican food—were naturally different from our own. One of our students routinely used Tumblr to search for activities, and all the students who brought their smartphones shared real-time experiences with each other via Snapchat. We all used WhatsApp to communicate with one another and with our colleagues in Barcelona, and over the final weekend we watched as our students discussed what to wear out that evening, sharing pictures of possible outfits followed by direct quotes from their host families, "My host mom's daughter says...."

These fun and sometimes silly exchanges also gave us opportunities to dig deeper into how they knew information was trustworthy or useful. In one class session,

students raised questions about the authority of government information in context. We used an on-site computer lab to explore Spanish and Catalan government information websites. As we had seen Catalan flags throughout the city and discussed the independence movement multiple times, students could consider these contesting government bodies in terms of seemingly neutral information. Students discussed why they might choose to focus on the Catalan or even Barcelona statistics, rather than the Spanish ones, depending on their topic and scope. Experiential education provides immediate and real-life applications: our lesson about government information helped students understand why their host families identified as Catalan, not Spanish. Although our library has not broadly adopted the Association of College and Research Libraries Framework for Information Literacy, we have found it fairly easy to map our class against its six frames or core concepts. This particular example certainly demonstrated how authority is constructed and contextual, and gave our students a direct connection between the political power dynamics they'd been learning about and the impact on the availability of information. The approach your institution takes to information literacy or library instruction should inform the case you make for your own course.

In addition to the clear links between study abroad and information literacy, there are also professional benefits to leading study abroad courses. Developing and teaching a study abroad course for undergraduates can raise the visibility of your library and the librarians among students, faculty, and staff while contributing to the overall mission of your university. Faculty of all kinds generally speak about the connections they have built and maintained with international faculty (in our case with libraries and librarians). While in our host country we visited half a dozen libraries and had personal meetings with a number of

librarians. We even gave a presentation to a gathering of librarians from around the region, which was then translated into Catalan. Broadening professional networks also builds the reputation of your university and library, and may serve institutional goals around internationalization.
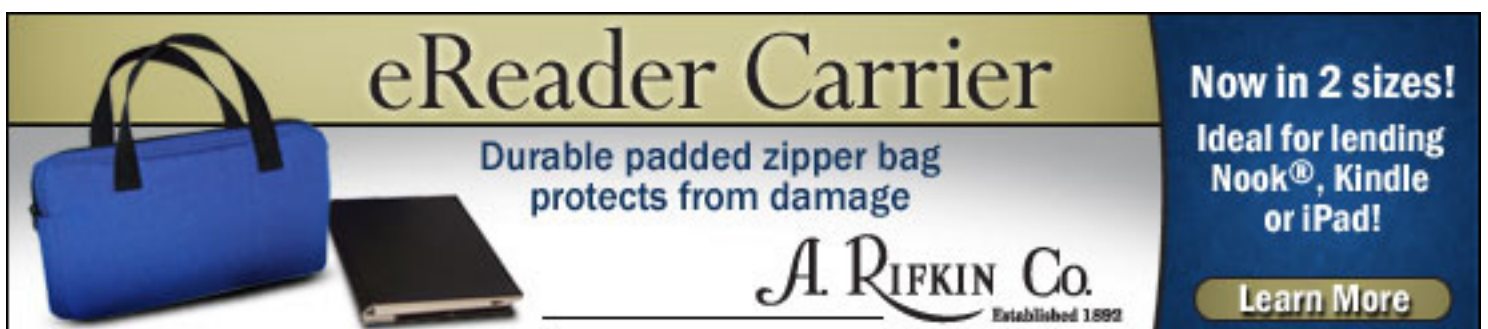
THE PLANNING PROCESS

Starting a study abroad course takes time. We originally began taking steps in fall 2014 for a course that ran for the first time in summer 2016. Although the steps that follow are based on our experience at Oregon State, we have attempted to describe a process that could be adapted to any institution. Your timeline will vary, along with many other pieces of the puzzle, but you'll notice that relationship-building and strategic advocacy are woven throughout.

Background preparation

Whatever the procedure is for developing a study abroad course, you will need to do a great deal of research before getting started. You will need to identify people to speak with, particularly from the office supporting study abroad, as well as other faculty who have led courses. You may also find it helpful to learn from other institutional handbooks: we found guides from The University of Texas at Austin, the University of Kentucky, and Washington State University to be especially useful. Below are some questions we suggest asking your international office before you get started:

- How involved is the international office in planning, recruiting students, and executing the study abroad experience?
- If librarians are not faculty at your institution, are they still eligible to lead courses? (Despite the name, other staff may also lead faculty-led courses.)
- Does the international office have any recommendations about locations (for example, a popular city/country or a less well-travelled location)?
- Do faculty leaders at your institution

work with third-party providers in the host country? If so, do they have a list of approved providers?

- Does your university provide funding for faculty to conduct a pre-trip to scope out the location?
- How are the costs of faculty travel covered during the study abroad?
- Does your university offer any funding or scholarships for students on short-term study abroad?
- What costs, if any, would the library be responsible for covering?
- Who else on campus does your international office recommend you connect with?

Making your proposal

Once you have a sense of the basic procedure, you'll need to propose a course. In our case, before filling out the standard university procedure for developing a course, we had to propose the course internally to our University Librarian, to ensure that we could take the time to teach the course and get funding to support our travel. Regardless of the procedure at your institution, it is wise to be prepared to explain the benefits that the course will have both within the library and more broadly for the university. As you build your proposal, you might consider the following questions:

- What strengths do you bring, individually as instructors or as a unit? This might include language skills, subject expertise, or soft skills.
- What gaps exist in current study abroad offerings?
- How can you make your program sustainable over time?
- Where does the course fit into the university's curriculum? For example, can it fulfill any core course requirements?
- What makes your course appealing to students?
- How will the course benefit the library? the university?

Promoting Your Course

Once your course has been approved, you will need to connect with students. How much you will need to promote your course depends on the level of involvement of your international office, the academic home for your course, and the support at your institution for study abroad. Your university may already centrally manage promotion of study abroad, or offer scholarships specific to study abroad. In our case, it was crucial to do ongoing study abroad, in part because study abroad on our campus is largely marketed within each College, to students within those majors. Even if marketing is largely done for you, the following questions may help you connect with students:

- What marketing materials (e.g. a website, posters, handouts) can you develop to share information with students and their families? (You may use either of our sites to generate ideas or as a template: **studybarcelona.weebly.com** or **osuitaly. weebly.com**.)
- Students in particular majors, courses, or programs might be particularly interested in your course—what are they, and how can you connect with them?
- What events (e.g. international fairs) and courses can you visit to connect with students?
- How can you connect one-on-one with students? Consider regular office hours or ways to set up individual meetings with individual students.
- What financial support is available for students? How will you advocate for students getting this support?
- What particular concerns might students with marginalized identities have about the host country? How are you prepared to support students if they experience hostility based on their race, sexual orientation, or other identities?

Teaching and Taking Your Students Abroad

Leading a study abroad means many things for the instructors. As we've explained, we had to develop the curriculum, recruit for the course, work through the application process with students, help students with their travel arrangements — and that was before the course even began! As you prepare to finally teach your course, consider the following questions:

- What are your expectations for student behavior? What are their expectations for you? How will you build community in the classroom and outside?
- How will you accommodate unexpected developments? (For example, if a planned activity is canceled, a new topic of interest emerges.)
- How will you assess student learning, or the overall success of your program? What reporting is required by your institution?

CONCLUSIONS

Leading this course has been one of the most rewarding accomplishments either of us has had in our careers. It was exhausting, exhilarating, surprising, and humbling to learn alongside our seven students for these weeks. We returned with a fresh perspective on making information literacy vital and new hope for building meaningful relationships with our students. We met with each of them twice after returning to Oregon, as students completed their final projects, but also to debrief their experiences. These meetings gave us a chance to hear how our students were synthesizing their learning as they returned to school and home. After compiling the students' final projects, we created a final report for our library administration, outlining the process, challenges, successes, and making recommendations for the future of the course. Because we had originally proposed it as an annual course, this was a chance for us to clarify what we

wanted to build on. We also sent thank you notes to our donors, and began gearing up for the next time.

As we write this, Kelly is preparing for the second year of this class, headed to Ferrara, Italy. Based on our experience in Barcelona, students heading to Italy have already begun to pick and research their topics for their final projects: everything from school lunch nutrition to the experiences of new immigrants to the impact of tourism on historical sites. She will be joined by another librarian, and in 2018 Laurie will return to Barcelona with yet another new librarian co-leader. We have arranged to do this through summer 2020 and then reevaluate the program. Working with campus colleagues, we moved the course through the course approval system to obtain a permanent academic home, with other experiential learning courses. As a part of that process, we also worked with the new Social Justice minor to get the course approved to count toward that program. We built on existing relationships with faculty who run that program, and it was straight-forward to make the case for how the course fits into that program of study. Interestingly, when we reached out to the College of Engineering about marketing the course this year, they told us that it would count toward the Humanitarian Engineering minor, without us even asking. We hope to eventually find a home for it within the general education requirements. Several of our students from last year and this year have worked with their academic advisors to apply the course toward specific requirements, but only on a case-by-case basis. Their write-ups for these requests will serve us as we investigate how to make the course work for requirements for all students. We have connected with other faculty and staff on our campus to lobby for additional funding for underrepresented students to use to study abroad, coordinating efforts into a loose network of advocates.

We have also stayed in touch with our students from last year. Laurie has been a job reference for two of them: one has applied to teach English in Spain after graduating, and another student got a job as a Latinx community liaison at a public library. The former student who is now working in a library told us that visiting public libraries in Barcelona gave her a sense of the potential of libraries as community spaces. While we don't expect that each year's class will inspire future library workers, these students have shared the impact that this class and their travels have had so far. ■

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FOOTNOTE:
[1] Latinx is currently the preferred inclusive term that encompasses all genders. Here, the authors retain "Hispanic or Latino(a)" as the terminology used by the Institute of International Education and "Hispanic" as used by the US Department of Education.

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Libraries Protecting Privacy on Social Media

» Sharing Without "Oversharing"

BY KELLEY COTTER AND MAUREEN DIANA SASSO

INTRODUCTION

Social media has become an essential means of connecting with others, which makes it particularly useful to libraries as a tool for user outreach and engagement. However, social media also challenges the library profession's principles and practices related to privacy by encouraging users to make their private lives public and by blurring the boundaries of acceptable information-sharing. As libraries adopt social media for marketing and outreach, the American Library Association's (ALA) principles regarding privacy warrant further consideration and discussion. This article presents the findings from a study of how librarians and library staff perceive and handle issues of patron privacy concerning social media marketing in libraries. By reflecting the diverse opinions and experience of library professionals across the field, the findings may fuel local and profession-wide discussions about best practices regarding patron privacy and social media. Ideally, these best practices would be codified into formal policies and made publicly available to patrons.

PRIVACY IN LIBRARIES

ALA has long underscored the importance of privacy for libraries in terms of intellectual freedom and the freedom of access to information. Principles articulated by ALA have generally focused on protecting privacy to eliminate the fear that records of a patron's library use may reveal information about the patron that he or she would not wish to be shared. As Caldwell-Stone states in the ninth edition of ALA's Intellectual Freedom Manual:

> *Only when an individual is assured that his choice of reading material does not subject him to criticism, repri-*

At what type of library are you employed? (n=257)

- Academic — 57.58%
- Public — 35.41%
- Special — 2.72%
- Other (please specify) — 1.56%
- School — 1.56%
- Research — 1.17%

Figure 1: Types of Libraries Represented in the Study

sals, or punishment can the individual fully enjoy his freedom to explore ideas, weigh arguments, and decide for himself what he believes. (Caldwell-Stone, 2015, p. 184)
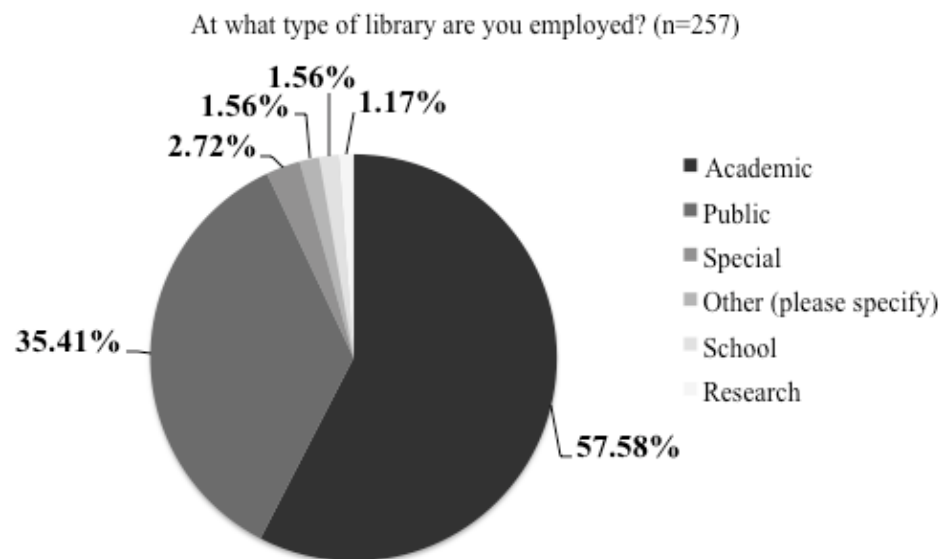
Historically, the most prominent privacy concerns in libraries primarily arose from requests for circulation records and/or inquiries about use of resources and services by the IRS and FBI. In the eighth edition of the Intellectual Freedom Manual, Krug and Morgan also identify other parties who have attempted to gain access to library user records, including journalists, marketing professionals, civil litigants, parents, and politicians (2010).

More recently, the profession has broadened its commitment to privacy by advocating for general privacy rights in the digital age. For example, ALA's Office for Intellectual Freedom (OIF) launched Privacy Week in an effort to call attention to various types of surveillance and data collection that proliferate online. ALA has also maintained the Privacy Toolkit for librarians

since 2005, which identifies library-related privacy concerns as they arise and guides librarians in developing policies that address these concerns (2014a). The Privacy Toolkit mentions social media only briefly; however, the present study suggests that a number of the recommendations in the toolkit are relevant to libraries' ethical use of social media.

Library literature echoes ALA's stance on privacy, arguing that libraries should position themselves as privacy champions. According to Gressel (2014), the public "should be able to turn toward libraries as bearers of strong privacy policies" (p. 140). Like Gressel, who described libraries as "beacons of privacy" (p. 138), many scholars have argued that libraries should lead the public in safeguarding privacy, a view that supports ALA initiatives, such as Privacy Week. Indeed, many scholars have suggested a fundamental imperative for libraries to educate their patrons about privacy issues (Anderson, 2008; Farkas, 2011; Gressel, 2014; Lamdan, 2015; Magnuson, 2011; Ponelis, 2013; Stuart, 2012). Lamdan (2015)

called librarians to action, urging them to get involved with the "social media user rights movement" (p. 261) and advocate for privacy-friendly terms-of-use agreements. However, Zimmer's 2014 study found that while library professionals' general privacy concerns increased between 2008 and 2012, the percentage of librarians who felt that "libraries should play a role in educating the general public about issues of personal privacy" dropped from 92% to 77% (p. 146). Zimmer also reported a decrease between 2008 and 2012 in the number of library professionals who "strongly agreed" that companies and government agencies collect too much personal information (2014, p. 145). Societal concerns, such as the fear of domestic terrorism and the use of social media for recruitment and radicalization by terrorist groups, may influence librarians' views on online privacy as the profession balances constitutional rights with national security. While the profession has advocated for upholding privacy rights in response to various forms of government surveillance (American Library Association Office of Government Relations, n.d.), certain situations, such as Edward Snowden's disclosure of government surveillance, have revealed increasing diversity of opinion within the profession over privacy issues (Carpenter, 2015).

To date, very little literature offers substantial insight or guidance on handling privacy issues related to libraries and social media. Zimmer's 2013 study found that less than 2% of articles on the topic of Library 2.0, a term used to describe library services that incorporate social technologies, discussed privacy beyond a brief mention and even fewer actually proposed solutions for addressing privacy issues (p. 35).

Still, a dialogue has begun to emerge over how libraries should view and protect privacy in the age of the social web. A number of scholars have articulated concerns about incorporating elements of social media into library websites and systems that may necessitate collecting personal information (Anderson, 2008; Cvetkovic, 2009; Fernandez, 2010; Stuart, 2012). These concerns typically stem from the clear disparities between a library's mission and that of third-party partners. Fernandez (2010) warned that social media companies "are not simply neutral spaces for libraries to place outreach materials in, but websites controlled by companies who seek to maximize the amount of personal

information contained in them" (p. 6). Others have raised concerns about libraries or librarians "friending" users, which provides access to their personal information (Ahmed, Edwards-Johnson, Antell, & Strothmann, 2013; Connell, 2009; Dickson & Holley, 2010; Sachs, Eckel, & Langan, 2011). Similarly, Ponelis (2013) discusses the potential for social media users to unintentionally share information about themselves that a library could see. Carson (2010) warns of possibly violating the right of publicity and recommends that libraries avoid using photos in which an individual can be easily identified unless they receive consent. Generally, views expressed about privacy and social media in library literature seem to reflect the value placed on the relationship between the library and its users. As Gorman wrote, the bond of trust between libraries and library users

is a precious thing and one that we should do our best to preserve. In the face of the onslaught of technology, it is more than ever important to preserve human values and human trust so that we can demonstrate that we are, above all, on the side of the library user and that user's right to live a private life. (2000, p. 157).

SOCIAL MEDIA MARKETING CHALLENGES TO PROTECTING PATRON PRIVACY

Social media complicates patron privacy protection by providing a communication channel that emphasizes public, widespread broadcast of information. Messages communicated via social media have no analog to traditional forms of communication in terms of privacy, due to their vast accessibility and the de facto permanence of the content shared. In other words, libraries have no other platform by which messages can be spread so widely and so persistently. For example, there is a critical difference between publishing a patron's photo in a library newsletter distributed in print at the circulation desk and publishing a patron's photo via a library social media account. An online newsletter distributed through social media provides more potential for downstream re-use and distribution of photos in unintended and unauthorized ways, yet use of photos in social media marketing may not be included in existing policies.

Social media, and the Internet in general, has facilitated the exponential growth of personal information readily available to the

general public. As a result, seemingly vague or harmless details about a patron shared by a library can be combined with other available anonymized data to re-identify the individual (Narayanan & Shmatikov, 2008, 2009; Wondracek, Holz, Kirda, & Kruegel, 2010). Re-identification algorithms facilitate the identification of individuals using otherwise innocuous data (Narayanan & Shmatikov, 2009). Thus, anyone with the proper skills and knowledge—individuals, government agencies, companies, and other entities—can gather detailed information about a person by linking data available online. In the past, government requests for information have shaped ALA's stance on patron privacy. However, with so much sharing on social media, government agencies may already have access to the library patron data they seek without needing to request it, and libraries could inadvertently supply some of that data.

Further complicating matters, social media users often relinquish privacy by willingly and publicly sharing highly personal, even sensitive, information. While a library cannot control what its patrons share online, it is possible to further erode a patron's privacy by re-sharing personal information the patron has posted on social media. Thus, even though it may be the patron's responsibility to know and understand the potential consequences of sharing private information publicly, re-sharing patron content on social media may still result in negative repercussions on patron privacy.

METHODS

Using a mixed-methods approach, this study sought to gather data regarding library employees' perceptions of privacy issues regarding social media marketing and the expectations for their library to protect patron privacy online. A nonprobability self-selection sampling method was used to collect responses from individuals employed by libraries, without restrictions on position or library type. The Duquesne University Institutional Review Board approved the survey, which ran from July 2014 to October 2014. The survey instrument was administered online via SurveyMonkey and disseminated through multiple library LISTSERVs and selected social media groups on Facebook and LinkedIn. SPSS was used to generate descriptive statistics regarding reported social media practices, policies, and guidelines.

Survey Design

Respondents were required to confirm consent to the terms of the 46-question survey in order to proceed to the first question, but there were no other required questions. Respondents could choose to skip questions or close the survey at any point. Due to the use of skip logic, respondents only saw a portion of the questions, depending on their answers to trigger questions. The survey was composed of three sections: demographics, social media policies/guidelines, and individual perceptions of ethical issues. Privacy issues comprised a subset of ethical concerns investigated in the survey. This study reports findings from 13 questions on the survey, covering privacy perceptions, social media policies/guidelines, as well as respondent demographics. The demographics and policies/guidelines sections used nominal questions; the perceptions section used five-point ordinal scales. Additionally, 10 of the 13 questions examined in this study provided the opportunity for respondents to comment. These 10 questions generated 368 comments with an average of 37 comments per question.

Respondent Profile

There were 258 completed surveys with 57.6% of the respondents employed by academic libraries and 35.4% employed by public libraries **(see Figure 1)**. Over 66% of respondents identified as librarians **(see Figure 2)**. The overwhelming majority of respondents used social media daily **(see Figure 3)**.

Limitations

Because the study used self-selective sampling, the population of respondents may not be statistically generalizable to the entire field of library professionals. All survey questions referenced either the respondent or the library, except one that asked whether content posted to social media by "library staff" required approval. Review of the corresponding comments suggested that respondents' differing interpretation of the meaning of "library staff" influenced their answers to this question. For example, some distinguished between "staff," librarians, and administrators.

The fact that the majority of respondents indicated that they are active social media users likely affected their personal and professional opinions regarding expectations for privacy on social media. Additionally, concerns about the length
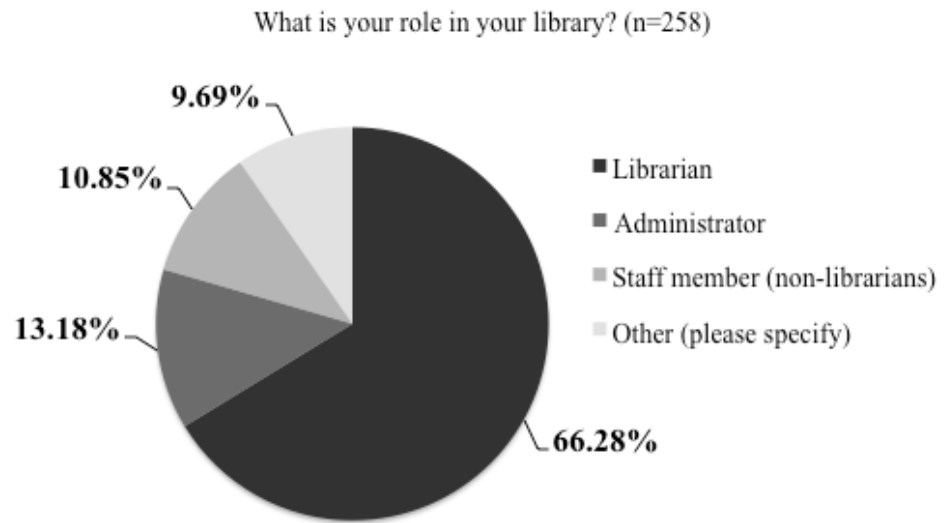
Figure 2: Professional Roles of Study Respondents

of the survey led the authors to limit the number of survey questions that presented privacy scenarios. Thus, the included privacy questions depicted generalized scenarios. The lack of specificity of these questions elicited a variety of comments, indicating that respondents' answers would vary depending on their interpretation of the scenarios presented.

RESULTS

A key goal of the study was to determine whether respondents' libraries had any form of social media policy or guidelines and whether existing policies addressed patron privacy. The survey included questions about other ethical issues regarding social media marketing in libraries besides patron privacy; however this study reports the findings related to patron privacy only.

Social Media Policies and Practices

The survey first asked whether the respondent's library had an official social media policy. Respondents answering no to this question were asked whether their library had an unofficial policy or guidelines. Neither of these questions was shown to
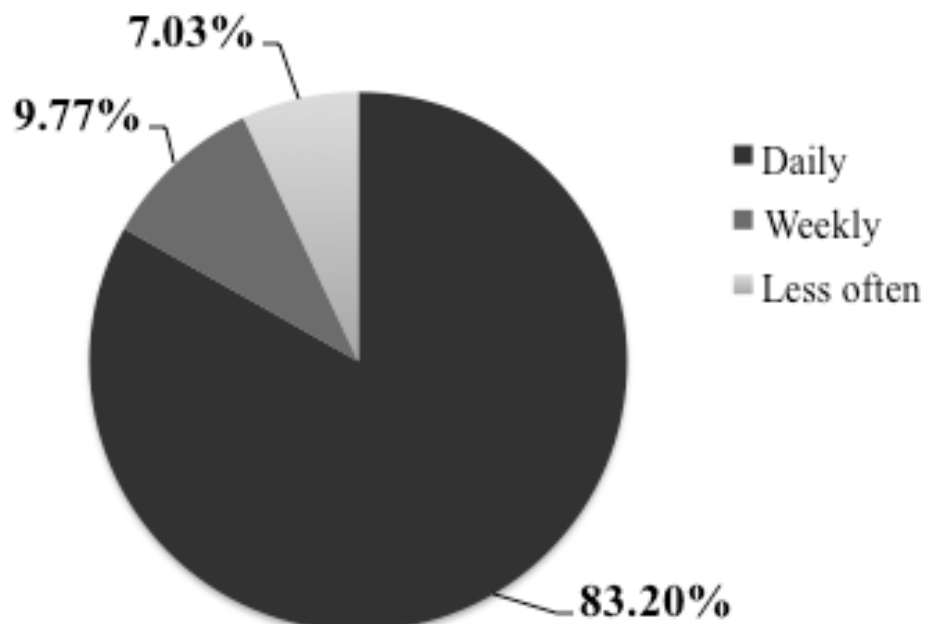
Figure 3: Personal Social Media Use of Study Respondents

respondents who indicated that their library did not use social media for marketing. A total of 170 respondents indicated that their library had either an official (N=89) or unofficial (N=81) policy.

Required Approval for Posting to Social Media

Approximately two-thirds of the 230 respondents indicated that content posted by library staff to library social media pages did not require approval; however, in the comments, they noted strategies that their library employed to ensure the appropriateness of social media postings as well as the practice of monitoring the content of replies to posts. Themes identified within the 67 comments included: (a) using common sense, (b) formal and informal consultation, and (c) filtering. Many respondents indicated that a limited number of trusted individuals are authorized to post, while some stated that, though only one person can actually post, others can submit posts to that individual (filtering). The most frequently reported strategies for developing consensus and best practices were:

- working in teams and committees,
- training individuals designated to post,
- following institutional umbrella policies,
- developing informal guidelines,
- using collaborative decision making, and
- seeking input or approval on a case-by-case basis.

Decision Making Authority and Practice

Respondents who confirmed their library had either official or unofficial social media policies/guidelines were asked a series of follow-up questions. The data revealed three decision-making practices: (a) administrative authority, (b) delegated authority, and (c) collaborative decision-making by committee or group. Collaborative decision-making accounted for over 40% of the responses **(see Figure 4)**. Many respondents reported using guidelines promulgated by an authority: public libraries referred to a local administration or an umbrella organization, such as city or county; while academic libraries cited institutional guidelines. Some respondents referenced internal task forces or committees having created their library's guidelines. Just three comments referenced solo decision-making, only one of which referred specifically to the social media manager as the decision-maker.

Who decides what is included in your policy/guidelines? (n=173)
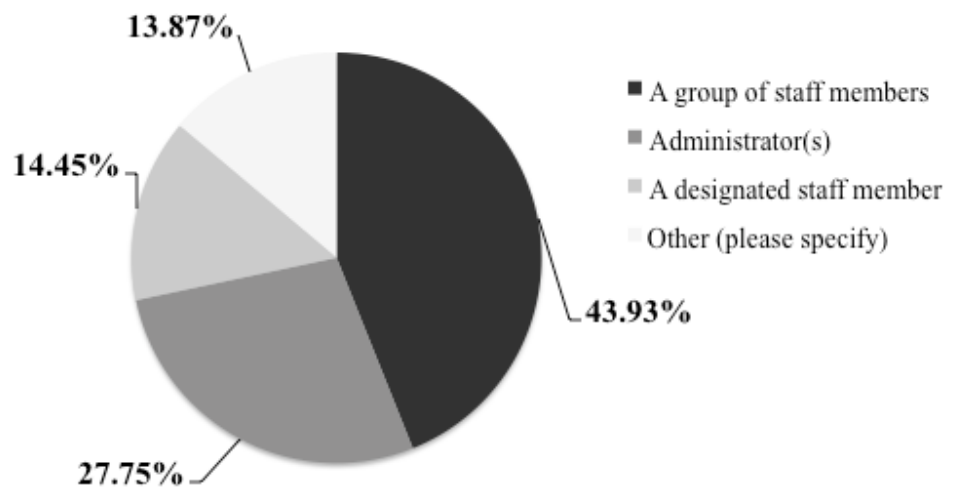
- A group of staff members — 43.93%
- Administrator(s) — 27.75%
- A designated staff member — 14.45%
- Other (please specify) — 13.87%

Figure 4: Policy Decision-Makers

Addressing Patron Privacy in Social Media Policies

Respondents who indicated that their library had either an official or unofficial social media policy were asked whether that policy addressed patron privacy. Of the 165 respondents who answered this question, over 53% (N=88) answered affirmatively. 77 respondents said their policies did not address patron privacy, including one who commented that this omission was of no consequence, because "we don't ever get close to impacting patron privacy." Strategies for addressing privacy mentioned in comments include policing commenting on social media sites and having a takedown policy. Of 26 comments, nine mentioned practices related to using photographs in which patrons "can be recognized or identified." Several respondents commented that their library requires patron permission before posting photographs, one mentioned a "separate photography policy related to patrons," and another stated that the library never shows children's faces in posts. Interestingly, in five comments, respondents said they did not know whether their library's guidelines addressed patron privacy at all.

Privacy Perceptions

Following questions related to policy, the survey shifted focus to individuals' perceptions of privacy issues. Skip logic was not used for the questions in this section; thus, all respondents were shown these questions. Descriptive statistics were again used to report library professionals' opinions regarding whether patron privacy could be considered compromised in specific scenarios.

Patron Personally Identifiable Information

Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement: "A library compromises patron privacy if it includes a patron's personally identifiable information (full name, email address, username, etc.) in a social media post." Roughly three-quarters of respondents said they "agree" or "strongly agree" that patron privacy would be compromised in the scenario, while 7.8% disagreed and 16.7% selected "neither agree nor disagree" **(see Figure 5)**.

Respondents cited many qualifications to their responses via comments. They noted consent, the type of personally identifiable information disclosed, who initially disclosed the information, and the nature of a social media post as factors in determining whether a patron's privacy would be compromised.

In 32 of the 61 comments, respondents said that they would only reveal personally identifiable information about patrons if they first received permission from the patron. Some described using waivers, others used informal measures like requesting permission via email. Only one respondent said as long as the patron was aware of his/her name being shared via social media, that patron's privacy would not be compromised.

Some respondents also drew a distinction between including a patron's name in a library social media post versus including a patron's social media username or email address. Fourteen respondents commented that including a patron's social media "handle" simply fits with the culture of social media. Several respondents indicated that replies to patron tweets or patron

A library compromises patron privacy if it includes a patron's personally identifiable information (full name, email address, username, etc.) in a social media post. (n=258)
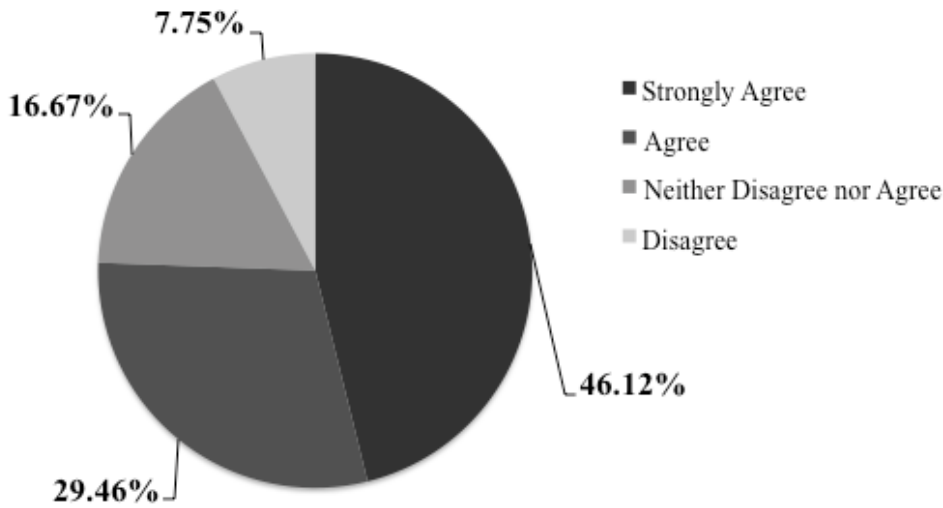

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neither Disagree nor Agree
- Disagree

7.75%
16.67%
29.46%
46.12%

Figure 5: Posting Personally Identifiable Information

comments on a library's social media page, which would necessarily include the patron's username and sometimes real name, would be acceptable.

Similarly, 15 respondents pointed out that it made a difference who posted personally identifiable information first. For example, if a patron's name appeared on a library's Facebook page, because the patron posted messages there, the library would have no control over or responsibility for the dissemination of this personally identifiable information. Respondents who made this distinction stated it was the patron's responsibility to safeguard his/her own

privacy: "If the customer actively engages on said social media with the library then their 'privacy' is subject to the ToS [terms of service] of which ever [sic] social media the interaction is occurring." On the other hand, as one respondent pointed out, libraries could avoid further disclosure of the patron's personally identifiable information by replying via email, direct message, or phone when personal information was involved.

Beyond the distinction between patron self-disclosures and library disclosures, 13 respondents asserted that the nature of the social media post that disclosed personally identifiable information was a key factor

in determining whether a patron's privacy would be compromised. Respondents indicated they would need to know the purpose served by including the information in order to make a determination. For example:

This would be highly unethical if the post came out of nowhere, but not so much if it were part of an interaction with the patron in question, or if it were an approved announcement congratulating the patron in question, etc.

Seven respondents mentioned contests as examples in which using a patron's name would be acceptable. One respondent noted that disclosure of the patron's name was a condition included in the terms of the library's contests.

Patron Library Use and Personally Identifiable Information

Respondents were asked to indicate to which level they would agree that patron privacy would be compromised if a library disclosed information about a patron's library use along with personally identifiable information (full name, email address, username, etc.) in a social media post. About 90% responded they would either "agree" or "strongly agree," while 8.2% selected "neither agree nor disagree" and only 1.6% selected "disagree" **(see Figure 6)**.

In the comments, respondents cited consent, the type of personally identifiable information disclosed, and who initially disclosed the information as factors affecting whether patron privacy would be compromised. However, five respondents also noted the type of library use shared along with personally identifiable information affected whether a post was acceptable. They seemed to view protecting patron privacy as strictly related to circulation records, rather than extending to other activities, such as program attendance or computer use. In this case, they based their view on the idea that a public library is a public space where patrons can only expect a limited degree of privacy.

Photographs of Patrons

Nearly 64% of respondents said they "agree" or "strongly agree" that a library would compromise patron privacy if it posted photos of patrons to social media pages without obtaining permission from the patrons. The remaining respondents split almost equally with 17.7% saying they "disagree" or

A library compromises patron privacy if it discloses information about a patron's library use along with personally identifiable information (full name, email address, username, etc.) in a social media post. (n=256)
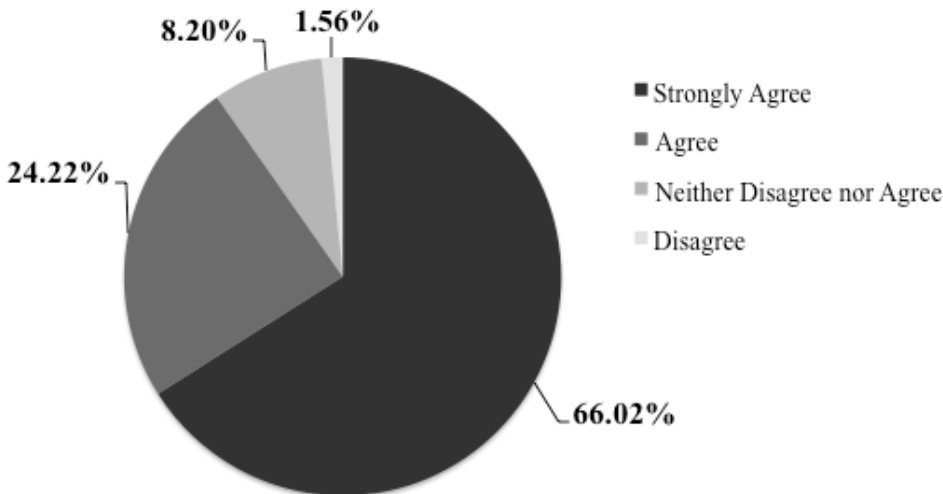

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Neither Disagree nor Agree
- Disagree

8.20%
1.56%
24.22%
66.02%

Figure 6: Posting about Library Use

A library compromises patron privacy if it posts photos of patrons to social media pages without obtaining permission from the patrons. (n=255)
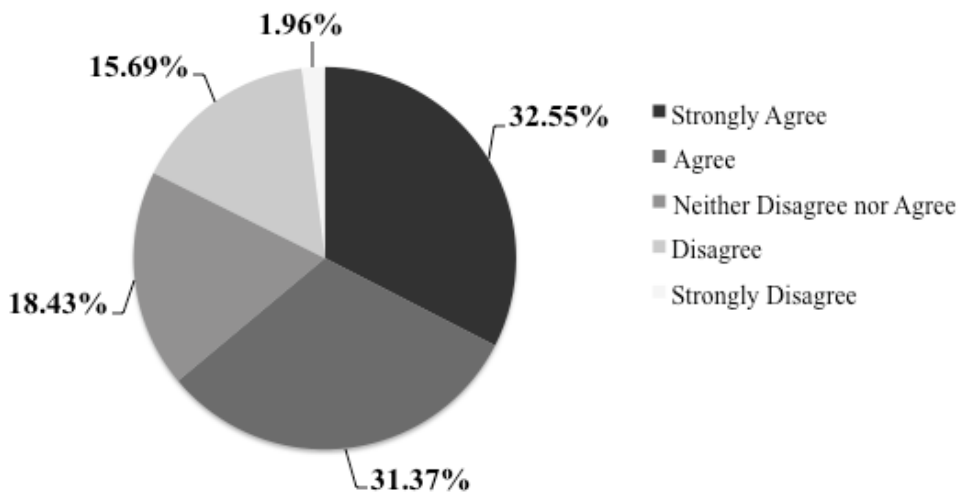

Figure 7: Posting Photographs without Consent

"strongly disagree" with the statement and 18.4% saying they "neither agree nor disagree" **(see Figure 7)**. While one respondent noted "this is a question we struggle with," others asserted it was not always feasible or necessary to explicitly obtain permission to use patron photos in social media marketing and it was acceptable to rely instead on proxy measures, such as posting signs that photographs may be taken in the library.

In clarifying their responses, five respondents stated that, though they may not seek written consent for obtaining permission for posting photos of patrons, they did make an effort to obtain some form of consent. Six respondents said they posted signs at library events or in the library that informed patrons they may be photographed. Some of these respondents noted patrons may opt out of this arrangement. A few respondents simply mentioned they typically notified patrons if photos would be taken. Some respondents conceded that obtaining patrons' permission before sharing photos of their likenesses would be ideal but said it was not always feasible to do so.

In total, 14 respondents mentioned unreasonable expectations of privacy in public spaces regarding photography in libraries. For example, one respondent wrote: "if the photos were taken in the library, and that space is public, it is generally understood that there is not an explicit privacy right - or that the patron may be photographed for library promotional use." However, others mentioned that, though a library may be in a public space, they would still ask for permission to share a photo of a patron or they would at least notify patrons that

photographs would be taken.

In 15 comments, respondents acknowledged the difference between taking a "crowd shot" and a photo that focuses on one of more individuals so that they could be clearly identified. One also made a distinction between photographing adults versus children: "I would say that, if they are minors, maybe [it would compromise patron privacy]. Otherwise, no. It depends on the individual library's photo policy and local laws." Comments on the legality of taking and sharing photos of patrons without permission revealed varying interpretations of the law. This discrepancy may be due in part to the differences in state and/or local law.

Finally, nine respondents specified their

parent institutions, mostly universities, provided policies under which their library would be permitted to take and share photos of patrons. These institutions required all students to sign a photo release.

Unsolicited Comments/Replies to Patrons

Approximately 44% said they "agree" or "strongly agree" that a library would compromise patron privacy if it sent unsolicited comments/replies to individual patrons on social media sites. One-third of the respondents indicated they "disagree" or "strongly disagree" that this scenario would violate patron privacy, while 22.7% responded they "neither disagree nor agree" **(see Figure 8)**.

Eight respondents explained their responses by stating the inherently social nature of social media entails interaction. They asserted sending an unsolicited comment or reply to a patron on social media did not compromise the patron's privacy. For example,

> *The purpose of social media is to be social. If people are commenting about the library services on another website (not maintained by the library) then it is the responsibility of the organization to respond to the needs of the customers at the point of interaction.*

Nine respondents said social media was essentially a public space and patrons could not assume what they said on social media would not be seen. One respondent said sending unsolicited comments/replies to patrons could be a teaching moment:

A library compromises patron privacy if it sends unsolicited comments/replies to individual patrons on social media sites. (n=256)
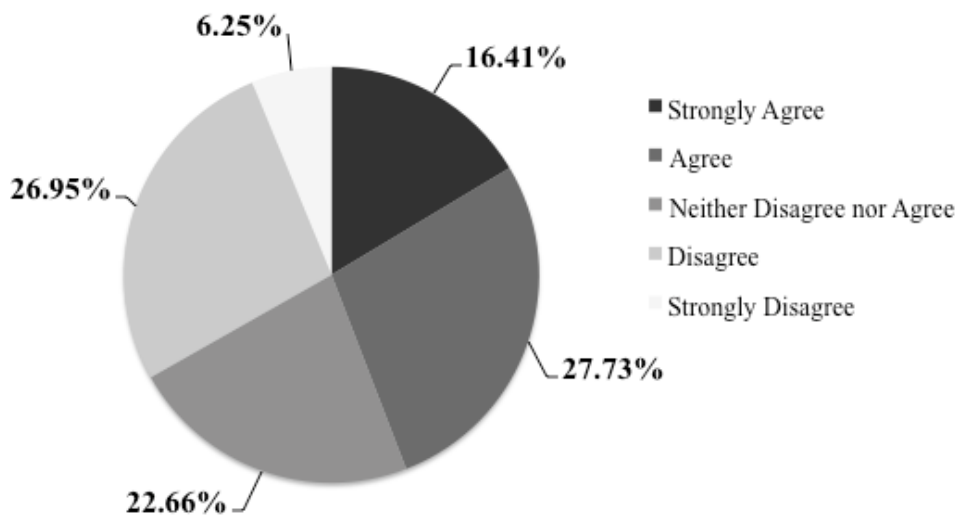

Figure 8: Sending Unsolicited Comments to Patrons

"We've seen it as a good learning experience for patrons. If they have a public account, they should know that anyone can read and reply to their tweets, including the library." Another respondent justified unsolicited comments/replies by referencing social media sites' terms of service: "they have technically consented to all this by agreeing with the terms of the social network when they created an account."

Taking a slightly more cautious approach, 16 respondents found it acceptable to comment on or reply to a patron's post only if the patron had mentioned the library in some way. Multiple respondents indicated that they routinely monitored the social media sites they used for mentions of the library.

Five respondents emphasized the nature or purpose of the library's comment or reply to a patron made a difference in terms of safeguarding patron privacy. One respondent differentiated between "marketing" and "relationship building." Another wrote:

If the library finds a patron complaining about the library via search, I think that there are appropriate and inappropriate ways of responding to those kinds of posts. If possible, the library might try to follow up with that patron privately rather than publicly commenting or replying.

Generally, these respondents alluded to social etiquette and determining which interactions a patron may or may not welcome.

Following Patrons with "Private" Social Media Accounts

Finally, roughly half of respondents (51.6%) said they "agree" or "strongly agree" that a library would compromise patron privacy if it requested to "follow" a patron whose user profile was private on a social media site. The remaining responses were divided between "disagree" or "strongly disagree" and "neither agree nor disagree" **(see Figure 9)**.

Respondents' views were mixed on following patrons whose profiles were private. Some found the matter clear cut: "An organization cannot make a request to follow a private profile. It's not an option." Six respondents pointed out how following private profiles seemed "creepy" and may be unwelcomed by patrons. One respondent wrote it would not necessarily violate patron privacy, but it could result in privacy violations down the line if the library "shares content a user deems private or engages in a public conversation that the patron would prefer to be private." Five respondents noted their library did not follow patrons at all.

A library compromises patron privacy if it requests to "follow" a patron whose user profile is private on a social media site. (n=252)
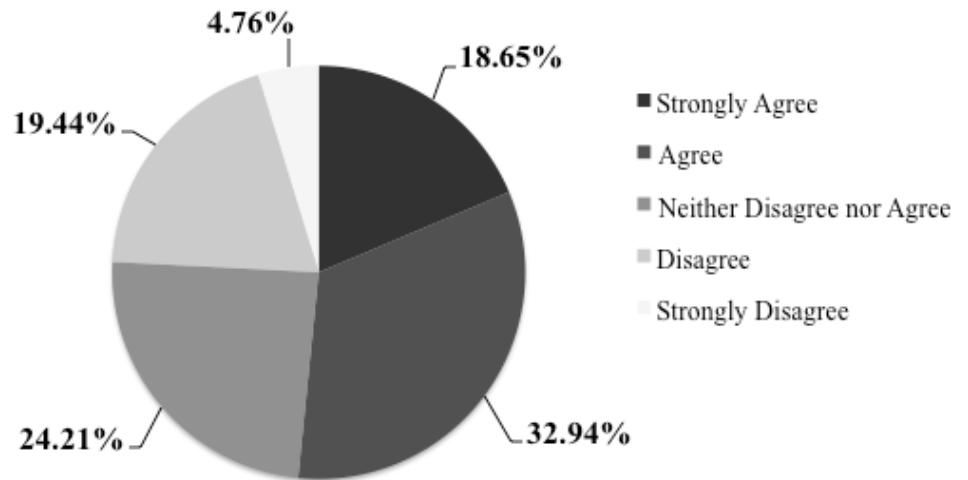
- 18.65% ■ Strongly Agree
- 32.94% ■ Agree
- 24.21% ■ Neither Disagree nor Agree
- 19.44% ■ Disagree
- 4.76% ■ Strongly Disagree

Figure 9: Following a Patron Whose User Profile Is Private

Still, 12 respondents argued a patron could always decline the library's request to follow their private profile. In this case, respondents reasoned, it should not be considered a violation of the patron's privacy. Six respondents stipulated they may follow a patron with a private profile if the patron followed the library first.

DISCUSSION

In a broad sense, libraries protect the confidentiality of patron information not only to avoid lawsuits, but because

The library profession has a long-standing commitment to an ethic of facilitating, not monitoring, access to information... Everyone (paid or unpaid) who provides governance, administration or service in libraries has a responsibility to maintain an environment respectful and protective of the privacy of all users. (American Library Association, 2014b, Responsibilities in Libraries section, para. 1)

Moreover, librarians have long understood both the desirability of presenting a consistent image or "brand" and the obligation to ensure only vetted and appropriate patron information is shared. For example, many libraries have policies that require staff to refer inquiries from the press or legal authorities to a specific individual, either a high level administrator or the person in charge of public relations. Another common practice is only designated library employees may issue press releases or represent the library in conversations with their boards, potential funders, law enforcement

agencies, and the community.

However, the survey responses suggest that the value of similar policies, which can document both the responsibilities of a library and its patrons in regard to protecting patron privacy, may seem less obvious relating to social media. Libraries' use of social media for marketing may still be new enough that the need for a policy has not yet become apparent, particularly if administrators do not use social media themselves or delegate the work to others without fully comprehending the potential risks.

There are other possible scenarios that might explain why only 89 of 230 respondents working in libraries that use social media for marketing reported having formal social media policies or guidelines. For example:

- Libraries may lack official social media policies or guidelines due to the size and affiliation of the library. In very small libraries, frequent communication and close interaction among staff may lessen the perceived need for a formal policy or guidelines. Academic libraries that are part of a larger institution and public libraries that are part of larger system may be covered by an "umbrella" policy, and thus, have no need or authority to create local policy.
- When a highly trusted person is responsible for social media, particularly an administrator, a policy may seem unnecessary, since decisions are made at a high level.
- Those charged with posting to social media may not be perceived (or see themselves) as performing functions related to cultivating and protecting the library's

image or protecting the privacy of patrons. Instead, they may be perceived as requiring a skillset centered primarily on facility with the technology and familiarity with library programs, services, and collections.

Survey responses revealed a lack of consensus regarding perceptions of patron privacy and social media marketing. Part of this inconsistency can be explained by the qualifications that respondents offered in their comments, which demonstrated more nuanced views of the scenarios presented. Respondents frequently reiterated the culture of social media often sanctioned the actions described in the survey's privacy scenarios. This belief may result from a view of social media as a distinct mode of outreach where privacy-related procedures associated with traditional public relations and marketing do not apply. Responses seemed to recognize their obligation to protect patron privacy but also seemed to believe certain circumstances trump traditional privacy concerns. For example, many respondents distinguished between including patrons' names versus usernames or email addresses in library social media posts. They viewed including a patron username as an ordinary, perhaps necessary, part of using social media. However, only one respondent acknowledged that usernames and email addresses may provide an even greater degree of personal identification than a name.

While many respondents emphasized that securing consent from patrons in the scenarios presented in the survey would prevent violating patron privacy, none mentioned the need to establish guidelines or forewarn patrons through a published privacy policy about how the library would use their personally identifiable information.

On a related note, while some respondents appeared to be certain of potentially violating patron privacy by taking photos without formal consent, others dismissed the idea by pointing to the library as a public place. In reality, photography and right of publicity laws vary state by state (Carson, 2008), and many libraries' practices are governed by the policy of a parent institution.

Respondents frequently downplayed the library's role in protecting patron privacy on social media, emphasizing instead patrons' responsibility in safeguarding their own privacy. This attitude seems to ignore the role libraries could play in educating patrons about effective privacy management and generally modeling privacy-savvy behavior.

This study's findings were based entirely on survey responses, including comments about libraries' policies or lack thereof. A logical next step for future study would be to collect and analyze the content of libraries' privacy policies to determine whether they contain content that is applicable to protecting patron privacy in social media marketing and outreach. Additionally, themes expressed in this study's comments reveal diverse views on libraries' obligation to protect patron privacy beyond circulation records. Further study is needed to establish the prevalence of these views among librarians.

CONCLUSION

For libraries, the concept of patron privacy most commonly refers to the confidentiality of "information sought or received and resources consulted, borrowed, acquired or transmitted" (American Library Association, 2008, para. 7). However, given the profession's efforts to position libraries as privacy advocates, librarians need to be mindful of privacy issues beyond the traditional definition. As stated in ALA's interpretation of the Library Bill of Rights, "In all areas of librarianship, best practice leaves the user in control of as many choices as possible" (2014b, Rights of Library Users section, para. 2). Indeed, if the goal of safeguarding patron privacy is to ensure freedom of information and inquiry, then libraries must earn and maintain their patrons' trust. Beyond open and transparent communication with patrons, a privacy policy is one important tool librarians can use to establish trust. This study suggests, in spite of widespread adoption of social media, many libraries may still lack a social media policy in any form. As ALA recommends, libraries should "review their own privacy policies and the Library Bill of Rights as the basis for a discussion of privacy issues and pitfalls within the context of social media, and how to handle them in individual institutions" (2013, "What ethical standards" section, para 3). Libraries can use the findings of this study to further their internal discussions. However, the authors believe libraries should take the next step and adopt policies that establish basic parameters regarding patron privacy on social media, including what information is collected about patrons and how it may be used as well as patrons' choices to opt in or out of sharing this information and photos.

Patrons should feel that libraries, though often public spaces by definition, guarantee privacy to those who want it. To put it in marketing terms, libraries should "brand" themselves as privacy experts and trustworthy protectors of personal information. Documented social media privacy practices provide a powerful means of establishing a library's commitment to patron privacy in all spaces. Publicly shared patron-centric policies can also help establish a consistent image for individual libraries—and, ultimately, the library profession—that demonstrates paramount concern for patron privacy. This image can be further cultivated by providing educational outreach to patrons to help them protect their own privacy. Libraries can and should serve as responsible role models, particularly in their professional sharing of personally identifiable patron information. Libraries should be mindful of not only what the law requires but also of the library profession's values in establishing practices to protect patron privacy. ∎

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Connecting Information Literacy and Social Justice: Why and How

BY LAURA SAUNDERS

Libraries have a history of commitment to social justice principles and issues. This commitment is supported by an ethical code that promotes equitable access and service, intellectual freedom and resistance to censorship, and commitment to representing diverse perspectives in their collections (ALA, 2008), as well as a core value of social responsibility (ALA, 2004). Jaeger, Taylor, and Gorham (2015) argue that libraries have always been social justice institutions, and cite services such as bridging the digital divide, developing literacy, supporting new immigrants and facilitating citizenship as examples of such work. Information literacy provides additional opportunities for libraries to engage in social justice issues. It is widely acknowledged that we live in an information society—one in which information is being produced and disseminated at an exponential rate, and where information literacy or the ability to locate, access, evaluate, and use information is required in order to fully participate and be successful in school, work, and everyday life. Government, education, and policy institutions around the world have acknowledged the importance of information literacy and endorsed it as an essential skill for the 21st century. Indeed, as these institutions recognize and endorse information literacy, some have made a case that access to information and to information literacy education is a human right, placing information literacy squarely within a social justice context. For the most part librarians and library professional associations have embraced information social justice as a natural fit for their educational and outreach missions, as well as the core value

of social responsibility.

However, the adoption of information literacy as a social justice concept has not always been easy or comfortable. Some librarians suggest that by intertwining information literacy and social justice we are giving up our core values of neutrality and objectivity, while others have argued that we do not go far enough, and that information social justice could be made an even more explicit part of our conceptualizations of information literacy. Indeed, libraries are not immune to structural and systemic racism, misogyny, and heteronormative assumptions and biases. If librarians do indeed want to embrace information social justice, they will need to engage in reflective practice to identify and challenge these inherent biases and oppressive practices. The new Association of College and Research Libraries' *Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education* (ACRL, 2016) has been a particular touchstone for this issue, as librarians have argued whether the

Framework is elitist, whether it should take a stance on information as a social justice issue at all, and whether the stance it takes is strong enough. This paper examines the case for information social justice and information as a human right, with a focus on the need for reflective practice. It then analyzes the actual and potential social justice applications of the Association of College & Research Libraries' *Framework for Information Literacy* (ACRL, 2016), and concludes with a proposal for a new frame focused on information social justice.

INFORMATION ACCESS AND HUMAN RIGHTS

Information literacy is predicated on access to information, in that one cannot exercise the abilities of evaluating, synthesizing, and using information unless one first has access to information. This dependency is evidenced by the fact that every definition and conceptualization of information literacy includes the ability to access information as

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one of the key competencies. Article 19 of the United Nations *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* affirms each individual's right to "seek, receive and impart information and ideas, through any media and regardless of frontiers" (The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948). Lawyers such as Christopher Weeramantry and Cheryl Ann Bishop extend the legal case for access to information as a human right arguing that it is a prerequisite to the exercise of all other rights (Saunders, 2013). In other words, in order to fully to engage in the right to vote, free expression, free assembly, and so on people need access to reliable, credible information on which to base their decisions and opinions. Further support for access to information as a human right comes in the form of Freedom of Information (FOI) laws which guarantee the right for citizens to access government information. According to Freedominfo.org (2012), 93 governments around the world have enacted FOI laws.

While these arguments focus on information access generally, it might be constructive to frame the argument around types of access, specifically physical, social, and cognitive or intellectual access. Physical access refers to material access or a person's ability and opportunity to "get their hands on" materials either in hard copy or digitally. Basically, physical access assumes that a resource, material, or piece of information exists and is available, and that the person in need of that resource has the ability to find it. Thus, physical access is enabled by libraries and archives that gather and organize information and make resources available for free, as well as by policies and laws that guarantee a right to access. In the digital era, when much information is most readily, and sometimes exclusively, available online, access to the technology and the internet is a vital part of physical access. So much so, in fact, that on June 27, 2016, the United Nations adopted a resolution declaring access to the internet a human right (United Nations, 2016).

Social access draws on Chatman's (1999, 1996, 1995) theories of information

poverty and small worlds, which propose that people's access to information is influenced, and sometimes limited, by the social communities into which they have been enculturated. Within their small world or social community, people tend to preference certain sources and types of information and might be skeptical of information that comes from outside of their circle, even if it is reliable and authoritative. People might also be reluctant to seek certain information if they perceive that action might make them seem vulnerable, which can lead to information poverty. Social access is also dependent on social capital, or the community networks and norms that enable people to build trust and work together (Putnam, 1995). People draw on the individuals in their social network for help in answering questions and solving problems, so the larger and more diverse their social network, the more social capital they are said to have. People with less social capital are more likely to experience information poverty.

Finally, cognitive or intellectual access refers to a person's ability to evaluate, understand, and use the information they access, and is perhaps most closely related to information literacy. Information can be available, and people might be able to physically and socially access information, but without the cognitive abilities to engage with information and assess its authority, credibility, and relevance, other forms of access are not useful. Information can be suppressed or distorted. Facts can be selected and disseminated, and institutions can engage in propaganda to promote certain ideas. Challenges to access to information can be seen in the way news is currently accessed and shared. Increasing numbers of people rely on social media for their news (Mitchell, Gotffried, Barthel, & Shearer, 2016). However, because people generally select the news outlets and friends that they follow on social media sites, and because many of these sites use algorithms to push news stories that match people's interests, "likes," and past reading habits, many people are experiencing a filter bubble in which they are mostly or exclu-

sively receiving news that confirms their perspectives and opinions (Pariser, 2012). Indeed, some analysts are suggesting that the proliferation of fake news stories shared through social media might have influenced the outcome of the 2016 United States presidential election (Silverman, 2016; Timberg, 2016). People need to develop and cultivate the skills of information literacy in order to navigate these challenges and fully exercise their right to all types of access to information.

INFORMATION LITERACY AS A HUMAN RIGHT

The phrase "information literacy" was coined by Paul Zurkowski in 1974 in response to the explosive growth in information production and concurrent developments in technology (Zurkowski, 1974). While Zurkowski anticipated that information literacy would cut across industries and organizations, he saw a role for libraries in supporting its development, and librarians quickly became some of the biggest proponents and promoters of information literacy. Library professional associations took a lead in conceptualizing and codifying information literacy, and from the beginning many of them connected information literacy with issues of social justice and human rights. In its Final Report, the American Library Association's Presidential Committee on Information Literacy notes the challenges people face in trying to make decisions, check claims, or form opinions when they lack access to reliable information and the skills to evaluate and use that information, and contends that information literacy is "a means of personal empowerment" (ALA, 1989, para. 6). Finally, the report notes that vulnerable and marginalized populations often have the most limited access both to information itself and to assistance in developing information literacy abilities, suggesting that these disparities could lead to an "information elite." To that end, ALA emphasizes the importance of information literacy to full participation in a democracy, and highlighted its "potential of addressing

> **The case for information literacy as a human right can be built on the concept of access to information as a human right.**

many long-standing social and economic inequities" (ALA, 1989, para. 3). These sentiments were echoed by President Obama when declaring October 2009 National Information Literacy Awareness Month. In this proclamation, the president underscores the importance of information literacy abilities to not only access but evaluate information and stresses the need for schools and libraries to support the development of these skills which he states are "essential to the functioning of a modern democratic society" (National Information Literacy Awareness Month, 2009).

The case for information literacy as a human right can be built on the concept of access to information as a human right. Sturges and Gastinger note that without information literacy, "the kind of overwhelming levels of access to information that are available today can simply confuse and deceive" (2010, 199). They point to a number of international documents that explicitly or implicitly equate information literacy with human rights, including the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, the Scottish Information Literacy Project, the Prague Declaration, and especially the Alexandria Proclamation. The Alexandria Proclamation, adopted in 2005 at the World Summit on Information Literacy, declares that information literacy is a "basic human right in a digital world," and echoes the ALA Final Report in maintaining that information literacy "empowers people in all walks of life to seek, evaluate, use and create information effectively to achieve their personal, social, occupational and educational goals" and "promotes social inclusion" (Alexandria Proclamation, 2005). Saunders (2013a) similarly argues that access to information is inherently limiting because information can be suppressed, misconstrued, and distorted. Thus, she argues that access to information as a human right should be coupled with information literacy, in that people need access to support for developing the skills of information literacy that will enable them to evaluate and use information efficiently and effectively.

THE NEED FOR REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

Libraries undoubtedly have a role to play in facilitating both access to information and the development of information literacy skills. By collecting and organizing materials and making them available free of charge, libraries help to increase physical access to information. Further, libraries provide access to the technology needed to access digital information, with some libraries even circulating handheld devices and mobile hotspots to allow patrons access to the internet at home. As community spaces in which diverse people can interact and connect, libraries can also contribute to building social capital and thus increase social access to information. Indeed, Johnson (2010) found that library use was significantly correlated with several indicators of social capital, including higher levels of trust in their community and higher levels of community involvement. While Ferguson (2012) warns that the direction or causal relationship between social capital and libraries remains unclear, he offers specific suggestions to libraries for increasing social capital, including working more closely with community associations, investing in their role as community meeting spaces, and reaching out to new user groups. And of course, libraries facilitate the development of cognitive or intellectual information access or information literacy through library instruction sessions and one-on-one reference consultations, as well as through the development of online research guides and tutorials.

While these examples are heartening, they are also a bit one-sided. By celebrating the library field's efforts toward promoting and facilitating access to information and information literacy, we risk a tendency to "gloss over the library's susceptibility in reproducing and perpetuating racist social structures found throughout the rest of society" (Honma, 2005). Critics also lament the profession's tendency to focus on overly simplistic diversity initiatives that fail to acknowledge the oppressive structures inherent in many of our systems (Honma, 2005; Matheuws 2016). Indeed, neither libraries as an institution nor the librarians who staff them are immune from the racist,

misogynistic, and heteronormative values that tend to govern our society. If librarians truly wish to promote information social justice and access to information and information literacy as human rights we need to begin by acknowledging and challenging the biases and assumptions inherent in our own systems and practices.

Honma (2005) cautions against viewing the library as neutral or apolitical, and offers a strong critique of libraries as perpetuating whiteness. He points out that even programs and services that are usually lauded as exemplary of the library's mission of egalitarianism, such as immigration and citizenship services, could be seen as assimilationist and promoting a white European culture, even while, historically, many people including African-Americans were not even allowed to use the library. Drabinski (2013, and Drabinksi and Hann (2009) expose numerous issues with library collections and cataloging practices. They note that hierarchical classification systems like Library of Congress and Dewey suggest relationships among subject terms, placing homosexuality in relation to sexual deviance and women within the larger contexts of marriage and family. They also highlight that subdividing subject terms by race reinforces the notion of whiteness as normative. Similarly, by offering only the binary choice of male and female, the Library of Congress subject headings does not allow for more fluid definitions of gender (Billey, Drabinski, & Roberto, 2014). Research also suggests that some librarians engage in discriminatory practices in reference interactions, including refusing to answer questions about homosexuality (Curry, 2005), and engaging in lower levels of customer service with patrons perceived to have ethnic-sounding names (Shachaf, Oltmann, & Horowitz, 2008). We might also question the extent to which, consciously or not, reference and reader's advisory librarians allow biases and assumptions to influence recommendations they make when working with patrons. In other words, to what extent do we allow preferences for white, Western materials and biases toward notions of authority based on peer-review and empiri-

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cal research guide us when searching for information or helping patrons evaluate and choose resources?

The issues and questions highlighted here should serve as a warning that, as much as the librarians might profess a social justice mission and subscribe to ethical codes and values that promote equitable services and balanced collections, the profession is still situated within and contributing to a power structure that is inherently white, male and heteronormative. Overcoming these inequities will require libraries to do more than build multicultural collections or recruit more diverse staff. Librarians, the majority of whom are white themselves, will need to engage in reflective practice and recognize where and how the profession continues to perpetuate racist, misogynistic and homophobic practices and then work to challenge and change those practices. In some cases, this may require challenges to our professional associations and guiding bodies as Sandy Berman did for years when lobbying to change problematic subject headings (Knowlton, 2005), and as librarians such as Sarah Houghton (2016) and Emily Drabinski (2016) did more recently in pushing back against ALA's press releases that seemed to support the new Trump administration.

INFORMATION SOCIAL JUSTICE IN ACADEMIA: THE CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF THE ACRL FRAMEWORK

It is interesting to note that the majority of research and writing related to information and human rights, including most of the works cited above, focuses on public libraries. This is not to suggest, however, that academic libraries have no role to play in the social justice aspects of information access and information literacy. Indeed, Chris Bourg, Director of MIT Libraries recently advocated that "following the presidential election and the rise of racist incidents and protests across the country, libraries also need to consider how they can serve as "town squares" to promote diversity and social justice" (Straumsheim, 2016). Indeed, social justice issues have been prominent on college and universities campuses across the United States over the past year and more amid student protests, incidents of hate speech sparking debates about freedom of speech, and efforts to find and define safe spaces while still promoting open exchange of ideas and critical thinking.

Since passing the *Information Literacy Competency Standards* in 2000, ACRL has arguably been one of the most influential organizations in the field of information literacy. The Standards were adopted and endorsed by numerous research, policy, and accreditation organizations, and were international in their reach, heavily influencing the International Federation of Library Association's *Guidelines on Information Literacy for Lifelong Learning* (Lau, 2006). Even as the Standards became the leading definition of information literacy, however, there was criticism from some corners. A number of writers argued that the Standards were too formulaic, that they over-emphasized processes and task-based skills at the expense of higher order thinking skills, and ignored the meaning-making and phenomenological aspects of interacting with information (Budd, 2008; Lloyd, 2005; Ratteray, 2005). Indeed, while the Standards include higher-order thinking skills such as the evaluation and synthesis of information, research suggests that librarians largely focused on search and access skills in their instruction sessions (Saunders, 2013b).

In response, some librarians began to advocate for a shift to critical information literacy, or an approach which "questions many widely held assumptions about IL and the very nature of education in library settings, broaching such topics as the impossibility of pedagogical neutrality and the incompatibility of skills-based instruction with student engagement in the learning process" (Tewell, 2015). Proponents of critical information literacy recognize the inherently political nature of education and of conceptualizations of literacy and information literacy which insist on adoption of a particular set of skills, competencies, and ways of thinking in order to be successful (Elmborg, 2006, 2012; Jacobs, 2008; Swanson, 2004; Tewell, 2016). These writers advocate for critical and reflective pedagogy and praxis, or the application of theory into practice, to encourage students to actively engage with information and information literacy competencies in order to develop a critical consciousness and to see themselves as people with agency and the ability to affect their own conditions.

In developing its new *Framework for Information Literacy for Higher Education* (ACRL, 2016), ACRL had an opportunity to respond to some of the criticisms of and challenges to the Standards and offer a more critical approach. In some ways, the *Framework* does just that (Foasberg, 2016). While the prologue to the Standards linked information literacy to critical thinking and self-directed or lifelong learning, and mentioned the importance of information literacy to an informed citizenry, they did not include any explicit language related to human rights or social justice. Similarly, the performance indicators and outcomes associated with each standard were written in neutral language. For instance, the *Standards* indicate that information literate individuals should be able to search using controlled subject headings, understand how different resources are created and disseminated, and recognize differences between types of sources without addressing issues such as recognizing problematic subject headings or questioning how power structures could impact whether and how information is created and disseminated. The only reference that could be considered an explicit reference to social justice issues is standard five, which indicates that information literate people use information ethically and legally. While the standard notes that students should understand socio-economic impacts related to information, and refers to issues of fee-based and free information, and issues of censorship, the associated outcomes focus squarely on understanding plagiarism, citing sources properly, and accessing information through legal channels, without elaborating on larger issues.

The *Framework*, on the other hand, does explicitly address some of these issues. For example, the *Framework* asserts that in evaluating for authority, the information

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literate person must "acknowledge biases that privilege some sources of authority over others, especially in terms of others' worldviews, gender, sexual orientation, and cultural orientations" and be "skeptical of the systems that have elevated that authority and the information created by it" (ACRL, 2016). Similarly, the definition of the frame "Information has Value," indicates that "value may be wielded by powerful interests in ways that marginalize certain voices," and "may also be leveraged by individuals and organizations to effect change and for civic, economic, social, or personal gains" (ACRL, 2016). In this way, the *Framework* goes further than the Standards did in acknowledging and explicating social justice issues related to information and describing how information literacy can address those issues. Beilin (2015) highlights the ways in which the Framework aligns with critical information literacy and critical pedagogy and points to specific examples of the ways in which practitioners have used the Framework to inspire more creative and critical approaches in their instruction.

CRITICISMS OF THE FRAMEWORK

Nevertheless, critics have argued that the *Framework* does not go far enough. Commenting on a draft of the Framework, Beatty (2014) contends that through its use of language such as "information marketplace" and "information ecosystem," and its relatively uncritical stance on information power structures implied in such terminology, the Framework reifies and promotes a neoliberal agenda. Battista, Ellenwood, Gregory, Higgins, Lilburn, Harker, & Sweet note that, while the Framework does include some attention to social justice issues, it "lacked explicit articulation of the ways in which social justice issues intersect with information literacy education: social inclusion, access, critical awareness of the mechanisms of establishing authority, cultural, historical, and socioeconomic contexts, and civic and community engagement" (2015, 112). These

authors lament that the attention to social justice in the Framework is limited to three frames— Authority is Constructed and Contextual, Information has Value, and Scholarship as Conversation—and the Framework as a whole lacks a "cogent statement that connects information literacy to social justice" (Battista, Ellenwood, Gregory, Higgins, Lilburn, Harker, & Sweet, 2015, p.112-113).

Similarly, Seale contends that the *Framework* did address some of the critiques associated with the Standards, but in the end it is "conflicted, internally contradictory, and ambivalent about some of these changes, specifically in its understanding of power relations and standards" (2015, 3). A further critique that could be offered to the Framework as written is that the language related to issues of social justice is relatively passive. Indeed, in the frame "Authority is Constructed and Contextual," students are encouraged to "question traditional notions of granting authority and recognize the value of diverse ideas and worldviews" (ACRL, 2016). In most of the other instances, however, the language is couched in more ambivalent terms. In the same frame, for instance, rather than encouraging students to engage in self-evaluation when assessing for authority, the frame suggests that students "are conscious that maintaining these attitudes and actions requires frequent self-evaluation" (ACRL, 2016). Being conscious of a need for self-evaluation does not necessarily entail that one engage in the activity. Similarly, the frame "Information has Value," indicates that students "are inclined to examine their information privilege," (ACRL, 2016) rather than simply stating that they examine their information privilege. As Beilin puts it, the Framework shows "how threshold concepts can help shift information literacy toward a pedagogy that stresses the development of self-critical and self-conscious learning in the student," but "it does not state as its goal the formation of possible solidarities for the student to help change the information system itself,

nor the hierarchies of knowledge and status within academia" (Beilin, 2015, section 5, para. 4). It "appears that the specific type of information literacy advocated by the Framework is one which accepts the existence of a particular regime of knowledge, and demands that we as librarians focus our energies on making students and faculty competent citizens of that regime, even if dynamic, critical, and progressive ones" (Beilin, 2015, section 5, para. 5).

It is worth noting that ACRL did not take the question of social justice in the Framework lightly, but tried to make a considered decision. In responding to calls for a stronger stance on social justice in the Framework, ACRL notes that the task force did consider a frame related to social justice in a draft of the Framework, but ultimately the task force "felt that social justice was not its own frame and that social justice components were better served as pieces of other frames. In the end, we incorporated many of its components into other frames in descriptions, practices, and assignments" (ACRL, 2014). Swanson (2014), who is both a champion of critical information literacy and pedagogy, and a member of the Framework Task Force, elucidates further. While cautioning that he does not speak for the task force, Swanson maintains that a separate frame on information as a human right was ultimately rejected both because the task force felt that the idea did not constitute a threshold concept—the theoretical base on which the Framework was initially founded—and because "a frame that emphasized social justice issues would make (or appear to make) a political statement for the sake of being political… It felt less like a definition of interaction within the information ecosystem and more akin to a values statement," and "didn't fit the Framework" (Swanson, 2014). Saunders (forthcoming) takes issue with this reasoning. To begin with, Swanson does not explain in what ways the proposed frame failed to meet the standards of a threshold

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concept. Perhaps more to the point, however the frames were developed through discussions among the task force members and through a concurrent Delphi study, but were not tested empirically. It is difficult to determine whether any of the frames meet the criteria of being transformative, integrative, irreversible, bounded and troublesome, not just the proposed frame on information social justice. More troubling, however, is the suggestion that such a frame would be a political statement, and an unnecessary one. In parsing this statement, Saunders (forthcoming) draws on arguments from other proponents of critical pedagogy who contend that all instruction is inherently political. By avoiding taking an overt political stance that might have challenged some of the structural inequities inherent in its systems, ACRL may actually be helping to perpetuate the status quo.

While Swanson (2014) and ACRL (2014) argue that social justice is woven throughout the *Framework*, and that adding a separate frame would have resulted in significant overlap with other frames, such overlap already exists among the frames. Without the separate frame, however, Battista et. al. argue that "librarians, other faculty members, and administrators must read between the lines of the Framework if they seek ways in which information literacy impacts social justice and civic engagement" (2015, 114-115), and they argue that adding a frame on information social justice "could have resolved concerns regarding civic engagement and social justice in the *Framework*" (2015, 114). Indeed, ACRL has not ruled out the possibility of a new frame. The prologue to the Framework states that the frames are "flexible options for implementation, rather than on a set of standards or learning outcomes, or any prescriptive enumeration of skills" (ACRL, 2015) and indicates that the lists are not exhaustive. Swanson (2014) describes the *Framework* as a living document and invites suggestions for a social justice frame, asking how it would be defined, and

what knowledge practices and dispositions it would entail.

To that end, this author proposes the following frame for consideration. The proposed frame attempts to adhere to the format of the existing ACRL frames, offering a title contextualized by a definition, knowledge practices, and dispositions:

INFORMATION SOCIAL JUSTICE

Information is created within existing power structures, and those power structures can impact the production and dissemination of information as well as distort, suppress, or misrepresent information. To understand and use information most effectively, users must be able to examine and interrogate the power structures that impact that information, and analyze the ways that information can be used to both inform and misinform.

KNOWLEDGE PRACTICES

Learners who are developing their information literate ability:
- Analyze how each stage of the production, dissemination, organization, location, evaluation, and use of information can be impacted by power structures
- Identify and interrogate those power structures
- Analyze critically sources of information to go beyond basic checklist criteria of author credentials, peer review, etc. to body of research, methodologies, funding sources, conflict of interest, personal bias etc.
- Identify how the commodification of information impacts access and availability
- Recognize when information is missing, incomplete, or inaccessible and recognize the absence of information as an indicator of possible power dynamics and bias
- Analyze how information— both in its absence and its presence, in how it is created, arranged, accessed, etc.— informs opinions and beliefs about the people, ideas, or situations it represents

or reflects
- Examine the ways that information can be used to persuade, promote, misinform, or coerce

DISPOSITIONS

Learners who are developing their information literate ability:
- Engage in informed skepticism when evaluating information and its sources
- Question traditional sources of knowledge and publishing venues
- Reflect critically on their own information behaviors and how they might reflect and perpetuate the status quo
- Question traditional constructions of authority
- Value information and sources from different perspectives
- Recognizes the impact of the filter bubble/echo chamber and actively seeks out diverse sources of information
- Are empowered to work for change in information structures (Saunders, 2016).

It is important to emphasize that this proposed frame is meant as a draft and a conversation starter, not a finished product. The hope is that those interested in the topic might use this frame as a jumping off point for engaging with each other and perhaps with ACRL in considering the addition of a new frame. Also, whether the frame is officially adopted or not, others are invited to adapt and implement the proposed frame on their own campuses and in their own instruction if they find it useful. As ACRL (2016) notes, none of the frames should be considered exhaustive and none are meant to be prescriptive. Rather, they are starting points for librarians to engage their campuses in conversation and to set their own local learning objectives.

A FINAL NOTE: ELITISM AND LOOKING BEYOND ACADEMIA

An interesting observation arose in the writing of this article. As noted above, while

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most of the discussion of information literacy as a human right takes place within the context of public libraries, much of the discussion of critical information literacy and critical pedagogy is taking place within the context of academia. This seems to raise a question of whether information literacy itself, as it is being currently conceptualized, is embodying a sort of educational elitism. The question posed here, though, has more to do with the focus and potential scope of the Framework. As noted above, the ACRL Standards had gained widespread acceptance both inside and outside of academe. While there was some criticism that the Standards were overly-broad and general, as written they could be relevant to "anyone learning anything, anywhere, and at any time" (Middle States Commission on Higher Education, 2003, 2). The *Framework*, on the other hand, seems to have a more decidedly and overt focus on higher education.

Now, this is not meant as a criticism of ACRL. Indeed, as a professional association focused on institutions of higher education, it makes sense that ACRL would develop standards, guidelines, and frameworks with its audience in mind. However, at the 2016 ALA National Conference, the ACRL Board voted to rescind the *Standards*, essentially saying the Standards have been replaced with the *Frameworks* and institutions that used the *Standards* should begin to move away from them. This has already caused consternation among academic librarians, some of whom have charged that the Framework, and perhaps even ACRL itself, might be elitist (Bombaro, 2016; Farkas 2016). But what about those institutions outside of academia, including public libraries, governments, and research institutions, that had apparently drawn on the *Standards* in advocating the importance of information literacy? This is not ACRL's problem to solve—as already stated, the association is well within its rights to keep its focus on higher education. But, if we accept the arguments made earlier that information literacy is a human right and that libraries have a

role to play in promoting and facilitating the development of information literacy skills, we must ask which definition or codification those libraries might draw on.

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> **» But, if we accept the arguments made earlier that information literacy is a human right and that libraries have a role to play in promoting and facilitating the development of information literacy skills, we must ask which definition or codification those libraries might draw on.**

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WORKFLOW

Development for an Institutional Repository in an Emerging Research Institution

BY JEANNE HAZZARD AND STEPHANIE TOWERY

INTRODUCTION

This paper traces the development and implementation of a workflow intended to increase the number of faculty scholarly articles in the institutional repository at Texas State University. Founded in 1899 in San Marcos, Texas, Texas State University has a student population of over 38,000 students and offers 90 masters and 12 doctoral programs. In 2012, Texas State University was reclassified as an Emerging Research University by the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board and is the fourth largest public university in Texas and the largest university of the eight universities in the Texas State University System. The Albert B. Alkek Library serves Texas State University's 38,000 students and 1,300 full-time faculty. Texas State University was originally chartered as a small teacher preparation institution. And as a teaching institution, faculty time has been devoted largely to instruction, with much less emphasis on research. Yet attaining Emerging Research status means Texas State University's scholarly communication needs are in transition to a new, more research-focused environment.

In 2004, librarians at Albert B. Alkek Library began discussing plans for opening an institutional repository to house and promote both faculty publications and electronic theses and dissertations produced by the university community. As early as 2002, the academic library community was promoting the development of institutional repositories as a solution for problems, costs, and barriers via traditional publishing models. Crow (2002) stated "[i]nstitutional repositories represent the logical convergence of faculty-driven self-archiving initiatives, library dissatisfaction with the monopolistic effects of the traditional and still-pervasive journal publishing system, and the availability of digital networks and publishing technologies" (p. 29). By late 2005, the library implemented an institutional repository and began accepting faculty self-submissions. Library leadership created a new librarian position, Digital Collections Repository Librarian, which would oversee the administration, function, and design of the institutional repository.

Faculty uptake in the repository service was low, which was not uncommon in other academic repositories. Despite the best of intentions for providing a new open-access model of academic publishing, institutional

repositories have not been able to convert an entrenched model of scholarly output to one of an institution-based service. Chan (2004) notes a similar low rate of participation at the University of Toronto, citing,

> cultural inertia is often cited by faculty members as the reason for the slow adoption of self-archiving. Lack of awareness of the importance of open access is another common reason. Lack of trust in institutional commitment to the long-term maintenance of the repository could also be a factor (p. 293).

Despite the unenthusiastic faculty participation levels, library leadership still found value in the repository, supported by the amount of downloads of repository content. Since its 2005 launch, the number of total downloads, (3,204,183), with an average annual increase in downloads of thirty percent over the previous seven years, demonstrated that even though the repository contained mostly theses and dissertations, it still proved to be a useful tool to promote the research and scholarship produced by the university.

Library leadership and staff proposed that increasing the amount of faculty pub-

lications in the repository could be achieved with a new strategy. In early 2014, library leadership created the Scholarly Communication Team, charged with raising awareness and fostering understanding about scholarly communication issues and trends to the Texas State University campus community. Initially, the team was composed of the Head of Research, Instruction, and Outreach (Team Chair); two other Research, Instruction, and Outreach Librarians; the Copyright Officer; the Collection Development Librarian; and the Library System Coordinator. Garnering more faculty publications into the repository is another of the charter goals of the Scholarly Communication Team.

Library staff at the Albert B. Alkek Library saw the importance of the repository as a promotional tool for the university and the scholarship it produces, and the team hoped to advance its mission by adding faculty research previously published in open access archiving–friendly journals. A new Copyright Officer joined the team in 2015, as did the library's Digital Collections Repository Librarian, who designed an initial workflow that became the current workflow after a pilot and review by the Scholarly Communications Team. The pilot consisted largely of the Copyright Officer and the Digital Collections Repository Librarian working together to move faculty publications through the workflow and into the repository.

The team did not establish explicit success conditions for the pilot, having experienced years of self-submissions lower than library leadership had anticipated. Despite some skepticism from some team members, we believed that adding librarian facilitation would increase numbers significantly. The team's expectations were low, but the costs were also low and consisted mainly of the staff time of two full-time librarians. The two librarians believed at the outset that the pilot would take a few hours a week of their time.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Since the beginning of institutional repository development in academia, administrators have been making efforts to promote the service as valuable for scholarly publishing and open access, and then trying to discover why faculty uptake of the service is not greater than anticipated. A review of the literature around the development and implementation of repositories shows a general focus on areas such as awareness and marketing of repository services, including perceptions and reactions of intended user groups, copyright issues, and workflows.

The literature reveals that faculty reluctance to submit to institutional repositories is widespread. Even when an institutional mandate requires deposit of articles to a repository, faculty may not necessarily follow through, as library staff discovered at Oregon State University. Zhang et al (2015) note that "the expectation was that the approval of the policy would increase faculty motivation to deposit articles and expand OSULP's ability to request manuscripts," but "passing an OA [open access] policy alone is not a guarantee of increased faculty engagement in OA initiatives" (p. 9).

In fact, it may be that open access mandates may have the opposite intended effect of increasing institutional content into repositories. In 2014, Texas A&M University conducted a survey on faculty awareness and perceptions of the institutional repository. Yang and Li (2015) discovered that while there was a general sense of awareness at a relatively high level—90% of faculty respondents were aware of open access journals—far less held a positive attitude towards mandated publishing in open access journals or repositories (p. 12).

Only a little over half of the respondents agree that if TAMU adopts OA mandates, their work will be read by more people and will reach more people outside of their fields. They are highly skeptical as to whether OA mandates will help them secure grant funding, and do not believe a mandate would be easily complied with (Yang and Li, 2015, p. 13).

Alternative approaches have had different outcomes. Ferreira, et al. (2008) had a great deal of success increasing faculty deposit by combining a mandate with financial incentive. The University of Minho contributed a significant financial incentive towards their repository project. For the first two years after the mandate, faculty departments would receive money whenever faculty deposited work in the repository. With this combination of mandate and incentive, the proponents of the repository were able to significantly increase faculty input.

University of Minnesota librarians decentralized their scholarly communications efforts in part by making departmental liaisons responsible for assisting in the recruitment of faculty work for the repository (Malenfant, 2010). Prior to soliciting faculty for publications for their repository, the University of Minnesota libraries instituted a strategic change to "define baseline expertise in scholarly communication for all librarians who serve as liaisons to disciplinary faculty members" (p. 64). The University of Minnesota spread the responsibility for scholarly communications goals among the liaison librarians, so they were personally invested in the success of scholarly communication goals, such as soliciting faculty for publications (Malenfant, 2010, p. 69).

Regardless, getting faculty to post their publications in an institutional repository has always been difficult. Mercer, Rosenblum, and Emmet (2007) note that "persuading faculty to fill institutional repositories (IRs) through self-archiving remains challenging" (p. 190). Changing faculty minds on desirable publishing platforms is equally difficult. Confusion regarding copyright, intellectual property rights, and publishing agreements also plays a role in the lack of participation in institutional repositories. In a study of barriers to institutional repository participation, Kim (2010) found, among other things, "two factors were found to impede self-archiving: concerns about copyright and additional time and effort" that active participation in repository publishing requires (p. 1920). Suggestions for easing faculty concerns and workload include offering more information, workshops, and assistance with the copyright clearance process. Leary, Lundstrom, and Martin (2012) found that,

[t]he copyright clearance process involves many steps but follows a simple pat-

tern of logic, beginning with identifying who the copyright owner is and what permissions they allow for the work. It becomes more complicated as copyright owners sometimes do not allow using a specific version of a published work in an IR. Working through this process has the potential to be time consuming and requires direct contact with the publisher (p. 104).

Addressing the time commitment, Kim (2010) asserts that "technical and logistical assistance for self-archiving would encourage faculty who are less adept at computers to participate," and that "this support may also alleviate faculty concerns about the extra time and effort inherent in self-archiving" (p. 1920).

Still, hurdles relating to awareness remain. Indeed, a lack of awareness has been recognized as an ongoing issue with faculty self-archiving, in spite of the usual library marketing through newsletters, informational emails, and workshops:

Despite our best efforts to make faculty aware of the abundance of resources made available by the Libraries, it seems that our audience continues to remain unaware of some of our services and resources. This only reinforces the need for continuous communication (Yang and Li, 2015, p. 1).

It could be argued that libraries and administrators have not done a thorough job of marketing. Chan (2004) recognized awareness and clarity of purpose as a barrier to participation citing "lack of awareness of the importance of open access is another common reason" for lower participation rates (p. 293). The intent, purpose, and benefit of adding content to an institutional repository and of open access publishing have not been emphasized enough. In an assessment of repository services at Carnegie Mellon University, Covey (2011) discovered via focus groups that "[l]acking awareness, participants also lacked understanding. They asked many questions about scope, motivation, and operational details" (p. 9). These focus groups also revealed a concern of the time commitment of vetting the materials for copyright clearance before submitting:

[N]o one objected to the repository or to the Libraries harvesting work they had
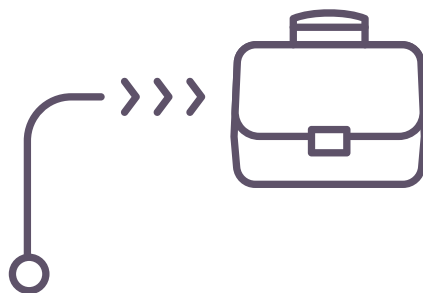
already self-archived, but many perceived manually harvesting that work and, going forward, expecting faculty to provide metadata and copies for deposit as too slow and labor intensive (Covey, 2011, p. 9).

DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAM

The Alkek Library's repository staff chose to view and promote the repository to faculty as a service that could provide an access and discovery point to users who may not be directly affiliated with the university. By taking a service approach, rather than promoting the repository as a replacement for traditional publishing channels, library staff hoped to gain a higher rate of faculty acceptance and comfort with the repository as a distribution platform. Texas State University does not have an open access mandate, so library staff must rely on faculty to participate voluntarily.

In recognition of the many challenges of increasing faculty publications in its institutional repository, the team developed a pilot project that would address concerns about copyright clearance and the involved time commitment on behalf of faculty. The process required the repository administrator, copyright officer, and subject librarians to work collaboratively.

### Development and Implementation of the Workflow

The library intended the Digital Collections repository to grow through deposit of electronic theses and dissertations and voluntary deposits of scholarly work by faculty authors. The repository allows faculty to self-submit, and the library encouraged faculty to take advantage of the self-submit function to increase the reach of their scholarly work. While a few individuals were prolific users of the self-submit function, the majority of publishing faculty did not self-submit or ask library staff to assist them in uploading their publications.

Library leadership tasked the library's Scholarly Communications Team with

several strategic plan goals related to faculty outreach and open access. One of the goals of the team was to facilitate the deposit of more scholarly material to the Digital Collections repository. Workflow development was driven by tools at hand and established relationships: SHERPA/RoMEO and the subject librarians' faculty contacts in the different departments and colleges. Subject librarians contacted faculty about their willingness to send the library their vitae. If subject librarians' efforts were successful, all the copyright vetting, acquiring publisher permissions for published works, and deposit of the publications would be handled within the library.

The initial workflow was created by the Digital Collection Repository Librarian and the Copyright Officer, and relied on the look-up function in SHERPA/RoMEO. SHERPA, which stands for Securing a Hybrid Environment for Research Preservation and Access, supports a service which lists publishers' self-archiving policies by journal. RoMEO, currently run by SHERPA Services at the Centre for Research Communications, University of Nottingham, UK, was originally created as the RoMEO Project at the University of Loughborough, UK. RoMEO is a "searchable database of publisher's policies regarding the self-archiving of journal articles on the web and in Open Access repositories." (Millington, 2011, p. n.) RoMEO has proved to be an invaluable tool for the open access archiving process.

Starting with one faculty member's curriculum vita, the Copyright Officer and the Digital Collections Repository Librarian, who was the repository administrator, tested a potential workflow. Using SharePoint as a collaborative workspace, the Digital Collections Repository Librarian transcribed faculty publication data into a spreadsheet, sorted by journal title and referenced in SHERPA/RoMEO. The time devoted to looking up the journals in SHERPA/RoMEO varied greatly by length of CV. A twenty-page CV with numerous scholarly articles in a variety of journals could take several hours. The color categories of SHERPA/RoMEO indicate the publishers' policies toward open access archiving and simplified the sorting and categorizing of the different articles after transcribing. RoMEO uses four colors to categorize rights: blue, green, yellow, and white. The different colors represent different levels of publishers' willingness to support reproduction of articles in an open repository.
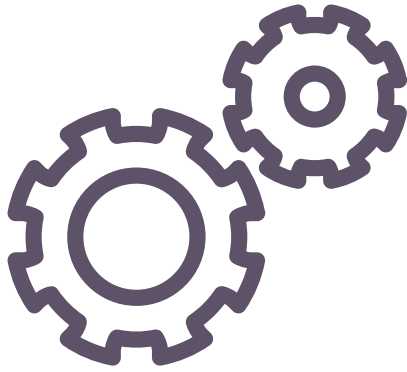
Many journal titles were not found or had no official designation in RoMEO, so we chose to color code those titles in beige. White represents journals that are listed in RoMEO but that have not provided RoMEO with information about their open access archiving policies. Therefore, white and beige coded articles represented articles for which we had little to no information. We anticipated that these journals might have potential for allowing posting in the repository. With the transcription and color coding complete, the Copyright Officer prepared permission requests to white and beige publishers.

The Copyright Officer found contact information for white and beige coded publishers and requested permission to post the articles in the Digital Collections repository. Upon receiving the publisher replies, the Copyright Officer uploaded copies of the permission emails to the SharePoint folder. The beige journals were almost exclusively professional organization newsletter or magazines or very small publications not associated with a university. Generally, the small-scale nature of the beige publications made the permissions process more difficult.

Communication with the white and beige journals was by email to the editors, who each agreed to permit the publisher version of the article to be uploaded. Locating contact information for the beige journals and waiting for responses was the most time-intensive portion of the pilot. The Copyright Officer contacted each journal at least twice by email before abandoning attempts at communication. The Copyright Officer could not identify and locate contact information for some of the journals. For those journals, the Copyright Officer requested additional information from the submitting faculty, through the mediation of the Subject Librarian, but no faculty submitted further information.

With copyright clearance taken care of and reproducible copies identified, the Copyright Officer pulled the publisher PDFs for archiving. For beige journals, most of the articles were either not available online or available on the open web through organizational websites. The Copyright Officer pulled publisher PDFs for green- and blue-coded journals from library subscriptions. The Digital Collections Repository Librarian took over again, and uploaded the PDFs into the repository. Most of the communication between the Copyright Officer and the Digital Collections Repository Librarian occurred via email or in person.

A wider effort to reach faculty was then launched by the members of the Scholarly Communications Team, who were also subject librarians, by contacting their faculty to solicit interest in posting to the Digital Collections repository. Continuing with the efforts to leverage established collaborative relationships, the team thought that the subject librarians should remain the contact point for the solicitation of work for the repository. Traditionally at Alkek Library, departments communicate with library staff through the mediation of their liaisons.

Results

The subject librarians received twenty-eight vitae from faculty from a variety of disciplines, with the greatest responses, four each, from biology and health sciences. Other disciplines that volunteered vitae included communication disorders, history, physics, and political science. A total of 496 articles were entered into spreadsheets and sorted into SHERPA/RoMEO categories. Seventeen titles were found in the blue category, which is the most open access archiving–friendly category. The majority of articles (233) were found in the green category, which is open access archiving–friendly with a twist. Journal publishers with a green designation allow either a pre- or a post-print copy of an article to be archived in an institutional repository. Prior to the vita project, the repository archived 305 faculty publications total. Fifty-seven were added during the pilot, which represents an 18.5% increase in that category. One hundred ten of the identified titles were in the yellow and white journal categories, representing 22% of our total, and the team was able to archive just five of these. Finally, 16% (81) were not found in the SHERPA/RoMEO database (color-coded beige). Only 18 of these articles were able to be archived.

Assessment

Among our findings, we discovered that our faculty retain nearly none of their pre-print versions of their published articles, and so we are unable to archive those titles in the repository. Nearly 47% of the articles found were in green journals that allowed only pre- or post-print copies. Most faculty were unable to produce versions of their work (pre-prints) other than the publisher's PDF, which many publishers restrict from upload into a repository. One solution to this problem is to educate faculty to keep versions of their work in the future. Yet this approach poses problems because currently faculty do not have a document management system in which to store and track their research. Faculty at Texas State University store their research on computer drives, with unknown naming and organizational structures.

Another obstacle to this method of harvesting faculty work for open access archiving is mainly time. The process of transcribing publication data into spreadsheets is time consuming, particularly when there is no standard vita format. Every faculty vita is as unique as a fingerprint, and this can make the manual process onerous. Fitting the demands of the project into multiple librarians' schedules caused backlogs and bottlenecks, which we hope to eliminate in the future by using a new institution-wide credentialing method that streamlines and normalizes all faculty vita information.

The pilot relied on subject librarians to mediate communications between the two librarians working on the pilot and faculty members. Before the pilot began, the team created an email template that the subject librarians could send to the faculty in their assigned departments, and the team held a meeting with the subject librarians before the pilot to answer their questions about the process. The lack of faculty CVs submitted from some departments may be due to a reluctance among the subject librarians to solicit faculty for CVs. Corroborating the outcomes of the Minnesota report, the
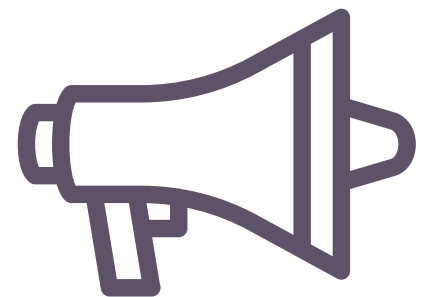
team saw greater success with faculty from departments to which subject librarian members of the team were assigned. Other factors may have contributed to the lack of participation from some departments at Texas State University. Such factors might include cultures within departments, differing attitudes about Open Access among faculty, differences in publishing norms in different disciplines.

NEXT STEPS

The Scholarly Communication Team views the results of the pilot as a success, considering the overall number of vitae that were submitted and the extent of content that we were able to archive. But the team recognizes that elements of the project can be streamlined, particularly by relying less on librarian and faculty schedules and priorities. Texas State University faculty are moving the information in their vitae to a campus-wide system that organizes and displays all CV data in the same way. From this system, the repository administrator will be able to generate reports of all faculty publication data directly into a CSV file. From the CSV file, sorting and vetting the publication information should be a simple process. The team would like to incorporate this process into the workflow. In addition, the team will encourage subject librarians to invest in the success of the project, for example by taking on the tasks of checking the journals in Sherpa/RoMeo and pulling the publisher PDFs for their departments.

As Texas State University advances to Research University status, we also see opportunity for more outreach, in the form of education and workshops, on the significance and value of retaining preprint copies of published articles and management of publishing agreements, in which open access archiving policies are more easily tracked. In early 2017, in response to the pilot, the team developed and presented to faculty several library guides and presentations to try and counter negative faculty impressions about Open Access. While new faculty are the obvious targets of outreach, we feel there is value in encouraging established and tenured faculty to also rethink preprint archiving and access. ∎

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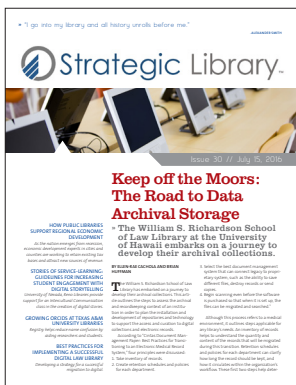
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