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Required Reading for Library Administrators Part 1

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Required Reading for Library Administrators

An Annotated Bibliography of Influential Authors and Their Works

LAMA/LOMS Comparative Library Organization Committee (CLOC) and CLOC Bibliography Task Force

Library and information science literature is overflowing with how-to articles, particularly how to manage the library. Increasingly, library managers find that the time they have available to peruse such literature lessens as other professional demands intrude. One of the products of reorganizing, downsizing, and the doing-more-with-less philosophy is that managers find they are doing much more with much less time to reflect on and follow literature trends.

With this in mind, members of the Comparative Library Organization Committee (CLOC), a LAMA/LOMS standing committee, decided that a list of required readings is in order. The selection of the titles for the list was developed using citation analysis, or bibliometrics, to select frequently cited authors and titles for works published outside of the professional library literature and for works published within the field. CLOC members then annotated the top twenty titles in each of the two categories from the critical perspective of professional practice. Additional documentation related to the production and interpretation of this bibliography is in press in *Advances in Librarianship 2002* as “Discourse Fashions in Library Administration and Information Management: A Critical History and Bibliometric Analysis” by Mark T. Day.

In CLOC discussions, several reasons for developing this annotated bibliography emerged, including the need for a limited collection of important books and articles that busy library administrators could easily access and whose influence on the development of library management could be measured and documented. Mittermeyer and Houser, in their 1979 study “The Knowledge Base for the Administration of Libraries,” found that “theory-based research literature on the management and administration of libraries is minimal,” and in 1990, Susan Klingberg still found “little evidence to suggest that library managers do make use of theory or research in seeking solutions.” Numerous articles in the library literature continue to complain about the detrimental influence of management fads and fashions on library administrative practice. Overall, this current theoretical and professional environment appears every bit as turbulent and confusing as the economic, social, and technical environments that challenge our organizations and that administrative theories and professional disciplines are supposed to help us understand and control.

The ISI Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) database, available via the online Web of Science version beginning with 1987, was used to generate the list of articles and citations from which lists of frequently cited authors and their works were constructed. At the time the records were extracted, only those records published between January 1987 and March 2000 were available online. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this project, the data collected were more than adequate. Two lists were constructed. The first list contains the top twenty most frequently cited works published outside of the professional library literature, and the second list contains the top twenty works published within that literature. A comparison of the resulting lists provides one way to gauge the extent of the gap between organizational theory and management practice. The resulting lists also exhibit several important limitations. First, although the procedure of counting citations from SSCI is “almost certainly the most common form of efforts to quantify influence, [it] is far more appropriate as a measure of article than of book influence.”

Librarianship, like many social sciences, is distinguished by the existence of a book and an article culture. Therefore, lists of books and articles produced from counts using SSCI can reliably indicate influence only in the article culture, not the book culture. Second, because librarianship is further distinguished, as is management in general, by the existence of both a scholarly research culture and a popular practitioner culture, SSCI’s focus on scholarly research literature prevents its being used to reliably indicate influence in the practitioner culture. In addition, although citation analysis of SSCI data is a quantitative, empirical method, the various imperfections and inconsistencies in the data often make the process “subjective and inhospitable to standardization.” Finally, bibliometric analysis tends to ignore the communicative context.
within which a work has been cited, so that, without examining the actual content of the citing source, the interpretation of citation patterns remains rather abstract and arbitrary.

Given the strengths and weaknesses of SSCI data, the following procedures were used to produce the most comprehensive and representative results possible. First, a list was made of all seventy-eight SSCI source journals categorized as "Information Science and Library Science" (LIS) anytime during the period 1979–99. Next, eleven additional journals dealing with library- and information-related topics were identified. A total of eighty-nine LIS source journals was selected. An extended online search was then undertaken to identify and download all records from LIS journals on administrative topics. Finally, a search was made for all articles in any SSCI source that included citations to any of the five major library administration and management journals (of which LA&M is one) not indexed by SSCI. This was done on the assumption that any source article citing these journals had some connection to library administration as a topic. Combining all of these sets resulted in a final database of 7,066 unique records from 107 different journals.

At this point, a decision had to be made about how to rank these citations in order to obtain lists of the most influential works on library administration and management. Because the initial focus of this project was on the library as a formal organization and on library administration as a professional practice, rather than on information science and library science as academic disciplines, an ad hoc grouping of source journals was created that consisted simply of all those journals with the word "library" in some form in their titles. This created a group of thirty-five journals to which was added the journal Libri. All of the citations from the 3,152 articles about library administration topics in these thirty-six journals were then printed out and the total number of citations per cited author was counted. Those authors cited ten or more times were then identified. This produced a list of 332 authors, of which forty-two were found to have published primarily outside the library profession whose works are cited by LIS authors cited ten or more times would have been excessive. Therefore, that number was reduced to eighty-three by selecting only those LIS authors from the subset of thirty-six library journals that were cited twenty or more times.

These procedures provided a large number of citations to each author from which it was possible to identify more clearly the various works cited. Specifically, 1,206 articles were extracted that cited any of the top forty-two non-LIS authors, and 1,427 articles were extracted that cited any of the top eighty-three LIS authors. Before ranked lists of frequently cited works could be generated, additional manual editing was required. Typographic and bibliographic errors found in SSCI data were corrected, citations to different editions of the same title were treated as citations to the same work, and citations to different pages of the same title were identified. A separate computer record was then created for each author's most frequently cited work, and the number of times it had been cited was recorded. These records were then copied and consolidated into two additional databases of frequently cited works by non-LIS authors and by LIS authors. The titles in each database were separately ranked, and lists were generated for the top twenty most frequently cited titles in each category.

The theories and recommendations of all of these authors offer, in one way or another, solutions to the intractable problems of modern organizations:

- creating unity out of diversity;
- realizing rational objectives with irrational means;
- changing radically without losing one's basic identity;
- adapting in a flexible manner to organizational contingencies while producing predictable services and products; and
- creating a strong organizational climate while respecting the rights and needs of individuals.

To judge whether or not any of these ideas can be of practical benefit for handling and riding their own wild organizational horses, library administrators and managers will have to read the works themselves.

This first set of reviews covers only those authors from outside the library profession whose works are cited by authors within the library profession. In a subsequent publication, reviews of authors cited within LIS literature will be presented. In the reviews that follow, citations note the edition reviewed.

The Annotated Reviews


A sociologist looks at how professions are organized with the central thesis that modern societies have clearly refined ways of arranging institutional expertise. The notion
of professions is rooted in the expert or professional, and the book is about how professions grow and develop, join and adapt, or split and die. Many features of professionalism are surprisingly similar across different fields. While most studies of professions have focused on those of law and medicine, Abbott casts a wide net and looks at professionalism in a variety of areas from air traffic controllers to journalists, and from accountants and the clergy to librarians. For the latter, the author notes that librarians have faced a number of professional crises through the years, most recently brought on by computerized environments. However, the key issues raised in this work relate less directly to librarianship as a profession and more to the tensions and factional arguments that arise as any profession grows and evolves in response to internal and external changes.

The book is particularly useful for librarians as they continually struggle with their identity in a rapidly changing technological environment. Comparing librarianship to older well-established professions allows for predicting the possible outcomes of such struggles and for strengthening the library profession by continually re-evaluating the core mission of librarians. A key idea here is to focus more on the work of the professional rather than the profession’s structure. Ultimately, the products and services librarianship or any profession provides are the key to defining its value in society. As custodians of cultural property, librarians are uniquely positioned to clearly articulate such value. This work can help librarians understand how to do a better job of librarianship.


In this book, the author reports on a research program in R&D management that was undertaken from 1963 to 1973 at MIT’s Sloan School of Management. As an early work in the new field of scientific communication, Allen’s study helped to determine the issues, methods, and standards for that field. The study of scientific communication itself arose largely in response to the post–World War II scientific information explosion. This phenomenon was first brought to the attention of the American public by Vannevar Bush in 1945 and documented by Derek de Solla Price in 1963. Thus it is not surprising to discover that Allen is one of the most highly cited authors in the core library and information science literature. In this regard, he stands with five other authors in our list of forty-two highly cited authors who have published primarily outside the professional literature of library and information science but whose works are treated as foundational to that field: Vannevar Bush, Diana Crane, Thomas Kuhn, Derek de Solla Price, and Herbert Simon.

Although Allen’s research was conducted three decades ago, his study remains as useful as ever for managers of all types of organizations. Its benefit derives from the author’s emphasis on the actual processes of organizational communication and his comparative, empirical, longitudinal evaluation of how organizational and situational conditions influence those processes. Most attempts to understand and manage the information crisis, from Bush’s Memex to digital libraries and the Internet, have favored technical solutions aimed at developing and improving information systems. Allen was one of the first to remind us that these efforts need to be coupled with an understanding of who will actually use these systems, in what manner, and to what end. So many of his ideas and findings were seminal that his work continues to be cited in a wide variety of disciplines by all those concerned with understanding and managing the complex interrelationship among human communication, social organization, and information technology.

One of Allen’s more significant contributions is his analysis of how communication patterns in science and technology differ rather radically from each other so that information systems designed for one are not appropriate for the other. Another important contribution is his analysis of the importance that communication among organizations can have and his discovery of organizational gatekeepers who find and filter information for their colleagues. Finally, Allen’s work is a continual reminder to those of us who tend to focus on formal documentation and organizational structures that we also need to pay more attention to informal, interpersonal communication patterns. Not only can we improve user satisfaction by identifying the information seeking patterns of different groups, we also can improve the internal operation of our organizations by identifying the different levels of interpersonal communication needed by different work groups and by rearranging our work areas to promote appropriate levels of interaction.

**Argyris, Chris, and Donald A. Schén.** *Organizational Learning II: Theory, Method, and Practice.* Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1996. [volume I, 1978]

This volume updates and expands the first volume *Organizational Learning: A Theory of Action Perspective* published in 1978 (more heavily cited in the lists from which this bibliography was developed). Offering fresh innovations, strategies, and concise explanations of long-held theories, the book is geared to practitioners and researchers in a variety of fields and certainly is useful for library administrators and middle managers. The authors address four principal questions that cross the two branches in the field of organizational learning:

- Why is an organization a learning venue?
- Are real-world organizations capable of learning?
- What kinds of learning are desirable?
- How can organizations develop their capability for desirable kinds of learning?

Using case studies and other examples as well as the most up-to-date information on technical aspects of organization and management theory, the authors demonstrate
how the research and practice of organizational learning can be incorporated in today's rapidly changing environment. This is a significant work for library managers as more libraries have adopted team-based organizations where learning and decision-making become group activities rather than individual exercises. This is the true core of the theory of a learning organization—that of collective self-managing groups working through interaction and exchange to forward the goals of the library. Many journal articles have looked at learning organizations but this is the best book to cover it in depth.

This title is part of the Addison-Wesley Series on Organization Development that includes several other useful books for library practitioners.


This essay is a commentary on the vast amount of information generated by the scientists during the 1940s and the contemporary lack of ready access to this material. Bush was very concerned about how much information can be lost when it is not readily accessible. He envisioned a device that he named "Memex" receiving, storing, and retrieving materials. His description was purely theoretical for 1945, but as one reads it today, it resembles the personal computer. Bush considered the Memex as a future device for individual use as a file or library.

The physical description of the Memex sounds like the desktop computer. First, there is a desk with slanting screens projecting information for reading. A keyboard is included with buttons and levels. One end of the device stores the information on microfilm. Books, pictures, periodicals, and newspapers can be retrieved and studied instantly. According to Bush, a user who wishes information on a certain book, taps in a code on the keyboard and the title page of the book appears. Even more essential is the ability of this machine to link certain bits of information together. The idea of a nonsequential trail of information, later known as hypertext, was born in Bush's theoretical retrieval system.

Bush essentially addresses his speculations toward scientists during World War II, but anyone who uses a computer today would certainly read this essay with enthusiastic interest. (CLOC member Joyce Taylor notes, "I used this article in a basic library science course as an introduction to the concept of hypertext. I continued to use this essay in a reference course as an introduction to electronic libraries.") "As We May Think" may be considered an introduction to the history of computers and the storing and retrieval of information. This essay has been cited as recently as 1999 by numerous researchers in their discussions of hypertext trends in electronic resources, communications, history of books and computers, Internet access, knowledge management, electronic publishing, and futuristic libraries.

Library managers would find this essential article a must-read concerning the storing and retrieval of information. Bush presents a clear and accurate picture of what is being experienced in this present-day computer age. As director of the Office of Scientific Research and Development, Bush coordinated the work of six thousand leading American scientists in their application of the knowledge of science to the practice of warfare. He insisted that scientists make more accessible their bewildering store of knowledge. With this essay, Bush "calls for a new relationship between thinking man and the sum of our knowledge."


Daft and Lengel attempt to answer the question, "Why do organizations process information?" Historically, the answer given has been "to reduce uncertainty." Theorists have also posed a second answer, "to reduce equivocality." Equivocality seems similar to uncertainty but may demonstrate an unclear, messy area. New data may not help the situation and can even be confusing. In reducing equivocality, managers tend to define or create an answer rather than learning the answer from the collection of additional data.

The purpose of this paper is to integrate the equivocality and uncertainty perspectives on information processing. One purpose of organizational research and theory building is to understand and predict the structure that is appropriate for a specific situation. In other words, the goal is knowing when and how to reduce uncertainty and equivocality in processing information. The concept of information processing provides a useful tool with which to explain organizational design.

The authors' approach to the study of organizations is based on several assumptions about organizations and processing information. The basic assumption is that organizations are open social systems that indeed must process information, but have limited capacity. Information is processed to accomplish internal tasks, coordinate diverse activities, and interpret the external environment. Another assumption concerns the level of analysis in organizations. Individual human beings send and receive data in organizations, but organizational processing of information is more than what occurs by individuals.

Further, there are a few distinguishing features of organizational information processing, including sharing and the need to cope with diversity that are not typical of an isolated individual. In this respect, groups frequently make decisions, so a coalition is needed. A final assumption is that at the organizational level, the division of labor influences information processing. For the organization to perform well, each department must perform its task, and the tasks must be coordinated with one another. This is where uncertainty and equivocality may surface from departmental technology, from coordination of departments to manage interdependence, or from the external environment.

Using charts and explanations from other authors, Daft and Lengel have projected what could happen during
organizational activities when one dimension is high and the other is low. In their conclusion, the authors state that organizations process information to effectively manage both uncertainty and equivocality. These two forces have been identified in literature as those that influence the information processing required for organizations to attain adequate performance. This article is certainly a valuable document, one that not only explains why organizations process information but also presents a vivid picture of what can happen when there is uncertainty and equivocality, and ultimately what organizations can do to create low instances of these two forces.


In “The Coming of the New Organization,” the author forecasts a third major evolution in the concept and structure of organizations. Per Drucker, the first evolution occurred between 1895 and 1905 and distinguished “management” from “ownership.” The second evolution occurred about twenty years later with the creation of the “command and control” organization with its layers of hierarchy. The third evolution demands a move away from hierarchy to a system based on information.

Looking at alternative organizational models such as symphony orchestras, hospitals, and the British administration in India, Drucker advocates an “information-based organization” with a very flat structure. He minimizes the role of middle managers. Just as the violinist interacts with the conductor, Drucker sees “knowledge specialists” interacting with organizational leaders.

The “knowledge specialists” are portrayed as both independent and collaborative. They are disciplined professionals who get the information they need to succeed and they are team players that share information and build the relationships to ensure organizational productivity. These specialists direct their own performance through organized feedback from colleagues, customers, and headquarters. These professionals work directly with organizational leaders who provide vision, direction, and resources.

Drucker’s emphasis on the dually talented “knowledge specialists” seems well scripted for today’s and tomorrow’s libraries. To cope with constant change, librarians and staff need increasing levels of expertise and authority and an array of team-building skills. Drucker’s emphasis on knowledge specialists, a unified organizational vision, clearly stated goals and expectations, task forces or teams that work in synchrony, and real rewards for teams also seem well attuned to today’s needs.

Although “The Coming of the New Organization” seems to have been more valued by information scientists than by librarians, Drucker’s ideas deserve broad recognition. Libraries remain in the throes of change. There is time yet for them to benefit. Drucker states, “the knowledge and information resources of an organization—const-
with another very useful tool—the ability to disengage oneself from past practices and imagine how one would develop a service today, any service, if there was no past to examine.


Kanter, a well-known sociologist, has a mission: to set individual initiative free. Based on her examination of ten selected corporations, Kanter suggests ways to empower people to act on their ideas and thus to revitalize their organizations.

The key tenets of mastering change are:

- Involve the entire workforce in innovative problem solving
- Operate in an integrative mode
- Supply employees with three power tools—resources, information, and backing
- Place emphasis not on authoring ideas, but on implementing them
- Use a parallel organizational structure to combine flexible, temporary groups, and hierarchical units
- Offer stability through vision and direction

*The Change Masters* promotes quality management themes: vision, teamwork, lateral communication, empowerment, and the nurturing of the corporate culture. It offers illustrative examples from the selected corporations. Kanter distinguishes herself, however, by emphasizing entrepreneurship and by combining new philosophies of organizational development with fundamental American principles. She pays attention to process, but focuses on results. She advocates teamwork and collaboration, but warns against getting “so involved with teams as to miss the initiative of the individual.” She insists on lateral communication, but often lauds it as a way to ensure individual effectiveness.

Since its debut in 1983, *The Change Masters* has been frequently read and cited by librarians. In 1986, Kanter herself highlighted its ideals at the annual Special Libraries Association meeting. Her influence has been most visible in the area of information technology. Kanter’s concepts of champions as technological innovators who span organizational boundaries, create alliances to muster resources, and vigorously promote their vision continue to influence the profession. Her recommendations on the need for mature employee relations policies, continuing education, more widespread autonomy, and of a greater sense of egalitarianism seem prophetic in an era where managers struggle to find an organizational fit for non-MLS professionals and other highly credentialed staff.

Although some of Kanter’s examples may sound outdated, her principles and insights remain valid. As libraries continue to deal with changed staff, users, technology, publishing, and institutional expectations, librarians can continue to learn from *The Change Masters.*

Although many years have passed since its first publication in 1962, this book and the ideas put forth in it continue to play a key role in the development of models for the study of changes in technology, management, social systems, and science. Kuhn’s notion of a paradigm shift, as a fundamental change in the way a set of ideas is accepted among professions, is used regularly in discussions relating to our rapidly changing technological environment. His ideas about revolutions in scientific theory are now applied in a wide variety of disciplines. Combined with theories of organizational change and entrepreneurship, Kuhn’s theories have even been extended to the federal government under the Clinton administration via the reinventing government movement. This movement stresses the need to replace the traditional bureaucratic paradigm of public administration with new organizational forms more appropriate for a service oriented information society.

In many ways, Kuhn was one of the first to think outside the box, to use a now-worn phrase. He argued that what he called normal science is not good at dealing with the sort of unexpected anomalies that lead to paradigm shifts. When such anomalies reach the stage where current theories and methods no long work, theorists may invent new paradigms based upon new metaphors that can explain the heretofore unexplainable. Within a particular domain of inquiry, a consensus eventually forms around one exemplary theory, which then becomes the basis for a new round of normal scientific work.

Kuhn’s book should be required reading for library administrators because it provides an understanding of why it is important to think beyond traditional bounds in any profession. It shows how models to resolve paradoxes arising within an old paradigm can only be generated when a newer paradigm is proposed. In short, Kuhn exhorts the reader to adopt the paradigmatic slogan of the 1970s and question authority, by offering new explanations for old problems. Librarians will need to have read this work as they prepare for the coming changes to the profession, which may well require a paradigm shift of great proportions.


In the first three decades following World War II, American scholars fostered a strongly scientific approach to the development of their disciplines. Within the social sciences, this trend manifested itself in the rise of behavioral science as a dominant research paradigm. This approach emphasizes the operational definition of variables in terms of human behaviors that can be observed and objectively measured. Such variables are then used to construct testable hypotheses whose empirical validation can be used to build a cumulative body of positive, social scientific knowledge.

March and Simon applied this approach to the subject of formal organizations in their book and helped found the
field of organizational behavior. The authors begin by defining organizations as

the largest assemblages . . . of interacting human beings . . . in our society that have anything resembling a central coordinative system. . . . The high specificity of structure and coordination within organizations, as contrasted with the diffuse and variable relations among organizations and unorganized individuals, marks off the individual organization as a sociological unit comparable in significance to the individual organism in biology.

The core question about organizational behavior that the authors pose is how can we explain and manage the coordinative systems that organizations need to survive and thrive? To answer, they review traditional theories of organizational coordination, such as Taylor's theory of scientific management and Gulick and Urwick's theory of departmentalization. They criticize these classical organization theories for inability to formulate problems adequately, define variables operationally, and validate hypotheses empirically.

March and Simon then remedy these limitations, covering from the perspective of motivational constraints what they term intraorganizational decisions. They also address the decision to participate, conflict in organizations, cognitive limits on rationality, and planning and innovation in organizations. March and Simon emphasize the motivational and decision-making behaviors of individuals that affect organizational coordination. This is in keeping with their description of human beings as complex information-processing systems, whose behavior is determined by the interaction between their internal mental states and their external environmental situations. Applying this information-processing conception of human beings to the behavior of organizational members, the authors state their “central thesis that the basic features of organization structure and function derive from the characteristics of human problem-solving processes and rational human choice.” The limited nature of such processes and choice (which tend toward satisfactory, rather than optimal decisions) is a theme associated with the work of both authors, but especially with Simon's *Administrative Behavior,* which is ranked as the sixteenth most highly cited title in this bibliography and often is cocited with *Organizations.*

The analytical and hypothetical style of this work, with its endless enumeration of hypotheses and citation of detailed studies, makes it tedious to read for all but the most devoted social scientist. However, its formative influence on the development of organizational behavior as the dominant approach in the broader field of organization studies, makes it a must read for all library administrators and managers.


An important work of research, this book details both the characteristics and content of the work of managers using what Mintzberg calls the “work activity” school of management research. In work activity research managers record various characteristics of their work, such as its pace or duration, or the content of their work and what they actually do during it. One technique used is for the manager to record this information in a diary. Two other techniques used here, observational ones, include having the researcher record the manager’s activities at random times and having the researcher rather than the manager record diary data.

This school of research is an inductive one, in which data describing managerial work are gathered first and then used to develop a model of this phenomenon. This is in sharp contrast to previous approaches, especially those developed by the classical school of managerial thought, which proposed models first and then attempted, with mixed results, to find data to verify them. Mintzberg examined ten studies done by the diary method and four by the observational one. In all, the results of these studies describing the work of nearly six hundred managers were synthesized for this book.

In terms of work characteristics, Mintzberg found that managers have enormous volumes of work to do and must do it at an unrelenting pace. Their individual work activities are brief, various, and fragmented. They prefer live action, meaning avoiding routine activities, such as processing their mail, which do not provide immediate one-on-one feedback. They prefer to communicate orally, either in person or over the telephone, rather than in writing. Managers rely more heavily upon their network of contacts both within and outside their own organization for information than upon written sources. In fact, these networks of contacts tend to be huge. Finally, managers face a mix of rights and duties, meaning activities that they can initiate versus those initiated by others.

In terms of work content, Mintzberg found that managers filled ten roles. Three are interpersonal. These are as figurehead, leader, and liaison for the organizational units they manage. Three roles are informational. These are monitor, disseminator, and spokesperson. Finally, four managerial roles are decisional. These are entrepreneur, handler of disturbances and conflict, allocator of resources, and negotiator for their organizational unit.

The value of this work is tremendous because it was essentially the first and in many ways still the best work to describe managerial work as it actually occurs. As such, this work remains important both for library and general management because it provides managers a model of their work that very often fits managers’ experiences of it. Then, once they have such a model, managers can use it to manage their own work more deliberately.

During a period of about one year Peters and Waterman researched sixty-two American companies, focusing on their success rate. Among the sixty-two companies, forty-three were identified as the most successful ones, clearly those firms that emphasized the needs of the customer and the employee. The authors wanted to concentrate on why companies should eliminate the layers of hierarchy and assure the product designers and sellers had real authority, demonstrating the fact that the more control people have over their circumstances, the better they are likely to perform. The results of the survey conducted by the authors are reported in this book. In one section of the book, Peters and Waterman discuss eight attributes of excellent companies, those back-to-basic actions that set one company apart from another. Included in these action points were, for example, the idea that the customer comes first, autonomy and entrepreneurship, and productivity through people.

The authors weave through real-life stories of companies numerous examples of success in management and productivity. For instance, stories addressed sales staff in one company arriving through storms to make sure each store had a supply of their product, restricting memos to one page, and abandoning twenty-three inches of policy manuals, cutting its layers of management in half, and eliminating time clocks for assembly workers. One company honored its employees by having a recognition ceremony at a local football field. As each employee’s name was called, the name appeared on the scoreboard so that everyone could see it. This special treatment is viewed by the authors as one of the attributes that makes a company excellent and the employees satisfied in their work. Library directors should study this book to see how many of the action points can be adapted to library management. The important element is how the customer (library patron) and the employee (library staff) are treated. This book is required reading for every manager and potential manager regardless of profession. For the library director, it may mean rethinking and rewriting the library mission and policies. This book was valuable to managers immediately after its publication and will continue to be so even into the future. Its information will never be dated because the recipes for success have remained the same through time. How a company conducts business and how successfully it can market its product remain top priorities. Peters and Waterman have brought to light those companies who have excellent qualities and have been successful in doing business.


Pfeffer maintains that social science research can be used to demonstrate how power processes pervade organizational behavior, how these processes generally benefit organizations and their members rather than harm them, and how obtaining objective knowledge about the operation of organizational power can empower all of us to become “effective forecasters of what organizations are going to do” and thereby enhance our “ability to intervene and get things accomplished.” In this context, knowledge is defined as the ability to make empirically verifiable predictions and power is defined as the comparative ability of individuals and groups to overcome the resistance of others and bring about a desired outcome. Pfeffer disagrees with those who view power in organizations in Machiavellian terms as a purely disruptive, illegitimate force. He makes his case by synthesizing prior research, by proposing additional hypotheses for empirical testing and by analyzing how and why the study of power in organizations has been neglected. Much of the research reported deals with decision making in universities and is directly relevant to the work of academic and research library managers.

This research is presented within a theoretical framework that focuses on organizational decision making and organizational adaptation. An “Overview of Four Organizational Decision-Making Models” is provided. Rational choice models presume that consistent organizational goals exist and that information and value-maximization dictate choice. Bureaucratic models substitute procedural rationality for substantive rationality. Decision process and organized anarchy models presume that goals represent ex post facto rationalizations of decisions as the result of unpredictable, random social processes. Political power models presume that conflicting organizational goals exist and that parochial interests and preferences control choice. These four types of decision making are more fully defined by eight dimensions whose variation determines which type of decision prevails. Over time, however, Pfeffer hypothesizes that the political power model will prevail because of what his students have dubbed the Law of Political Entropy.

The division of labor within complex organizations inevitably creates a social structure of conflicting interests and differential power. In addition, changing environmental conditions constantly threaten the institutionalized distribution of legitimate power within organizations. Thus, organizations find it extremely difficult to maintain the consensus needed to support the rational choice, bureaucratic, and decision-process models. Eventually, every organization becomes politicized as its various social actors attempt to use their power to influence organizational decisions. In such circumstances Pfeffer argues that managers must use their power effectively and responsibly to press for decisions that will promote organizational adaptation and improvement. Effective executives who help their organizations to adapt tend to be retained along with the policies they establish, while ineffective executives are removed.

Throughout his work, Pfeffer combined social scientific information about the sources and uses of organizational power with managerial advice about how to use that information. In all cases he reminds us of what most librarians still feel uncomfortable admitting in public: organizational power exists; deal with it.

Strategy is the study of organizations' relationships with their cultural environment. Intended for organizational managers working in varied settings, this article describes the changes in organizational strategy made necessary by the information revolution. Its emphasis upon strategy makes the ideas here more general than a detailed technical discussion of changes in information technology but more specific than a general discussion of the overall effects of the information revolution upon society.

Strategy postulates that as they operate, companies perform value activities, which literally add value for which customers are willing to pay. These value activities include primary ones such as the manufacture of a product. They also include secondary ones, such as human resources, which support the primary activities. Furthermore, every value activity has both a physical component, which includes all the physical tasks required to perform the activity, and an information component, which involves the information created and used by the physical component. During the Industrial Age, technological progress principally affected the physical component of value activities as machines were used to replace human labor while information processing continued to be done by human labor. What the information revolution has done is to reverse the process, so that now machines, especially computers, are increasing productivity by replacing human labor in much information processing. The result for products and services is that products' information component has risen in relative importance to customers when compared to its physical component. For example, using a database of product and repair information, General Electric now offers continuous customer service for its appliances over the telephone. In addition, in order to improve distribution, certain railroad and trucking firms offer continuous information on the whereabouts of shippers' freight.

Furthermore, strategy postulates that companies belong to groups of firms, known as industries. Firms in each group compete against each other to provide similar products and services to customers. According to the article, the relative rise in importance of products' information component is changing competition in three ways. First, it changes industry structure and, by so doing, alters the rules of competition. Second, it creates competitive advantage. It does so by giving firms new ways to compete within industries, enabling them to lower their costs or more clearly differentiate their products and services from those of their competitors. Third, it spawns whole new industries.

As do other organizations, libraries must compete within their environment by creating value for some group(s). The value of this article to managers of libraries is as an introduction to the concepts of physical and information value. It is also valuable as an introduction to the concept of an industry and to the different types of competition, low cost and differentiation, which occur within industries. Finally, readers may consult two of Porter's earlier books, Competitive Advantage, published in 1985, and Competitive Strategy (especially chapter 2), published in 1980, for complete discussions of these useful and important ideas.


In the fourth edition of this title, Rogers summarizes fifty years of diffusion research and makes new contributions to the theoretical framework. His discussion includes many case illustrations, which enhance understanding of the diffusion process. The key concept is that there are four main elements of diffusion: the innovation (an idea, object, or practice that is perceived as new); communication channels; time; and a social system. Each of these elements includes attributes that contribute to adoption (or nonadoption) or that affect the rate of adoption. For example, the characteristics of an innovation include relative advantage; compatibility with existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters; complexity; trialability (the ability to experiment on a limited basis); and observability. Effectiveness of communication is influenced by the degree of homophily, or similarity, between individuals as well as by type of channel. The time element includes the innovation decision process, which has five main steps: knowledge of innovation; persuasion; decision; implementation; and confirmation. Aspects of a social system include social structure, system norms, opinion leaders and change agents, and consequences of innovation.

Diffusion research spans a variety of disciplines, including anthropology, sociology, education, and communication. In library literature, reference to Rogers's work is found in articles dealing with information seeking and processing, adoption of new technology, and organizational change. All of these applications are of concern to the library manager. An understanding of the diffusion process can enhance a library's instruction program and the marketing of services, improving the community's use of the library. And an informed library manager can develop better planning for the introduction of new technologies or organizational change, potentially reducing resistance by staff and patrons.


In the introduction to the paperback edition, Senge explains that he wrote this book to help "establish an intellectually challenging base of ideas and tools" to the new management fad of the learning organization. He hoped that such a base would prevent this concept from going the way of countless other fads, where inconsistent application of isolated concepts result in inconsistent outcomes, leading to a loss of interest. Although the concepts in this book are based on work done at the MIT Center for Organizational Learning, as well as other organizations,
this is not an academic work. Senge writes for a lay audience, from interested individuals to organizational teams. He frequently uses stories and analogies to illustrate his point and he presents practical tips and techniques.

The basic precept is that effective organizational learning requires five disciplines: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, and team learning. Although all five disciplines need to develop as an ensemble, systems thinking—the fifth discipline—provides integration for the other four. Senge begins by describing the problems caused by non-systemic thinking and identifying seven organizational learning disabilities. He explains that solutions developed from non-systemic thinking are likely to result in other problems down the line, either in the future or in other parts of the organization or system. He then devotes several chapters to each of the five disciplines, describing the concept and how it is related to the other four.

With the increasing speed of technological, economic, and social change, organizations need to be effective in learning how to adapt and succeed in new environments. Libraries are no exception. Library managers will find useful concepts in this book, but they should not expect them to provide a quick fix. Effective application of systems thinking, by its very nature, requires a deeper, more long-term approach than what we’ve experienced with other management fads.


Originally published in 1945, and republished in 1976 with additional chapters, Administrative Behavior is a classic that examines the decision-making process in organizations. This is not a book on how to run an organization, but rather provides one of the early explanations of organizational behavior through the decision-making process. The focus of the book is on the definition of operation and its central importance to empirical theory. Simon’s thesis is that the primary factor for decision making is what is believed to be the best consequence for the organization based on the environment of that organization, such as its facts and values. Secondarily, decisions are influenced by the preferred consequences of the decision-makers. The greater part of the work covers the psychological factors of administrative decisions. External influences on decision making include authority, advice, information, and training. Internal influences include efficiency and organizational identification.

Throughout the book, Simon uses examples from public administration, military, industrial, commercial, and nonprofit organizations to illustrate his points. The first eleven chapters are unaltered from the first edition. The author states, “There is essentially nothing in it that I wish to retract.” The third edition published in 1976 includes a part two that contains six previously published articles, with the latest published in 1973. Topics range in content from organizational goals, two articles on information technology, selective perception, and the specifics of design of both a government agency and the business school. Simon is trained in public administration and is widely regarded as a social psychologist of organizations. He develops his arguments in that framework. Administrative Behavior was his first book. However, he is the author of numerous publications. He is the recipient of numerous prizes, most notably the 1978 Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic Sciences.


This is the fourth in a series of books on the grounded theory method (Glaser and Strauss, The Discovery of Grounded Theory, 1967; Theoretical Sensitivity, 1978; Strauss, Qualitative Analysis, 1987). It is intended primarily for neophytes who are about to embark on their first qualitative analysis project. The book is divided into three main parts. Part one, “Basic Considerations,” includes an introductory chapter followed by three chapters on getting started, theoretical sensitivity, and suggestions for using the available literature. Part two, “Coding Procedures,” offers chapters on open, axial, and selective codes in addition to chapters suggesting means for enhancing theoretical sensitivity, the identifying and conceptualizing process, and explaining the features and use of the conditional matrix. The brief final part, “Adjunctive Procedures,” touches on such details of field work as making memos and diagrams, and writing theses and monographs and giving talks about research. The final chapter offers criteria for judging grounded theory studies.

This is a valuable book in that it provides beginners with a well written, clearly presented introduction to qualitative research with an emphasis on interpreting qualitative data. Other texts are available to train a person to collect qualitative data. The authors ably delineate different ways of coding data and of explaining the movement from coding to generating grounded theory. In library administration, as in other disciplines, increasingly greater emphasis is placed on qualitative as opposed to quantitative measures. Given the complexity of the challenges now facing libraries, quantitative measures are increasingly less relevant as credible indicators of libraries’ performance. Instead, it becomes ever more important to gauge accurately the quality of libraries’ collections, services, procedures, information technologies, and so on.

As more library administrators engage in qualitative research, Basics of Qualitative Research will serve as a detailed, introductory guide to doing the theoretical part of grounded theory research. Since it is not a complete handbook for qualitative research, other texts will be necessary to complete one’s understanding of the data-gathering phase of the method.

Have you ever thought of your organization as an orchestra? How about a garbage can, or breeding ground, or baseball game? All serve as apt metaphors for organizing in this landmark work. The author examines the literature on organizing and creates new models to analyze the component parts of organizing. Because the topic of organizing is diversely spread through many disciplines, Weick brings together the writings of philosophers, social scientists, psychologists, management theorists, political scientists, and others in a fresh and innovative approach to the problem. A discussion of organizing invariably leads to the subject of organizations, the when-where-why of organizing, and to an analysis of the processes involved in organizing. Weick presents often-conflicting theories and models of organizing, then draws the best from each and creates new models that distill the essence of classic writings into new concepts for considering the problem of organizing. These ideas are developed in an advanced academic-level presentation. Though charts, graphs, and the occasional cartoon (many from the *New Yorker* magazine) tend to break up the text, the level of analysis is high and the reader must be actively engaged to fully understand and integrate the material presented. This is not a book to be read casually.

The final chapter, "Implications of Organizing," is most useful for the practitioner. Not only does it summarize the concepts introduced and developed in the text, it also provides useful modes of applying these concepts to real organizations. This is an oft-cited work because it takes a macro view of organizing and draws from a wide variety of disciplines. While not practical to sit and read unless one is a student, the book is useful for browsing under selected headings or by referencing any of the hundreds of authors cited.


The focus of this book is how the computer, the smart machine, impacts the workplace. Through eight in-depth case studies (1981–86) using both manufacturing and service organizations, the author develops her argument by observing and interviewing blue-collar and white-collar workers. She also describes changes to the workplace by comparing work performed during the Industrial Revolution and how that work has changed by the arrival of the computer. One important observation is that the computer has removed the physical connection of the worker to his job. Work is more abstract than previously. Zuboff points out both the positive and negative aspects of the computer’s impact. Advantages include greater efficiencies as well as a cleaner and safer work environment. However, on the negative side, the computer has a dehumanizing aspect: loss of jobs, lack of human content, and a feeling of isolation and alienation. In this new workplace, the blue-collar worker performs less physical work and the white-collar worker feels that his work is more mechanical.

The second part of the book discusses how authority has changed with the advent of the computer. Historically authority came from ownership or working up the ladder. Today authority more often is derived from education. Although the computer can democratize the workplace by making information available to all, oftentimes middle management, in order to protect their job, centralizes the massive amount of objective information. Zuboff states that a company can either automate and the computer takes over the work previously completed by people, or the computer can “informate,” a word she coined, meaning to make all the information (text) obtained from the computer available and understandable to all. She finds that when companies informate they are more successful. She also finds that computers can enrich the workplace if blue-collar workers are willing to learn and managers are willing to teach. She argues that organizational restructuring with concentric circles of authority would be more effective than the traditional hierarchical approach found in earlier times.

References

6. Ibid.