An evaluation of the organisation of some European business school libraries and the services they supply

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AN EVALUATION OF THE ORGANISATION OF SOME EUROPEAN BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES, AND THE SERVICES THEY SUPPLY.

by

BRAM BERNARD OORT

A Doctoral Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy of the Loughborough University of Technology.

1986
If an information manager is naive enough to believe that decisions are made logically from the information he supplies, and that all he needs to do is to provide a good service and allow its virtues to speak for themselves, he is in for a rude awakening.

Donald Mason

Information Management,

p. 6.

Apart from the quotations that can be recognized, the author takes full responsibility of the complete contents of this thesis including any error or inadequacy that may be found.
# CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitation of the subject</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The research method chosen</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descriptions of the different chapters</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER 1.

**ESSENTIALS OF THE FUNCTIONING OF ORGANISATIONS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisations in a historical context</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An overview of organisational theories</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some aspects of organisational theory</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational structure</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchies of organisational structure</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational environments</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational communications</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational innovation</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CHAPTER 2.

**THE INVESTIGATION.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Selection of business school libraries</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigation of the libraries</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Working up and feedback.

Additional information.

CHAPTER 3.

BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN WESTERN EUROPE.

European management education.

The nature of business schools.

Kinds of business schools.

Descriptions of twelve business schools.

- Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires.
  General.
  Organisation.
  Education and Research.

- Ecole Supérieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales.
  General.
  Organisation.
  Education and Research.

- Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus.
  General.
  Organisation.
  Education and Research.

- Henley, the Management College.
  General.
  Organisation.
  Education and Research.

- International Management Institute.
  General.
  Organisation.
  Education and Research.

- Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde.
  General.
  Organisation.
  Education and Research.
  Recent Developments.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>London Business School</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Research</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manchester Business School</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Research</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norwegian Handelskole</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Research</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Research</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strathclyde Business School</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Research</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Research</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CHAPTER 1

**DESCRIPTIONS OF TWELVE BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Centre d'Enseignement Superieur des Affaires.</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services and Staff</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales.</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services and Staff</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Evidence of Library Performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business school libraries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The library within its parent organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organisational communication within business schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The library as a sub-organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Organisation and Policy of Business School Libraries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparison of libraries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Physical location and planning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Library services considered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special collections.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Library staff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Library policy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 7.</td>
<td>EFFECTS ON LIBRARY POLICY.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General.</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquisitions.</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indexing.</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Systems.</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reader Services.</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User Evaluation.</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER 8.</th>
<th>CO-OPERATION OF BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Library co-operation.</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The European Business School Librarians' Group.</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Structure of the Group.</td>
<td>284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Meetings of the Group.</td>
<td>286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- International library projects.</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- SCIMP, European Index of Management Periodicals.</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Benefits of Group membership.</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National groups of business school libraries.</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Scandinavian Group.</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- British Group.</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- French Group.</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Italian Group.</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER 9.</th>
<th>FUTURE POLICY OF BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Innovation in libraries.</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business school library planning and forecasting.</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future prospects of library co-operation.</td>
<td>314</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX.
The questionnaire.  317

SUMMARY.  325

NOTES.  333

BIBLIOGRAPHY.  354

AUTHOR INDEX.  375

SUBJECT INDEX.  380
INTRODUCTION

European management education does not have a long tradition. Most European business schools were established after World War II, and even the main developments of those that were founded earlier did not start before the sixties. Early management education often was provided at schools of economics - as still is the case in the Scandinavian countries during the first half of this century. Mckay remarks:

Essentially the 'explosion' or 'revolution' in management education has taken place since the end of the second world war, but the considerable development prior to that cannot be ignored. [1]

Consequently, the libraries of European business schools - most of them established immediately after the foundation of their parent organizations - do not have a long history either, and their main developments started in the sixties as well. These libraries have some interesting characteristics, deviating from similar libraries dealing with other subjects, which is interesting enough to undertake evaluating research on this kind of libraries. These characteristics include:

- Business school libraries serve both the academic world and the business community. Since the needs of both groups are different, different services must be provided to them.

- Management as an academic discipline covers many subjects; consequently the collections of business school libraries include only small percentages of all literature available on the subjects covered, which means that the selection for acquisitions is important.

- Since American business schools have an older tradition than those in Western Europe, and as many European business schools were established after the example of the American business school, it is not surprising that a lot of management literature is American, although there is a substantial amount of European management literature as well, most of it written in the English language. As a result of this a large part of the collections of European business school libraries consists of literature written in English (or American).
This study deals with the management of European business school libraries. As it is impossible to investigate all business school libraries in Western Europe, a selection had to be made in such a way that all main kinds of business school libraries are included and also that a fair number of countries is represented. Furthermore a restriction was made, since only libraries of schools providing at least postgraduate management education have been considered. As a result of all this, the libraries of these schools have been selected for inclusion into this study:

- Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires, Jouy-en-Josas, France.
- Ecole Supérieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales, Cergy, France.
- Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus, Aarhus, Denmark.
- Henley, the Management College, Henley-on-Thames, UK.
- International Management Institute, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde, Delft, the Netherlands.
- Manchester Business School, Manchester, UK.
- Norges Handelshøyskole, Bergen, Norway.
- Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale, Turin, Italy.
- Strathclyde Business School, Glasgow, Scotland, UK.
- University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce, Dublin, Ireland.

The investigation of these twelve libraries from eight countries (both England and Scotland have been understood as one country: the UK) - undertaken between March 1983 and May 1984 - form the empirical part of the study.

This study is about the management of European business school libraries as mentioned before; it deals with information management. In this study, information management is understood as the management of information, the way information is managed by libraries and information centres by means of information storage and supply to customers. This includes the organisation and policy of libraries and information centres in its widest sense.

The title of this study includes the word evaluation, meaning that library performance will be ascertained in this study as it deals with libraries. Of course this includes a comparison on different subjects of the libraries under study; but the aim is not to find out which library performs best. Librarians try to respond to the needs of their readers if they take their jobs seriously, since libraries should be service institutions, providing information (for the greater part in documentary form). Libraries are being influenced by their environments, and by the needs of their readers. Consequently; it is impossible to compare libraries of different countries with different environments and different readers in order to find out which one is best.
All libraries investigated aim at responding to their readers' needs. Particularly in the academic world there still are too many librarians who believe - either consciously or unconsciously - that it is their aim to build up a collection. In respect to these librarians Urquhart has written:

Almost unconsciously some librarians measure their achievements by the number of volumes in their libraries. So, because of them, it is important to set down the principle that libraries are for users. [2]

The mentality of service-mindedness that was met in all libraries investigated can be shown by one business school librarian, who, when suggested that he might aim at building up a large collection, replied by uttering that his library is not a museum. Allen has stated:

Why should a business school have a library? Its primary purpose is to serve as a source of information, 'to satisfy the information needs expressed or not of members of the school it serves.' It is not the provision of information which is the objective of a library, it is the consumption of information by users which is the ultimate product that we wish to attain. [3]

Delimitation of the subject.

There are some aspects of information management that will not be dealt with in this study. Information management covers a very broad field of knowledge, too broad to be subject of one study. The title of this study certainly covers the subject, but some aspects of it will not be dealt with. These aspects include:

1) Personnel management.
   Human behaviour of library staff is very important, because the motivation, including organizational compliance, and professional knowledge and skills of its staff is critical to the performance of any library. When comparing similar libraries from different countries however, the human aspect is of less importance, and besides could easily result into qualitative comparisons that are outside the scope of this study. Consequently it was decided not to deal with personnel management.

2) New technology.
   The introduction of computers in libraries has a main influence on the total performance of any library where they are introduced. The development of the use of computers is more advanced in some business school
libraries than in others investigated, but more important in relation to this study is that the impact of new technology on libraries and their performances is of such an importance that the inclusion of it into this study would easily result into a complete additional study on this subject alone. For that reason it was decided not to deal with it, but of course it will be mentioned.

3) Finance.
Library budgets determine for a large part what services a library is able to offer to its readers. It is very interesting indeed to know what percentage of its total budget an organization is prepared to spend on its library, and why. The libraries under study however are all special libraries that belong to either private or public organizations with different national habits since libraries of different countries are included. This means that a comparison of these libraries would be unsatisfactory in relation to finance. The discussion will thus be restricted to discussing percentages of library budgets spent on the different services.

These are the main delimitations of this study: In addition to this basic library services will not be explained. The research of which this study shows the results was not undertaken on different library techniques in detail, that is beyond its scope since there is already a lot of literature available on library techniques.

The research method chosen.

There are several methods to be used for different kinds of research. In writing about research in training, Bennett has recognized three basic research methods: these include:

1) Experiment - The classical method, used in the physical sciences for many years, where a situation is set up in which all variables can be controlled or varied at will one after another by changing only one variable at a time, and study the results.

2) Survey - As the most widely adopted method in the social sciences, it relies on techniques of sampling, interviewing, and making use of questionnaires.

3) Field or case study - This method falls between the experiment and the survey, adopting research techniques similar to the survey, but involving measuring, looking at what is there, how it got there, and what is going on. A case study is a particular field study. [4]
Given the fact that the libraries investigated are situated in eight different European countries, it is evident that the survey method would be best suited to the research undertaken. A different kind of approach is also possible however. Given the fact that research includes investigation, various types of investigation has been recognized by Vickery:

In any professional field, we may distinguish between three broad types of investigation. The profession seeks to provide a service, and creates organizational forms by which to do so. These organizations — in our case, libraries and information services of many kinds — face practical problems that need investigation, research that will present evidence on which practical decisions can be based. A typical example of such practical research is systems development — the analysis and design of an information system to meet a particular social need. Second, within a service or system arise many problems that need technical research — for example, the best form of issue system in a particular situation, or the choice of indexing language. Third, experience of practical and technical problems, and reflection upon them, leads us to isolate general problem areas that need systematic investigation. Scientific research of this kind is concerned with elucidating concepts and their relations, hypotheses and theories, and is not necessarily and certainly not directly related to technical and practical problems.

Of these three types of investigation only scientific research seemed to fit best the kind of investigation undertaken. The kind of research undertaken needed a descriptive approach in comparing the different libraries included starting from library concepts and also as management (the main subject these libraries are dealing with) has an overall character and deals with many aspects of the total. After considering this the kind of survey had to be decided on. About the library survey Line has written:

The library survey is interpreted as a systematic collection of data concerning libraries, their activities, operations, staff, use and users, at a given time or over a given period.

There are several ways to collect data, by means of an oral interview, a telephone interview, or a questionnaire. It was decided to combine an oral interview and a questionnaire, while physical observation could also be used to collect data. Considerations have been:
- The number of libraries to be investigated is small.
- The information needed is on many aspects of library performance.
- Some subjects to be dealt with may raise discussions.
- In order to understand the performance of the libraries to
In order to understand the organization of business school libraries, there was a need to deal with theories of organization first. For that reason organizational theories will be discussed in the first chapter by means of a selective review of the main literature on different aspects of these theories. The theory of organizations is an expedient to a better understanding of organisational aspects of library performance within the frame of this study.

This first chapter then will be divided into several parts, each contributing to different aspects of organizations. Organisations will be viewed in a historical context first, in order to understand the theories that were developed. Those theories will be subject of the next part where classical theories of organisation will be considered first, then organisational theories with the emphasis on human aspects, after that the systems approach, and finally the behavioural systems theory. Some aspects of organisational theory will be subject of the next part, first defining an organization before different strategies will be discussed, followed by coalitions and goals, and finally typologies of organizations.

Organisational structure is important in relation to organisational performance. In succession co-ordinating mechanisms of organisations, division of labour and - in relation with this interdependence - organisational technology will be considered first in this part. After that the basic elements of an organization will be discussed, while this section will
and with attention to specialisation. The next part will consider hierarchies of organisational structure, dealing with authority, power and legal authority, leading to the theory of bureaucratic organisation. After dealing with several newer developments of the bureaucratic system, configurations of structure will be subject of discussion. Finally: three different aspects of organisational theory will be dealt with, particularly of interest in relation to the research under study: The first of these is organisational environment, with the emphasis on task environment, whereas attention given to environmental dimensions, uncertainty and some research on the subject. The second subject is organisational communications, considering information flows within organisations, formal and informal communication, and the kind of communications. The third subject is organisational innovation, considering innovation as a kind of organisational change, discussing stages of innovation, and dealing with complexity of organisational innovation.

In chapter two the empirical part of this study will be discussed. First the selection of the business school libraries investigated will be justified. Second the investigation will be considered, and all questions of the questionnaire will be dealt with. Third it will be explained how these investigations have been worked up including the feedback from the libraries investigated. Finally: additional information from other European business school libraries will be considered including the small questionnaire produced in order to obtain this information.

The performance of libraries cannot be studied without considering their parent institutions. Because all these institutions are European business schools, attention must be paid to management education in Western Europe, although this can be briefly. The third chapter will discuss management education first, before considering the nature of business schools. After that the different kinds of business schools to be found in Western Europe will be discussed, also in relation to the countries in which they are situated. Finally: descriptions of the twelve schools included in this study will be given, with the emphasis on the following subjects for each school: history, objectives, organization, policy, and an enumeration of the main educational programmes.

Before considering the performances of the libraries under study, chapter four will describe the twelve libraries investigated from empirical evidence. On each library the subjects to be dealt with include: history, organisation, library policy, the services the library supplies, and special collections that are worth mentioning.

The fifth and the sixth chapters form the main part of this study. The total performances of the libraries under study will be considered, in relation to the task environments of the libraries in the fifth chapter, and in relation to their internal functioning in the sixth chapter.
In the fifth chapter the functioning of business libraries will be considered in relation to the environment. Business school libraries serve members of their respective schools, but many of them also serve the business community often indirectly (post experience course participants) and consider themselves as a kind of business information centre. The Library of Strathclyde Business School in Glasgow is even called Business Information Centre. Serving different groups of readers influences library policy; business school libraries are more active than most academic libraries in the provision of services, but less active than information units of industrial organizations. This chapter will also discuss how the libraries perform within their parent institutions. An organizational model of a business school will be presented with variations shown of the organizational setting of the library, considering the consequences these may have. Following the discussions on this model, organisational communication will be subject of study, and finally this chapter will consider the library as an organization within an organization. Throughout this chapter examples will be given of actual situations from the libraries under study.

The organization of a business school library itself as well as its policy is the subject that will be dealt with in chapter six. First it will be discussed how libraries can be compared with each other with the attention given to the measurement of libraries. It is no use trying to find out which library performs best, but comparison is also possible taking into account the organizational environments and the needs of readers that have been recognised. Then physical location including planning in a situation of limited space will be dealt with. Many libraries have to face serious space problems, and from the way they try to deal with these problems, it can be observed what level of importance is attached to the provision of the respective services. In addition to this these services will be discussed to find out in which way they are recognised and how they are being marketed. The next subject is special collections, considering for what reasons these collections exist and what kind of use is made of them. Then library staff will be dealt with, not from a human behaviour point of view, but considering the kinds of staff. Finally library policy will be discussed including planning for future action. Policy will be viewed as an activity to satisfy readers' needs indirectly, responding to expressed and unexpressed needs by building services to meet those needs in the distant future in accordance with the objectives of the library. Many examples taken from the libraries under study will be used throughout this chapter.

In order to show what effects the different services supplied by business school libraries have on library policy, these services will be discussed in chapter seven. The aim has not been to describe all services in detail; there are many books describing library services and dealing with the subjects covered in a comprehensive way. The aim has been to show the
evidence of library services in relation to library policy, showing what the libraries investigated actually do, and why. There are five subjects to be discussed, of which the first is acquisitions, emphasizing selection of library materials, and discussing the criteria used for acquisitions. The second is indexing by which different kinds of indexing apart from the cataloguing of books are understood. Attention will also be given to the reasons why particular kinds of indexing are undertaken by a certain business school library. Information systems is the third subject to consider, dealing with SDI services and current awareness. On-line facilities will be mentioned as well, but only in brief since the whole subject of new technology is beyond the scope of this study. Reader services, the fourth subject, is very important to the libraries involved. This includes enquiry handling as a main task of any library. Consideration will be given to the different groups of readers that are recognised by the libraries under study, and public relations will be dealt with. The fifth and last subject to be discussed is user evaluation, in which it will be discussed how libraries obtain information on user satisfaction or dissatisfaction and user criticism as well, and how these kinds of information are dealt with. In relation to the libraries investigated, it will also be considered what changes of services may possibly result from user evaluations.

Since no library is able to provide all services needed by its readers, libraries need to co-operate. Chapter eight will deal with the co-operation of business school libraries. Of course one could think of inter-library loan services, but that is not the main subject to discuss. Given their similarities, business school librarians have recognised their possibility to co-operate more closely. Back in 1970 already, when international library co-operation was started by the establishment of the European Business School Librarians' Group, of which every library investigated is a member. In chapter eight library co-operation in general will be discussed first, before the European Business School Librarians' Group will be dealt with by means of its structure, the projects undertaken throughout the years, and the benefits to its members. Finally national groups of business school libraries will be considered.

Librarians have to look ahead in order to be able to respond to future needs of readers beforehand, if possible. Chapter nine will deal with future policies of the business school libraries investigated. First planning and forecasting of the libraries concerned will be considered, also in relation to their task environments. Second future prospects of library co-operation, particularly within the European Business School Librarians' Group will be paid attention to, including the views of different librarians who have been participating within this group for a shorter or longer period.
In an appendix all questions of the questionnaire that have been discussed in chapter two will be listed. After this a summary of the whole study will be provided and all references made will be listed under the heading of 'notes'. These notes will not provide full bibliographical details when a book or journal article is referred to, since this kind of information will be found in the bibliography that will be put right after the notes. References should be clear and easy to locate for that reason abbreviations, nor references referring to former references by means of ibid or something similar will be used. Even if the same book or journal article is referred to more than once in consecutive order, the full name of the author and the full title will be repeated in order to be clear and consequent as well. Finally an author index and a subject index of terms will be provided.

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CHAPTER 1

ESSENTIALS OF THE FUNCTIONING OF ORGANISATIONS.

Introduction.

A very long time ago, in our early history, two men were running after an animal trying to kill it in order to get food for their families; the animal however ran much faster than the two men, and at the end of the day they came home without anything to eat. In the evening they sat down to discuss how to succeed in catching an animal the next day. They organised themselves and decided that one man, who could run very fast, would hunt the animal in the direction of the other, who was best on throwing the javelin. So they did and at the end of that day the two families had enough to eat. This organisation was maintained, and the two families got enough daily food ever since.

This example shows some basic elements to be found in any organisation:

1) An organisation exists of at least two persons, and has a purpose.
   - The two men organised themselves; one hunting man would not become an organisation.

2) An organisation aims at reaching a common goal of which all members of the organisation agree.
   - Both families needed food in order to survive; the two men agreed on working together.

3) Most organisational goals are perpetual, and most organisations are not started for a limited period of time.
   - Both families needed their daily food, and accordingly the two men did not set a time limit on their co-operation.

4) Each member of the organisation has his or her agreed task according to developed personal skills.
   - A division of labour was agreed upon, giving each man his own task in the organisation according to personal skills.

After some time a third man asked the first two whether he could have a part of the food for his own family. At first it was refused, because this man was not a member of the organisation, and did not contribute to the hunting of animals. When this man explained however that he was good in building and repairing huts, and that he would do the build-
ing and repairing of the huts of the families of both men in exchange of getting daily food for his family, it was discussed by the two men considering that the idea of getting huts was attractive, since they did have neither the time, nor the ability to build huts by themselves. On the other hand it would mean that they had to do more hunting every day in order to have enough to eat for three families. Since both men felt that they would be able to undertake this extra task daily, they agreed with the third man with the result that all three families had enough to eat every day, and had huts to live in that would be repaired if necessary ever after this agreement was reached.

This shows another basic element of organizations:

5) Non-members of the organisation are excluded from its benefits, unless they are prepared to pay for it.

- The third family was excluded from getting food until the man of that family was prepared to take care of the huts of the first two families in return.

Modern society shows many kinds of organisations, some of them very large and complex, but these basic elements are among others to be found in any organisation.

(It must be mentioned here that the willingness to pay does not always mean that one will be permitted to benefit from the organisation: this is not always possible and depends mainly on the organisational goal.)

Organisations are as old as mankind, but organisational theory as a subject of academic research is rather new and its main developments started only a few decades ago.

Organisations in a historical context.

For centuries organisations have been functioning very stable, managed by central powers like the pharaoh in old Egypt, the Church in the Middle Ages, and centralized governments in the pre-industrial period. Life was not changing fast, and as communication and transportation were slow, quick decisions had not to be made. There were enough human resources available and compliance was obtained by force (slaves), fear, discipline and dogma (only by working hard you may enter Heaven). The Industrial Revolution showed a substitution of machine power for manpower resulting into company growth. Consequently, organisations started to perform on a basis of rationality, centralised with a clear hierarchy, and specialized division of work under an autocratic leadership, where workers were treated as tools that could be bought. Since the environment of the organisation could hardly be controlled, and was still rather
stable, there was no need to pay much attention to it, the emphasis was much more on organisational size and productivity. Until about 1930 there was not much need for organisational changes in order to survive, efficiency was the best tool and as most tasks were routine and repetitive, decisions could be made centrally and information was obtained slowly, giving no need for quick decisions. After 1930 the world changed rapidly, starting with the Great Depression that included many business failures, a high rate of unemployment, and changing organisational environments. As one of the major organisational changes occurring as a result from this, human resources were taken into account, since it was felt that compliance cannot only be obtained by enumeration, but worker motivation is as important. After World War II organisations started to develop new products with a strategy of diversification, and explore new markets in increasingly differentiated, complex, and rapidly changing environments. They did not aim at efficiency in the first place anymore, but their main concern became survival by means of adaptability and creativity. Organisations could not be viewed any longer in isolation from their environments. A need for decentralisation was felt in addition to the attention given to human behaviour, while also the fast technological development, economic growth, and the development of large and complex organisational structures had to be taken into account. The emphasis on the human aspect came from society that had changed, as well as from an increasing number of non-routine jobs in organisations, demanding specialized high-skilled employees who have been prepared to take part in the decision-making process. With the introduction of new technology, a new phase of development seems to have started. Jobs become even less routine than until recently and the emphasis of work will be on creativity and adaptability even more than after the changes in the same direction between 1930 and 1950.

In order to complete this historical picture, an overview of organisational theories will now be dealt with.

An overview of organisational theories.

Organisational theory as a subject of academic study and research is rather new. Given the history of organisations as outlined above, this is not surprising, since organisations had a simple and almost unchanging structure for a very long time.

Three classical theories of organisation were developed, all three with economic efficiency as its ultimate criterion. First Taylor developed a theory of scientific management concentrating on organisational structure by means of a
good division of work and compliance by means of good enumerations based on productivity. It is a rational theory responding to organisational needs that were felt in the beginning of the 20th century. Thompson has characterised this theory as follows:

Scientific management achieves conceptual closure of the organization by assuming that goals are known, tasks are repetitive, output of the production process somehow disappears, and resources in uniform qualities are available. [8]

Second a theory of administrative management was developed, emphasizing on structural relationships in organizations. This theory was developed by Fayol [9] of which Dessler has written:

He leaned toward recommending a more centralized, functionally specialized organization structure in which everyone and everything had a precisely defined place. [10]

Other advocates of this theory are Gulick and Urwick [11], and Mooney; and Reilly [12], who also mostly concentrated on organizational structure with similar outcomes to those of Fayol.

Third is the theory of bureaucracy first developed by Weber in his theory of social and economic organization [13], concentrating on staffing and structure in a hierarchical system. Weber has tried to show how an ideal organization could be developed by a bureaucratic mechanism managing everything in the organisation, and providing much certainty.

These three classical theories of organisation are rational using a closed system strategy (closed systems as opposed to open systems will be dealt with afterwards); everything is functional and workers are considered as resources you have to pay for, since most work within the organisation was routine and repetitive at the time these theories were developed. The organizational environment is hardly taken into account and this is comprehensible since the organizational environment was still relatively simple and unchanging at the time. The structure is centralised and as stated before the emphasis is on economic efficiency.

It must be mentioned here that although bureaucracy originally has been as rational as the other two theories mentioned here, it has been developed, and in relation to modern bureaucracy, Thompson states:

The bureaucracy is an organization composed of both an artificial system - the tool of the owner - and a natural system - the social system composed of the organization's functionaries, which develops spontaneously. [14]
Since the theory of bureaucracies in organisations is important in relation to organisational structure, it will be mentioned again when discussing hierarchies of structure.

After about 1930 a period started in which the emphasis in organisational theory was laid very much on the human aspects of the organisation in reaction to classical theories. This period started with the Hawthorne studies carried out at the Western Electric Company in Chicago, between 1927 and 1933. The initial study was formulated to determine the relation of the level of illumination in the workplace to the efficiency of workers. But surprisingly the findings showed no consistent relation between these two factors. The results showed that worker behaviour and output is not only related to physical working conditions and enumeration, but is also influenced by social situations. As a result of the Hawthorne studies, organisational theorists started to put an emphasis on human relations. In respect to this Barnard must be mentioned first, who stated that the individual is always the basic strategic factor in organisations. [15] He developed a theory of motivation and compliance in organisations concentrating on individual behaviour. Building on this theory Simon [16] recognized two ways of compliance: the first is to impose authority, which is a traditional approach, the second is to develop self-control by means of organisational loyalty, a criterion of efficiency (motivation to work in an economic way), and training. These theories have started a major change in organisational theory; they concentrated on human behaviour whereas the classical theorists put an emphasis on organisational structure.

The next development has been to a theory of behavioural systems, focussing on motivation and compliance of employees by means of organisational systems. Stressing the importance of motivating employees and building a structure to serve that purpose has been one of the main theories developed by Likert [17], similarly but independently arrived by McGregor [18] as well, who emphasized on organisational structure and compliance by encouraging self-control to be developed by decentralisation and delegation as well as participative management.

As representatives of the behavioural systems theory Katz and Kahn [19] must also be mentioned, who believe that the classical organisational theories overlook human aspects, while later theories often focus on people overlooking the organisational structure. (Later here means not later than the mid-sixtees when their theory was first published.) Their theory of compliance recognizes rewards linked to desired behaviours, job identification, and internalisation of the organisation's goals, where employees adopt these goals as their own. Katz and Kahn also dealt with organisational structure, stressing that organisations are open systems that have to continually respond and adapt to their environments; on this idea they developed five types of organisational
subsystems: production, maintenance, boundary, adaptive, and managerial systems.

After World War II - as indicated before - organisations became much more complex, and strongly influenced by their environments as well. Consequently, organisational theories developed towards a situational approach of which Lawrence and Lorsch [20] are two of the original investigators. In an article, Lorsch has formulated the situational theory as follows:

Situational theory provides managers with a way to think about organization design issues in relation to the environmental and human characteristics of their situation. Even more important, perhaps, the theory enables managers to understand the complex causes of the organizational problems they face and can help them use their own creativity to invent new designs uniquely suited to their situation. [21]

This brings us to the present time.

Some aspects of organisational theory.

Before considering what an organisation is, Aldrich recognises a simple fact of life:

Organizations are necessary and important because they enable people to accomplish collectively what cannot be accomplished by individuals acting on their own. The maintenance of complex industrial societies is inconceivable without the existence of large-scale organizations. [22]

Although this statement is obvious, it is important enough to realise that indeed more than one person is necessary to form an organisation, and that the tasks the organisation will undertake is more than can be accomplished by one person. From the example at the start of this chapter we could learn that at least two men were needed to catch an animal, making it a kind of organisation. Throughout history, many tasks could not be accomplished by individuals alone, and accordingly organisations were set up to undertake collectively what could not be undertaken individually. This theory has not changed and organisations are still being founded for the same reason.

At this point we may conclude that organisations are established to collectively aim at a certain goal. This includes human relations, since members of the organisation have to work together and when the organisation grows, it needs a structure of coordinated activities in order to
function effectively. As the organizational structure is designed by people, it can be called contrived. Finally the organization has to respond to environmental changes that influence it heavily nowadays. Today life is not as slow as it has been a century - or even a few decades - ago. Anything happening somewhere in the world may influence the functioning of any organization almost immediately. Examples can be found in any newspaper; if today you read about a disaster, a political event, the death of a president of a country, or what else may influence organizations, you may read tomorrow about decisions taken by organizations in order to face the changed situation. Consequently, organizations must be open, and those responsible for decision-making within the organisation, should be prepared to make policy changes at any time. Considering all this a definition of an organization can be given. Wright has formulated:

An organization is a contrived open system of coordinated activities by two or more participants to achieve a common goal or goals. [23]

Having defined an organization, some approaches of organizational systems will be considered first.

The strategy of a closed system aims at efficiency by means of a rational system to clearly specified goals. The three classical theories of organisation: scientific management, administrative management, and bureaucracy, all make use of a closed system strategy with a formal structure. They are goal-directed in a rational way, and do neither take into account the human relations factor, nor the organizational environment, thus eliminating uncertainty. Thompson has characterised this strategy as follows:

The rational model of an organization results in everything being functional - making a positive, indeed an optimum, contribution to the overall result. All resources are appropriate resources, and their allocation fits a master plan. All action is appropriate action, and its outcomes are predictable. [21]

The strategy of an open system assumes that uncertainty in organisations is real, since the human relations factor and the organisational environment influence the organisational performance. The open system is natural, subject to influences not to be controlled or predicted beforehand. Of course organisations using the open system strategy are goal-oriented, like any organization, but the emphasis of its management is on survival and self-stabilisation, while interdependence of organization and environment are accepted as inevitable. Hall has written:

The open-system perspective suggests that rationality within organizations is or can be drastically impaired and also that events occur without organizational intent
that there is a crescive development of interaction patterns, norms, and structure that occurs apart from the officially intended system. [25]

In reality, organisations benefit from both the closed and the open system strategies, since both theories have their strengths as well as their weaknesses. The closed system strategy does not take into account human behaviour and the organisational environment, but particularly after World War II organisations were forced to face problems of human relations as well as environmental problems, while facing the growth of large complex organisations has increased the factor of uncertainty. On the other hand, organisations functioning under a norm of an open system strategy cannot afford to let things go in a natural way. Norms of rationality are needed, and as much stability as possible will lead to efficient management of the organisation. The presence of a factor of uncertainty however must include a strategy of flexibility and a policy of responding to unpredictable influences as well. In respect to this Wright can be quoted who noted in relation to needs of organisations:

A properly designed and managed organisation is enabled to continue existing through a state of dynamic equilibrium, a moving balance. On the one hand, it will bend with changing patterns of behaviour. On the other, it will have stability and continuity. The end result in the first instance is to maintain a consonance with the forces from its external environment, and in the second, to achieve efficiency through internally consistent balance. [26]

Indeed any organisation is founded to aim at a certain goal. In the example of the hunting men, this goal was rather obvious: to obtain food for their families. In modern society, however, it is not as simple as this. In many cases there is not a single goal and too much attention paid to one goal, may eventually lead to pay too few attention to another. If for instance a professor in a university is writing many articles for academic journals keeping in mind the motto 'publish or perish', the teaching to the students may be thought of as less important then, or even worse - routine, and accordingly, is not paid enough attention to, leading to a decline in the quality of the education provided, that eventually may lead to a new generation of academics performing less quality work than at present if more professors are acting in the same way. If on the other hand, too much emphasis is put on developing new educational programmes and to helping of students whenever possible, there is a danger in relation to the quality of the education provided as well, since new developments in academic subjects will not be observed, and a standstill inevitably leads to decline. This example shows that there must be a balance in
relation to different goals of an organisation; in this case a balance between teaching to students and undertake research. The results of both will lead to a high quality of education to provide, and an advancement in the knowledge of the academic subject dealt with.

As its main functions, Bedeian recognises that goals serve as:

1) Guidelines for action, directing and channeling efforts and activities of organisational participants.

2) Constraints, reducing the amount of discretion the organisation has to pursue other outcomes.

3) Source of legitimacy, to justify the activities of the organisation to its members as well as to the environment.

4) Standards of performance, to easily verify and evaluate the organisation's performance.

5) Sources of motivation, encouraging employees to good performance.

6) Rationale for organizing, meaning a basis for organisational design. [27]

Even when it is recognised that a formulation of goals is difficult given these functions, its complexity even improves when it is considered that organisations can be seen as being comprised of interacting groups or coalitions claiming organisational resources. As traditionally defines, a coalition:

is any group within an organisation whose members have identified common interests that they try to promote. Such a constituency can be delineated by departmental or hierarchical boundaries, or more generally, by clusters of members that share distinct values and interests. [28]

These coalitions attempt to ensure that their differing interests are expressed, meaning that organisational goals are determined by continued bargaining among the various coalitions. Bedeian then concludes that:

it is essential to realize that the goals of an organization should not be thought of as invariant. Goal change and adaptation occur more or less continuously; as the general aims of an organization are redefined and recast in the light of changes in its surrounding environment and in its internal state. [29]

March and Simon [30] have written about organisations that the most critical activity is the establishment of a
coalition large enough to ensure survival. Pfeffer and Salancik notice when dealing with organisation and social context:

Just as tools have increased in their complexity and effectiveness for achieving various forms of manual work, so organizations have grown larger and more complex and provide more effective means of accomplishing various social objectives. [31]

After stating that they prefer to view organisations as coalitions, they continue:

To describe adequately the behavior of organizations requires attending to the coalitional nature of organizations and the manner in which organizations respond to pressures from the environment - acceding to the demands of some coalitional interests, avoiding the demands of others, establishing relationships with some coalitions, and avoiding them with others. Managing organizations also is facilitated by recognizing the coalitional nature of organizations. [32]

This theory presumes that only a coalition of parties contributing resources and support necessary for the organization’s continuation of activities must be maintained for its survival. Uncertainty for the participants can be reduced by interaction once the organization is established, while participants are in a permanent process of exchange, thus creating an interdependence that emerges differences in power among the organizational participants. Or, in the words of Bedeian, who speaks of subsystems, instead of organisational participants:

Organizations operate, grow, and decline at the level of their subsystems. The various subsystems (parts) of an organization have a mutual interdependence and cannot function separately because each is related to all the others. While structurally a system is divisible into constituting elements, functionally it is an indivisible whole irreducible to its parts. [33]

This theory responds to the necessity to deal with the organizational environment much more than the open system strategy; it is much more aimed at the environment as an important factor in the functioning of the organisation. When dealing with the organizational environment later on in this chapter, this theory will be returned to.

Many organisational theorists have tried to develop a theory of organisational typologies, a classification for organisations. Before considering different kinds of organizations however, one should consider first why a differentiation is wanted. Very obvious distinctions can be made between private and public organisations, and between
The basic purpose of all organizations is to fill a social need. Society, or one of its segments, wants a given service or product or experience and organizations form to supply it. Thus all organizations justify themselves first socially. ... It should be clearly understood that with the exception of businesses, other social institutions are justified only by social needs. This is because as a people we believe that certain organizations are socially desirable even if they cannot justify themselves economically. By economic justification we mean that revenues from the prices of services or products pay for the resources used in their production. We support organizations engaged in socially desirable efforts with voluntary and nonvoluntary donations. [34]

Of course distinctions could be made in relation to organizations coming within category I, for instance according to kinds of services supplied, but this is irrelevant to organizational performance.

Organisational structure.

The way an organisation is structured is basically the same for all organizations from the very smallest to the largest and most complex. Three basic elements can be recognised: inputs, transformation processes, and outputs. The inputs consist of the resources the organisation needs, during the transformation processes these resources are employed in order to obtain the final results, the outputs. If we consider the example given at the beginning of this chapter where two men went hunting to obtain food for their families, the input consists of human resources, the hunting can be considered to be the transformation process, and the animal caught is the output. The organisation of these two men could function, because they were both motivated (since they needed food for their families including themselves), and they agreed on a division of work based on personal skills. In addition the work was coordinated. (The man doing the hunting part had to hunt the animal in the direction of the other man, otherwise his efforts would be senseless.) This leads to profit and non-profit organisations. The differences between private and public organisations need no explanation, as private organisations meet financial uncertainty not to be found in public organisations in the same way. Much more interesting is a distinction between profit and non-profit organisations, a distinction made by Wright, who classifies organizations into two categories of which business organisations come within category II, while all other organisations come within category I. He justifies this distinction as follows:

The basic purpose of all organizations is to fill a social need. Society, or one of its segments, wants a given service or product or experience and organizations form to supply it. Thus all organizations justify themselves first socially. ... It should be clearly understood that with the exception of businesses, other social institutions are justified only by social needs. This is because as a people we believe that certain organizations are socially desirable even if they cannot justify themselves economically. By economic justification we mean that revenues from the prices of services or products pay for the resources used in their production. We support organizations engaged in socially desirable efforts with voluntary and nonvoluntary donations. [34]
A definition of the structure of an organization as formulated by Mintzberg:

The structure of an organization can be defined simply as the sum total of the ways in which it divides its labor into distinct tasks and then achieves coordination among them. [35]

Mintzberg recognises five coordinating mechanisms to achieve coordination:

1) Mutual adjustment, where coordination is achieved by informal communication.

2) Direct supervision, where one individual takes responsibility for the work of others.

3) Standardisation of work processes, possible when the contents of the work are specified.

4) Standardisation of work outputs, possible when the results of the work are specified.

5) Standardisation of worker skills, possible when the kind of training required to perform the work is specified. [36]

In the case of the hunting men coordination of work was achieved by mutual adjustment, which is only possible in a very small organisation, or a small unit of a larger organisation, since coordination of work does not only apply to organisations as a whole, but also to departments of organisations on their own. When more men would join the actual hunting in the example, most likely one man would become a leader and perform direct supervision, taking responsibility for the work of the others. This might well include that he would not take part in the actual hunting anymore, but would give orders to the other men in order to hunt effectively (for instance from the top of a tree, where he could be able to overlook the field and observe the animals and their behaviour). When the organisation would grow, kinds of standardisation could be developed, and a training in throwing the javelin could well become a condition for joining the organisation, accepted that throwing the javelin was the way to kill the animals.

Coordination is needed if the organisation is to function efficiently, every member of the organisation should know what his or her job is. But from the definition of the structure of an organisation as mentioned above, we learn that the division of labour in an organisation is also subject to efficiency. Wright observes in respect to this:

It is axiomatic that the magnitude and intricacies of organizational goals, and the functions to attain them, require divisions of tasks and the assignment of
individuals best qualified to perform them. Herein lies one of the many paradoxes of organizational realities: People band together to pursue a common purpose, but their individual activities must be fragmented to permit specialization so that enterprise goals can be efficiently attained. [37]

The coordination and division of labour assume interdependence of organisational parts of complex organisations. Thompson recognises three kinds of interdependence:

1) Pooled interdependence, where organisational parts are not dependent on each other, but as each performs to the total organisation, they are interdependent since failure of one part can threaten the whole and thus the other parts. (As an example you could think of a school, where all teachers work independently, but all perform to the total organisation.)

2) Sequential interdependence is a serial form of interdependence, where the outputs of some parts of the organisation are inputs to other parts. (As an example you could think of a car factory, where one of the departments produces the engine that will be used as an input to the department that puts the various pieces of the car together.)

3) Reciprocal interdependence, where the outputs of some parts of the organisation become inputs for other parts, while the outputs of these in turn become inputs to the former parts. (As an example you could think of a nurse in a hospital, who prepares a patient to be operated, and will take care of that patient again after the operation has been completed.) [38]

On these three kinds of interdependence Thompson notes:

In the order introduced, the three types of interdependence are increasingly difficult to coordinate because they contain increasing degrees of contingency. With pooled interdependence, action in each position can proceed without regard to action in other positions so long as the overall organization remains viable. With sequential interdependence however, each position in the set must be readjusted if any one of them acts improperly or fails to meet expectations. There is always an element of potential contingency with sequential interdependence. With reciprocal interdependence, contingency is not merely potential, for the actions of each position in the set must be adjusted to the actions of one or more others in the set. [39]
Before discussing technological interdependence, organisational technology will be considered first. Organisations transform inputs into outputs; this transformation process can be considered as the technology of the organisation, thus being one of the main parts of the structure on which the whole organisation is built. Consequently the technology of an organisation is not only applicable to industrial organisations, but applies to the transformation process of any organisation. The importance of technology is outlined by Bedelian, who recognises four major reasons why technology is of particular importance to the study of organisations:

1) Technology has been and continues to be the main source of increases in productivity. Despite changes in the means used to motivate people and the variety of incentives that have been offered to stimulate production, the resulting increase has been negligible when compared to that created by technology.

2) Technology is often a dominant determinant of job structure. One need only review the evolution of technology from the first use of rudimentary hand tools to the present application of computer-based manufacturing systems to appreciate the truth of this statement.

3) Technology exerts influence on employee attitudes and behaviour. Technology exerts influence on group composition, group size, patterns of social interaction, and individual control of personal activities.

4) Technology affects the basic operating structure of an organisation. Two views are recognized in this respect: the first is that different technologies require different structures, and the second view recognizes an interdependence between technology and structure. [40]

The view that different organisational technologies require different structures is an outcome of research undertaken by a team headed by Woodward. [41] She identified three types of technologies: first the small-batch or unit production system, like aircraft manufacturing; second the large-batch or mass production, like mass production of cars; third the long-run or continuous production, like chemical manufacturing. Pugh, Hickson, and Hinings note:

Woodward's team compared firms of different sizes, and examined differences in historical background, without finding any answer. But when differences in technology were studied, relationships were seen with many organisational features. It is not claimed as a result that technology is the only influence upon a firm's organization nor that individual managers make no impression, but technology is a major factor. [42]
The interdependence between technology and structure is a typology developed by Thompson, obviously related to the theory of interdependence of organisational parts of complex organisations developed by Thompson as well, and discussed above. Different tasks of distinct departments of an organisation, lead to different technologies; of course inter-technology relations do exist in different forms, but all are functional. Thompson recognises three variations of this technological interdependence:

1) The long-linked technology is characterised by a sequential interdependence, which means that tasks must be performed in a special sequence that may not be changed, since the output of one task is an input to another. The mass production assembly line is an example of long-linked technology.

2) The mediating technology is characterised by a pooled interdependence, which means that otherwise independent units are joined together for a certain purpose, like for instance a post office linking a writer of a letter to its reader, relying on standardisation for efficiency.

3) The intensive technology is characterised by reciprocal interdependence, which means that coordination by means of mutual adjustment is secured whenever needed, like the team of specialists and assisting personnel in a hospital that is needed immediately when an emergency is admitted. It depends on the kinds of people needed for a particular emergency how this team will be composed, and another emergency is likely to need another team of specialists and assistants. [43]

As three basic elements of organisations inputs, transformation processes, and outputs have been recognised above. Organisations comprehend however more than just these basic elements. In order to understand their structure, the functioning of the organisation must be considered as well. Mintzberg recognises five basic parts of the contemporary organisation, that will be considered now: [44]

1) Operating core. This is the basic part of the organisation, where the actual work the organisation has undertaken, is done. For production inputs are secured, inputs are being transformed into outputs, outputs are distributed and direct support to the input, transformation and output processes is provided, for instance by means of maintenance of machines. Most standardisation is to be found in this operating core. Workers on the production side in a factory are part of the operating core, but in a university the teaching staff is part of the operating core, so it is not necessarily the lowest part of work that is undertaken in the operating core.
2) Strategic apex. Here the organisation as a whole is managed with an overall responsibility to ensure that the organisation serves its mission in an effective way. It includes top management, but also those providing direct support to top management, like secretaries of main executives, etc. Mintzberg recognizes three sets of duties of the strategic apex. The first is direct supervision of the whole organisation including decision-making. Although much supervision may be delegated in a large organisation, top management has the main responsibility. The second set of duties lies in relation to the organisation's environment and the third is related to the organisation's strategy. The organisation should permanently build on its strategy, responding to environmental changes, taking into account information from inside the organisation as well.

3) Middle line. This forms a link between the strategic apex and the operating core. Direct supervision is delegated to middle line managers if the organisation is too large for top management to supervise the operating core directly. Consequently an organisational hierarchy is formed in which middle management perform the same kind of duties as top management, but on a lower level. This middle line may consist of a hierarchical chain of managers, depending on the size of the organisation as well as its needs.

4) Technostructure. This supports the operating core, the middle line, and the strategic apex by means of analysis. Analysts in the technostructure can be concerned with control, trying to stabilise and standardise patterns of activity, or with adaptation of the organisation to meet environmental changes; they also may design strategic planning systems. Training of employees can also be a task of the technostructure of an organisation.

5) Support staff. This includes a number of specialised units providing support to the organisation outside the operating work flow. Unlike the technostructure these units are not preoccupied with standardisation, and do not advise managers of the organisation. Even if many of these support services could be purchased from outside suppliers, many organisations choose to have support services within the organisation to avoid uncertainty and to be sure of a service once it is needed. A special library is an example of a support service within the organisation and a research and development unit, or a public relations department are also support services.

In the example of the hunting men there only was an operating core in the organisation, although it could have been that in the evenings the two men discussed strategies for catching animals, making a kind of strategic apex then. When an organisation grows, a need for a middle line may be felt, if
a top manager cannot perform direct supervision anymore without detrimental consequences for the relations with the organisation's environment and for its main strategy. A technostructure and support staff are needed for the sake of efficiency.

Particularly for the last few decades the growth of the technostructure and support staff in organisations have been increasing very fast. One of the reasons for this is complexity; organisations are much more complex now than formerly; a second reason is growth. But as important is the fact that knowledge expands as well, leading to specialisation. Stewart has noted:

Specialization of knowledge work has been increasing rapidly since the last war. The expansion of knowledge produces new specialities and leads to the subdivision of old ones. Larger organizations provide both the need and the economic justification for greater specialization. A growing emphasis on professionalism leads to the development of new specialists who are formally trained to do a more restricted job than their amateur predecessors. [16]

Specialisation has structural implications as well, since specialists focus on their own areas of interest. Consequently this may lead to developments in departments of the organisation towards very specialised goals that may even contradict the final objectives of the organisation, or may result into inefficiency. In order to prevent this undesirable development, specialist departments must be integrated into the total framework, and it must be clearly defined what these departments are supposed to aim at. Of course the work of all departments must be defined, but as specialists may claim authority since they know much more about their own specialistic subjects than top management, special attention should be given to specialist departments, that will make invaluable contributions to the organisation, if manipulated in the right way. Wright has noted:

Divisions of labor permit specialization. Specialization, in a technical sense, permits high degrees of competence and expertise in varied, but narrowly defined, tasks. As a result, efficiency can be attained, assuming the diverse tasks are coordinated. [17]

So far the structuring of organisations in relation to the division of labour and coordination of work, leading to efficiency in organisations have been discussed. After dealing with interdependencies, the basic elements of an organization have been considered and finally attention was given to specialization. In the frame of this study where organisation theory is a means to understand library performance, but not an aim in itself, there seems neither to be a need to enter many more subjects of organisational
structure, nor a need to go into further detail on subjects discussed already. To conclude the discussion on organisational structure, hierarchies of structure will now be dealt with.

Hierarchies of organisational structure.

An organisation has been defined as a system of coordinated activities; members of the organisation all contribute to its functioning in order to efficiently meet the objectives of the organisation. The modern complex organisation is divided into many departments, functionally and interrelated grouped together. Coordination of interdependencies as well as a division of labour and specialization are conditions for rationality and efficiency. Rizzo observes the following:

Division of labor and specialization are the fundamental building blocks of organizations. They have implications for both vertical and horizontal dimensions of organizations. When a job is created, it can sit side by side with other jobs that are different. Each job has its own quality of contribution and responsibility. Direct jobs have different functions. This is the horizontal dimension of the organization. Jobs also have different prestige and value. Some jobs are considered more important and control more resources than others. There are differences in rewards which are partially explained by the nature of their controlling function. In this case, jobs are hierarchically ordered and contribute to the vertical dimension of the organization. [48]

Fugh et al. simply state:

Every work organization has an authority structure; that is, a system of relationships between positions or jobs described in terms of the authority of superiors and the responsibility of subordinates. [49]

A hierarchical system includes power: the manager of a department controls his or her subordinates, and since this manager is held responsible for good performance of departmental tasks, power is actually executed and subordinates have to do what the manager is demanding. This is an authority relationship of which Aldrich states:

An authority relationship is a power relationship which rulers — those imposing their will on others — believe they have a right to exercise power and most important, the ruled consider it their duty to obey. An authority relationship contains the element of reciprocity that is lacking in uncontrolled power relationships. [50]
The fact that a power relationship exists, does not mean that power will be exercised permanently. As long as subordinates do not object against orders given by their superiors, there is no need to exercise power by these superiors. It will only be used when a conflict arises, which is a conflict-oriented view of power, treating it in a processual rather than in a structural way. Walsh et al. have defined power in a conflict-oriented perspective as follows:

Power is the determination of outcomes by an individual or group in accordance with his/her or its values and/or interests in the face of opposition from other individuals or groups with opposing values and/or interests. [51]

In the frame of this study it would lead too far to deal much more with power in organisations. To complete the picture on power however, Walsh et al. can be quoted again, writing:

Power must be understood as operating in the context of an organization in which certain patterns of action will be inherited from the past, or where the characteristics of the organization are more or less conducive to value consensus or interest satisfaction. That is to say, the exercise of power, is more likely in some kinds of organizations than others. Manifest conflict is most likely in those ‘areas of discretion’ where no precedents have been established and accepted and where there is no commonly accepted pattern of organizational operation. A major concern will be the way in which one process of distribution of organizational advantage becomes transformed, over time, into another. [52]

There are limits however to authority and the execution of power resulting from it. If we consider the hunting organisation from the beginning of this chapter again, and assume that the organisation had grown to the extent that one leader executes authority over a number of hunting men, a limit in the execution of authority could be met when one day the leader asked one of his men to collect some herbs needed for the recovering of one of his children that had fallen ill. Most probably the man concerned would refuse to undertake this task, since it was not a part of the agreement on which the organisation was built. Authority within the organisation was accepted and agreed upon, but the execution of it outside the organisation was not accepted, it was not legal!

This leads to a consideration of legal authority, but before discussing legal authority, two other kinds of authority must be mentioned first:
Charismatic authority is unstable and depends on the whims and desires of the leader. This authority is limitless, since it is based on accepted magical powers and exceptional virtues of the leader. The death or removal of the leader leads to a crisis and possible discontinuation of the
organisation.

Traditional authority is of a patriarchal nature, since the leader claims authority based on tradition, like a squire of a county. Continuity is not a problem, since a new leader will be accepted after the death or removal of the former, as long as traditions and customs are maintained.

Legal authority is most commonly exercised in contemporary organisations. Leaders are appointed to exercise authority under fixed rationally established norms, strictly limited to areas of competence defined by law. This kind of exercising authority is very stable, since it is highly functional. The administrative structure under legal authority is called a bureaucracy, characterised by a belief in rules and legal order in performing organisational tasks.

Weber has recognized eight fundamental categories of rational legal authority that form the basis for his theory of bureaucratic organisation. These categories include:

1) A continuous organisation of official functions bound by rules.

2) A specified system of competence, involving obligations to perform functions in a systematic division of labour, the provision of necessary authority, and conditions of compulsion to be defined clearly.

3) The organisation of office follows the principle of hierarchy; that is, each lower office is under the control and supervision of a higher one.

4) The rules which regulate the conduct of an office may be technical rules or norms; for this specialist training is necessary.

5) As a matter of principle members of the administrative staff should be completely separated from ownership of the means of production or administration.

6) A complete absence of appropriation of this official position is needed for the incumbent, office orientation should only be to the relevant norms.

7) Administrative acts, decisions, and rules are formulated and recorded in writing, even in cases where oral discussion is the rule or is even mandatory.

8) Legal authority can be exercised in a wide variety of different forms, aiming at ideal types of officialdom or bureaucracy.

According to Weber the purest type of exercise of legal authority is that which employs a bureaucratic administrative staff. In a frame of everything being subject to norms of
reason, he explains how people should behave in an ideal organisation, emphasizing on hierarchical organisation with first clearly defined jobs to which people are appointed, not elected, second selection of personnel on the basis of technical qualifications and third performance of authority only according to written rules, while salaries must be fixed with rules for promotions. This leads to a formal equality of treatment, putting everyone in the same empirical situation. To Weber this is the spirit in which the ideal official conducts his office. [53]

Hummel has defined Weber's theory of bureaucracy as a strange new world, in which new species of inhuman beings will manage organisations, people behaving as machines as other organisational theorists have said. About bureaucratic action Hummel notes:

Bureaucratic action is not social action. Social action opens me up to the entire range of meanings and needs that relevant others try to convey, because only if I open myself up to as many of the meanings, connotations, and inner feelings that other attach to their actions will I be able to understand them, cooperate with the fully, fight them sufficiently - in other words, continue to exist with them in a shared social world. Such openness is forbidden in bureaucratic action, which follows its own rules to protect itself. It is a separate world and to break its rules is to threaten its boundaries. Against such threat, the bureaucratic world and those who have to exist within it defend themselves. [54]

In this sense he quotes Weber, who wrote on the transformation of social relations:

Bureaucracy is THE way of translating social action into rationally organized action. [55]

Weber has aimed at creating the ideal organisation by means of rational norms, leading to efficiency. Simon has considered the factors that determine the level of efficiency which is achieved by an administrative organisation starting from the individual within the organisation. He recognises two kinds of limits to the quantity and quality of his output, viz. limits on his ability to perform, and limits on his ability to make correct decisions. To the extent that these limits are removed, high efficiency may be approached by the organization. Rationality, according to Simon, is limited by skills, values and Knowledge of the individual in relation to the work to be performed and the decisions to be taken. First there are limitations in relation to skills, habits and reflexes beyond consciousness (e.g. those that are inborn), second there are limitations in relation to values and perceptions of purpose, related to loyalty to the organisation and third there are limitations in relation to Knowledge relevant to the job. [56]
These limits are variable limits, showing that the amount of compliance is not only related to enumeration as the classical theorists - including Weber - have suggested. It proves as the title of Simon's essay already suggests, that there are some further requirements of bureaucratic theory. In a journal-article Simon has shown another part of the complexity of the functioning of employees in organisations, viz. the influence people may perform on each other. Authority can be performed by means of influence. If for instance a person can be convinced that a certain order given is good for attaining the results that are part of his or her job to attain, the order will be carried out much better, than when the person at issue doubts whether the order is good for the performance of his or her task. It will lead too far to discuss at length the range of discretion Simon recognises; it will suffice to add that influence does not only concern orders given, but - more important - has also to do with decision-making by subordinates, while alternatives for the actual exercise of authority are information and advice. Simon finishes his article by attaching an importance to training, and competence as a result of training, and he then concludes:

Viewed from this standpoint, the problem of organization becomes inextricably interwoven with the problem of recruitment. For the system of influence which can effectively be used in the organization will depend directly upon the training and competence of employees at the various levels of the hierarchy. [57]

Bureaucracy is often considered as red-tape, an organisational structure that is very static, and where change is not permitted; it is thought of in terms of rules that must be followed without exceptions, where the rules themselves are much more important than the aims they serve (see the quotation of Hummel above). Of course there have been developments in bureaucratic theory, like those of Simon just mentioned, but when considering Weber's theory, it must be reminded that it has been developed for a closed model of organisations, where the environment of an organisation was taken as given, and factors in relation to this environment were taken as non-problematic. Given these conditions, Aldrich notes:

As a model for managing organizations, bureaucracy is unassailable. Given the proper set of conditions, leaders and administrators could do no better than to follow the recommendations implicit in Weber's description of bureaucracy; it is a technically superior instrument for accomplishing complex tasks. [58]

The reason why Aldrich nevertheless wants to open up the bureaucratic model of organisations, is that an open model of organisations, and of organisational change as a result of its openness, does not take the environment as given, but tries to deal with the uncertainty the organisation has to
face as a result of environmental influences. Particularly the last few decades the environment has an increasing influence on organisations. Before turning to organisational environment however, configurations of organisations should be considered first.

Thus far hierarchical structures of organisations have been discussed, paying attention to authority and power before turning to Weber's theory of bureaucracy and some developments of this theory afterwards. But bureaucracy is not the only possible structure of an organisation in order to perform if we consider the example of the hunting men in our early history again for example, accepting that this organisation had grown to the extent that one man was accepted by the others as the leader who gives his orders to the other men and whose orders are being obeyed, the organisation does not need any complex structural system, because it is too simple. The simple organisation just consists of one leader or manager executing leadership over his or her subordinates by means of direct supervision. If the organisation grows however, a division of work is necessary, and departments will be formed with their own goals, and the manager of the organisation does have the overall responsibility, but direct supervision is executed by heads of departments. The division of work by means of departments will be functional when each department is responsible for a portion of the needed activities of the organisation. Jelinek observes about this:

Functional organization identifies the key aspects of the task, and clearly assigns responsibility for them. It permits and encourages specialization around these key tasks. Its disadvantages, beyond suboptimization, include potential difficulties in work flow between and among departments, and information overload as top managers become overwhelmed with too many coordinating decisions. This form of organization specializes; its main problem is reintegration of the specialized, differentiated activities. [59]

In order to meet the disadvantages of information overload in organisations with a functional structure that have become too large for this structure, a divisional structure may be a solution, as this kind of structure delegates authority from top level to the middle line of the organisation, where each department is structured in a functional way. If an organisation becomes larger and more complex, efficient performance of its tasks demand formality that may lead to a bureaucratic structure as discussed above. The opposite of bureaucracy is the informal or organic structure as developed by Burns and Stalker. [60] Organisations accepting the organic structure rely on expertise and problem solving, rather than rules that have to be observed. It is results that count, and much flexibility assures possibilities for change, while motivation in an organic organisation is very high, since
employees have to take their own decisions in agreement with organisational goals, thus providing a freedom that may eventually lead to inefficiency.

In all structural forms of organisations considered so far each employee has to report to one person only. Of course line and staff functions may be recognised, line employees being included in the production process, while staff employees are advising, working with much more freedom than line employees; staff employees generally are specialists, concentrating on one single, small subject. But even when advantages of functional departments may be recognised within an organisation, sometimes project teams for temporarily or even permanent projects within the organisation may be needed, members of such project teams to be taken from several different departments, but at the same time remaining members of functional departments as well. This means that members of project teams have to report to the heads of those teams, and additionally to the heads of their own functional departments as well. This kind of structure is called the matrix structure. Matrix organisations have the advantages of more flexibility than for instance a bureaucracy, and more efficiency than an organic organisation, since rules are recognised. Members of matrix organisations pay simultaneous attention to two or more essential organisational tasks, meaning that their emphasis will not only be on departmental tasks. Jelinek notes:

The matrix form encourages a far more useful view of organizational realities, because it legitimates the sort of bargaining and negotiation that is essential when many goals - for instance, both output and resource goals - are to be met at once. It also encourages a general managerial viewpoint well down in the organization, where members see these alternate dimensions interacting and begin quite early in their careers to understand the trade-offs required. [61]

There is no one best structure for organisations. Depending on size, technology, and also environmental influences a structure will be developed that suits the organisation for the time being. When change occurs, another structure may be adopted or developed, depending on the needs and possibilities of the organisation at issue.

Organisational environments.

As indicated before, organisations have been functioning in a very stable fashion for ages in an environment characterized by stability and a slow change rate, since life went on very slowly, and as a result communications and transportation
processes for instance were very slow as well. Consequently quick decisions had not to be taken and environmental fluctuations could easily be anticipated; in short, organisations were hardly influenced by their environments. Consequently the classical writers of organisational theory hardly took organisational environment into account, since organisations were not much dependent on environment. Particularly after World War II human life has completely changed because of many technological and social factors, among other things, resulting in quick communications and transportation processes. In the turbulence of our time, life goes on very quickly, fashions disappear almost immediately after their appearance, and our future is more uncertain than ever.

In order to survive, organisations need stability for their transformation processes, because an organisation with a perfect technology, working under conditions of stability will produce an optimal result. Apart from the amount of perfection of their technologies however, modern organisations are being influenced strongly by their environments, and since these environments are not at all stable, the transformation processes of organisations have to be sealed off from environmental influences in order to reach a degree of stability necessary to perform and survive. Thompson has recognized four ways of protecting the transformation process of an organisation from influences of unsteady environment, each next way to be practiced if the former does not lead to acceptable results. These include:

1) Organisations may attempt to buffer environmental influences by surrounding their transformation processes, with input and output components, thus absorbing environmental influences. An example of buffering on the input side is stockpiling of materials and supplies acquired in an irregular market and a steady insertion into the production process. Buffering on the output side can be the maintenance of warehouse inventories and items in transit permitting the production of a constant rate, but distribution fluctuated with market conditions.

2) Organisations may attempt to smooth out input and output transactions to reduce environmental fluctuations, if buffering is not possible, or does not provide satisfactory results. As an example of smoothing input and output, travel-organisations can be mentioned offering reduced fare rates for holidays in off-season periods.

3) Organisations may attempt to anticipate and adapt to environmental changes which cannot be buffered or smoothed. The post office for instance can anticipate a heavy demand by the end of the year, and react to the anticipated large numbers of postcards to be got through during that period (e.g. by asking the public to post early, and by appointing additional employees temporarily).
Organisations may resort to rationing to protect their transformation processes from environmental fluctuations, when buffering, smoothing and forecasting do not lead to acceptable results. An example can be found in many libraries, where the number of books to be taken on loan at any one time often is rationed. There will however not become a moment when all books of the collection are taken on loan simultaneously, even if the number of users is very high. [62]

Thompson concludes with:

Rationing is an unhappy solution, for its use signifies that the technology is not operating at its maximum. Yet some system of priorities for the allocation of capacity under adverse conditions is essential if a technology is to be instrumentally effective — if active is to be other than random. [63]

Organisational environments can be divided into two levels: the general environment, and the task environment. The general environment can be considered to be society influencing organisations in a broad sense, but also being influenced by those organisations. Although the general environment does not have a direct impact on the functioning of organisations, this may change over time eventually, when organisations change their goals or policies and become to deal more closely with a segment of society that did belong to their general environment before. On the other hand changes in society (like the establishment of a new government, or a change in the educational system, etc.), may have an impact on the performance of organisations. Consequently the distinction between the general environment and the task environment is never static, but permeable.

The concept of task environment was first used by Dill, who stated:

By task I mean a cognitive formulation consisting of a goal and usually also of constraints on behaviors appropriate for reaching the goal. When we study the task element, we are focusing on the stimuli to which an organization is exposed. [64]

Osborn and Hunt have considered this conception, observing:

On the whole most analyses of the task environment place an emphasis on the organizations with which the system under analysis interacts. [65]

They prefer to view the influence stemming from broad movements in the culture separately from those emanating from the task environment and conclude:

Specifically, the task environment of a given organization consists of all those organizations with which it
must interact to grow and survive. ... The elements of the task environment are organizations. [66]

From interaction between an organisation and its task environment, environmental dependency can be understood. Considering customers and suppliers of organisations, but also government organisations, a dependency between these elements from the task environment of an organisation and the organisation itself is observed. And if for instance a business school is providing tailor-made programmes to train managers of a given organisation, it can be observed that interdependency between this organisation and this business school exists by means of a process of exchange. Zey-Ferrell has written:

Organizations function in conjunction with their environment, both receiving inputs from this environment and producing output for the environment to consume. Thus, there is an exchange process between any organization and its environment. As the focal organization interacts with the environment to secure resources, it becomes dependent on the environment. Reciprocity is established as the focal organization reciprocates by supplying resources necessary for the survival of its environment. Because reciprocity is binding, the obligated organization gives up some decision-making autonomy. This process of reciprocity consists of both conflict and cooperation. Environmental dependency is the degree to which a system relies on specific elements in the environment for growth and maintenance. [67]

In order to discuss further implications of relations between organisations and their task environments, attention must be paid to environmental dimensions related to the nature and distribution of resources and elements of task environments. Aldrich recognises six dimensions of environments:

1) Environment capacity (rich/lean): the relative level of resources available to an organisation within its environment. If this capacity is rich, much competition must be faced, since other organisations will be attracted by a rich environment. If this capacity is lean however, efficiency in the use of resources is necessary to survive.

2) Environmental homogeneity-heterogeneity: the degree of similarity or differentiation between the elements of the population dealt with, including organizations, individuals, and any social forces affecting resources. (It can be observed that unlike Osborn and Hunt, Aldrich recognises individuals and any social forces affecting resources as elements of the task environment next to organisations.) A small set of operating routines may suffice with homogeneity thus simplifying organisational
activities. Heterogeneity on the other hand can often be troublesome, leading to complexity and intra-organisational conflict.

3) Environmental stability-instability: the degree of turnover in the elements of the environment. In a stable environment organisations will be able to standardise routines and develop fairly formalised structures. In an environment of instability problems of adaptation are most severe when internal retention mechanisms are strong and there are few established procedures for responding to change.

4) Environmental concentration-dispersion: the degree to which resources, including the population served and other elements, are evenly distributed over the range of the environment or concentrated in particular locations. The position of an organisation in the environment becomes important in the selection process when elements are concentrated rather than dispersed, since little organisational learning is possible, if resources are randomly distributed, but strategies for exploiting the organisation's position can be worked out, if resources are concentrated in identifiable units.

5) Domain consensus-dissensus: the degree to which an organisation's claim to a specific domain is disputed or recognised by other organisations, including governmental agencies. Aldrich describes a domain as an area of operation, of which Thompson has noted:

Domain consensus defines a set of expectations both for members of an organization and for others with whom they interact, about what the organization will and will not do. It provides, although imperfectly, an image of the organization's role in a larger system, which in turn serves as a guide for the ordering of action in certain directions and not in others. [68]

Domain consensus involves negotiation, mediation, compromise, but also conflict, since organisations attempt to capture a domain by differentiating themselves from other organisations with highly similar goals.

6) Environmental turbulence: the extent to which environments are being disturbed by increasing environmental interconnection, and an increasing rate of interconnection. Turbulence can be conceptualised as an increase in potential as well as actual linkages. Increasing interconnection leads to externally induced changes in the nature of environmental selection criteria, produced by forces that are obscure to administrators and therefore difficult to predict or plan for. [69]

From this discussion of environmental dimensions of organisations the interdependence between the organisation and its
Environment is even more clear. Of course these dimensions can never be considered alone, they are interconnected. Consider for instance an organisational environment with a rich capacity and concentrated resources. This may well lead to much competition and interorganisational conflict. Conflict is not possible without interdependence, because without interdependence there is no connection and hence no basis for conflict. Conflict and interdependence can determine the uncertainty an organisation confronts, where uncertainty can be viewed as one outcome of other environmental dimensions. Pfeffer and Salancik observe:

Uncertainty is determined by the level of forecasting capacity of the organization at a given point in time; as forecasting techniques improve, uncertainty diminishes. Uncertainty itself is not problematic. It is a problem for organizations only when the uncertainty involves important interactions with other environmental elements that are important for the organization. Uncertainty is only problematic when it involves an element of critical organizational interdependence. [70]

Duncan has studied environmental uncertainty in order to place it in a logical framework so that it can be operationalised more effectively in the future. As an outcome of his research three components of uncertainty are recognised:

1) the lack of information regarding the environmental factors associated with a given decision-making situation,
2) not knowing the outcome of a specific decision in terms of how much the organization would lose if the decision were incorrect, and
3) inability to assign probabilities with any degree of confidence with regard to how environmental factors are going to affect the success or failure of the decision unit in performing its function. [71]

When discussing organisational theories above, coalitions in relation to organisational goals have been considered. It has been argued that uncertainty can be reduced by forming coalitions, since participants need to be in a permanent process of exchange. But apart from coalitions formed by organisational participants from one organisation, coalitions of support can also be formed between different organizations, or between subunits of different organisations. When such a kind of coalition is formed, both parties may benefit from supporting each other. But the respective goals of these parties need not be shared by both of them. Pfeffer and Salancik have observed:

An important dimension, then, of the establishment of coalitions is that there is no requirement for the participants to share vested interest or singular, paramount goals. Anything that justifies a participant's involvement is sufficient from an organizing point of view. [72]
The establishment of coalitions between organisations, or between subunits of different organisations, is a kind of organizational co-operation. Co-operation is a strategy of an organization to manage external dependencies directly, by interaction, as a means to deal with environmental uncertainty. Bedeian recognises these three kinds of co-operation:

1) Bargaining - referring to direct negotiation between organisations for the exchange of goods and services.

2) Co-opting - the process of absorbing external elements into the decision-making or policy-determining structure of an organisation as a means of averting threats to its stability of existence.

3) Coalescing - the combination of two or more organisations for a single purpose, requiring a mutual commitment for joint action. Examples include mergers, joint ventures, etc. [73]

There is a great deal of research undertaken on organisations and their environments. It is beyond the scope of this study to deal with all specific research undertaken on the subject. As far as organisational environments are concerned, discussion will follow on two environmental models that have been developed for a better understanding of the relationships between organisations and their environments, and the nature will be considered of relations between organisations and their environments before turning to the subject of organizational communication.

The first model to consider is the population ecology model of which Aldrich has summarised:

The population ecology model, based on the natural selection model of biological ecology, explains organizational change by examining the nature and distribution of resources in organizations' environments. Environmental pressures make competition for resources the central force in organizational activities, and the resource dependence perspective focuses on tactics and strategies used by authorities in seeking to manage their environments as well as their organizations. The three stages of variation, selection, and retention constitute a general model of organizational change, which explains how organizational forms are created, survive, or fail, and are diffused throughout a population. [74]

This population ecology model can be characterised as a "survival of the fittest". The second model, the resource dependence model, explains how organisations achieve a fit with their environments. Bedeian has noted:
As active and outgoing systems, organizations are characterized by the resource dependence perspective as maneuvering to locate themselves in their competitive surroundings so as to be able to minimize their resource dependencies and adjust their strategic postures whenever environmental conditions change. Organizations, as noted, are limited in the resources they can create internally. Consequently, in the case of critical and vulnerable resource dependencies, they are subject to uncomfortable uncertainties. It follows that, to reduce such uncertainties and check their dependencies, organizations will attempt to gain some degree of control over external sources of supply. This typically requires that they engage in strategic activities with other organizations within their environment to ensure continued survival. [75]

Both models put an emphasis on the importance of examining environmental characteristics and dependencies to understand organizational structure. Environmental characteristics however are also subject to organizational design, and to understand this, the nature of relations between organizations and their environments must be studied. One of the earliest studies in this field is undertaken by Burns and Stalker [76], who identified two types of organizations: mechanistic and organic, dependent to a large extent on the relationship between the organisation and its environment. Mechanistic organisations are characterised by precise definitions of tasks and responsibilities, centralised control and authority, and functional specialisms. Organic organisations are characterised by interaction of tasks, decentralisation of authority and responsibilities, and a dynamic task approach. Mechanistic organisations perform in a fixed and stable environment, while organic organisations perform in a changing environment to which the organisation must react with flexibility and adaptivity. Zej-Ferrell concludes:

Burns and Stalker did not argue that one type of system was more effective than the other, but that each was more effective in a given environment. In highly stable and predictable environments, where market and technological conditions remain largely unchanged over time, the mechanistic system is the more appropriate organizational design. Because the environment is highly predictable under such conditions, it is possible to routinise tasks and centralise decisions (a bureaucratic structure) in order to maximize efficiency and effectiveness. On the other hand, where the environment is in a constant state of flux and where an organisation has to change direction constantly to adapt to its environment, an organic system is more appropriate because of added flexibility and adaptability. Here change in environmental conditions produces uncertainty in the decision-maker's ability to predict the organization-environment relationship, resulting in a non-
bureaucratic structure (decentralization and de-emphasis on rules and procedures) to maximize efficiency and effectiveness. The role of organizational decision-makers then becomes one of understanding environmental conditions and adapting organizational structure to meet and exploit such conditions. [77]

Lawrence and Lorsch have been viewing organisational environments from the perspective of functional subunits of an organisation, each concentrating on a particular sector of the relevant external environment. They have developed a theory of differentiation and integration [78]. In an article published in the same year as their book, these definitions are given of the conceptions:

Differentiation is defined as the state of segmentation of the organizational system into subsystems, each of which tends to develop particular attributes in relation to the requirements posed by its relevant external environment....
Integration is defined as the process of achieving unity of effort among the various subsystems in the accomplishment of the organization's task. Task is defined as a complete input-transformation-output cycle involving at least the design, production, and distribution of some goods and services. [79]

With the segmentation of the organisation that is undergoing a whole task, Lawrence and Lorsch recognise three basic subsystems: the sales subsystem, the production subsystem, and the research and development subsystem. They continue:

In this division of tasks the organization is also ordering its environment into three sectors: the market subenvironment, the technical-economic subenvironment, and the scientific subenvironment. It is readily apparent that each of these environments can range from highly dynamic to extremely stable. The importance of this variability can easily be obscured by the usual approach of thinking of an organization's environment as a single entity. Here, each major subsystem was seen as coping with its respective segment of the total external environment. It was hypothesized that each subsystem would tend to develop particular attributes which would be predictably related to characteristics of its relevant external environment. [80]

Their main research findings - as quoted by Bedeian - are:

Organizations operating in highly diverse and uncertain environments were more differentiated than those operating in less diverse and more stable or certain environments. A high degree of integration was needed to bring together an organization's various differentiated functional subunits in achieving effective performance.
Internal mechanisms should be more elaborate when the focal organization is highly differentiated and integration is, hence, more difficult. However, when the functional subunits in the organization are not highly differentiated, less elaborate mechanisms appear to work quite well. [81]

Bedelian concludes:

On balance, Lawrence and Lorsch's findings imply that there is no universal best way to design an organization. The specific design of an organization or subsystem must match (fit) its environment. Successful organizations are those which are able to diagnose and meet environmental requirements for differentiation and integration. Thus, appropriate patterns of structure vary and are contingent upon the conditional relationship between an organization and its environment. Lawrence and Lorsch's findings are consistent with those of Burns and Stalker. That is to say, both suggest that consideration of the environment in which an enterprise functions is of importance in selecting an appropriate structure for achieving organizational success. [82]

Organisational communications.

Communication is an important means to transmit information within the organisation. If the example of the two hunting men from the beginning of this chapter is considered again, it is clear that they would not have been able to agree on how the hunting actually should be done, if there had not been any communication between them. Opinions could be expressed and considered and as a result of this a decision could be taken. Many other examples could be given to show the importance of organisational communications. Barnard has written about this:

In an exhaustive theory of organization, communication would occupy a central place, because the structure, extensiveness, and scope of the organisation are almost entirely determined by communication techniques. [93]

In the example communication was very simple. The two men simply discussed a strategy for the hunting. Even when the organisation had grown to the extent that one leader ordered his men what to do, communication was still simple by means of shouting orders from a point where the leader could overlook the whole field, e.g. from the top of a tree. Modern organisations however, often are very complex and consequently have a complicated communication network.
Three kinds of communication flows can be recognised in organisations:

Vertical flows of communication are basic needs for the functioning of an organisation. This kind of communication can be intradepartmental including information transfer within a department between superiors and subordinates, but vertical flows of communication can also be interdepartmental, including information transfer between two departments of an organisation that are hierarchically ranked. In addition there are two ways of vertical communication: downward flows are normally used to command and instruct, while upward flows have a control function that may include performance feedback. Zey-Ferrell observes:

Generally the rate of communication flow moving down the structure is greater than that moving up the structure. Intentional blocks often confront communication flowing up the network, whereas persons at higher level have the right to communicate information downward, which means fewer blocks in the communications flow. [84]

Horizontal or lateral flows of communication can be intradepartmental - between peers - and interdepartmental - between departments of equivalent status - as well. Apart from communications between two departments as complete units however, information is also transferred between members of different departments. Lateral communication is typically coordinative, because it deals with the flow of work most of the time. Additionally Bedelian notes:

Since horizontal communication takes place primarily between persons of equal or nearly equal status, it tends to be less threatening, more accurate, and faster than vertical communication. [85]

Diagonal flows of communication cut across hierarchies and can exist between any member of any department and any other member of the organisation. Most diagonal communications exist between members of line departments and of staff departments however, thus being advisory in nature, since the main function of staff employees is advisory. As a result of this staff employees perform a greater communication activity than line employees, giving them an unofficial source of power in the communications between line and staff employees.

There is another distinction to be made between kinds of communication: formal communications and informal communications. Formal communications include all official and work-related communications that perform on three ways: written communications, oral communications face-to-face, and communications by telephone. (By means of technical equipment there are other kinds of communications as well, like broadcasting, but these need not be considered.) Informal communication is very important and does exist within any organisation. Informal communication can be either work-related or not work-related and exercises a lot of
power. In the words of Mintzberg:

Centers of power exist that are not officially recognized; rich networks of informal communication supplement and sometimes circumvent the regulated channels; and decision processes flow through the organization independent of the regulated system. [86]

Informal communication may supplement formal communication, because it may explain why an official message was produced, and what it really aims at. Nobody can be held responsible for informal communication (also called the lobby, or the grapevine in the USA, originated during the civil war when telegraph lines were strung between trees to resemble wild grapevines in order to be concealed). The fact of non-responsibility means that one will feel free to communicate informally, resulting into the provision of information that otherwise might not be transmitted, but there also is a negative side, since it is difficult to object against informal misinformation. Bedeian observes:

The prime function of the grapevine is to disseminate information which is of interest to employees (both managerial and nonmanagerial) and relevant to their needs. The grapevine derives its existence from employees' social and personal interests rather than from formal organization requirements. [87]

Bedeian then continues by listing these advantages over formal communications: the grapevine is fast, accurate, efficient, and fulfills employee needs.

Communications that are not work-related can also be considered as informal communications. These include all personal relations existing between members of the organisation at any level. These communications are important from the view of human relations and may create a good atmosphere within the organisation, leading to good performance.

If human behaviour in relation to communication is considered, communication barriers will be observed due to individual feelings of sympathy or antipathy, differences in communicational skills, misunderstandings due to different meanings attached to words, distrust, personal status, etc. Since however human behaviour is beyond the scope of this study, suffice it to mention that communication barriers due to human behaviour do exist.

As one of the ways of performance of communications, written communications have been mentioned above. Different kinds of written communications can be recognised however, aiming at different purposes. Ellon has recognised six categories of written messages:

1) Routine report: a message providing information as part of a regular procedure.
2) Memorandum: a message that provides information, but not as a part of a routine procedure, to be divided into statements and comments.
3) Inquiry: a message asking for information to assist in evaluating a given situation, usually prior to making proposals for decisions.
4) Query: a message stating the nature of a problem and asking for instructions or for proposals about courses of action.
5) Proposal: describes a decision that the writer suggests should be taken.
6) Decision: a message that specifies the action to be taken.
   This can be of two kinds:
   1) A decision that affects recurrent events,
   2) A decision on an ad hoc problem. [88]

Recognition of these different categories of written messages can be useful when it is decided to start coding messages according to categories within an organisation. By this classification messages can be structured for better control and information supply.

An individual can process and absorb a limited amount of information only at any given time. Particularly during the last few decades the amount of information to be processed by individuals has been increasing permanently. As one of the results from this, the problem of information overload has become more and more serious, and methods had to be found to face this problem. If there are only peak periods of information overload, queuing may help; the processing of the information then will be delayed, but only temporarily. When the peak period is over, arrears can be made up again. When the information overload is not temporary however, not restricted to peak periods, the establishment of parallel information channels through authority decentralisation may be considered, or advise from staff specialists to relieve overloaded line channels. A third method is filtering, where the processing of information is based on a scheme of priority and certain types of information are filtered out to be dealt with by others. In respect to filtering gatekeepers must be considered, of whom Mintzberg has written:

At the crossroads or "nodes" of the channels of informal communication are the "nerve centers", the individuals who collect information from different channels and switch it selectively into them. Certain staff specialists emerge in this capacity due to their access to a wide variety of line managers at different levels of the hierarchy. Others so emerge because they are "gatekeepers", controlling the flows of important external information into the organisation. [89]

Dealing with information flows in laboratories, Allen and Cohen define the technological gatekeeper as follows:
Individuals who occupy key positions in the communication network of the laboratory, that is, those to whom others in the laboratory most frequently turn for technical advice and consultation, will show more contact with technical activity outside of the laboratory. [90]

Technological gatekeepers thus are key people in relation to organisational communication. Since people ask them for advice, they get a lot of information and with information overload, they can be used to screen or condense information. They are also useful to the organisation, since they maintain contacts with the changing organisational environment, and consequently be able to provide information on that environment.

Organisational innovation.
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Organisations perform, but if modern organisations are to survive over time, they need to adopt to changing environments, new technology, and developments in human relations. In addition to this new strategies must be developed in relation to goal attainment. This means that organisations have to consider change rather permanently, or in the words of Bedeian:

Change is a universal and continual aspect of all organizations. A complex and multidimensional process, it is an integral part of organizational functioning. [91]

Margulies and Raia have formulated the importance of change as follows:

Change is with us, is likely to be an integral part of our way of life, and is likely to be a critical factor for most practicing managers in most organizations. [92]

Change can be of two kinds: an internal adjustment within the organisation to better functioning of a single unit for instance, or innovation that includes something new to the organisation. Zaltman, Duncan and Holbek have defined innovation as:

any idea, practice, or material artefact perceived to be new by the relevant unit of adoption. [93]

On innovation in general they note:

The innovation can precede and cause social change, or it may be developed in response to needs created by social change. There is a continuous and dynamic
interaction between new ideas, practices, and products on the one hand and social structure and function on the other hand. Innovations can create social change, and the subsequent social change can bring about additional innovations that can react back upon altered structures and/or functions which brought them into existence or which influence other aspects of the organization. New ideas can originate from within or from without the social system. [94]

The adoption of any innovation is a process with different stages, each of which includes decision-making, but ultimately it must be decided whether or not to innovate. Zey-Ferrell recognises five stages of the innovation process:

1) Awareness and information - Before initiating innovation, organisational decision-makers must be aware that there is a need to innovate first, and accordingly have to recognise a performance gap, a discrepancy between what the organisation could do in relation to goal attainment, and what it actually does. Different alternatives must be considered for which information must be obtained.

2) Evaluation and decision - Once a performance gap has been recognised, all relevant information must be evaluated in order to be able to reach a decision as to which method of dealing with the performance gap will most efficiently and effectively reach the desired organisational objectives. This stage may be long and need many social, economic, and political considerations.

3) Initiation - After the decision to innovate has been made, decisions must be made in relation to the trial run, for which new employees with the required knowledge and skills must be found, new technology adopted if required, and new procedures developed to make the programme operable. During this stage possible resistance against the innovation must be dealt with as well.

4) Implementation - When the initiation stage has been successful, then the innovation will likely be implemented. Even if many problems have been dealt with during the initiation stage, there still are many others to deal with during the implementation stage, because flexibility is required if the organisation is to make adjustments, and stability in order to function regularly with the addition of the new programme, while the organisational structure and processes must be adjusted to the innovation. Zey-Ferrell also observes:

Subsequent to the implementation stage, the innovation must be evaluated. If resistance or conflict is too great, the organizational decision-makers may feel the noneconomic costs of the change outweigh its benefits, making it undesirable to continue the program. Also, the
Program's efficiency and effectiveness must be evaluated after the implementation. Economic costs must be re-evaluated. Further complications are brought on by the fact that the method of evaluating a new program may itself be new, which calls for further innovation and change. [95]

5) Routinization - After implementation and evaluation, resulting into the decision to retain the programme, it must be institutionalised, or routinised. When this is completed, the programme is no longer new, but an accepted part of the organisation. [96]

Innovation is very complex as can be concluded when considering these five stages of innovation. Every small step must be discussed and possibly defended, considering all consequences, before it can be implemented, while the implementation itself may raise problems as well. But if the organisation decides not to innovate, the performance gap that was recognised, and from which innovation was considered, may grow to the extent that innovation is not possible any more, goals will not be attained as they did before, and the situation will get worse until the organisation has to cease its activities. Those who have to take decisions have a difficult task to perform, because their decisions may have consequences in relation to organisational survival. Tichy calls it a challenge when considering an innovation task, writing:

The challenge for managers of change is to recognize that the task is best represented as a dynamic jigsaw puzzle with pieces needing to be aligned with each other. These pieces are never perfectly aligned. They require ongoing attention and adjustment. How much adjustment depends on some of the factors in the organization's economic, political, and cultural environment. [97]

The environment is very important in relation to the process of innovation. Since not only the organisation is affected by its environment, but the environment is also affected by the organisation, organisational innovation may influence the environment as well. Zaltman, Duncan, and Holbek observe:

The interaction between the organization and its environment is crucial to the innovation process. The organization continually must obtain several kinds of information from the environment. First, it must determine the kinds of outputs the environment seeks that may require innovation to be more readily received by the environment. Second, it must discover the kinds of technology or means that may be required to produce the innovation - what are other organizations doing, are there existing innovations that the organization might adopt to facilitate in response to these needs? Third,
once the organization does in fact implement the innovation, is the innovation effective in meeting the demands of the environment? Here it is necessary for the organization to get feedback from the external environment. [98]

The interaction does not only exist however between the organisation as a whole and its environment, but also more differentiated between subunits of the organisation and the environment of those subunits. Lorsch has noted:

Any organization design has to permit differences between subunits. These differences in design are necessary, our research indicates, because they encourage the behavior that is required for the members of each unit to deal effectively with the specific nature of their part of the environment. The members of each unit must develop differential patterns of behavior and ways of thinking consistent with who they are and what tasks they must perform in dealing with this particular part of the environment. [99]

Under the heading of organisational theory, coalitions were discussed when dealing with subunits. Coalitions may very well be included into the innovation process, since they are innovative by character; they produce change to the participants of the coalition. Consequently participants of coalitions may be prepared to adopt innovation, making the implementation of an innovation much easier. There are other ways however to prepare for innovation. Hutchinson has noted:

Organisations can encourage innovation to surface if they provide supportive climates and structures. Actually much of the organization structure should be compatible with the development of innovation but very few firms take the time needed to set up structures appropriate to the development of latent innovative talents. One relatively recent approach to developing innovation is the "new venture" or "new business" group. The particular entity is not designed to develop new products, nor is it related to the ongoing research and development effort; rather it focuses on new ideas or businesses and the encouragement of people in the firm to develop new ideas within the firm rather than taking them outside. [100]

Although new ventures typically can be found within business organisations, the idea does not exclude non-profit organisations, and can become a kind of supplement to a research and development department, but with the emphasis on considering new ideas immediately to see what possible benefits the organisation may eventually obtain. Working on new ventures will be on an ad hoc basis, but unconditionally.
Organisations perform and have to adapt to any change either from within, or from without the organisation, if they are to survive. If developments can be forecasted, innovative processes can be started early, which has the advantage of an early adaptation. As a final remark Bedelian will be quoted, writing:

Organizations are not determinate entities but dynamic systems continually interacting with the larger world of which they are a part. [181]
CHAPTER 2

THE INVESTIGATION.

Selection of business school libraries.

As indicated in the introduction, it is impossible to investigate all European business school libraries. A selection thus had to be made, for which the decision has been based on the following considerations:

1) Only libraries of schools providing at least postgraduate management education will be included.

2) In relation to the organisational forms, as many kinds of business school libraries as possible must be included.

3) It is advisable to include libraries from a fair number of countries.

4) Libraries of different sizes must be included.

5) Given the comprehensiveness of the investigation, the number of libraries to investigate must be limited.

6) Since the investigation will take some time for each library, it is advisable that all librarians of these libraries are interested in the subject in order to be willing to spend so much time on it.

As a result of this ten libraries were selected, to which two more libraries were added afterwards as their inclusion would provide a more complete picture of the functioning of European business school libraries. These two libraries are those in Norway and Scotland.

The final result of the selection shows the inclusion of the libraries of these schools:

- Three in England: London Business School and Manchester Business School, being the two centres of excellence as proposed by Lord Franks in 1963 [102], independently attached to the Universities of London and Manchester respectively, and Henley, the Management College, being a private organisation.

- Two in France: Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires and the Ecole Supérieure des Sciences Économiques et Commerciales, both independently attached to the Chambers of Commerce of Paris and Versailles respectively.
- Two in Scandinavia: the Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus in Denmark and the Norges Handelshøjskole in Norway, both independent public schools of economics and business.

- One in Scotland: Strathclyde Business School, a rather independent faculty of the University of Strathclyde; its library is a separate department of the main university library.

- One in Ireland: The Faculty of Commerce of the University College Dublin; the library investigated is the social sciences section of the Main Library.

- One in Switzerland: International Management Institute, an international and private organisation.

- One in Italy: Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale, a faculty of the University of Turin.

- One in the Netherlands: Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde, an interuniversity institute, independently attached to four Dutch universities. (From September 1994 this institute has been merged in the Erasmus University Rotterdam.)

This result shows twelve libraries from eight countries (Scotland being a part of the UK) including public as well as private organisations, smaller as well as larger libraries, and all libraries being members of the European Business School Librarians' Group, which means that they all know each other. All schools provide at least postgraduate management education.

There are other libraries of European business schools however, that have been considered for inclusion in this study, but they have not been included for different reasons. These include the libraries of the following schools for the reasons indicated:

- British Institute of Management in London, United Kingdom. (At the time of considering it was located in London, it has moved to Corby in 1994.) Although dealing with management, this is not a school, but a national organisation that serves business organisations of the whole country, which distinguishes this institute from business schools apart from the absence of any teaching.

- Handelshøjskolan i Stockholm in Stockholm, Sweden. This school is very similar to the schools from Denmark and Norway that are included into this study; two Scandinavian schools are enough to get a good picture of the whole region.

- Helsingin Kauppakorkeakoulu in Helsinki, Finland. This is another Scandinavian school very similar to those mentioned above and consequently not included for the same reason.
- Hochschule für Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaften in St. Gallen, Switzerland. This is rather a school of social sciences than a business school and accordingly its library performs much more as a university library than as a business school library. One could argue that the University College Dublin of which the social sciences section of the main library has been included into this study, deals with social sciences as well. This is correct, but this section of the main library shows a kind of performance similar to business schools (an emphasis is put on company information for instance), which is not the case with the library of the school in St. Gallen.

- Institut d'Administration des Entreprises de l'Université de Droit, d'Economie et des Sciences d'Aix-Marseille in Puycard, France. This is a faculty of a university, not particularly different from some of the schools that are included into this study. Another consideration has been that it does not seem to be a good balance to include a third school from France. Included are four schools from the United Kingdom, but first there are many more British than French business schools, and second three complete different kinds of British schools have been included. London and Manchester Business Schools are very similar indeed, but as two of the main business schools in Europe, they had to be included.

- Institut Imede in Lausanne, Switzerland. This is an international school like the International Management Institute in Geneva that is included in this study.

- Institut Européen d'Administration des Affaires in Fontainebleau, France. This is another international school; one international school is enough to include in this study, in particular since there is only a small number of international business schools in Europe.

- Oxford Centre for Management Studies in Oxford, United Kingdom (from October 1984 renamed: Templeton College). This school can be considered as a rather independent faculty of the University of Oxford. An investigation of the library of this school would not provide information not found in other schools.

After having decided not to include the libraries of these eight schools, most of which are also members of the European Business School Librarians' Group, the production of a small questionnaire in addition to the main one was decided on, in order to get additional information from libraries not included in this study, to complete the European picture. This small questionnaire will be returned to later on in this chapter.

The reader may wonder about Germany. McNay has called Germany "the bete-noire of management educators." [103] Germany does
not have the kind of business schools to be found in most European countries and accordingly no German schools have been considered for inclusion into this study.

Investigation of the libraries.

As discussed in the introduction, the method chosen to investigate the libraries is the survey method by means of a combination of actually observe the libraries and the way they are functioning, and a questionnaire to be dealt with in an oral interview. About this kind of investigating Line has written:

The visitation is in fact an individual combination of the techniques of observation, interview, and questionnaire on a small scale. Sometimes the information wanted cannot be obtained in any other way. If, for example, the investigator wants to know how well a library is organized, he cannot ask the librarian, and no existing data will tell him, though they may offer broad hints. [104]

The experience with this method of investigating has been very positive. It turned out to be possible to investigate a business school library in one to three days fairly thoroughly.

The empirical part of this study was started by writing a circular letter to the librarians concerned asking for their co-operation. All librarians approved to co-operate and were informed about the intention to pay visits to all libraries included one after another.

After that the questionnaire was sent to each librarian some months before the intended investigation and information on the school and the library was asked for to collect. As a result most librarians did actually look at the questionnaire beforehand, and very often brochures and other information were waiting when the visit to the library was actually paid.

The first library investigated has been the HandelshojsKolen i Aarhus in Denmark, which - apart from the actual investigation - also was used to test the method and find out whether the answers to the questions of the questionnaire could provide the information looked for. This Danish library was started with because first it is one of the bigger libraries included in this study (which means that all questions would be dealt with) and second the Danish way of life is very similar to that of the Dutch, which means that the risk of misunderstanding would be reduced to a minimum. With the experience acquired it would become easier to investigate libraries in countries with a complete different
way of life, like France, Italy and Switzerland.
The result of this first investigation has shown that - apart
from a few minor changes - the questionnaire turned out to be
clear enough to be used for the investigations of the other
libraries, and it was also felt that the results of this
first investigation could be called satisfactory.

Most investigations have started with a quick tour of the
library provided by the librarian who explained briefly where
the different services can be found. From this a first idea
of the library and the way it functions could be acquired.
The interview consisted of the questions of the
questionnaire. Sometimes it turned out to be necessary to
actually look at some services in more detail, sometimes a
discussion came out of a single question. Other members of
the library staff have sometimes been talked to in order to
complete the picture of the library and of its staff as well.
Some librarians even suggested dealing with one of the senior
staff members of the library for some of the questions, since
it would provide a second view on library policy for
instance.

The questions of the questionnaire have been divided into six
main headings, while some of these headings have been divided
into sub-headings. As a result of this the frame of the
questionnaire is the following:

A. THE INSTITUTION.
   1) General.
   2) Organisation.
   3) Education.

B. THE LIBRARY.
   1) History.
   2) General.
   3) Location and organisation.
   4) Policy.

C. EFFECTS ON LIBRARY POLICY.
   1) Acquisitions.
   2) Indexing.
   3) Information systems.
   4) Reader services.
   5) User evaluation.

D. SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS.

E. EUROPEAN BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIANS' GROUP.

F. FUTURE POLICY.

The complete questionnaire will be found in the appendix.
A. THE INSTITUTION.

In order to understand the total performance of a business school library, it is essential to deal with its parent organization first. Under this heading questions are included to acquire a general idea of the functioning of the schools.

1. General.

1) When was the School established and by whom?
2) Why was it established?
3) How was it established, are there similar schools in the country? where?
4) When did the educational programmes start, and what did they include?
5) Is the School a private or a public institution, or is it partly government sponsored?
6) What is the general objective of the School?
7) What is being done to fulfill this objective?

These questions aim at acquiring a general idea of the school, providing a little history and some general information.

2. Organisation.

8) How is the School organised, what is its structure?
9) Are the main managerial positions permanent, or a result of regular elections?
10) Who is taking policy decisions, and how can these be influenced?
11) What are the main responsibilities of those who hold managerial positions (Director, Dean, Chairperson of a Department, etc.)?

The organisational structure of the school turned out to be difficult to explain by the librarians, who did not always know all details that were asked for and often officers of the school had to be consulted for information. The results however have been satisfactory by providing an insight of the organisation, worth the efforts put into it.

12) What can be seen as the general policy of the School?
13) Is there a democratic process of decision-making; how does it work?
14) How is the general budget divided?

These questions aim at acquiring some additional information as far as the organisation is concerned. Some librarians have found it difficult to distinguish between the general objective and the general policy of the school.
3. Education.

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15) Does the School provide postgraduate and/or undergraduate education, and what educational programmes are being provided in this respect?
16) Does the School provide post-experience education, what educational programmes are being provided in this respect?
17) Is there any additional education being provided which?
18) Is there anything particular in relation to education or training worth mentioning?

In order to get a complete picture of a school, an enumeration of educational programmes including their levels is necessary. These questions aim at acquiring this kind of information.

19) What kind of research is being undertaken?

Two main kinds of research can be recognised: first research undertaken by academic staff members of the School in order to develop their knowledge and contribute to the development of the different sciences the School deals with; second the so-called contract-research that has been developed within the last few years. Contract-research is self-financing by means of a contract between the School and another organisation that has approached the School - or one of its members - to undertake research on a given subject for which this organisation will be charged, but it will profit from the results of this research. (The School has to report to that organisation). The aim with this question on research is to be informed whether both kinds of research are being undertaken by the School.

20) What are the numbers of teaching staff, research staff, undergraduates, postgraduates and post-experience course participants?

To complete the picture of the School, it is useful to know its size.

B. THE LIBRARY.

This part of the questionnaire deals with the management of libraries; it aims at obtaining information on the different aspects of library performance and forms the main part of the investigation.

1. History.

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21) What has been the reason to establish a library within the School?
22) Was it established immediately after the foundation of the School, or later, and why?
23) When did the library start?
24) How did it start?
25) What services were originally provided, and how did it actually work?
26) What services have been built up since, and why?

As a kind of introduction to the library, it is useful to know something of its history very briefly. It may be important to know what services were built up first.

2. General.

27) What are the objectives of the library?
28) What is the hierarchical position of the library within the organisation, to whom is the librarian responsible?
29) What is the status the library has obtained within the School, and how did it get this?
30) Is there a difference in view between the objectives of the library as seen by the librarian, and those recognised by the management?
31) Does the librarian feel that the objectives as he/she sees them are taken into account by the management?
32) Is there a library committee, who are its members, and what are its duties and responsibilities?
33) Does the library have its own budget, and does it include personnel?

These questions aim at acquiring a general idea of the library, its place within the organisation and how well it is recognised. Question number 31 is perhaps too direct; no librarian will ever admit that the management of the parent organisation is not in the least interested in what he or she is doing or intends to do. Given the fact however that the questions have been dealt with orally, there have been opportunities to discuss the matter in order to get a more extensive reply than yes (or no). Generally these questions turned out to be useful, the answers have provided information that has been satisfactory to get a general idea of the library.

3. Location and organisation.

34) How is the library located within the organisation?
35) Does the library have locational problems, what are these?
36) Are there any main departments in the library easy to recognise: which?
37) Are all services to be recognised from a locational view?
The way a library is located and how the available space is used is very important. Many books have been written about physical planning of libraries and many librarians have very firm ideas about how a library should be planned. In practice however the available space is a given and most of the time one has to adjust to a given situation. Since librarians often have to moderate their pretentions as a result of given situations, not surprisingly some librarians apologised about the way their libraries are located, explaining how it could have been if more space had been available. From these explanations together with the actual performance, including the answers given to the questions of the questionnaire, it has been able to get a clear picture of the location of the libraries.

38) Does the library have special collections, what collections?

Special collections can be important and may influence the policy of the library.

39) What are the opening hours of the library, and what are the total numbers of books, periodical subscriptions, readers' places, accessions for last year, loans for last year?

Very often libraries are being accessed mainly by their numbers of books, of periodical subscriptions, etc. This is very one-sided and does no justice to the libraries in question. By keeping this in mind however, statistical information may give an insight in the size of the library and for that reason it may be useful to know.

40) Is the library open to the public; why or why not?

There are different reasons why a library is, or is not, open to the public. In the frame of total library performance it is important to know the reasons.

41) How many staff are working in the library (actual number and full-time equivalent)?
42) How is the staff divided among the different services?
43) Does the library have functional specialists, how many, what are their specialisations?
44) Does the library have subject-specialists, in what subjects?
45) How can the staff be divided according to levels of actual work?
46) Are there members of staff being paid by external resources; by whom, and to what extent?

These questions aim at acquiring an insight into the library staff, mainly factual.
47) Does the library have external resources as an addition to the library budget, what resources?

If a library has substantial external resources, this may influence its policy, particularly in relation to acquisitions.

48) What classification is being used?

49) Is the librarian content with the classification system used?

These questions have been included because the classification system may influence library performance, particularly if the librarian is not content with it.

50) What is the present policy of the library, how was this developed?

This question is important, since many questions that will follow will refer to the answer to this question. It has turned out that some librarians have difficulties with policy. In some occasions the difference between objectives (the general aims of the library) and policy (the way upon which the librarian and his or her staff seeks to attain the library's objectives) was not clear to them, and even after an explanation was given, it turned out to be difficult to some librarians to deal with the concept of library policy. Consequently the questions related to library policy had to be explained in more detail to some librarians.

51) What flows of information can be recognised within the organisation, and how does the library deal with them?

Organisational communications are important, also in relation to the library, since the library must obtain information first before relevant information can be provided. Nevertheless this question turned out to be one of the most difficult to be replied.

52) Is there a co-operation with the library in relation to the educational programmes, to what extent, and how?

53) Does the librarian, or other members of the library staff, provide education or training on the use of the library or something similar?

54) Is it known in the library what research is being undertaken, and what services are prepared to meet research needs?

The relation between the library and the education provided, as well as the research undertaken by the school may have a major influence on library policy, although very often this
is not the case. In order to get a picture of the library's policy, it is important to know what kinds of relations there are between the library and the education and research of the school.

55) What influences do the different services have on the general policy?

If a library service influences the policy of the library, it certainly is a main service. This question has been included in order to obtain additional information on the services the library supplies.

56) Does the library have obligations in relation to the national network of libraries? What does it include?

External obligations may influence library policy; the answer to this question may help to acquire a complete picture of the policy of the library under study.

57) Does the librarian feel that the objectives of the library can be fulfilled?

Even if this is a leading question, useful information can be obtained if the answer will be explained.

C. EFFECTS ON LIBRARY POLICY.

Under this heading five main subjects are dealt with as an empirical evidence of library performance. Five main subjects that together include all main services a library has to offer. The aim with this part of the questionnaire has not been to obtain information on library administration. In the frame of this study the interest is not in HOW services are being supplied, but much more in WHY they are being supplied. Library services have been started and developed to fulfill the objectives of the library, and these services are a result of library policy. By means of this empirical evidence, the policy of the library can be much better understood.

1. Acquisitions.

58) Who selects materials for acquisitions?
59) What criteria are being used for acquisitions?
60) Can readers make suggestions for acquisitions, and how will these suggestions be met?
61) How can the acquisitions be seen as part of the library's policy?

Acquisition policy forms the collection of the library. It is important enough to know in what way libraries build their collections. These questions aim at acquiring this kind of
Information.

62) How is the budget divided among books, periodicals, etc.?

63) Are there separate budgets for special collections?

64) If there are no separate budgets for special collections, what percentage of the library's budget is being spent on these?

65) Does the library have additional income, where does it come from, and how is it being spent?

These questions deal with finance with special emphasis on special collections in order to find out partly what importance is attached to special collections. Since the money spent on a service is not the only way to understand its importance however, no final conclusions can be drawn from financial figures only.

2. Indexing.

66) What indexing is being done in the library apart from the main cataloguing?

67) Why is this indexing being done, and whom is it aimed at?

68) Why and when have these services been started?

69) How can they be seen as part of the library's policy?

70) How often are they being evaluated, what is being done with the results of those evaluations?

Indexing - apart from normal cataloguing - is an important aspect of library performance. To do indexing is a policy as such and it has been observed that many librarians attach a certain importance to it. An index that is produced by a library for its own readers was started because a need was felt or expressed. As a result of this readers will be grateful and interested once the index is being produced for some time. It is a service of which results can actually be seen, which may influence the importance librarians attach to it.

3. Information systems.

71) What services are being provided in addition to the main and obvious services as a result of the policy, and how is this related?

The answer to this question will provide an insight in library policy, since additional services will have been started for a special reason as a result of the policy. Some similarities of the libraries investigated have actually been indicated as the result of this question, since many librarians have mentioned information supply as an important
and additional service. This may have been influenced by the heading of this part of the questionnaire, but despite this, it still shows a similarity of library performance that is remarkable.

72) Does the library have on-line facilities for literature searching, whom are these services provided to?
73) Do readers have to pay for on-line searches, are they being charged for the total costs?

These questions deal with new technology as far as bibliographical information is concerned. They mainly aim at facts.

74) What SDI-services are being provided and why?
75) Are there any services to individuals, what kind of services?

It is not unimportant to know what information services by means of the provision of direct information with a continuing element a library provides. Together with other elements it completes the picture of the policy of a library.

4. Reader services.

76) What kind of enquiries are not dealt with, and why not?

This question has been included in order to find out the limits of enquiry handling.

77) Have any special locational arrangements been made to meet the needs of readers as a result of the policy?

Although most locational arrangements obviously will have been made to meet the needs of readers, some special ones might have been added as a result of library policy.

78) What groups of readers does the library recognise?
79) Is there a distinction between the different groups of readers in relation to library services provided?
80) If there is a distinction made between the different groups of readers, does it include a different general approach?
81) Are there limits to the number of books taken on loan, and why?
82) Are inter-library loan services open to all readers?
83) Are there other libraries in the neighbourhood to be used by your readers?
84) If the library has subject specialists or functional specialists, whom do they serve?
These questions deal with readers and possible privileged groups of readers in order to find out the policy approach in relation to readers.

85) Does the library provide regular guided tours, to whom, what do these include?
86) Does the library have tape-slide presentations on the use of the library?
87) Does the library have a library guide, how often is it updated?
88) Does the library have other library publications to assist readers with their needs; what publications are these?
89) Does the library intend to produce new library publications shortly?
90) Is there any other general approach to readers?
91) How does the library deal with new readers?

There are different ways of general reader approach, aiming at the explanation of services the library has to offer. Apart from this the library's policy can be better understood if it is known which of these approaches are being used by a particular library. In addition new readers are interesting in this respect. Many librarians are considering new academic staff members of the school as new readers only.

92) How can the general or specific approach to readers be seen as a result of the library's policy?

Of course every approach to readers is part of the policy of any library, but a specific approach will serve a special purpose and an explanation of library policy in this respect may help to complete the picture of the policy of a library.

5. User evaluation.
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93) How is user evaluation done in the library?
94) How does the library obtain information on user satisfaction or dissatisfaction?

These questions are rather general, but the answers to them will provide essential information on user evaluation including those done in the past.

95) Is it known what readers think of guided tours?
96) Is there a kind of evaluation on tape-slide presentations?
97) Is it known whether the library guide is clear to readers, whether they use this information, and what they think of it?
98) Is there any other general user evaluation?

On-going user evaluation will be explained by the answers given to these questions.
99) What results can actually be seen from guided
tours, tape-slide presentations, library guides, or
from other general approaches to readers?

100) What does the librarian feel about these services?

101) How does the library deal with user criticism?

The results of user evaluation are usually not surprising;
yet it may be important to know what the results are, and
what the librarian feels about it. In this respect
information on user criticism may complete the picture.

102) Is the library prepared to change services as a
result of user evaluation, and to what extent?

103) How can user evaluation be seen as part of the
library's policy?

These questions have to do with the consequences of user
evaluation and on library policy in relation to user
evaluation. The answers will show the importance attached to
user evaluation.

D. SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS.

Countries differ in relation to culture, traditions, way of
life, etc., and consequently this might influence library
policies by means of readers approaches. The questions under
this heading aim at finding out whether differences can be
observed in this respect.

104) How can the policy of the library be seen as part
of the culture, traditions, way of life, etc. of
the country?

105) Is there a kind of reader's approach in this
respect distinguishing this library from those in
other European countries?

106) What are the differences between this library and
libraries of business schools in other countries?

107) Is it felt that readers are different from those in
foreign business schools; what are these
differences?

108) Does the library have foreign readers (visiting
staff, visiting students, etc.), and in what way
are they different from readers of your own
country?

The librarians of the libraries investigated for this study
have found it difficult to deal with these questions.
Differences between European readers and those coming from
other continents can be observed and some characteristics in
relation to these differences could be mentioned by some
librarians, but inter-European differences turned out to be
difficult to describe, even if it is recognized that e.g.
Italians are certainly different from Irish people.
E. EUROPEAN BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIANS' GROUP.

Since this study aims at evaluating libraries of European business schools, it is obvious that some questions are included on library co-operation particularly co-operation within the European Business School Librarians' Group. This group performs a unique practical library co-operation on a West-European scale, and all libraries investigated are members of this Group.

109) When did the library join the EBSLG?
110) What does the librarian think of the library's membership?
111) What are the advantages of this membership for the library?
112) What has been the most useful event, paper or service of the EBSLG for your own library?
113) Can the membership of the EBSLG be seen as part of the library's policy; how?
114) Does the policy of the EBSLG influence the library's policy; to what extent?

These questions aim at acquiring information on how the membership of the EBSLG is actually appreciated in relation to benefits to the respective libraries, and to what extent this membership may influence the library's policy.

F. FUTURE POLICY.

In order to understand the present performance of a library, it is important to know what forecasting policies have been developed. Librarians must look ahead if they are to provide services by responding to readers' needs, either expressed or unexpressed. The questions of this final part of the questionnaire aim at acquiring information on future library performance.

115) Is it thought or known whether the library's policy will change in the near future, why will this happen and what will it include?
116) Will the library start new services or extend present services in the near future?
117) Is there any short-term or long-term planning?
118) Are there any objectives that cannot be fulfilled yet, but perhaps will be in future?
119) Will it be possible to strengthen the position of the library within the organisation in the near future?

The first few questions under this heading deal with future planning and policy; the answers will provide an insight on what the librarian actually intends to do within given limitations.
120) Will the library reduce services with a continuing economic recession?
121) What will be the policy with a continuing economic recession?

If library budgets will be reduced due to a continuation of the economic recession, the provision of library services has to be reduced as well. By finding out on what services will be cut then, the importance attached to services can be ranked very roughly.

122) What would the librarian want to do if it were possible?

Librarians may wish to improve services already provided, or start new services without getting the opportunity to do so. In order to complete the picture of library policy, it may be informative to know what librarians would do if it were possible.

123) How can co-operation within the EBSLG be improved?
124) How does the librarian think that other libraries can help improve the services of the library?

These questions have to do with the improvement of library co-operation, within as well as without the European Business School Librarians' Group. The answers to these questions may provide useful information.

125) What would an ideal business school library look like?

Although this question should not be related to their own libraries, many librarians nevertheless have been answering to this question in relation to their own positions. The aim has been to find out what librarians consider as the most important if they were to start a new business school library tomorrow.

Working up and feedback.

After every investigation of a business school library, three kinds of resources could be made use of for the working up:

1) The answers given to the questions of the questionnaire.
2) Brochures and other written information received about the School, together with library publications and other information about the library.
3) Impressions of the School and its library.

Because of the third part in particular, the working up had to be done shortly after every investigation in order not to
forget important elements or details. As a result of this a report on each library has been produced shortly after the investigation of that library. All these reports show the same frame as the questionnaire with the same headings and sub-headings. The average number of pages is twenty. Each report includes information taken from all three kinds of resources mentioned above. The aim of producing these reports has been two-fold: - to use all information acquired as an input to this study. - to report to the libraries concerned and ask for their comments in order to correct possible mistakes. Because of these aims a reasonable amount of objectivity could be attained, but for a few exceptions where personal opinions were expressed on purpose in order to get reactions. All reactions from the librarians have been taken very seriously, and action was taken accordingly.

Three kinds of reactions have been observed:

- Misunderstandings of the text. The text then was read very carefully again, and if possible a few alterations were made. Not many misunderstandings have been observed.

- Mistakes in the reports themselves. The text then was revised and when the revisions included more than a few words, a revised edition of the whole report was produced and sent to the library in question. This has happened to five reports, but there has been no need to make major alterations to any of these.

- Misunderstandings of the status of a report. A few librarians have asked to change some sentences not because of the contents, but because of the outlook. If possible without actually changing the text, alterations have been made in such a case, but it also was explained again what the purpose had been with the production of these reports. Although it was never said, the impression was given in one or two occasions that changes were suggested in order to show a formulation that would be recognised by the management, or a library committee of the school in question. These suggestions have not been followed, mainly because the reports are written without being ordered and are not aimed at convincing the management or a library committee of any school on any subject.

In general the reactions on the reports have been very positive and the librarians all liked to have received a report on the management of their own libraries. As far as this study is concerned; the information from these reports has been used for the chapters to follow.
Additional information.

In order to complete the picture of European business school libraries, information on library performance of business school libraries excluded from the investigations were thought to be useful. As indicated before, it was decided to produce a small questionnaire that was handed out to the librarians concerned at the 15th meeting of the European Business School Librarians' Group, held in Henley-on-Thames, UK, June 1983. The purposes this questionnaire aimed at were explained then and the librarians were asked to answer the questions within two months. A covering letter was accompanying this questionnaire. To those who had not yet responded a reminder was sent in September 1983 asking to respond to this questionnaire as yet. The total result shows a response of 9 out of 10, of which two turned out to be of no use, since only some factual information was provided without answering the questions.

This small questionnaire includes the following questions:

A. The institution.

1) What is the general objective of the School?
2) What is being done to fulfill this objective?
3) How is the School organised, what is its structure?
4) What kind of education is being provided?

B. The library.

5) When did the library start, and how did it start?
6) What are the objectives of the library?
7) What is the status the library has obtained within the School, and how did it get this?
8) Does the library have special collections, what collections?
9) What are the opening hours of the library, what are the total numbers of: books, periodical subscriptions (excluding annuals), readers' places, accessions for last year, loans for last year?
10) Is the library open to the public? why or why not?
11) How many staff are working in the library (actual number and full-time equivalent)?
12) Does the library have functional specialists, how many, what are their specialisations?
13) Does the library have subject-specialists, in what subjects?
14) What is the present policy of the library, how was this developed?
15) What flows of information can be recognised within the organisation and how does the library deal with them?
16) Does the librarian feel that the objectives of the library can be fulfilled?
C. Effects on library policy.

17) How can the acquisitions be seen as part of the library's policy?
18) What indexing is being done in the library apart from the main cataloguing?
19) What services are being provided in addition to the main and obvious services as a result of the policy, and how is this related?
20) What kind of enquiries are not dealt with, and why not?
21) What groups of readers does the library recognise?
22) How is user evaluation being done in the library?
23) How does the library obtain information on user satisfaction or dissatisfaction?
24) Is the library prepared to change services as a result of user evaluation and to what extent?

D. Special characteristics.

25) How can the policy of the library be seen as part of the culture, traditions, way of life, etc. of the country?
26) What are the differences between this library and libraries of business schools in other countries?

E. European Business School Librarians' Group.

27) When did the library join the EBSLG?
28) What does the librarian think of the library's membership?
29) What are the advantages of this membership for the library?

F. Future policy.

30) Will the library start new services or extend present services in the near future?
31) How can co-operation within the EBSLG be improved?
32) How does the librarian think that other libraries can help to improve the services of the library?

In general the aim of acquiring some information on European business school library performance in addition to the main information obtained by means of the investigation, has been fulfilled. Information by means of answers to the questions of the small questionnaire has been obtained from the libraries of these institutions:

- British Institute of Management, London, UK.
- Hochschule für Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaften, St. Gallen, Switzerland.
- Institut d'Administration des Entreprises de l'Université de Droit, d'Économie et des Sciences d'Alx-Marseille, Puyricard, France.
In relation to the answers given to the questions, these conclusions can be drawn:

1) In general the information acquired has affirmed the impression of European business school library performance.

2) None of these libraries provide a kind of service that is not to be found within the libraries included into this study.

3) By responding the librarians have put an emphasis on facts, being the easiest kind of information to supply.

4) To a few librarians some questions turned out to be too intricate to understand without any explanation, e.g. nr. 7 on the status of the library, nr. 15 on information flows within the organisation, surprisingly nr. 22 on user evaluation and nr. 25 on policy in relation to characteristics of the country.

5) As has also been observed when visiting the libraries included in this study, the difference between objectives and policy is not always clear to librarians.

Given these conclusions, the final consideration has been that none of these libraries should have been included into this study because of any particular and interesting development not to be found in other libraries. The additional information from these libraries thus can be seen as a justification of the selection of libraries that was made for inclusion into this study.
BUSINESS SCHOOLS IN WESTERN EUROPE.

European management education.

Management education started a little more than 100 years ago only, when in Philadelphia, in 1881, the first American business school was established: the Wharton School of Finance and Economy. Many more business schools were founded in the U.S.A. afterwards resulting in 166 in 1951 at a time that European management education had hardly started. About the development of American management education, Ansoff, after determining that in its original conception management was regarded as an art, which is still held by many people, has noted:

From its inception, American industry began to develop the art of management through on-the-job training. A typical pattern of preparation for higher responsibility was to rotate a manager through lateral assignments (a practice not followed in the European management culture). As firms grew and required continual input of new managers, special training programs were designed for initiation of novices into the work patterns and culture of the firm. But the apprenticeship route was a slow, if effective, process. It was not teachable outside the real working environment. As a result, it required diversion of managers from their primary tasks, incurred the cost of their time and of the apprentice’s errors, and disrupted smooth functioning of the organization.

A substantial improvement in the effectiveness was offered by a learning approach called the case method. Adapted early in this century from a very similar approach to the study of law, the case method signaled the first important step away from art toward more structured knowledge of management. Unlike later approaches, the case method did not seek to explain management. Instead, it provided a distinctive methodology for studying simulated managerial situations. The written case simulated the real-world problem settings and made possible repeated student exposures in the classroom without disruption of ongoing operations within the firm. The student could learn and correct his mistakes without penalizing organizational effectiveness. [105]

In Europe, many schools of economics were founded in the early part of this century, and devoted part of their courses
to subjects relevant to management. In France commercial training started in 1881; in the United Kingdom the first postgraduate management course of its kind was offered by the Manchester College of Science and Technology in 1926, but in general high-level management courses were not accepted in Europe before World War II.

As still is the case at some places, management has long been considered as an art, not a science. You are either born to become a manager, or you are not, and if there are perhaps some skills that could be learned, this can only be on the job. Speaking for the United Kingdom, Doyle has noted:

Unlike America, business education started in non-university settings with the provision of post-experience courses. British firms, however, have always been sceptical of formal education in "business" and have failed to place much value on the professional qualifications awarded by these colleges. As a result, the colleges neither attracted outstanding students, nor provided much enthusiasm for dynamism for the development of management education in this country. [107]

In addition to this Kubr can be quoted, who has written in co-operation with others:

It is, of course, absolutely true that even the best management education cannot replace experience and that competent managers will never be produced in schools. But this applies to all professions. [107]

The universities for their part did not recognise management as an academic discipline, and consequently did not start with management education until recently. In 1973 McNay observed:

Many universities, particularly in continental Europe, have not yet accepted management as a respectable subject particularly when taught at post-experience level, and of those who have, many have been "dragged kicking and struggling into the Kingdom of heaven". [108]

After World War II the need for postgraduate management education grew out of major changes occurring in the business world. As a result of industrial concentration, giant multinational companies were formed and organizations became much more complex than they had ever been before, while facing a growing competitive environment. At the same time the increasing decentralisation of European firms and the emergence of new managerial specialisms resulted into the need that was felt for managers who had been trained more formally. Post-experience training courses did not meet all the needs that were felt and commercial training at undergraduate level is certainly not sufficient to face the problems of a modern and complex organisation. In addition to this, good results for the business world were shown by the
American practice, where business organizations appointed people with a MBA for managerial positions. The American business school thus became a model for postgraduate management education in different European countries, like France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. One of the first European business schools created on an American model is the Institut European d'Administration des Affaires (INSEAD) in 1958, inspired by the famous Harvard Business School founded fifty years before. INSEAD is an international and private school, situated in Fontainebleau, France. In Lausanne, Switzerland, a kind of department of Harvard Business School was founded not long afterwards by means of the Institut IMEDE.

In the United Kingdom, two reports have mainly influenced the start of postgraduate management education. The first of these, published in October 1963, was the Robbins report [109] proposing for the immediate founding of six new universities, but also identifying the management education gap, making a first recommendation on the establishment of postgraduate business schools. Only one month after this, Lord Franks published his famous report, recommending for the establishment of two business schools of high quality, to be associated jointly with the London School of Economics and Imperial College of the University of London, and the other with Manchester University. [110]

As a result of this report London Business School and Manchester Business School were founded, and many other schools have been established afterwards of which Strathclyde Business School in Glasgow is worth mentioning. Today management education at postgraduate level is generally known, but not always accepted: Wills has written:

Existing schools of management have for years been criticised as too academic, too remote from reality, especially those in the university sector. [111]

Through the years the former students of these schools will hopefully prove that this is not true, providing that business firms are willing to appoint these business graduates for managerial positions.

Still there is much scepticism and the management-as-art view is still widely held in the United Kingdom. Thomas has observed:

The management-as-art view placed the sole authority for the selection and promotion of managers in the hands of business. Only existing managements and, ultimately, top managers could identify: those who were eligible for admission to and advancement in managerial hierarchies, and only they could provide the conditions in which the experience could be obtained. [112]

Post-experience courses were much more easily accepted by the business world, than postgraduate education, because the selections for post-experience courses are made by business
organisations mainly (people are sent to courses), while students are not normally sent by business to study management) they consider and decide on it by themselves.

A few words must be devoted to co-operation between different West-European countries. In 1952 the International University Contact for Management Education was established, aiming at the improvement of management education in Western Europe and international co-operation at university level. Its office was in Delft and afterwards in Rotterdam, both in the Netherlands. Its members came from business firms as well as from the academic world all over Western Europe. Conferences were held regularly at different places and each conference was particularly devoted to management education and development in one particular country.

In 1956 a documentation bulletin was started, called "Documentation on Books", in which newly published books in the different subjects related to management were announced, with indicative abstracts added to each title. It was published monthly and distributed to all members of the International University Contact for Management Education. In the course of 1967 the International University Contact for Management Education ceased to exist. In 1968 however the European Foundation for Management Development was founded in Brussels as its successor, again with members from business and the academic world. It has organised annual conferences for its members ever since it started, each devoted to actual problems in the field of management education. Documentation on Books has been continued by the Library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde in Delft, the Netherlands, on behalf of the European Foundation for Management Development. Documentation on Books is published monthly and distributed free to members of the Foundation, while non-members can subscribe to it.

In 1983 a brochure was produced as a result of inter-school co-operation, in order to market a two-year MBA at seven European business schools. Among other things it reads:

Management education in Europe has now developed its own identity, in our view one more suited to the needs of the European economic environment.

Recognition of the quality of education provided has been firmly established and graduates of European management schools have an increasing influence at the highest levels. [113]

Today management education is provided by business schools that often are incorporated in universities, as faculties, or have strong links with universities. This is not the case with all of them however. Yet there are main distinctions between management education and education in other academic disciplines. This has not always been the case; before the mid-sixties the majority of management programmes was directed towards education in the usual academic disciplines.
making use of traditional teaching methods. In so far as programmes were directly orientated towards business, the teaching was in economics and mechanical engineering mainly. Still it is often thought that management is similar to business economics. Management education now is different however from the education in any other academic subject and consequently business schools differ from university faculties of other disciplines in many respects. Three main characteristics of management education can be recognised:

First, management education is multi-disciplinary, or even inter-disciplinary, making use of the knowledge of a number of basic sciences. Lupton has observed about this:

The business school MBA course is a continuation of university education but with the emphasis shifted from the learning of a special discipline, as at undergraduate level, e.g. psychology, physics, economics, to a more vocational orientation. This requires that many disciplines are involved at a necessarily more elementary level. The student in a university business school at any level would not expect to become a professional lawyer, economist or sociologist. Rather he would wish to be introduced to those parts of a number of disciplines and professional techniques which are thought to be essential to the "tool-kit" of the efficient modern manager. [114]

Second, management education does not aim at being purely academic. Lord Franks already stated:

Business management is an intelligent form of human activity, not intellectual nor academic, but practical in nature. [115]

Much later Doyle has noted:

The goals of a business school are professional rather than academic. The objective is to instil problem-solving and decision-making skills rather than pursue knowledge for its own sake. Such an objective requires methods of teaching radically different from that which has been developed by university departments. [116]

Third, teaching methods are different as indicated by Doyle. The most well-known teaching method, taken over by many European business schools is the case method of instruction, developed by the Harvard Business School. A case study is defined as:

Presentation, sometimes in conjunction with role playing, of ingredients of true or synthesized situations to develop judgement and know-how in trainees who individually or as a group, evolve possible solutions. [117]
Another teaching method typical to management education is the start from so-called problem areas, a functional approach where a business problem is looked at from the point of view of various basic academic disciplines. This method is practised at the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde, Delft and at the Manchester Business School, among other schools. Finally the part-time MBA and the MBA by distance learning must be mentioned as teaching methods. A part-time MBA is being provided by several British business schools, the MBA by distance learning was first launched by Strathclyde Business School in Glasgow, Autumn 1983, and is based on the use of video in business organisations or at home. These new developments do have implications on the performance of the schools that have started these new provisions.

This brief introduction to management education will be finished by quoting Whitley, Thomas and Marceau, who have observed:

One of the most striking aspects of business schools is their claim to be preparing the business leaders of tomorrow. Although the schools may now be more cautious in making such claims, there can be little doubt that many of those who were involved in the founding of these institutions saw them as training grounds for the corporate controllers of the future. The business schools may thus be considered as potentially key institutions in the reproduction of the business elite. [118]

The nature of business schools.

Business schools are academic institutions. As indicated in the introduction of this study, business schools are considered to be educational institutions providing at least postgraduate management education to which post-experience courses and training may be added. Management has been accepted at last as an academic discipline and many business schools offer degrees at Master's level or above in different European countries, that are recognised by the academic world, even if the teaching methods are less traditional than in other disciplines as outlined above. Formal relations exist between business schools and universities; many business schools are even part of a university.

Business schools are organisations. The definition of an organisation as defined by Wright and quoted in chapter 1 of this study (page 27) reads:

An organization is a contrived open system of coordinated activities by two or more participants to achieve a common goal or goals [23]
A business school certainly is a contrived open system of co-ordinated activities by means of educational programmes at different levels that have been developed, while research activities are co-ordinated as well. An open system or natural system is subject to unpredictable influences; since business schools try to adopt their educational programmes to the changing needs of both the profit and non-profit sectors of society, they can be considered to be open systems. It is obvious that there are many participants by means of academic and administrative staff as well as support staff in any business school. The goal or goals of these schools are generally to provide management education and undertake research in the managerial sciences. Since these two goals – however broadly defined here – are common goals, it can be concluded that business schools fit Wright's definition of an organisation and consequently can be called organisations.

Business schools are non-profit organisations, aiming at the provision of educational services. Differences can be recognised between business schools in relation to how they are financed, but no business school is aimed at making a profit. The fees that must be paid for post-experience courses, for example, are high, but these fees have to cover the actual costs of the courses and perhaps make possible the development of new courses in the future, but no more. A profit is not aimed at.

Even if institutions other than business firms are mentioned by organisational theorists in books and journal-articles, their main concern is business organisations that are part of the profit sector of our society. One could wonder about this, even if it could be argued that good managers are more likely to secure organisational survival than bad managers and that survival is an aim typical to profit organisations. Formerly managers were mostly trained on-the-job, ready in business; most participants to post-experience courses in management come from business; the International Management Institute in Geneva was established by (Canadian) business. Even if the public sector needs managers as well, even if a number of MBA-students go into public service institutions after their graduation, management has to do with business very often and accordingly writers on organisational theory and practice seem to aim at business organisations most of the time. In the introduction to her book "The reality of organizations", Stewart has written:

Managers in the public sector are becoming increasingly aware that they too have organizational problems. [119]

This seems to indicate that the public sector was never paid attention to (in 1970, when this was written). In 1973 Drucker has written in an article on the public service institution:
In most respects, the service institution is not very different from a business enterprise. It faces similar — if not precisely the same — challenges in seeking to make work productive. It does not differ significantly from a business in its "social responsibility". Nor does the service institution differ very much from business enterprise in respect to the manager's work and job, in respect to organizational design and structure, or even in respect to the job and structure of top management. Internally, the differences tend to be differences in terminology rather than in substance. But the service institution is in a fundamentally different "business" from business. It is different in its purpose. It has different values. It needs different objectives. And it makes a different contribution to society. "Performance and results" are quite different in a service institution from what they are in business. "Managing for performance" is the one area in which the service institution differs significantly from a business. [120]

A business school can be considered as a service institution. It provides education to business, as is obvious from its name, but very often this comprises both the private and the public sectors and both profit as well as non-profit businesses. Its organisational structure is comparable with that of a faculty of a university even if some business schools are more autonomic than university faculties, while others are faculties of universities with differences in autonomy as well.

The policy of a university faculty is often dealt with by a Faculty Board that may consist of elected members of the teaching staff. It means that those who hold managerial positions within the faculty, combine this with working on the production side (viz. the teaching to students) of the organisation. This kind of structure is impossible in a business firm. It must be mentioned however that the overall policy of a university faculty does not rest with the Faculty Board, but with a University Board in which representatives both from inside as well as from outside the university are appointed or elected. Similarly a business school often has a Board or Council with representatives from business organisations to deal with policy matters of the school. Some of these Boards or Councils have an advisory function, others take decisions on the overall policy of the school. The administrative part of a university faculty however normally shows the kind of hierarchy to be found in many organisations, with a Director supervising different administrative departments, each with its own chief.

University faculties normally are divided into departments, each of which is dealing with one special section of the science the faculty deals with.
Business schools show three kinds of departmentalisation:

1) Subject departments.
   Given the sciences that serve as a basis to the study of management, business schools may have departments related to these sciences, like a department of economics, of law, of mathematics, of psychology, of sociology, of technology, etc.

2) Functional departments.
   Management can be divided into functional sections and consequently business schools may have departments of finance, of personnel, of organisation, of marketing, etc.

3) Integrated departments.
   Since a business problem can be studied from different points of view, each of which may contribute to its solution, business schools may have integrated departments, like a department of organisational sciences, of information sciences and of policy sciences.

Most probably business schools with subject departments only do not exist anymore. Schools in Scandinavian countries show a combination of subject departments and some functional departments as well, and so do schools in France and Italy. Many schools in the United Kingdom have functional departments, while integrated departments exist in the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde in Delft, the Netherlands, and London Business School and Manchester Business School, both in the United Kingdom.

Business schools do have many more contacts with non-university profit and non-profit organisations, than traditional university faculties. This is felt essential since the schools are to educate the managers of to-morrow, or provide training courses at post-experience level to people from many kinds of organisations. These contacts with the task environment are often of a practical nature, e.g. by means of consultancy, or the initiation and organisation of conferences on topics of current interest to business people. Thompson has observed about task environments:

The relationship between an organization and its task environment is essentially one of exchange, and unless the organization is judged by those in contact with it as offering something desirable, it will not receive the inputs necessary for survival. [121]

The relations between a business school and its task environment do not only consist of services provided and developed by the school by means of programmes offered, the organisation of a conference now and then, etc., but there is an active exchange between many business schools and their task environments, e.g. with the provision of tailor-made management development programmes, which are planned and
constructed by the school in collaboration with business organisations. As a result of all this business schools are often considered as not sufficiently academic by universities if contacts with non-university organisations have become close, or too academic by non-university organisations if there are not enough contacts of this kind. Lupton has observed:

Business schools are already in a considerable way engaging in joint activities with other, non-university organisations. This has arisen by pressure from outside that business schools concentrate their efforts and skills more on the problems of organisations and their managers, and less on traditional university concerns. [122]

Business schools seem to be in-between the business world and the academic world, in-between practice and theory, trying to become fully accepted and appreciated by both worlds for the programmes they are offering as well as for the research they are undertaking. This often turns out to be difficult. Doyle concluded in 1974:

The business schools were envisaged to be operated as a partnership between the universities and business. For various reasons, the schools today are to all intents and purposes part of the university system. The weaknesses attached to this position are likely to encourage the schools to seek a more equal partnership in the next stage of their development. [123]

It may be concluded that relations between business schools and both the academic world as well as the business world have been improved during the last decade. The schools have been able to show what graduates from these schools are educated for, given successful starts of many careers of former students after their graduations. By means of contract-research the firms contracted for research undertaken by the school, from which those firms will profit, have recognised a value in addition to educational teaching for management degrees. The universities for their part have observed the results by means of published books, journal-articles, research-papers, conference papers, etc. of research undertaken by members of business schools, and have recognised its academic quality in many cases. Many business schools are now well known by what they consider their task environment: universities and business organisations.

An important characteristic of business schools is that they have to adjust to changing needs much more than traditional academic faculties. As an example of this the attention given to small business by many business schools can be mentioned. As a reaction to the development of giant multinational corporations, many small business firms have been established as needs were felt, and since these firms have to face
completely different problems, business schools have been developing programmes or parts of degree-programmes in order to respond to the needs of this kind of firms, particularly at the level of post-experience education and training, but also in MBA-programmes this subject is paid attention to.

Kinds of business schools.

A division of business schools into different kinds is possible in different ways. One could think of a geographical division, e.g. by country, which means that a comparison of business schools in different European countries is excluded beforehand. Another division that could be considered is to divide business schools in relation to their amount of independence. The best way to divide business schools into different kinds however is in relation to how they are financed. Three kinds of business schools can be thought of with this division: private schools, public schools and schools that are partly government-sponsored. This division makes it possible to observe distinctions in relation to independency and geographical location as well, by means of sub-divisions that can be made.

Private business schools can be sub-divided into international schools and other private schools.

International business schools are business schools with staff and students coming from many countries. An example of this kind of business school is the Institut Européen d'Administration des Affaires in Fontainebleau, France, better known by its abbreviation: INSEAD, founded in 1958 as a European school aiming at creating a new kind of European manager. Another international business school is the International Management Institute in Geneva, Switzerland, whose mission is not European, but world-wide indeed.

Many private business schools can be found in the United Kingdom, where they mainly provide post-experience courses at different levels. The eldest and most well-known of these is Henley, the Management College in Henley-on-Thames, providing postgraduate management education as well in collaboration with Brunel University at Uxbridge. Another example is Ashridge Management College in Berkhamsted.

Public business schools can be sub-divided into university faculties and independent schools of economics and business.

Business schools that are faculties of universities may differ in many things, but they share a final responsibility of their highest authority to the Senate of the university of
which the; form a part. A council consisting of eminent business persons has sometimes be formed in order to advice on the policy of the school. Some public business schools are located at a university campus, others are separated from other parts of the university. They vary in their amount of independence, with differences in administrative, financial, or didactic autonomy. Furthermore they may have their own services or make use of central services of the university. As examples of business schools that are faculties of universities: Strathclyde Business School in Glasgow, Scotland, the Faculty of Commerce of the University College Dublin in Dublin, Ireland, the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale in Turin, Italy and the Institut d'Administration des Entreprises de l'Universite de Droit, d'Economie et des Sciences d'Aix-Marseille in Puynicard, France can be mentioned.

Independent schools of economics and business can be found in the Scandinavian countries. Most of them were established in the first quarter of this century as schools of economics, to which business was added much later. In fact these schools are not business schools as such; the economic programmes, particularly those at undergraduate level are the most important, but in particular for the last 10 to 20 years more emphasis is put on business programmes also at postgraduate level. Most of these schools do not provide post-experience courses. Examples of these kinds of schools are the Handelshojskolen i Aarhus in Aarhus, Denmark, Helsingin Kauppakorkeakoulu in Helsinki, Finland, Norges Handelshogskole in Bergen, Norway and the Handelshogskolan i Stockholm in Stockholm, Sweden.

A third kind of public business school must be mentioned, because it is different from the other two: interuniversity institutes. This is a rather independent school whose highest authority consists of representatives from more than one university, but is not financed through any of these. There is only one example of this kind of business school, which has ceased to exist recently: the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde in Delft, the Netherlands that has merged with the Erasmus University Rotterdam as a faculty of management by September 1984. Its activities are continued under the name of Rotterdam School of Management.

Business schools that are partly government-sponsored can be sub-divided into schools that are independent, but attached to a university and schools attached to Chambers of Commerce.

There are two business schools that are independent, but attached to a university, both in the United Kingdom: London Business School and Manchester Business School, attached to the Universities of London and Manchester respectively. Their supreme authorities (a Governing Body in London and a Council in Manchester) consist of representatives from both the academic world and the business world. They are financed
through the University Grants Committee for about 50% only; in addition their budgets are formed by course fees and research grants.

Business schools that are attached to Chambers of Commerce can be found in France. These kinds of schools are financed by a Chamber of Commerce, students' fees and apprentice tax from firms (a kind of taxation firms have to pay for professional teaching, to be divided among educational institutions). Examples of these kinds of schools are the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires in Jouy-en-Josas and the Ecole Supérieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales in Cergy.

Descriptions of twelve business schools.

A part of the investigation of the twelve libraries that are included into this study has been devoted to the parent institutions, because it is impossible to comprehend the organisation and policy of a library without knowing of what institution it is a part. In the following these schools will be described generally, one after another in alphabetical order. The description of each school will consist of three parts: first a general introduction will be given, including a brief history of the school; second the organisation of the school will be dealt with; third the educational programmes offered by the school will be enumerated, followed by short information on the research undertaken.

Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires,
-----------------------------------------------
Jouy-en-Josas, France.
(investigated: September 1983)

GENERAL.

From 1863 the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry founded several commerce schools. Six years after that a need was felt already "to start a project of a school of management for sons of the middle class", but it was not until 1881 that the Ecole des Hautes Études Commerciales was founded by the Paris Chamber to teach modern business practice and to prepare young managers to advance the French business sector. This School was created as a Grande Ecole distinguishing it from existing commerce schools, and from the very beginning it had strong links with the French business community providing professional education. The first students entered the School in 1881 for a two-year course, and an entrance examination was demanded to those without a bachelor's
degree. In 1939 the programme was changed into a three years' study. The two missions of the School evolved simultaneously:

- To provide academic excellence in the training of managers and business executives.
- To participate with the business community to foster the development of industry and commerce.

A brochure of the School in English observes about these two missions:

These two purposes enhance each other the long-standing, close ties the school enjoys with the business community continually enrich the quality of the education received by the students, and the business community is served by an academic institution which devotes itself to current business problems and the shape of business in the future. [124]

In 1964 the School moved to new campus in Jouy-en-Josas near Paris. At that time former students of the School who retained contacts with the School, expressed their wish to start a kind of continuous education. In 1967 a first experimental seminar was held, soon followed by more seminars. As a result of all this a school of post-experience education was founded in the same year under the name of Centre de Formation Continue.

Due to international co-operation and given the renovation of the Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales, together with the experiences of the Centre de Formation Continue, the founding of another school was felt as a need in the late sixties.

In 1969 the Institut Supérieur des Affaires was created in the spirit and with the essential character of the American Masters of Business Administration. It is aimed at graduates from higher education or those with several years of business experience, offering a variety of postgraduate courses because of the diversity of the students.

The next year (1970) the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry founded the Centre d’Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires in order to give a general infrastructure to the Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales, the Institut Supérieur des Affaires and the Centre de Formation Continue. It has become the administrative body, leaving full responsibilities of education to the different institutions in an openness with opportunities to welcome new educational or research institutions to join the Centre in future.

In 1975 the Centre created a doctoral programme called Internat de Gestion with support of the Fondation Nationale pour l'Enseignement de la Gestion des Entreprises. In addition to the four institutions that are now part of the Centre, a Direction de la Recherche stimulates, co-ordinates and diffuses research to be undertaken by the academic staff of the Centre.

Since the Centre is attached to the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry that is financed through taxes, it can be seen
as a public institution, but as it is also financed by students' fees and apprentice tax from firms, it is only partly government-sponsored.
The Centre has about 100 permanent teaching staff and in addition a number of occasional staff; they all deal with education and research. As for the students the numbers are approximately: 900 undergraduates, 200 postgraduates, 20 in the doctoral programme and about 1500 post-experience course participants annually.

ORGANISATION.
The main objectives of the Centre, according to a small English brochure of the Centre, are:
- training of future executives and the improvement of managerial education,
- training for faculty positions in teaching and research,
- scientific development and dissimilation of managerial Knowledge and skills. [125]

The highest authority of the Centre is the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry consisting of 64 members elected for six years of office by an electoral college consisting of industrialists and tradesmen in the Paris area. It operates 20 schools offering training and development programmes. An Administrative Commission of nine members deals with the Centre d'Enseignement Superieur des Affaires in particular. The head of the Centre is the General Director who is appointed by the Paris Chamber and deals with representation, general management and general policy of the Centre. He or she is assisted by the General Secretary - also appointed - and decides on the policy of the Centre with the Executive Committee of which he or she is chairperson. Besides the General Director and the General Secretary, the Executive Committee includes the Dean and the different directors to be mentioned below.
The Dean is appointed by the Paris Chamber for four years of office, but nominated by the permanent teaching staff of the Centre. The Dean deals with academic matters in relation to education and research as well as appointments of teaching staff, and has direct responsibility for the Computing Services Department and for the Library.

There are four institutional directors: of the Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales, of the Institut Superieur des Affaires, of the Centre de Formation Continue, and of the Doctoral Programme. Each director is nominated by the permanent teaching staff of the Centre and is appointed by the Paris Chamber for four years of office. Each director has two assistants, one for internal and one for external matters. The student administrations of all four institutions are under the responsibility of these directors. Together with the teaching staff they deal with the different
educational programmes.
The Administrative Director is permanently appointed, and
directly responsible for all general services, like finance,
personnel, printing, catering, etc.
The teaching staff members have relations with the different
programmes on different levels according to their
specialisations.

The Centre has twelve departments:
- Department of Accountancy.
- Department of Analysis and Decision.
- Department of Economics.
- Department of Environment and Business Policy.
- Department of Finance.
- Department of Human Sciences and Organisation.
- Department of Informatics of Organisation.
- Department of International Affairs.
- Department of Law and Taxation.
- Department of Modern Languages.
- Department of Marketing.
- Department of Production.

Every department has a co-ordinator who is head of the
department. In relation to the different programmes the
institutions have to offer, there are programme committees
that include teaching staff and students.

The main policy decisions of the Centre are taken by the
Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry, other policy
decisions will often be dealt with by the Executive Committee
or the General Director; depending upon the level it may also
be one of the directors or the Dean who takes policy
decisions.
The orientation of the Centre - as from the beginning of the
Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales - is essentially
professional, and the Dean has a main responsibility together
with the teaching staff for the quality of the teaching and
the research undertaken. The policy of the Centre can be seen
in relation to the co-operation between the different
institutions within the Centre that are complementary to each
other with the result that the Centre can be seen as a Centre
of Management.

The policy can also be seen in relation to the outside world
in the Association Jouy-Entreprise that was created in 1971.
Its objectives are:
- to provide permanent collaboration between the business
  world and the Centre;
- to support actions that lead the Centre to the scope of
  the education of students and to the improvement of higher
  employees and managers of firms also in relation to
  applied research in management.
The main advantage of this Association can be assumed to be
that the Centre will be able to innovate and respond to the
needs of the business world.
EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The four institutions of the Centre offer a variety of educational programmes that include undergraduate, postgraduate and post-experience education and training. The Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales offers a three-year course to prepare for all kinds of higher positions in different organisations, either public or private. This programme includes a period of practical work. According to their interests students can choose from a variety of courses after their basic training of six months. The Institut Superieur des Affaires offers an eighteen-month postgraduate course leading to a kind of MBA. It includes a general course of nine months followed by individual training according to job objectives. The Centre de Formation Continue offers a variety of short courses with cross-corporate sessions in all fields of management, and special seminars responding to the needs of particular firms. The doctoral programme takes 2 1/2 to 3 1/2 years of study and includes an individual and extensive study of organisations, together with the study of applied research methods and of management training, leading to a Ph.D. In addition to this, seminars are being offered together with other institutions.

The fact that the orientation of the Centre is essentially professional means that the research undertaken is recognised as essential. For the improvement of any programme it is important for the teaching staff to undertake research and it is accordingly encouraged. As mentioned above the Direction de la Recherche stimulates, co-ordinates and diffuses the research of the Centre. Research is undertaken in all fields of the managerial sciences in their widest sense, either initiated by members of the teaching staff themselves, or because external institutions asked for it, making it a kind of contract-research.

Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales, 
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Cergy, France. 
(investigated: September 1983) 

GENERAL.

In 1907 the Ecole Sainte-Genevieve started an Institut Economique in Paris to respond to a need that had become evident: to train competent managers for commercial and financial careers, impregnated with human and Christian values. The first students of this Institut graduated in 1911 after a study of two years. In 1913 the Ecole Sainte-Genevieve was transferred to Versailles, and the students of the Institut Economique were integrated into a
new establishment created by the Institut Catholique de Paris: the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales (ESSEC). In 1921 the School was founded definitively. By decree of 22nd of June, 1962, the School — recognised by the state already — is authorised to deliver a diploma officially recognised by the Minister of National Education.

In 1963 the Centre d'Etudes et de Recherches en Sciences Sociales, Economiques et Commerciales was created as a body for all research activities undertaken by permanent teaching staff of the School.

In 1968 the School founded the Institut Superieur des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales to provide all kinds of post-experience training on different aspects of management, including the organisation and presentation of seminars, while it also includes a language centre, providing language courses in seven languages. In the same year the Groupe ESSEC was constituted by the three co-operating institutions mentioned above. A protocol of May 1968 between the Institut Catholique de Paris and the Groupe ESSEC recognised the administrative and financial independence of the Groupe, and instituted an association between the two organisations. In 1973 the Groupe ESSEC was transferred from Paris to Cergy, where a new town was created.

In 1974 the Cycle de Programme Doctoral was created, making it possible to start a doctoral programme, in collaboration with the Universite de Droit, d'Economie et des Sciences d'Aix-Marseille.

A considerable increase of international exchange and the expansion of French enterprises to foreign markets, created a need to train personnel and prepare them for international business. In order to respond to this need the Groupe ESSEC created a specialists school: the Ecole des Practiciens du Commerce International in 1975.

In 1979 an association between the Groupe ESSEC and the Ecole Nationale Superieure des Industries Agricoles et Alimentaires created the Institut de Gestion Internationale Agro-Alimentaire as a part of the Groupe ESSEC, in order to connect in one field of knowledge, agronomics and business. It provides postgraduate education and is comparable to departments of agricultural economics in American universities.

Finally in 1981 the Institut de Management Hotelier International, or International Institute of Hotel Management, was created by the Groupe ESSEC in co-operation with Cornell University in the USA. Since the set up is really international, lectures are given both in French and English. It provides specialist courses at postgraduate level to students from all over the world.

The Groupe ESSEC now includes different institutions with different aims, also including a marketing institute: Institut Superieur du Marketing Direct, that is not mentioned however in the general programmes.

The Groupe ESSEC is run as a private, but non-profit, firm. It is financed by the Chamber of Commerce of Versailles, by students' fees and by apprentice tax from firms. It has administrative and financial independence.
There are 65 permanent teaching and research staff in the Groupe ESSEC, to teach about 300 undergraduates and 900 postgraduates. The number of post-experience course participants is approximately 400 annually.

ORGANISATION.

The general objective of the Groupe ESSEC is:

to educate young men and women in management in order to provide them with knowledge and prepare them for staff functions in industrial and commercial enterprises or organisations in its widest sense, private as well as public.

The Groupe ESSEC is managed by a non-profit association called Association Groupe ESSEC and is administered by a board of directors, called the Directoire which has four members: one is president of the Directoire, two of them are representatives from the Chamber of Commerce of Versailles and the General Director of the Groupe ESSEC is the fourth member. In order to decide on the general budget and control the academic quality of the programmes, there is a Council of 31 persons; its members are representatives from the Institut Catholique de Paris, former students of the School, members of the teaching staff, students, and representatives from the French business world. This structure assures the academic independence of the Groupe ESSEC.

The highest authority of the Groupe ESSEC rests with the Executive Committee, consisting of the General Director, the Dean, the Administrative Director and the directors of the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales, the Centre d'Etudes et de Recherche en Sciences Sociales, Economiques et Commerciales, and the Institut Superieur des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales. The Directors Committee comprises the members of the Executive Committee together with the directors of other institutions within the Groupe ESSEC, who are not members of the Executive Committee. To both committees the General Director is chairperson. Both committees deal with the general management and the policy of the Groupe ESSEC, taking policy decisions as well. The General Director is appointed by nomination of the Council; the directors of the different institutions within the Groupe ESSEC are also appointed, while the Dean is elected by and from the teaching staff for three years of office. The institutions are assisted by committees on education and training. The teaching staff - to which the Dean is chairperson - deals with the education and training of the different institutions on different levels, according to their specialisations.
Within the Groupe ESSEC there are ten departments:
- Department of Bookkeeping.
- Department of Economics.
- Department of Environment.
- Department of Finance.
- Department of Humanities.
- Department of Information Systems.
- Department of Languages.
- Department of Law.
- Department of Management Strategy.
- Department of Marketing.
For the Institut de Gestion Internationale Agro-Alimentaire there is a separate department of agricultural economics.

The Administrative Director is responsible for the different general services like the Computing Centre, the Financial Department, the Personnel Department, the Printing Department, the Catering Department, etc., all with a staff manager as head of each department. An exception is made for the Library, since the Librarian is responsible to the Dean.

The policy of the Groupe ESSEC can be defined as:
- to keep a high quality of educational programmes,
- to improve new and/or joint educational programmes with other institutions.

The Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales is still the main institution within the Groupe ESSEC. In 1982 for instance 56.5 % of the total budget was spent on this School. The remaining 43.5 % of the budget was split up into parts to finance the other institutions and the general services of the Groupe ESSEC.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

Since the Groupe ESSEC includes different institutions, a variety of educational and training programmes are being offered.

The main and eldest institution, the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales runs a three-year undergraduate course, including specialisations and practical work with many options for the students to choose. Some experience in practice is required for admission, while training sessions in industry are part of the programme.

The Ecole des Practiciens du Commerce International runs a three-year practical course at undergraduate level, including three or four months study at a foreign university (American or English), followed by a study of international management at the School.

The Institut de Gestion Internationale Agro-Alimentaire runs a postgraduate one-year course with many options offered to the students. As far as languages are concerned, a minimum of proficiency in both English and French is obligatory. The certificate of this School can be compared with a M.Sc. in agricultural economics.
The Institut de Management Hotelier International that was set up in co-operation with Cornell University runs a postgraduate training of hotel and hospitality management in a two-year course. Lectures are both in English and French and students from many countries attend these courses.

The Institut Supérieur des Sciences Économiques et Commerciales is a centre of post-experience education and training, running courses, seminars, etc. on many subjects at different levels. One of these courses is the European Management Programme of which Rey, Director of the Institute, observes before describing the course itself:

A manager faced with the task of managing a European business, that is a business that takes place in several European countries, is faced with a dual challenge:

1. He/she has to be a good manager in the conventional sense of the word with both generalist's and (sometimes) specialist's skills, but in addition
2. to have a good understanding, an intimate sense of the similarities and differences of conducting business across countries. [127]

The Cycle de Programme Doctoral provides different possibilities for postgraduate education, leading to a Diplôme d'Études Approfondies (DEA), or a Doctorat d'Etat. Both programmes include individual research.

The Centre d'Études et de Recherche en Sciences Sociales, Économiques et Commerciales aims at co-ordinating and promoting research to undertake or undertaken by teaching staff of the whole Groupe ESSEC on all subjects covered. The co-ordination of this Centre also includes publication of research.

HandelshojsKolen i Aarhus,
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Aarhus, Denmark.
(investigated: March 1983)

GENERAL.

The HandelshojsKolen i Aarhus (or: Aarhus School of Economics, Business Administration, and Modern Languages as it is called in English) was founded in 1905 by the Association of Businessmen in Aarhus in co-operation with the Central Society of Businessmen in Jutland. It remained small however until 1939 when evening studies for people working in business were started. As a result of this 1939 is considered to be the starting date of the School, when business firms expressed a need for the provision of higher education in management. In 1953 the first full-time students entered the School, but 11 years later no more than 300 students were registered. After 1965 when the School moved into its own
buildings, the number of students grew rapidly to about 4,000 by the end of 1962. There are about 500 teachers and 150 researchers, many of them part-time.

ORGANISATION.

The general objective of the School is to educate students in order to prepare them for leading functions in business, in law courts, to become translators in the business field, teachers, etc.

The official purpose of the School reads:

The purpose of the Aarhus School of Economics, Business Administration, and Modern Languages is to do research and to provide higher education up to the highest academic level within business, economics, and related subjects, together with specialised language studies. Furthermore the School has to contribute to an extended knowledge of working methods and the results of the science.

The School is an independent organisation under the supervision of the Minister of Education. Consequently the Senate consists of representatives from trade organisations representing the country. This means that although the School is fully government-sponsored the School has strong relations with the business world.

The Academic Council is the supreme authority within the organisation of the School dealing with policy decisions related to the institution as a whole, procedural systems and it administers the budget. It consists of representatives from: the academic staff (50%), technical and administrative staff (25%) and students (25%). All members of the Academic Council are elected by regular general elections within the School.

The School has two faculties:
- Faculty of Economics (including business administration and management).
- Faculty of Modern Languages.

To both faculties there are faculty councils, each presided by a dean; the faculty councils are composed like the Academic Council. The competence of these councils is fairly identical: they decide on appointments and dismissals of personnel, decide on doctoral degrees, and allocate appropriations between the departments and the study councils.

The Study Council - with sub-councils to both faculties - administers the curricula, time schedules, exemptions, etc. It consists of representatives from the academic staff (50%) and from the students (50%). All departments have their own councils and deal with research, teaching, promotion, allocations of work and budget, etc.
The departments of the Faculty of Economics include:
- Department of Accounting.
- Department of Auditing.
- Department of Business Law.
- Department of Business Economics.
- Department of Credit and Financing.
- Department of Foreign Trade.
- Department of Industrial Science and Sociology.
- Department of Management and Organisation.
- Department of Marketing.
- Department of Political Economy.
- Department of Statistics and Computer Science.

The departments of the Faculty of Modern Languages include:
- Department of Business Practice.
- Department of English.
- Department of French.
- Department of German.
- Department of Spanish.
- Department of Russian.

The School does not recognise permanent managerial positions. The Rector, deans, and chairpersons of the departments are all elected. The Rector is responsible for the administration, assisted by a central administrative staff. The Library is not one of the central services, but recognised as a separate entity. The Librarian is responsible to a Library Council that reports directly to the Senate.

The general budget is divided into four parts, distributed to the Faculty of Economics, to the Faculty of Modern Languages, to the Library and to the central services. Personnel and all material costs are included in each part.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The Faculty of Economics provides four main programmes of education:
- A three-year course for a BA degree in economics and business administration.
- A two-year course for a MA degree in economics and business administration, to be started after the BA.
- A two-year course for a degree between a MA and a Ph.D, to be started after the MA.
- A four-year evening course for a diploma in economics and business administration.

The Faculty of Modern Languages provides educational courses at three stages:
- Stage 1. Two different courses of specialised language, either a three-year evening course in one foreign language, or a two-year day-course in two foreign languages.
- Stage 2. A two-year part-time course in one foreign language, or a two-year full-time course in two foreign
languages. Both courses lead to a BA degree.
- Stage 3. A two-year full-time course in one foreign
language leading to a MA degree.

Additional education is being provided by means of seminars
to unemployed academics, and to groups with special problems
from business practice in order to re-educate them to become
prepared to apply for jobs in other directions than which
they have been working before.
Post-experience education or training is not provided by the
School.

Henley, the Management College,
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Henley-on-Thames, United Kingdom.
[investigated: November 1983]

GENERAL.

During the Second World War a group of concerned people came
together recognizing the need to improve business management
and public administration as a crucial factor in post-war
recovery and prosperity. As a result of this the
Administrative Staff College was established in 1946, in
order to provide in post-war Britain the stimulus of special
training for men and women fitted by character and experience
for higher administrative positions. Since it became known
over the years as 'Henley', its name was changed into:
Henley, the Management College in 1981. The first programme
that was developed was a mid-career executive programme,
first offered in 1948, and still offered as the general
management course three times a year to date.
The College is an independent organisation without political,
social or economic bias, and recognised by the Board of
Inland Revenue as a charity.

In 1972 the College formed a special link with Brunel
University at Uxbridge, that was founded in 1957 and received
its Royal Charter in 1966, for the development of
postgraduate programmes in management studies. The first
programme of this co-operation was introduced in 1974.

In 1976 the Henley Management Development and Advisory
Service was established:

The Advisory Service exists to meet the specific
developmental needs of managers and organisations
through specially designed programmes. These needs can
be met effectively by giving special attention to the
development of groups of managers in the actual context
of their jobs. It is in this area that The Advisory
Service has developed its special expertise, and in
which it has enjoyed considerable success. [129]
In 1983 programmes of management education using distance learning techniques were launched.
Two centres must be mentioned:
- Centre for Employment Policy Studies, aiming at making practical contributions to what is known about employment.
- Henley Centre of Forecasting, an independent non-profit business forecasting organisation affiliated to the College, but totally independent. It aims at forecasting the total business environment.

The number of teaching and research staff is about 35, approximately 80 participants are on the full-time master programme, and another 80 on other postgraduate programmes. The number of post-experience course participants is about 400 per annum.

The objective of the School as written in the prospectus 1983/84 reads:

The over-riding objective of Henley is to help managers to run efficient, profitable and cost-effective organisations. Such ability is important in both the public and private sectors. [130]

ORGANISATION.

The College is headed by a Court of Governors, each member of which acts in a personal capacity, and come from business and industry as well as from the academic world, including the Principal of the College, and two academic members of staff. Each programme has its own director, each responsible to their own individual programme.

The policy of the College is to be found in the approach to management education, called the Henley Method, involving special care and attention to the development of the individual. The general brochure reads:

A Henley course has a set of consistent characteristics:
First, the experience of members is an invaluable resource that is used throughout the course, and helps relate the subject to the job.
Secondly, help is given to members to learn, develop and mature on an individual basis. The primary aim here is to assist the process whereby they learn to examine information critically.
Thirdly, the formation of groups for syndicate work is undertaken with great care. Henley is well known as a pioneer in this field, and members of each group are chosen to give a blend of skills and employment and vocational backgrounds.
Fourthly, the balanced use of cases, lectures, projects, seminars, group work and private study ensures a carefully prepared and integrated approach to learning. [131]
EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The educational programmes offered can be divided into five main kinds:

1) Major executive programmes (including the general management course mentioned above).
2) Graduate studies in combination with Brunel University:
   Masters programme, Henley/CIPFA MBA-programme, research
   and doctoral programmes for a M.Phil. or a Ph.D in
   management studies, a part-time MSc in management studies.
3) Henley management development advisory service providing
   tailor-made programmes.
4) Distance learning: home study or in-company training by
   means of video and audio cassettes.
5) Shorter executive programmes including a range of
   intensive residential courses and workshops.

The research that is undertaken by academic staff members of
the College deals with all kinds of subjects related to
management.

International Management Institute,
Geneva, Switzerland.
(investigated: June 1983)

GENERAL.

The president of Alcan Aluminium Ltd. of Montreal, Canada,
aware of the future international dimension of his company,
thought about starting an international management centre in
the late thirties already, but the outbreak of the Second
World War prevented him from carrying out his plans.
Immediately after the war however, it was felt that future
Alcan managers should be prepared for international
operations, and since the Director of Alcan Research
Laboratories - who would become the Director of the School -
was Swiss, Geneva was chosen as the location of the School
that was founded in 1946 and was called: Centre d'Etudes
Industrielles, a name that was changed in 1962 into:
International Management Institute, as it was thought that
this was a better name for the School.
In the early years the School provided in-company training in
an eleven-month programme that was offered annually to young
Alcan employees or to graduates fresh out of universities who
were granted an Alcan scholarship and were expected to join
the company after their year in Geneva. The legal form of the
School from 1946 to 1957 was that of an Alcan Branch office.
In 1954 the first participants from other companies were
admitted to the programme, and in 1956 a formal decision was
taken to offer the programme to non-Alcan participants,
whether sponsored by other companies or applying
independently. In the same year the School became formally affiliated with the University of Geneva whilst retaining its complete administrative and financial independence. In 1957 the legal form of the School changed and converted into an independent foundation created under Swiss law. In 1958 the School moved to its present premises on the outskirts of Geneva.

The objective of the School is to seek to contribute to the development and improvement of managerial effectiveness in organisations around the world.

On its main characteristics the general brochure of the School reads:

Over the years a number of distinctive characteristics have come to differentiate IMI from other, similar institutions:

- IMI is profoundly international in its composition as well as its teaching. The 17-member Foundation Board represents 12 nationalities and the permanent faculty, also 12. Each group of 30-45 participants comes from 15-20 countries.
- The emphasis is on management. All research and education is concerned not only with business administration, but also with the nature of management in different political, economic and cultural settings, as well as in different types of organizations.
- IMI acts as the antenna of the corporations and public entities it serves, anticipating necessary changes and helping to draw blueprints for the future.
- Close contact with the business community is ensured through the Business Associate network of multinational corporations, through consulting and research activities and the conduct of in-company programs.
- While benefiting from its associate relationship with the University of Geneva, IMI is entirely independent with full financial and administrative autonomy. [132]

Although some courses of the School are given in French, the working language is English, as it has been from the beginning.

The present faculty staff include 17 members from 12 countries, while there are 10 regularly visiting faculty members and a number of guest speakers from government and industry from all over the world. The School accepts 45 MBA-students annually; the number of post-experience course participants is about 1,000 per annum.
ORGANISATION.

The supreme authority of the School rests with the Foundation Board, which is composed of 17 eminent businessmen and academics from all over the world. The Rector of the University of Geneva is a member of the Foundation Board ex officio. Once a year the members of the Board meet to review the position and activities of the School. The Director of the School is a member of the Board and through the Management Committee the Director works on the operational management of the School. Serving on the Management Committee are also the Faculty chairperson, the Director of the Business Associate Programme, and the Head of the Administration. There is one Faculty, and for the chairperson there is a rotation between faculty members based on availability and personal wishes. From September 1983 the faculty chairperson is a member of the Foundation Board as well.

The Faculty deals with major policies and plans of the School and consists of all permanent academic staff members, including the Librarian. Many faculty members act as programme co-ordinators of seminars and programmes in their professional fields, with responsibilities for the design and conduct of these programmes. In addition the Faculty has a responsibility for research and development. There are two committees to the Faculty: the Faculty Personnel Committee, and the Programme Review Committee. The Librarian is responsible to the Faculty chairperson.

The Business Associate Programme is a co-operative effort between the School and a number of multinational firms. Its purpose is to improve management, management development and, particularly, management education. It was created after the intention was expressed to serve a wider public than Alcan Aluminium only in 1970. It then was felt that it had become essential to create close relationships with other companies as well. For an annual fee of 20,000 Swiss Francs companies are entitled to participate in a number of events at the School. In the general brochure of the School it is observed:

"Through the Business Associate Program, IMI receives regular critical feedback on its activities from those organizations which use it most. These relationships contribute much to the development and growth of the institute and the quality of its teaching." [133]

The general policy of the School is to teach and undertake research in the most effective ways of managing in widely differing political, economic and cultural settings.

The School is an independent, self-supporting foundation with complete management and budgetary autonomy. It derives approximately 75% of its annual budget from programme fees, 15% from Business Associate contributions, and 10% from research and other grants. 70% of the budget is used to support the development and conduct of educational
programmes, some 15% is used for research and institutional development projects, the rest is used for physical facilities and overheads.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

In the early years the main educational programme has been the International Management Development Programme of which the diploma has been awarded jointly by the School and the University of Geneva ever since 1956, when the School received the patronage and endorsement of the University. In 1973 the School and the University jointly decided to award the MBA degree to qualified candidates who successfully complete the programme. This programme takes one year only and is designed for those who have at least three years, but preferably more extensive, practical experience in industrial or business enterprises, in government service or other fields, who have proved their potential for further growth, and who are expected to assume greater managerial responsibilities in the future, especially in international management. As a result of this the students have an average of 35 years of age, and are different from MBA-students of other business schools. The MBA-programme thus is at post-experience level, like all other education that is provided by the School.

In addition to the MBA-programme, the School offers many courses and seminars of which the concept is a pyramid of programmes in general management, and various functional disciplines. The general management programmes offered at least once a year, are designed for participants at different stages in their careers.

The main difference of all education provided in relation to other European business schools is the aim of international aspects of management and the different backgrounds in relation to country of origin, culture, etc., of the participants to all courses.

Research is carried out on topics of present and future concern to management, often undertaken by faculty members and research assistants on long-term projects. Projects are usually funded by grants from international organisations.
Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde.

Delft, the Netherlands.
(investigated: April 1983)

GENERAL.

Like in most other European countries, a need was felt in the Netherlands in the mid-sixties to start postgraduate and post-experience management education and research. Consequently some leading Dutch business organizations investigated with initial grants in the Stichting Bedrijfskunde (Foundation for Business Administration), which was founded in 1966 and started soon after its foundation with the provision of different kinds of post-experience education and training. Until 1974 it remained a private organization.

After the example of the American business school, three faculties of the Rotterdam School of Economics (in 1972 renamed Erasmus University Rotterdam), together with three faculties of the Delft University of Technology; founded an Interfaculty of management in 1969 called: Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde (Graduate School of Management) to provide postgraduate education by means of a two-year MBA-programme. After a period of preparations the first programme was started in 1970. From the very beginning this School has been run like a university faculty.

Both institutions were situated within the same buildings in Rotterdam.

In May 1972 the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde (Interuniversity Institute of Management) was founded with these general objectives:

A. The provision and promotion of academic education in management and its supporting sciences.

B. The execution and stimulation of academic research in the managerial sciences at its broadest sense and the promotion of the co-ordination of this research.

C. The development of theories and training models.

D. The delivery of one or more certificates. [134]

Four Dutch universities participate in the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde, two of which are the participants in the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde.

From its start the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde has included the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde; the Stichting Bedrijfskunde was included in 1974 under the name of: Sectie Post-Academisch Onderwijs (Section of Post-Academic Education), which is partly government-sponsored. Its former name is still being used, since it is well known.

In 1974 the Institute moved to its building in Delft, and after that the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde grew rapidly; to
about 1200 students: Autumn 1984. The number of staff grew to approximately 80 academics and 60 non-academic staff. The Sectie Post-Academisch Onderwijs remained small, but particularly after the start of the Small Business School in 1980, it has become very active with short courses, seminars, training for special groups, etc. The Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde has organized some major conferences on different subject during the last few years.

ORGANISATION.

The supreme authority of the Institute rests with the IIB-Board, consisting of one representative from each Board of the following institutions: Erasmus University, Rotterdam, Delft University of Technology, Free University, Amsterdam, State University, Leiden, and the Stichting Bedrijfskunde. The IIB-Board governs the Institute and takes the main policy decisions. The Academic Board, consisting of all professors appointed at the Institute together with representatives from the professors of the participating institutions, is responsible for the academic quality of the education. The budget of the Institute is fixed by the Minister of Education and Research, and is being supplied directly to the Institute.

The Institute consists of two independent organizations: each keeping their own budget as part of the total budget of the Institution. The head of the Sectie Post-Academisch Onderwijs is the Rector, who is chairperson to the Faculty Council. The Section makes use of the central services of the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde, for which an annual amount of money is paid, but its educational programmes and research are separated from those of the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde.

The main authority of the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde rests with the Faculty Council, consisting of twelve members, of which six are representatives from the academic staff, two are representatives from the administrative and technical staff, and four are students. They are elected annually by general elections. The members of the Faculty Council elect the Dean for a period of three years, and also elect the members of the Executive Committee of which 50% must be members of the academic staff; the Executive Committee consists of 5 persons. The Dean is chairperson to both the Faculty Council and the Executive Committee.

The Faculty Council deals with the general policy of the School, appointments of academic staff members, developments of educational programmes, the establishment of committees, etc. and it administers the School's budget. The Executive Committee prepares the meetings of the Faculty Council, and decides on matters of minor importance. The Faculty Council has two standing committees: the Educational Committee and the Research Committee, both advising to the Faculty Council. The Director of the School has a permanent position as
Secretary to the Faculty Council, to the Executive Committee, and to the IIB-Board. He or she is also head of all personnel and of the central services.

There are three departments within the School, integrated in the different disciplines that are basic to the managerial sciences:

- Department of Information Sciences.
- Department of Organisational Sciences.
- Department of Policy Sciences.

The departments are responsible for the research undertaken by their members, and to the educational programmes. Members of the departments are included into study programme committees, according to their own specialisations. The Library of the School is one of its central services; its budget is decided upon by the Faculty Council annually, and so is the number of library staff.

The general policy of the School is to provide the best education possible in order to prepare students for society as managers either in public or in private organisations. Management is very popular as a subject for academic study nowadays; every year there are more students applying for acceptance than the School is able to take. The selection of students is based on the results of an examination they all have to pass after the first four months of study, after a so-called adaptation period, before they can enter the MBA-programme.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The Sectie Post-Academisch Onderwijs of the Institute provides seminars, courses and meetings at post-experience level. In co-operation with business organisations tailor-made programmes are being developed as well.

The Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde provides one programme; a two-year MBA that can be entered by students who successfully have passed the examinations at the end of the adaptation period, mentioned above. The MBA-programme is divided into five main so-called problem areas, each of which is dealing with a different problem to be approached from different views according to the sciences that are basic to management. In-between there are interim periods used for projects at the choice of the students. At the end of the second year a period of at least six weeks must be spent within an organisation (either a profit or a non-profit organisation) to do some project work, or as part of thesis research for the final Master's thesis that must be submitted.

Much emphasis is put on research that is undertaken by members of the academic staff of the Institute. Research is undertaken in many subjects related to the managerial
A development of the last few years is contract research, i.e. research undertaken by members of the academic staff of the School for the benefit of, and paid by, other organizations, either private or public. The number of these contracts is increasing, meaning that the environment can make use of the expertise and experience of academic knowledge in the managerial sciences of members of the academic staff of the Institute.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS.

After the investigation of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde, some developments have taken place, that have changed the institute completely. The Dutch government decided on the closing of all interuniversity institutes in the country. Most of them were research institutions that could be incorporated into university faculties, but the complication with the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde has been the fact that it was providing academic education as well. As a result of all negotiations, it was decided that the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde would cease to exist, and both the Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde, and the Sectie Post-Academisch Onderwijs would merged with the Erasmus University Rotterdam, the former as a new faculty; under the name of Rotterdam School of Management, the latter within the frame of post-academic education supplied by this University.

A second main development has been a new Education Act concerning the structure of university education in the Netherlands that has come into effect. About this Act and its consequences for the School a brochure of the international management programme of the School reads:

Essentially the new Education Act is concerned with the creation of a four-year university program in all disciplines, known as "the First Phase", and the creation of a limited number of two-year postgraduate professional programs known as "the Second Phase", in official Dutch terminology. The new Rotterdam School of Management of the Erasmus University is one of the five schools offering a First Phase program in management and is the only institution in the Netherlands accredited to offer a Second Phase or MBA program. [135]

As far as the organization of the School is concerned, there are not many changes. The IIB-Board has ceased to exist, and the supreme authority now rests with the Board of the Erasmus University Rotterdam. Since the organizational structure of the former Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde has been very similar to that of a university faculty, not many changes have taken place in this respect. The Director of the School has become Secretary to the new Faculty, but the departments, for instance, did not change.

In the Autumn of 1984 both former sections of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde moved to the campus
of the Erasmus University Rotterdam, where the new Rotterdam School of Management started the education in management for the "First Phase" in September 1981 in addition to the MBA-programme that is continued as "Second Phase". For the new undergraduate programme 100 students were accepted for the first year, for which over 1,000 applied.

Since central services are to be found on the university campus already, most of these services from the former Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde either ceased to exist, or were incorporated into the same services of the Erasmus University Rotterdam.

A temporary exception was made for the former Library of the School. Although the Library has become a department of the University Library and its staff responsible to the University Librarian, it is located in the new management building for the time being. It is expected however that this departmental library will be incorporated into the University Library by September 1986, when an extension of the Library building will have been completed.

London Business School,
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London, United Kingdom,
(investigated: November 1983)

GENERAL.

In the early sixties the Director of the London School of Economics and the Rector of the Imperial College of Science and Technology jointly proposed the establishment of a business school in London. This proposal was adopted by Lord Franks, who recommended:

1. That two Business Schools of high quality be established in Britain.
2. That each be part of a university but enjoying considerable autonomy as a partnership between the university and business.
3. That these Business Schools be situated within major industrial and commercial conurbations.
4. That these Business Schools offer courses for both post graduate and post experience students.
5. That one Business School be associated jointly with the London School of Economics and Imperial College of the University of London, and the other with Manchester University. [1961]

A working party recommended that the cost of the initial establishment of the two schools be shared in equal parts between the British government and industry. The government undertook to make its share available through the University Grants Committee; industry's share was subscribed to in
response to an appeal and administered by the Foundation for Management Education. As a result both schools were established in 1965, one attached to the University of Manchester, the other to the University of London. From the very beginning a large measure of autonomy - as recommended by Lord Franks - was recognised, including financial independence. London Business School is financed now for 43% by the University Grants Committee, for 36% by course fees, for 17% by research grants, and for 4% by other sources.

The London Business School - formerly known under the name of London Graduate School of Business Studies - was incorporated under the Companies Act as a company limited by guarantee but not trading for profit in January 1965, and its first post-experience course was held February 1966. The School moved to its own building in 1970, situated in central London; in 1982 a second building was opened on the same site. [137]

At present preparations are being made to get a Royal Charter, which if granted, would mean that the School will become independent of the University of London. Although the School gets money from the University Grants Committee directly, its degrees are University of London degrees. The School has 64 permanent teaching and research staff, and it attracts many guest speakers every year. There are no undergraduates, the number of postgraduates is about 200 full-time and 60 part-time, in addition there are 40 doctoral students. The number of post-experience course participants is about 175 full-time equivalent.

The general objective of the School as defined in the proposed Royal Charter reads:

The objects of the School shall be to provide education and courses of study in the field of business and management studies and in such other fields of learning as may from time to time be decided upon by the School and to encourage research in the said branches of knowledge and learning and to organise, encourage and stimulate postgraduate studies. [138]

In addition to this Moore can be quoted who has written about the School:

The School aims unashamedly to be a centre of excellence for two reasons: first in any field a few such centres are essential to set standards, and to raise the area's visibility and to draw able young men and women into the area concerned as a career. Secondly, only in this way can sufficient funds be attracted and put together to support a high quality operation with the desirable back-up of research activities. Concentration of resources, whilst fully understood in principle, is not always easy to put into practice. London has achieved much in its eighteen years of existence, but much still
remains to be done if management education is to be more generally accepted as a necessary, although not sufficient, ingredient for economic success. [139]

**ORGANISATION.**

The supreme authority of the School rests with the Governing Body, consisting of about 25 members representing the academic and the business world, including the Principal and the Deputy Principal of the School ex officio, while the School's Secretary is Secretary to the Governing Body. Its main functions are to discuss major questions affecting the development and work of the School, to receive reports from the Principal, and to approve the accounts and perform such other formal business as may be required.

The main person of the School is the Principal, responsible for the organisation and supervision of all the work of the School, including the making of appointments, the allocation of financial resources, and the admission and disciplines of students. These functions are delegated to the Principal by the Governing Body that is responsible for the appointments of the Principal, the Deputy Principal, and the School's secretary. The Principal mainly deals with external matters, relationships with government and industry, and the broad policy of the School. The Deputy Principal mainly deals with internal matters, and runs the School.

The Secretary and Treasurer (combined in one person for the time being) is the chief administration officer of the School, responsible to the Principal and to the Governing Body for the work of the administrative staff generally, assisted by a variety of officers in the execution of these responsibilities. This function includes personnel, finance, and office services.

The main policy organ of the School is the Faculty Board, formerly chaired by the Principal, but now by an elected member of the Faculty. Its members are all teaching and most research staff, the Librarian, the Senior Assistant Librarian, and student representatives. The Faculty Board is the forum where choices of academic policy are debated and, when necessary, voted upon. It is concerned with the establishment of policies appropriate to the School's operation and development. The necessary executive actions required to carry out the general policy plans formulated by the Faculty Board are initiated and co-ordinated by the Executive Committee chaired by the Deputy Principal; other members are: the Secretary and Treasurer, directors of all postgraduate and major post-experience programmes, of the Centre for Management Development, of Marketing, of Computer Services, and the Librarian.

There is an Academic Board of which the Academic Dean is chairperson, with the Faculty Dean, up to four directors of major programmes, and up to four members of the Faculty as members. It is responsible for the preparation of carefully considered proposals and reviews for discussion and decision
by the Faculty Board. The Academic Board is not a
decision-making body, it exists to ensure that the
appropriate range of considerations and alternatives are
structured and presented to the voting bodies in such a way
that the choices ultimately made are done so in the light of
all available prior evidence.
The Appointments Committee is composed of all Professors of
the School with the Principal as chairperson. It deals with
appointments and other personnel matters of all academic and
research staff to advice to the Principal. Other appointments
and personnel matters are dealt with by the Executive
Committee. Consequently most managerial positions are
permanent with the exception of the Academic Dean and the
Faculty Dean, who are elected. The Faculty Dean is
responsible for all courses, and deals with difficulties that
students may have.

The School has some more standing committees, like the
Library Committee and the Computer Services Committee, both
advisory to the Faculty Board on matters of policy
organisation and the general running of these services.
For everyone on the School's payroll more than half-time,
there is a staff meeting twice annually where matters on the
running of the School are being discussed. In addition to
this all staff receive 'state of the institution' reports
from the Principal, while also employment conditions can be
reviewed.

The School does not have Faculty departments. The integrated
departmentalisation is realised by means of seven subject
areas with subject area chairpersons. These subjects include:
business policy, economics, finance, marketing, organisation
behaviour, public sector, and quantitative methods.
Each programme the School provides has its own programme
director.

There are five research institutes in the School:
- Centre for Business Strategy.
- Centre for Economic Forecasting.
- Institute of Finance and Accounting.
- Institute of Public Sector Management.
- Institute of Small Business Management.
Each research institute has its own programme under a
steering committee and publishes its results in books,
articles and working papers.

Finally the Business Liaison Committee must be mentioned; its
purpose as written in the School's annual report 1981/82
reads:
The purpose of the Business Liaison Committee is to
maintain and improve communication between the School
and the business world. The terms of reference are to
give the School advise on all aspects of its current
activities as well as its long-term development. The
members are primarily drawn from business. About twenty
are senior managers or directors from a wide range of public and private sector organisations. [...] A further eight members of the Committee are representatives of the School, including the Principal, the Deputy Principal and the Academic Dean. [140]

The general policy of the School is to maintain the diversity of programmes in relation to trends and to maintain support of research in order to guarantee the quality of the programmes the School has to offer.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The education provided by the School can be divided into four categories:
- Executive programmes.
- Shorter executive programmes.
- Degree programmes.
- Tailor-made management development programmes.

The executive programmes include five programmes held once or twice a year aimed at different levels of executives. One of these programmes takes nine months, the others vary from four to ten weeks of duration.
The shorter executive programmes include some 25 short specialist courses each year from a few days up to two weeks, either full-time or part-time.

The School offers three degree programmes:
- A full-time two year Master's programme, leading to a MSc degree of the University of London.
- A part-time three year Master's programme, leading to the same degree as the full-time programme.
- A doctoral programme, designed for those who wish to undertake research at an advanced level, requires at least the equivalent of three years of full-time study and leads to the Ph.D. degree in business studies of the University of London.

The tailor-made management development programmes are run by the Centre for Management Development, that was inaugurated in 1975. The aim of the Centre is to carry out activities which will be of practical use to the client organisation as well as to the individual managers involved in the programmes and projects. Companies using the School's open programmes also may derive benefit from arranging Centre programmes for the exclusive use of the company.

As mentioned above the research undertaken at the School is set up in five research institutes, each covering its own subject. Together all managerial subjects are being covered.
Manchester Business School,
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Manchester, United Kingdom.
(investigated: May 1983)

GENERAL.

The Foundation for Management Education and the British government jointly funded in 1965 the establishment of the two schools that were recommended by Lord Franks [136], one attached to the University of London, and the other to the University of Manchester. (see also page 117) From the very beginning it was recognised that these two schools should be financially independent of the universities to which they were attached, while the budgets from the government to these schools had initially to be only half of the total required. An initial grant of £5,- millions from industry, and another £5,- millions from the government through the University Grants Committee, was provided to the Foundation for Management Education, which disbursed the money to Manchester Business School over a period of years. At the moment Manchester Business School is financed for 40% by the University Grants Committee, for another 40% by course fees, and for 20% by research grants and research councils.

The School started with a post-experience course, which was held in a hotel, before the School moved to a rented building in the centre of the city, where most staff were appointed in 1966. In 1971 the School moved into its own buildings at the edge of the university campus, close to the centre of the city. It is academically part of the University of Manchester, but financially and administratively independent.

At present there are 35 established teaching and research staff, while there are many staff part-time and/or temporarily appointed. There are about 150 graduates and 50 doctoral students, while the number of post-experience course participants is about 150 full-time equivalent.

The general objective of the School is still the same as it has been from the very beginning:

The basic objective of the founders of Manchester Business School as defined at its inauguration - "to play a major role in increasing the competence of business management" - remains its guiding aim. [1411]

As part of the University of Manchester, knowledge is being taught and research undertaken at the School, since an academic level of the School is required, but from the very beginning the teaching of the School also has been aimed at problem definition and resolution in relation to business practice. Lupton, director of Manchester Business School observes:
The model that many academics work with is one in which fields of research are deliberately insulated from fields of action because of the possibilities of value contamination. The problems for research are therefore derived from the fields of knowledge and the findings are put back there to be criticised and improved upon. If others wish to turn the findings to practical use then so be it, but it is not the researchers job. I do not see how Medical Schools and Business Schools can be like that. They must derive the questions for research from the fields of action, and the results of research should be used and tested in fields of action so as to define more problems for research. If we look at it like that then our problem of business school organisation is defined. We must be organised not just to respond flexibly to shifts in the field of action but positively to influence them - via teaching, action research, consultancy and in other ways to be described in a moment; we should also be sensitive to what is going on in fields of knowledge and positively to influence them too. Our faculty should however be oriented to task and problem rather than to discipline. [142]

Consequently it is felt in Manchester Business School that the education provided by the School should respond to present managerial needs in private and public organisations. For this reason there are 'centres', all related to particular programmes of education and training.

The Post-Graduate Centre includes the teaching of the MBA-programme and the doctoral programme and as such is the teaching faculty of the School. The organisation of the School is still under discussion.

ORGANISATION.

The supreme authority of the School rests with the Council that deals with the general policy, finance in general, and other general matters of the School. The Council consists of twenty-two members, all of them appointed; some of them are of the School, some of the University of Manchester, but most of them are business executives. The vice-chancellor of the University of Manchester is deputy-chairperson to the Council. The strong business representation in the Council show the importance that is attached to relations between the School and the business world.

Directly responsible to the Council are both the Director and the Dean. The Director is responsible for running the School in general, with particular responsibilities to all services the School provides. The Director is appointed on a seven year contract that is renewable. The Dean is responsible for the academic work of the School, and has relations with the University of Manchester; he or she is elected for a period of one to three years. The main policy of the School is dealt with by the School Management Committee, consisting of the
Director, the Dean, and the chairperson of the School Policy Group, while the School's Accountant attends the meetings of this Committee as an advisor.

The Faculty Board consists of all established teaching staff, the Librarian, and representatives from departments of the University of Manchester, with the Dean of the School as chairperson. The Faculty Board is concerned with academic teaching and research, but with the exclusion of post-experience courses and training. The Faculty Board is responsible to the Senate of the University of Manchester. There are three sub-committees to this Board: the Faculty Research Degree Committee, the Faculty Review Committee, and the Graduate Course Advisor Committee. In addition to this the School has a Departmental Board, although there are no departments. It consists of the members of the Faculty Board with the exception of the members of the University of Manchester. The meetings of the Departmental Board are less official that those of the Faculty Board, meaning that there are possibilities for ample discussions on certain subjects if needs are felt to do so. The Departmental Board may concern itself with post-experience courses and training as well as with academic teaching.

The Professors' Committee consists of all professors appointed at the School, and deals with short-term policy, while the School Policy Group, a group of elected staff members, deals with the long-term policy of the School.

As mentioned before, the School is divided into centres in stead of discipline departments.

These centres include:
- Banking Centre.
- Executive Development Centre.
- Joint Development Centre.
- Language Learning Centre.
- New Business Technology Centre.
- New Enterprise Centre.
- Post-Graduate Centre.

The creation of these centres took place only a few years ago as an implementation of a significant change in the organisational structure of the School. Each centre is responsible for the design, the administration, and the marketing of a group of similar programmes. It was felt that these arrangements will enable the School to adapt more readily to the needs of particular groups of clients for its services.

The directors of all centres together with the Director of the School form the Operations Group, that decides on programmes and deals with short and medium term planning. The Operations Group has two sub-committees: the Academic Resources Sub-Committee, where needs for staff resources are recognized, and the Administrative Resources Sub-Committee, dealing with physical resources.

Two members of staff must be mentioned here. The Faculty Secretary handles the administrative arrangements for the appointments of academic staff; he or she is a member of the
staff of the Registrar of the University of Manchester, and in addition to acting as Secretary to the Faculty Board, forms the link between the School and the University. The Administrative Officer deals with appointments of non-academic staff and is a member of the Administrative Resources Sub-Committee to the Operations Group.

The Computing Committee is responsible to the School Management Committee, meaning that computing is recognised as important to the School.

The Finance Department is responsible to the School Management Committee for major and main matters of finance, apart from that it is responsible to the Director.

The Library and all administrative services are responsible to the Director.

The general policy of the School can be defined as: Running high quality courses and ensuring that people come on them, by building up a reputation.

There is a democratic process of decision-making in the School, which means that all staff, even clerical staff, can make their views known, and these views will be taken into account if possible. Furthermore members of the University and the School may join a trade union, and most of them do so. The union which clerical staff join is quite active in the School.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The education and training of the School is distributed to the different centres as mentioned before. Each centre is responsible for a group of similar programmes.

Postgraduate courses include a diploma in business administration (DBA) after successful completion of one year of study. Second there is a two year MBA-programme, which is based on full-time study. Third there is a part-time three year MBA-programme. The fourth postgraduate course is the doctoral programme including a taught first year, followed by research for the final thesis. It aims at producing more teachers of management.

The different centres of the School run a wide variety of shorter and longer post-experience courses. Due to the needs of the participants these courses are changing permanently.

The Language Learning Centre was opened in 1980 and started language courses for business purposes at different levels, including different languages. It means that language and management training can be combined. Courses that are held when needs are expressed include English, French and German, while Italian, Spanish and other languages can be taught as well if wanted.

Research is undertaken in all kinds of management by many members of the academic staff of the School. There are some research units to be recognised within the School.
- R & D Unit.
- Participation Research Unit (formerly called: Computer Research Unit).
- Management Control Unit.
- Organisational Behaviour Unit.

Norges Handelshøyskole,
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Bergen, Norway.
(investigated: January 1984)

GENERAL.

In 1909 a group of businessmen from the shipping industry and commerce recognised a need to educate people in business administration in Norway, and at a meeting in 1912 they decided to start a group to reach this aim. That group was founded in 1915 and was called Foreningen for Norges Handelshøyskole i Bergen. It consisted of 193 representatives from trade, industry, shipping, etc. of which 97 came from Bergen and 15 from Oslo. In 1918 already this group was gifted a site in Bergen to build a school, but it was not until 1964 that the School could move into its present building that was constructed on that site. Before that the School was housed in an old building in the centre of the town, where it started after its establishment in 1936 as a state university school sponsored by the private organisation of businessmen already mentioned for the provision of a financial basis for the establishment and the start of its programmes. The legal decisions to establish the School were taken by the Parliament and the Department of Commerce. Now the Norges Handelshøyskole (Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration) - as a public institution - is controlled by the Ministry of Education, which supplies most of the funds for the School's budget. Apart from the limitations in budgetary questions, the School enjoys a high degree of autonomy in its internal affairs.

The School is still the only School in the country which can grant the title of Siviløkonom to its students after successful completion of four years' undergraduate study. The government is considering however to grant the same rights to two other schools, one in Bodo and one in Oslo.

The School started in 1936 with a two year programme with business administration and economics as main subjects. In addition the students had to choose two special subjects one of which had to be a foreign language.

The main objective of the School as written in the general English brochure reads!
The primary objectives of the Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration are to provide academic education and conduct research, in economics, business administration and related subjects, and to make research methods and results known. This is in accordance with the provisions of the Norges Handelshøyskole Act. [143]

The School has grown to almost 288 members of staff of which 125 are academics; there are over 1300 students, of which more than 80% are undergraduates.

ORGANISATION.

The highest authority of the School rests with the Board that takes the main management decisions, deals with academic matters, decides on the spending of the budget and on appointments of staff at all levels. It consists of five members: the Rector, the directors of the two faculties of the School, one representative from the academic staff, and one student. In addition there are three permanent observers: the Director of the School, one representative from the administrative and technical staff, and another student. Even if the School enjoys a high degree of autonomy in its internal affairs, the Board has responsibilities towards the Ministry of Education, while there are also links with the Ministry of Culture and Science.

The head of the academic staff is the Rector, who supervises the administration of the School; his or her deputy is the Prorector. Both are being elected for three years of office by and among the academic staff. The Rector is chairperson to the Teachers' Committee that advises on academic matters and includes all members of the academic staff together with two representatives from the students. Other advisory committees to the Board are the Co-ordinating Committees each dealing with different subjects.

The School has a Director who is head of all administrative services, and a Secretary, mainly responsible for the School's budget. They both are appointed.

The School has two faculties:
- Faculty of Economic Studies.
- Faculty of General Studies.

Both faculties have a Faculty Director, and are run by an Executive Committee. The Faculty of Economic Studies has two main committees: the Committee for Business Economic Subjects, and the Committee for Social Economic Subjects. Both faculties have departments, those of the Faculty of General Studies are divided into language departments, and subject departments.

The Library is not one of the administrative services responsible to the Director, but is placed under the Library Committee. The Librarian is directly responsible to the
Board. The Librarian and his two deputies are members of the academic staff of the School. There is a Students' Union with its own Council that is responsible to the Board and has links with both faculties of the School. Finally there is a commission to deal with the admission of students, consisting of members of the academic staff.

In relation to research there is a Centre for Applied Research headed by a board of five members, all of them being appointed by the Board of the School, with a research director as chairperson. This Centre was established by the Board in 1977. Its purpose is to further applied research at the School in accordance with its general research principles. The activities of this Centre are based upon external financing, with contract research as its main source of income.

Other research is carried out by nine research institutes within the School, which also offer certain services to the teaching activities.

These research institutes are:
- Institute of Business Administration.
- Institute of Economics.
- Institute of Fisheries Economics.
- Institute of Geography, that also serves as a centre of research for the University of Bergen.
- Institute of Information Systems Research.
- Institute of Insurance.
- Institute of Marketing Economics.
- Institute of Organisational Psychology and Personnel Administration.
- Institute of Shipping Research.

As a result of this organisational structure, a democratic process of decision-making can be observed in the School. Research and study programme decisions for instance are de facto mostly taken by middle and lower management, where most teachers have the opportunity to influence decisions.

The general policy of the School is to be the leading research institute in Norway in business economics, and to offer modern study programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels up to Ph.D. level. The main budget items are set by the Ministry of Education on the basis of a proposal of the School. Minor budget divisions are made by the Board and distributed to the different faculties, institutes, and services.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The main programme of the School is a four year undergraduate programme to qualify for the siviløkonom degree.
In addition the School offers some postgraduate programmes:
- Teachers degree, including a specialisation on economic history, economic geography, or one out of four foreign languages. It takes one-and-a-half to two years to complete after the sivilokonom degree.
- Sivilokonom HAE is a two year course to specialise after the sivilokonom degree in business administration, economics, or the behavioural sciences.
- One year course for certified accountants is another specialisation, where two additional years of practical experience are required to become accepted next to the sivilokonom degree.
- Licenciate degree, a higher degree after the sivilokonom HAE that takes one year to one-and-a-half to complete, and includes the writing of a comprehensive thesis, together with the performance of a public lecture.
- Doctor of Economics degree, awarded on the basis of a published treatise that must contribute significantly to the knowledge and understanding of its subject according to a special committee. In addition two academic lectures must be given, and a public defense of the treatise must take place.

Post-experience courses have been offered on a small scale since the School started in 1936 by the Extension Department, that has become an independent unit in 1968. It provides regular evening classes for businessmen, short courses, etc. Additional education is being provided by means of a postgraduate correspondence course in German that takes one year. It is aimed at translators.

The research that is undertaken by the School is dealt with by the nine research institutes mentioned already.

Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale,  
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Turin, Italy,  
(investigated: June 1983)

GENERAL.

In order to offer young people a professional training in the methodology and techniques of management in combination with the study of labour problems in industry, agriculture, service industries, and public administration, the School was founded in 1957 as a Scuola di Amministrazione Industriale (School of Industrial Administration), officially recognised by enactment of the President of the Republic in 1963. It has been established as a school of the University of Turin with special purposes, thus being incorporated in the academic world with guarantees for the level of its education, but independent in relation to educational programmes, administration, and finance.
In 1974 the name of the School was changed into Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale (School of Business Administration) by enactment of the President of the Republic and published in the Official Journal of the Italian Republic in the same year.

In order to guarantee the financing of the activities of the School, the Finance Association of the School was constituted by the Industrial Union of the Province of Turin in 1976 and recognised by enactment of the President of the Republic in 1979.

In this Finance Association there are five participants:
- Chamber of Commerce of Turin.
- Industrial Union of the Province of Turin.
- FIAT.
- Cassa di Risparmio di Torino.
- Istituto Bancario San Paolo di Torino.

After a period of preparation and appointing staff, the educational programmes started in 1963 with a two year full-time undergraduate programme for the development of managerial skills, leading to a university diploma in administration. In 1967 the School moved to its present building, and in 1979 the Master's programme was started.

The general objective of the School is to develop research and training in administrative management. In addition to this, contacts and co-operation between the School and the academic world is assumed, as well as influences from the business world, together with social and political influences. Given the participants in the Finance Association of the School, influences from business as well as social and political influences can be accepted as guaranteed, while contacts and co-operation between the School and the academic world are guaranteed as well, since the School is a School of the University of Turin, however independent otherwise.

ORGANISATION.

The School rests under the supervision of the University of Turin in spite of its recognised special purposes that guarantees a certain independence. In the supreme organ of the School, the School Board, six members of the academic staff of the University, representing the various faculties, are appointed by the Rector of the University for five years of office. In addition the Director and the Assistant Director are also members of the School Board, with finally four representatives from different organisations, making a total of twelve members of the School Board. The Director is also appointed by the Rector of the University, the Assistant Director is appointed by the School Board. They hold office for six and five years respectively.

The School Board deals with the general management of the School and takes policy decisions. There are two staff committees that may influence the decision-making process as
committees to the School Board. These committees, each composed of members of the academic staff of the School, the Director, the Assistant Director, and two students, aim at the different kinds of education in relation to the programmes offered.

These staff committees include:

- Business Administration Staff Committee.
- Master Course Staff Committee.

Each staff committee has two sub-committees:

- Didactic Co-ordination Committee.
- Operational Secretariat.

In addition to these staff committees, there are Technical Scientific Committees for short courses, one to each course. These committees advise the School Board on proposals about regulations, about the teaching, etc., and also approve individual study curricula.

The Director is in charge of the direction and representation of the School. This means that the Director has academic responsibility as a member of the School Board as well as of the staff committees, and also has administrative responsibility as head of all services.

The services are divided into four sections: the Library, general services, general secretariat, and the administration, all of these being responsible to the Director.

The general policy of the School is still the same as it has been from the beginning: to offer young people a professional training in the methodology and techniques of management. This is carried out by the provision of educational programmes.

The School receives its budget from course fees from the students and participants to short courses, and from contributions from the Finance Association of the School. This means that although the School is a public institution, it is not completely financed by public funds.

The expenditures of the budget are to the financing of education and training, and to the purchase of goods and services, including the budgets for the Library, external relations, maintenance, and administration.

The review of annual accounts of the School including the balance sheet is approved by the School Board, and after that put before the Board of Governors of the University of Turin in order to be attached to their review and balance sheet.

The numbers of teaching staff of the School are 25 to the undergraduate programme to teach some 140 students, and 24 to the Master's programme to teach 30 students.
EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

The School offers two main programmes:
- A two year full-time undergraduate course, leading to a university diploma in administration. For the final thesis some time must be spent within a company.
- A fifteen month full-time postgraduate programme, leading to an MBA of the University of Turin. To prepare for the master's thesis, the last three months of the study must be spent within a company.

In addition to these main programmes, short courses and seminars are being provided in order to respond to training needs of individuals as well as of organisations, either public or private. At the moment the teaching staff does not undertake any research.

Strathclyde Business School,
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Glasgow, Scotland.
(investigated: May 1984)

GENERAL.

The history of Strathclyde University goes back to 1796 when Anderson's Institution was founded in Glasgow as a technical college. In 1912 this name changed into Royal Technical College, and in 1964 the University of Strathclyde was created out of the former College and the Scottish College of Commerce. The University was granted its Charter in the same year. Former courses of the Scottish College of Commerce formed the nucleus of the School of Business and Administration of Strathclyde University.

In 1955 the Chesters Management Centre was founded at Bearsden to provide post-experience courses in a wide range of topics. In 1966 a small MBA-programme was started that became the first programme of Strathclyde Business School when it was formally established in 1973 and recognised as a major business school by the University Grants Committee and the Foundation for Management Education by putting up substantial sums of money towards the construction of a purpose built business school on the campus of Strathclyde University in the centre of Glasgow. The business building was completed in 1976 and after that post-experience programmes were gradually transferred from Chesters to the School.

In 1982 Strathclyde Business School and the School of Business and Administration of Strathclyde University merged into one faculty of the University, which became the new Strathclyde Business School.

In 1983 the School launched a MBA by distance learning, being the first school in the United Kingdom and perhaps in Western
Europe, to make available a postgraduate management degree in the distance learning format.

In the beginning of 1984 the Open Tech Unit of the Manpower Services Commission awarded a large sum of money to the School to provide management skills courses for companies and public corporations in Scotland. These courses will be known as the Flexible Management Development Programme, and will be designed to meet the agreed requirements for management training in particular organisations.

Through the Scottish Business School strong links have been forged between Strathclyde Business School and business related departments of other Scottish universities. These include the Universities of Glasgow and Edinburgh, now including Stirling. Strathclyde Business School provides more post-experience courses that the other three schools.

The School is to be considered a public school since it is a Faculty of Strathclyde University that is mainly financed through the University Grants Committee; post-experience courses however are self-supporting.

Spring 1984 there were 211 teaching and research staff of the School, 1354 undergraduates, 791 postgraduate students, and 791 course participants on the post-experience short course programme.

On the occasion of the merger between Strathclyde Business School and the School of Business and Administration of Strathclyde University, the Dean of the School, Professor Baker, presented an overview of the past, present and future of the School. In this article the objectives of the School are formulated:

The basic objectives of the Strathclyde Business School are:

- To provide high quality business and management education and training at undergraduate, post-experience and postgraduate levels, through the organisation of resources assigned to business related academic disciplines at this University, in order to meet existing and future needs of industry, commerce and organisations in the public and private sectors.

- To initiate and conduct research programmes, both theoretical and applied, in support of our teaching objective.

- To sustain and improve academic standards and to encourage interdisciplinary and interdepartmental initiatives. [144]

In order to fulfill these objectives, a range of programmes and courses are offered at different levels.

ORGANISATION.

The highest authority of the University of Strathclyde is the Chancellor, while the overall responsibility of the University rests with the Court, consisting of approximately 25 members from inside and outside the University. The
Principal - appointed by the Court after consultation with the Senate - exercises general supervision over the University and is generally responsible for maintaining and promoting the efficiency and good order of the University. The Registrar - appointed by the Court - is responsible for providing secretarial services for the main bodies of the University, and under the direction of the Principal for the administration of the University. The University Librarian - appointed by the Court - is considered a member of the academic staff of the University, and is a member of the Senate by function. The Senate includes the Principal, all deans of the faculties, all professors and the University Librarian. It takes the main academic decisions of the University.

The University of Strathclyde has four faculties:
- Faculty of Arts and Social Studies.
- Faculty of Engineering.
- Faculty of Science.
- Strathclyde Business School.

The academic facilities like the University Library, the Computer Centre, as well as the general services for staff and students serve these four faculties.

The main body of Strathclyde Business School is the Board of Study with the Dean as chairperson (the other faculties of the University have similar Boards of Study, also headed by a Faculty Dean each.). The Dean is one of the professors of the School, appointed for three years of office; he or she reports to the Senate of the University. The Board of Study consists of the Dean, the Vice-Dean, the Associate Dean, the professors and heads of departments. In addition to this members of the academic staff from each department are elected, and there may be some co-opted members. The main tasks of the Board of Study are to make recommendations to the Senate of the University, to administer and supervise the admission and progress of students of the School, to discuss matters of interest to the Board, and to manage committees of the Board of Study. These committees are established by the Board of Study to assist in its functioning in relation to special tasks or subjects. The Vice-Dean is responsible for the undergraduate teaching at the School, the Associate Dean is Director of the Advanced Interdisciplinary and Post-Experience Programmes, which includes an overall responsibility for postgraduate and post-experience teaching at the School.

The School has these departments:
- David Livingstone Institute of Overseas Development Studies.
- Department of Accountancy and Finance.
- Department of Administration.
- Department of Economics, including the Fraser and Allander Institute for Research on the Scottish Economy.
- Department of Industrial Relations.
- Department of Marketing.
- Department of Office Organization.
- Department of Operational Research.
- Department of Urban and Regional Planning.
- Law School.
- Scottish Hotel School.
The Department of Production Management and Manufacturing Technology, a department within the Faculty of Engineering, is also closely involved in the postgraduate and post-experience programmes of the School.
The School has a Business Information Centre headed by a Librarian who is responsible to the University Librarian. There are strong links however between the Business Information Centre and the different departments of Strathclyde Business School through the Associate Dean of the School.
Strathclyde Business School co-operates closely with the business related departments of the Universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow and Stirling as mentioned above, under the aegis of the Scottish Business School. It includes co-ordinated provision of business education in Scotland. As an advisory body of the School, the Council must be mentioned, composed of the Principal of the University, the Dean and the Associate Dean of the School as well as some other members of the academic staff of the University from within and without the School. The majority of the members of the Council however are from outside the University, meaning that through the Council the School gets its main business contacts. The task of the Council is:

To advise the Court, and through the Board of the Strathclyde Business School, the Senate on the resources and academic policy of the Strathclyde Business School.

[145]

In addition to all this there are many committees within the School at all levels with representatives from all kinds of staff and students, providing opportunities to influencing the policy of the School in a democratic way.

Research is undertaken in all departments, including consultancy. There is a Pay and Reward Research Centre, and in future a Scottish Centre for Business Research may be established in co-operation with other members of the Scottish Business School.
The main division of the general budget of the School is among the different departments to finance the teaching and research of each department.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

Ever since the MBA-programme was developed in 1966, it has been the main programme of the School. It aims at graduates who have obtained several years of practice in a functional area, before coming to a position where managerial skills are
necessary. The MBA-programme is a one year programme that demands at least three years of industrial or commercial experience for admission. Since 1976 the same programme is offered on a part-time basis of three years duration. As mentioned before the MBA-course by distance learning started in 1983.

Strathclyde Business School offers different kinds of undergraduate programmes. In addition to the MBA-programme, there are many other postgraduate programmes leading to a M.Sc. in many subjects, while different other postgraduate diplomas are being offered as well.

The School offers many post-experience courses at different levels and different of duration. A distinction is made into three kinds of courses offered: public sector courses, private sector courses, and international courses.

A lot of research is undertaken by students for a M.Sc. or a Ph.D. All departments provide research facilities to meet research needs of students. Members of the academic staff are encouraged to engage in consultancy and as a result a lot of consultancy activities are being undertaken by academic staff members of the School. These activities are related with various managerial subjects.

University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce,
----------------------------------------------
Dublin, Republic of Ireland,
(Investigated: July 1983)

GENERAL.

In 1845 three state-controlled undenominational Colleges were established in the Queen's Colleges (Ireland) Act as a gesture to Irish Catholics, situated in Belfast, Cork and Galway. There should however be one university in Ireland, Dublin University with its single autonomous college of the holy and undivided Trinity, commonly known as Trinity College Dublin, founded in 1591. In 1850 the Irish Catholic hierarchy condemned the Queen's Colleges, and in 1851 the Catholic University of Ireland was founded, the first Rector was installed in 1854, and lectures commenced the same year in three faculties. It was however a university without a charter which would give the right to grant degrees. There also was no state endowment, and although the Catholic University of Ireland became a Jesuit administered University College Dublin in 1883 by the Royal University of Ireland Act of 1881, it was not until 1908 that the Irish Universities Act established two new universities:

1) The National University of Ireland,
a federal institution consisting of:
- University College Dublin.
- University College Cork (the former Queen's College in Cork).
- University College Galway (the former Queen's College in Galway).

2) The Queen's University Belfast (the former Queen's College in Belfast).

By Royal Charter the University College Dublin was established in 1908. Eight faculties were established and afterwards a ninth faculty was founded.

The College was located in the City of Dublin, but moved into its own buildings at Belfield at three miles from the centre of the city; the Faculty of Science moved first in 1964, and after that most other faculties were transferred to Belfield one after another.

The general objective of the College is to provide undergraduate and postgraduate teaching and research facilities and higher education in general. In order to fulfill this objective the College is a corporation empowered to provide teaching for degrees and diplomas of the National University of Ireland and facilities for the prosecution of original research in science, literature and other subjects, especially in the applications of science.

The College is a public institution; about 82% of its budget is funded by the government, 13% by fees, and 5% by sundries.

ORGANISATION.

The highest authority of the College is the Senate of the National University of Ireland, authorised to appoint senior academic staff posts established by Statutes on recommendations of the Governing Body of the College. The principal academic body of the College is the Academic Council, about which an informative brochure of the College reads:

The Council is the College's principal academic body. All professors and associate professors are members. It deals with all matters concerning courses of study, examinations and academic standards. The Council refers its recommendations on academic matters to the General Board of Studies of the Senate of the National University of Ireland. [146]

Recommendations to the Academic Council are made by the faculties, concerned with particular disciplines.

The College comprises ten faculties:
- Faculty of Arts.
- Faculty of Celtic Studies.
- Faculty of Commerce.
- Faculty of Engineering and Architecture.
- Faculty of General Agriculture.
- Faculty of Law.
- Faculty of Medicine.
- Faculty of Philosophy and Sociology.
- Faculty of Science.
- Faculty of Veterinary Medicine.

Each faculty has its own Dean, elected by the members of the faculty for three years of office. All faculties have faculty departments.

The Faculty of Commerce was among the first that were formed with the establishment of the National University of Ireland in 1908; it had its first faculty meeting in 1910. The Bachelor of Commerce programme (B.Comm.) was the first offered and has remained the central focus of faculty teaching throughout the years, although many other programmes have been developed since.

The Faculty comprises nine departments:
- Department of Accountancy.
- Department of Banking and Finance.
- Department of Business Administration.
- Department of Economics.
- Department of Environmental Studies.
- Department of Industrial Relations.
- Department of Management Information Systems.
- Department of Marketing.
- Department of Mathematics.

The principal administrative authority of the College is the Governing Body that has fourteen members serving three years of office. These members represent the College, the government, a local County, and graduates of the College, while the President of the College and the Lord Mayor of the City of Dublin are members ex officio. The Governing Body controls the finances of the College. In addition it appoints staff to posts which are non-statutory, and it makes recommendations to the Senate of the National University of Ireland through its General Board of Studies for senior academic staff posts which are established by statutes.

There are many committees to the Governing Body to many of which the President of the College is a member.

The main committees are:
- Buildings Committee.
- Extra-Mural Committee.
- Finance Committee.
- Library Committee.
- Summer School Committee.

The College comprises four administrative statutory officers; the President, the Secretary and Bursar, the Registrar, and the Librarian.

The President is a member of the Academic Council and of the
Governing Body, as well as a member of the main committees to the Governing Body, and has an overall responsibility.
The Secretary and Bursar is responsible for the financial offices of the College.
The Registrar is responsible for the academic offices of the College.
The Librarian is obviously responsible for the Library.
Some faculties of the College have their own branch libraries. The Faculty of Commerce does not have its own Library; the Social Sciences section of the Main Library is mainly serving this Faculty.
The College has some 10,000 students and 700 academic staff in total; figures for the Faculty of Commerce are approximately: 50 teaching and research staff, 1000 undergraduates, and 200 postgraduate students.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH.

Like in other universities, the faculties of the College provide many programmes at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. These programmes lead to degrees that are recognised from the Statute of the National University of Ireland.
As far as the Faculty of Commerce is concerned these programmes include education for two different Bachelor degrees, six different Master degrees, and two different Doctor degrees. The Master's programmes take one to three years and the degrees may be obtained either by thesis, or by examination that will include a small dissertation as well. The Doctor's programmes include mainly research to be undertaken which takes two to six years of study.
In addition to these programmes of which similar ones can be found in the other faculties of the College, public lectures in any academic discipline are also provided throughout the year.
Post-experience education or training is not provided by the College.

The research that is being undertaken can be found on all academic subjects in all faculties, either undertaken by academic staff, or by postgraduate students as part of their fulfillments for their degrees.
CHAPTER 4

DESCRIPTIONS OF TWELVE BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

In order to understand business library performance, the twelve business school libraries that have been investigated, will be described in this chapter as the results of empirical evidence. For each library the emphasis will be on its organization and policy.

The descriptions of the libraries at in question will be framed as follows:

First a short history of the library will be given, followed by a description of the library in general including its organization and the physical arrangements of the services provided. Then the character of the library will be shown by attention paid to some services with the emphasis on special collections, special indexes (i.e. indexes produced apart from the main cataloguing), the availability of on-line facilities for literature searching, and an enumeration of library publications. In addition to this the readers of the library will be dealt with and some general figures of the library will be given. Briefly attention will be paid to the library staff, before turning to library policy. After considering library policy in relation to educational programmes and research undertaken at the School, the librarian's view on the fulfillment of library objectives will be given.

Tasks that are undertaken by the libraries in co-operation with other libraries will not be mentioned, since these will be dealt with in Chapter 8.

No comparisons will be made at this point, since these descriptions seek to provide information only for the discussions of library management in the next chapters.

Centre d'Enseignement Superieur des Affaires,

Jouy-en-Josas, France.

(investigated: September 1983)

HISTORY.

The Library of the Centre d'Enseignement Superieur des Affaires was established immediately after the foundation of the Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales in 1881. The start was very affluent with a big room for the Library in the very beginning. It became a traditional Library with books mainly in the fields of law, history, geography, commerce, and accountancy in closed access. Most of these books - as far as still available - are now disregarded. As a result of weeding
many of them are not in the holdings anymore.
In the late fifties a great change of the School took place.
As a result of post-war economic activities, the School -
that used to be a higher commerce school - had grown and
became a management school, after the example of American
management education. A new General Director was appointed,
the administrative staff showed many new faces, and many new
posts were created.
In 1959 there was one Librarian and one library assistant in
the Library, that held a collection of about 6000 books and
some periodicals at that time, all materials being in the
French language. Due to changes within the School and
developments within the Library, the services were slowly
extended, e.g. by helping students to find the information
wanted, by an extension of lending facilities, etc. After the
School moved to new campus in Jouy-en-Josas in 1964, the
Library grew to its present size.

GENERAL.
The general objective of the Library is to serve the
population of the Centre as far as literature information is
concerned. Although the library services are aimed at staff,
students, and former students of the Centre, and although the
Library is certainly not a public Library, external readers
may find information they need in the Library, and
accordingly will be permitted to make use of it if they want
to.
The Librarian is responsible to the Dean of the Centre and
consequently the status of the Library depends partly on the
status of the Dean. The Librarian feels that the Library is
well recognized and has a pretty good status, due to the
quality of services provided; neither does she think that
there is a difference in view between the objectives of the
Library as she sees them and those recognised by the
management of the Centre, simply because they are reasonably
satisfied. The objectives of the Library are certainly taken
into account, also because the present Administrative
Director - who is in charge of the finances of the Centre -
is more in favour of the Library than the former one.
There is a Library Committee, but it has not been very active
for the last few years. It consists of the assistant to the
Dean as chairperson, some teachers, theoretically one or more
students, eventually a member of the administrative staff,
and the Librarian as a permanent member. The frequency of
meetings is flexible, and depends very much on the subjects
that will be discussed. The objective of the Library
Committee is to advise on the Library's policy (on which the
Dean will decide together with the Librarian), and to advise
on the spending of the budget. The budget is being prepared
by the Dean with assistance of the Librarian and comprises
books and periodicals. Besides the main budget there is
another budget of about 10% of the Library budget to spend on
binding, printing, on-line costs, etc. Personnel is not
included into the library budget. Every year an administrative commission presided by the Administrative Director and including the heads of all general services including the Library and the Computing Services Department, decides on the amounts of money to distribute among the different services. The Librarian has managed to keep her budget rather stable for the last few years due to the performance of the services.

The Library consists of two separate collections: the Main Library and the Lending Library. The Main Library is situated in a building between the administrative building, the teachers' building, and the building where most lecture rooms are located. It is situated on the first floor above the lobby where people have to pass when going from one building to another. Since all these buildings are situated on the edge of the campus however, the Library is not located centrally on the campus, and in order to make it as easy as possible for the students to make use of the library, the Lending Library is situated in the middle of the campus.

Near the entrance of the Main Library there is a counter that is called distribution desk, since the reserve collection is shelved behind this counter. Not far from this the catalogues and a photo-copying machine (coin operated) can be found with two members of the Library staff on duty close to it. The greater part of the room however is used as a reading room with reference material on free access and many readers' places. On one side of the room periodicals of the last three years are stored in small rooms in closed access. Near the entrance of the Library there is access to the periodicals room, where newspapers and journals of current interest are on display on free access. In this room there are also many readers' places, and indexes to periodical articles and to articles of newspapers can be consulted in card-catalogues. For enquiries one of the Documentalists is on duty here. Through a door at the end of the periodicals room the rooms of most members of the Library staff can be reached. There is also a room with bibliographical materials located here. Downstairs the holdings of periodicals older than three years are stored; to consult these one has to ask at the counter. The main collection of books is also kept downstairs, which means that access to these books is only through a member of the Library staff.

The Lending Library is located on the ground floor of one of the buildings used as student residences, centrally situated on the campus. The collection of this Library, shelved on free access, consists of books on managerial sciences in its widest sense, but also on general interest, like literature, art, geography, etc. It is felt that the Library should have books on general interest, as the campus is rather isolated from the outside world, and many students live there. The Lending Library is open three afternoons a week only.
As a result of its physical arrangements, the main services of the Library are easy to recognise, although sometimes almost hidden away like the bibliographical materials, located elsewhere like the lending library, or time-consuming to provide like the volumes of periodicals older than three years and the books that are stored downstairs. The Librarian feels accordingly that the set up of the Library is not optimal, there is no room for a complete open access. On the other hand however, the large number of readers' places in the main library (220) is appreciated, and readers are pleased to have possibilities of reading. This is shown in the registered consultations of materials in the library (about 50,000 annually).

SERVICES AND STAFF.

The Library does not have many special collections. Only the reports of student projects (reports of practical work of students from the Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales) are worth mentioning in this respect. A special index is the classified catalogue of journal articles including about 2600 articles from 180 journals annually, each with a small abstract of a few lines. In addition there is a classified catalogue of articles from newspapers and economic weeklies.

The Library has facilities for on-line literature searching for staff and students, who do not have to pay for it. There are two different library guides: one for teaching staff, and one for students. The distinctions are mainly in relation to lending facilities. In addition to this there is an accessions list and a list of periodical holdings, both periodical. Furthermore notes are being produced now and then, like a note on other libraries to hand out to those who leave the Centre. There are also notes produced on company information, and on bibliographical sources. If a need was expressed a subject bibliography has been produced occasionally.

The Library recognises different groups of readers: teaching staff, with a small distinction between permanent and visiting teaching staff, doctoral students, students, former students and external readers. The differences in services provided to the different groups are a result of the policy of the Library. The services provided to teaching staff are much more extensive than to students and former students. Books from the Main Library may only be borrowed by academic staff members, with an exception made for the Reserve Collection from which students may borrow one book for a weekend only. The provision of information is also much more extensive and personal to academic staff members than to students, while doctoral students get a more individual approach than other students. A bibliography on a given subject will be produced on request for teaching staff only. On-line searching is
Possible for teaching staff and doctoral students on the spot, while other students must come back for the results. The services of the Lending Library however, are equal to all readers.

As mentioned before the Library is not open to the public as such, but external readers may make use of it if they ask for permission. The service to external readers is certainly not promoted and only general information on the use of reference materials, etc. will be supplied on request.

The collection of the Library consists of approximately 40,000 books and 500 periodicals taken. As mentioned above there are 220 readers' places. Accessions are about 750 per year, and loans about 16,000 of which 1,000 short loans over the weekend.

The Library is open 62 1/2 hours per week during term and 37 1/2 hours during vacation. The Lending Library is open 12 hours per week only.

In the Library there are thirteen members of staff, all full-time. Six of them are functional specialists and can be considered as senior staff members. Their respective functions are: one Librarian, responsible for the whole functioning of the Library, a Deputy Librarian in charge of the books in the Main Library, two Assistant Librarians in charge of the books and cataloguing as well, and in addition in charge of the Lending Library. Finally there are two Documentalists who are in charge of the handling and documentation of periodicals. There are no subject-specialists in the Library.

The Library does not have external resources in addition to the library budget, nor are members of its staff being paid by external resources.

The classification system used in the Lending Library is Dewey, and the Librarian is rather content with it. In the Main Library books are stored historically, and according to subjects there is a Key-word catalogue. It means that books are shelved according to access-numbers in a chronological arrangement. Although the Librarian is not very content with it, she does not think that another system would function much better.

**Policy.**

The general policy of the Library as formulated by the Librarian reads: "meet readers' needs". In order to meet these needs the Library has always aimed at having good public relations with as many readers as possible. Through this informal conversation is possible and information is also obtained by the Librarian by means of talks with the different Directors.

In relation to the educational programmes the different institutions of the Centre provide, there is not much co-operation with the Library, but according to the Librarian
it is enough; it is roughly known what books are used for the different programmes.

The Library is keen on knowing what research is undertaken by academic staff, and the Librarian feels that she generally knows what research is undertaken within the Centre. In this respect the annual publication of a report on on-going research of the Centre is very useful.

The general policy of the Library is being influenced by changes in the services. With the introduction of new technology within the Library the documentation is changing, and the Library can improve this service, also in relation to on-line literature searching.

Altogether the Librarian does not feel that the objectives of the Library can be completely fulfilled. There are a number of small things that could be better, but improvements are not always possible. It thus can be concluded that the Library is functioning well, but not optimal.

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Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales,
Cergy, France,
(investigated: September 1983)

HISTORY.

It is not known when the Library of the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales was actually founded. Since it was never mentioned in any paper of the School, it may well be that it did not start before the sixties. The Librarian assumes that the need to start a Library was not felt within the School before 1962, and accordingly she thinks that the Library has started about that time.

In the beginning of 1973 there were two full-time and one part-time members of staff in the Library, where books could be borrowed from a collection of about 18,000. There was a small reading room to consult periodicals of which 250 titles were subscribed to. Some acquisitions were done, and it was possible to make photocopies of articles wanted.

In 1973 a big change took place when the School was transferred to Cergy; new teaching staff was appointed, the Library was re-organised and the space for the Library was designed for a capacity of 60,000 books. The number of library staff was extended, and the Library did obtain a proper budget in order to respond to the needs that were recognised. Afterwards more institutions within the Groupe ESSEC have been created, all demanding services from the Library, that has been able to expand in staff and materials due to these expressed needs.
GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library is to provide information to the readers of the Groupe ESSEC. On the one hand this means that the Library tries to provide information - mainly literature information - in a broad context, on the other hand it restricts the use to those within the Groupe ESSEC, former students not excluded.

The Librarian is responsible to the Dean, and on her own purpose she has relations with the directors of the different institutions within the Groupe on behalf of the Library. As a result of this the Library is well recognised, clearly distinguished from the other central services that have to report to the Administrative Director. It is difficult to indicate whether there is a difference in view between the objectives as seen by the Librarian, and those recognised by the management. Generally it can be concluded that the Library is taken for granted as long as the management does not get serious complaints about its functioning. In general the Librarian feels content about the services provided and has the idea that the objectives of the Library as she sees them are taken into account by the management of the Groupe ESSEC, although she has some strong wishes to change some services.

There is no Library Committee within the Groupe ESSEC. The Library has its own budget that includes personnel.

The Library is situated on the first floor and on the ground floor of the main building with the entrance on the first floor near the restaurant, very central and easy to find. The counter is just inside the entrance and is always manned. In its neighbourhood a few notice-boards are placed, used for background information on projects undertaken by students, or general library information.

Beside the counter the catalogues will be found for easy consultation. Around the catalogues quick reference materials and jurisprudences are shelved. Opposite the counter there is a room where the Reserve Collection can be found in open access, with a member of staff permanent on duty. Although a part of this collection may be borrowed overnight, the general rule is that these books must be consulted within the Library.

The main book collection is shelved in closed access behind the counter, but ordered systematically since permanent teaching staff and doctoral students of the Groupe are permitted to browse if they want to. Hidden away behind the main book collection are the rooms of most members of the library staff. This prevents a direct approach by readers, but if necessary staff members are close at hand.

A room with reference materials like dictionaries, bibliographical records and company information is situated close to the main book collection behind the catalogues. This room is locked unless a reader (in most occasions a member of the teaching staff) asks to open it for consultation. It is
locked because the reference materials shelved in this room are rather expensive to obtain and the Library has to face theft sometimes.

Along the Reference Room a stair-case downstairs leads to the periodicals room, where periodicals are on display for easy consultation, divided into three sections: newspapers, French periodicals, and foreign periodicals. Many readers' places can be found here, while there is a counter with a member of staff on duty, and a coin-operated photo-copying machine is put within this room. Behind this counter there is a stack-room where many older volumes of periodicals are stored; to consult these one must enquire at the periodicals counter. Statistical materials can be found in a corner of the Periodicals Room; books as well as periodicals. For use of microform readers small rooms open to the Periodicals Room.

As a special service for all those who work at the Groupe ESSEC the so-called "Librairie" must be mentioned, a collection of some 7000 books and subscriptions to about 100 periodicals on general interest, culture, literature, arts, but also philosophy, history and politics, with free access to its readers. It is located on the ground floor near the Library, but with a separate entrance. It is not considered as a part of the Library, and accordingly is mentioned separately in all brochures of the Groupe ESSEC and not mentioned in the library guide, but it rests under the responsibility of the Librarian, and a member of the library staff is on duty in the "Librairie" when it is open.

Considering the location of the different services the Library provides, it can be concluded that they are easy to find in a logical order. Even if some parts of the collection cannot be as open as would be advisable, the Librarian is generally content about the lay-out of the Library with the exception of the "Librairie", that takes too much space and staff time in her opinion, since the kind of information provided by the "Librairie" is easy to obtain in town at a few minutes walk from the Groupe.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

Two special collections of the Library can be mentioned: a collection of company reports, and a collection of working papers. Unfortunately these special collections are stored in the stack-room due to lack of space.

As a special index the index of periodical articles is worth mentioning, that is a card-index including articles from about 40% of all periodicals the Library takes.

The Library has on-line facilities for literature searching, to be used exclusively by teaching staff and doctoral students. Another information service of the Library is an individual current contents service that is provided to permanent teaching staff only.

The Library produces a new library guide every year; in
addition a bi-monthly list of acquisitions, and an annual list of periodical holdings are being produced.

The Library recognises a number of different groups of readers: permanent and temporary teaching staff, doctoral students, students of the various institutions, post-experience course participants, former students, and external readers. There are differences in the provision of services to the different groups. Staff for instance is allowed to lend more books at a time than students, while former students, temporary teaching staff and post-experience course participants are not allowed to lend at all. Inter-library loan services are open exclusively to permanent teaching staff and in the provision of other services permanent teaching staff is also more privileged than other readers.

The Library is not open to the public, because it is felt that the public demand would become too much if the Library were open to the general public, which would certainly harm its own readers. Since the building is in the middle of the town, it would be too easy for the general public to make use of the Library of the Groupe. For easy control every reader has a reader's card.

The Library is open 51 hours a week during term. The collection includes about 27,000 books, approximately 650 periodicals are taken, while reports from 800 French and foreign companies are being collected. There are 250 readers places. Annual accessions are about 2,000 and annual loan figures show about 75,000.

There are 14 staff working in the Library with a full-time equivalent of 12. Five of them, including the Librarian, are functional specialists, of which two are on duty on cataloguing and indexing, one on acquisitions, one on loans, and one on periodicals. There are no subject specialists in the Library. Consequently five members of staff can be considered as senior staff; in addition there are four library assistants, one sub-assistant, two secretaries, and two guardians. One senior member of staff is always on duty at the loan desk (the main counter) in order to deal with enquiries. Since readers have no direct access to the majority of the library staff, it is important that difficult enquiries can be dealt with directly by a senior staff member.

There are no members of staff being paid by external resources, nor does the Library have any external resources in addition to the library budget.

The Library uses the classification system of the Paris Chamber of Industry and Commerce, that has been modified for use in this Library. The Librarian is more or less content about this system, keeping in mind that an ideal classification system does not exist.
POLICY.

The present policy of the Library as formulated by the Librarian reads: "to provide information to all various kinds of readers at different levels, whatever the support is, by means of providing services." Since this is the same as the general objective, although more specialised, it means that it is a broad and long-term policy, without any time limit. Although the teaching staff of all institutes within the Groupe should deliver to the Library lists of all literature to be used for courses and programmes beforehand, this often is not done with the result that the Library cannot function optimally and students complain about it. Sometimes students inform the Library about books that will be used within the programmes.

The research that is being undertaken within the Groupe ESSEC unfortunately is not generally known to the Library, which means that the Library often is unable to respond efficiently to research needs of academic staff. The reason for not informing the Library is often because academic staff members feel that research subjects are too confidential to inform a member of the library staff, while it is not thought that the Library could possibly assist with the research projects by providing information.

The fact that the Groupe ESSEC includes a number of different institutions, means that the Library must try to be as balanced as possible in the provision of services. It is a matter of policy not only to provide the best service and get a minimum of complaints, but also to become appreciated by the different groups of readers.

Much staff time is devoted to loan services, where four members of staff are on duty, of which the Librarian thinks that it is too much! loan services however are important to the functioning of a library. In general the Librarian feels that the objectives of the Library can be fulfilled more or less, but she recognises a lack in the budget in relation to the number of staff available in the library, as well as in relation to the materials budget.

Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus,

Aarhus, Denmark.

(investigated: March 1983)

HISTORY.

The Library of the Aarhus School of Economics, Business Administration, and Modern Languages started in 1939 with some books, but without permanent staff. A need was felt then to put together all books used by staff in order to make a better use of it. A card catalogue was produced by a secretary of the University Library of Aarhus University, who worked on it on a part-time basis. In 1953 a part-time
A librarian was appointed, who worked for the Library in the evenings, while there still was some part-time assistance for cataloguing. The Library remained very small until 1964 when a full-time librarian was appointed, who was also the first full-time member of the library staff. Another member of staff was appointed in 1965, and after that the Library grew up to its present size.

The service in general was not very good in the beginning: a catalogue was produced, but readers had to help themselves, and enquiries could hardly be dealt with. In 1953 the Lending Department was started, and in 1964 a start was made with user education, mainly by means of teaching to students. Of course books were bought from the very beginning, but in 1964 a policy for acquisitions was started. In the early seventies information systems services and reader services were started.

GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library - as formulated by the Librarian - reads: "To present all kinds of information to researchers and teaching staff, students, and business people". This is a very broad statement, that should be restricted to literature information mainly, next to very general information.

The Library is an independent organisation within the School under the supervision of a Library Council to which the Librarian is responsible. About this Library Council the official Act reads:

A Library Council of 10 members is appointed, the Head of the Library is chairperson ex officio of the Council. Among and by the full-time staff of the Library two members are elected. The representatives of the teachers and of the academic staff of the Senate elect four members, the student representatives of the Senate elect two members. The industrial representatives of the Government Board elect one member.

The Library Council works out the budget to the Executive Committee of the Senate and it supervises currently the expenditures. The Library Council takes principal decisions on the buying policy of the Library and on lending policy as well. [167]

In addition to this the Act on the Government of Higher Educational Institutions includes a paragraph on library councils to be installed at institutions with a research library. In this Act it is mentioned that it applies to schools of economics, business administration and modern languages in addition to many research libraries of universities and colleges mentioned by name. Among other things this Act reads:

The purpose of the provisions is to create a close connection between the users and the Library, a
connection which is necessary for applying in the best possible way to the resources available for book purchase. [...] The provision of this paragraph implies an independent competence of the Library Council. There is no access to bring in the decisions of the Library Council to the Senate, and decisions can only be brought before the Minister of Education according to the rules of par. 35, subsection 2. [148]

As a result of this official status the Library is very well recognised within the School, and according to the Librarian there is no difference in view between the objectives of the Library as seen by its staff, and those recognised by the management of the School, while the Librarian feels that the objectives as he sees them are taken into account. Since the Library gets its own budget including personnel and all material costs, competition with other central services is out of the question.

The Library is centrally situated on the first floor of the building. Next to the entrance is the counter, and opposite the counter are the main catalogues. Written information explains to the reader how to use the catalogues, make reservations, etc., while forms for different purposes are available to be completed when needed. At the counter general information and lending is dealt with; next to it the counter of the Information and Documentation Department can be found, where specialised information can be obtained on request. Behind and beside this counter reference works, bibliographic materials and periodicals are shelved for easy consultation. Through a glass door a reading room can be reached.

In addition to this central place the Library has four main areas:
- The Economics Library, where the majority of the book collection can be found, shelved in systematical order on free access.
- The International Library with reference materials like statistics, company information by country, etc., while this also is a documentation centre for literature from and on the European Communities.
- The Language Library, divided into two parts: a reference part where reference materials and periodicals on languages can be found, and another part where books are shelved that may be borrowed.
- A central processing area for library staff only, where most kinds of library administration take place.

Within the first three areas many readers' places can be found. The areas are located on different levels, with some narrow corridors and a photocopying room between the Economics Library and the International Library. Behind the reading room mentioned before there are some rooms for library staff, while there are also members of the library staff having their rooms downstairs, under the Library.

After the investigation of this Library some locational
changes have taken place with the result that some more space, particularly for the Language Library, could be added and the arrangements of the different areas could be improved, by moving the central processing area downstairs. The library staff generally is content about the physical arrangements, where the different departments are clearly distinguished and separated from each other.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

There are four special collections within the Library:
- A collection of published materials from and on the European Communities.
- A collection of literature for business information, including reference works and company reports.
- A collection of 5000 books on auditing.
- A collection of 3000 books on law.

To the last two collections no books have been added after they have been obtained some years ago, and consequently they both have but historical value and are being used for research purposes only.

Apart from the main cataloguing, an experiment on EDP-cataloguing must be mentioned that was started in the Library in October 1982. Catalogue entries were partly put into a joint database for the Danish research libraries called SAMKAT, partly into the database of Aarhus State and University Library in order to test two cataloguing and search programmes for an on-line catalogue to replace the traditional card catalogue.

After the investigation of this Library, the experiment has resulted into full participation in the SAMKAT project for all publications published in 1985 and after. At the same time the Library has applied to the Ministry of Education for a grant to establish and run its own database, for which no reply had yet been received at the beginning of 1985. The idea, as suggested by the Board of the Danish Research Libraries, is to decentralise the databases to the various research libraries, and at the same time contribute to the joint database SAMKAT.

The Library has on-line access for literature searching, carried out by a member of the Information and Documentation Department. Researchers and teaching staff can make use of it free of charge and unlimited, while postgraduate students can have one free search done in connection to their papers. Since payment cannot yet be accepted, other searches for students are not yet possible.

From the Spring of 1982 to the Spring of 1984 the Library has joined the Danish Teledata experiment to see if the Library could effectively be used as an information medium, by supplying business information, while the purpose of the Library to join has been to test the applicability of the medium as a link between the knowledge available within the resources of the Library, and the information needs of, primarily, trade and industry. The interests the business
The world has shown in the project have been satisfactory, and another result has been that many information needs from business firms have become known by the Library, and could be dealt with. There are two main library publications: a list of periodical holdings, and a library guide; both are being updated when necessary. In addition a few small library publications on different subjects, e.g. on bibliographies, on how to use the Language Library, on legal publications, etc. have been produced several years ago, but are not distributed anymore.

Three groups of readers are recognised by the Library: academic staff (within this group researchers are considered to be the most important), students, and external readers. As a general rule the provision of services is the same to all three groups, but there are a few exceptions. The possibility of getting on-line searches is restricted to academic staff only as has been mentioned above: the same is true for circulation and lending of periodicals that is restricted to academic staff as well. All other services however are open to all readers, and since the Library is open to the public, anyone can make use of these services. The Library does not try to sell itself to people outside the School however, since there is enough work to do for the academic staff and the students of the School.

The collection of the Library consists of about 110,000 books, approximately 1,000 periodicals are taken and there are 80 readers' places all over the Library. Annual accessions include about 5600 books, and about 42,000 books are being borrowed annually. The Library is open 50 1/2 hours per week during term, and 30 hours during vacations.

There are 21 staff in the Library with a full-time equivalent of 18. Five of them are functional specialists, working on information services (including on-line literature searching), acquisitions, cataloguing, classification, and interlibrary loans. In addition to this there are subject specialists for the Economics Library, for the Language Library, and for the International Library, while there is also a subject specialist on law available.

In addition to the general budget the Library has some external resources:
- Trade organisations pay an amount of money for the development of information technology within the Library.
- The Nordic Council (Nordinfo) including Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Finland subsidises projects in the information field when all four countries are included together. One of these projects is the production of a thesaurus in business and economics, in which this Library is involved. For the time of the Tele-data experiment mentioned above, two members of the library staff have been paid from resources of this project, but apart from this no members of the library staff are being paid by external resources.
The classification system used is the U.D.C., the Librarian is content with this system for which the Library has a responsibility for Denmark for the group 651 business administration. This involves a lot of work.

POLICY.

The present policy of the Library in the words of the Librarian reads: "To do everything possible in order to assist all readers of the Library." In order to fulfill this policy, needs of readers are being met if possible, particularly those of academic staff members. Furthermore members of the library staff are teaching different classes of undergraduates on how to use the Library, while sometimes courses are given, e.g. on terminology. In relation to educational programmes some members of the teaching staff contact the Library beforehand on what books they intend to use in class, but not all of them do this. The research that is being undertaken within the School is not generally known in the Library. The results from research by means of reports, working papers, etc. are always included into the Library's collection, but the research staff hardly informs the Library on their specialised subjects. Information is often obtained from annual reports of the School, which means that the information is often received too late to meet research needs. In general the Librarian feels that the objectives of the Library can be fulfilled: the Library is well recognised and is able to meet most needs expressed by its readers.

Henley, the Management College,
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Henley-on-Thames, United Kingdom.
<Investigated: November 1983>

HISTORY.

The Library of Henley, the Management College has been established immediately after the foundation of the College when in 1948 the first mid-career management course started, in order to provide back-up support for the courses. Support to courses has been a main task of the Library ever since, and the library staff is very much involved in the major courses the College has to offer. The collection of the Library has grown slowly, since the Library did not set out to become a comprehensive library of business and management, but has aimed from the beginning to being an active working unit geared closely to the work of the College. Consequently library materials have always been selected carefully. In 1951 the Library has moved to its present building on the site.
GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library is to service programmes of the College. The Librarian is responsible to the Principal as one of the academic staff members of the College. The objectives of the Library as the Librarian sees them are taken into account, but the Principal has the ultimate decision.

There is a Library Committee with the Deputy Principal as chairperson; other members are major course directors, the Librarian and the Deputy Librarian. The Library Committee meets occasionally to discuss matters relating to the Library and its policy.

The Library has its own budget, personnel excluded.

The Library is located in a separate building, not in the central building of the College, which affects the work-load. Immediately behind the entrance of the Library the library office is situated where the staff is on duty, the Librarian included. Through the library office the main library will be reached, where books are shelved along the back walls and on both sides of bays opposite the entrance. On the left the catalogue, current periodicals, pamphlets and subject reference can be found, while on the right more current periodicals and reference materials are shelved. All over the place readers' places can be found. Through the bays opposite the entrance a current affairs room with different kinds of reports, bibliographies and statistics lead to another room where back-issues of periodicals are stored. A collection of biographies and microfilm equipment are to be found in a separate room upstairs. Through the years the Library has grown to the extent that it has grown out of its present building, but all services are easy to recognise.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

The Library has some special collections; there is a collection of biographies of world leaders, leadership is a special field of interest of the Library. Furthermore there is a collection of company reports, and a small collection of company history.

In addition to the main cataloguing, indexing is done in response to courses; the Library always tries to respond to expressed needs immediately, and ad hoc. If a need is expressed, it is needed now and perhaps for once and it is not necessary to continue an indexing service once it is completed and the needs have been met, unless a demand is expressed about it.

Facilities for on-line literature searching are not provided, but readers can make use of on-line facilities of Brunel University if they want to.

The Library provides a circulation of periodicals to staff members of the College, but since this presents administrative problems, it was being reviewed at the time of
the investigation. The Librarian feels that it would be much better to scan the journals for academic staff, but given their number this is not possible unfortunately.

There is a library guide that is updated when needed. Further library publications include an annual list of periodical holdings, an accessions list, and a College publications list.

Three groups of readers are being recognised by the Library: College staff, course members, and those who enquire from outside the College. Apart from the journal circulation that is restricted to College staff, there are no distinctions between the different groups of readers. This is possible since the total number of readers is limited. As the College is a private institution, the Library is not open to the public; those who enquire from outside the College are either former course participants or other libraries.

The collection of the Library consists of approximately 10,000 books and 400 periodical subscriptions, while there are 20 readers' places. Annual book accessions are about 1500; there are no records for the number of loans. The Library is open at all times, but the library staff is on duty 40 hours per week.

There are 3 members of the library staff, headed by the Librarian, but with flexible duties in order to respond to readers' needs whenever expressed. This also includes a lot of time devoted to course papers. As a result of this policy there are neither functional specialists, nor subject specialists in the Library.

The Library does not have external resources, neither to pay members of the library staff, nor as an addition to the library budget.

The classification used by the Library is the London Classification of Business Studies, of which the Librarian thinks that it is good for what it is.

POLICY.

The present policy of the Library is to respond to demands of readers as well as keeping up with day-to-day routine. Since the Librarian is very much involved in College life, the main educational programmes are known to her as well as the research that is undertaken, which means that responding to either needs is possible.

As a total result the Librarian feels that the objectives of the Library certainly can be fulfilled.
International Management Institute,
Geneva, Switzerland.
(investigated June 1983)

HISTORY.

The Library of the International Management Institute has been established immediately after the foundation of the School in 1946, since it was felt that a school needs a library. It started to provide books to course participants, which is still its main task. From the beginning the collection has been very internationally oriented, as the School was set up as an international organisation, but the Library remained small.

GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library is to support research needs of students and the faculty including alumni. This objective suits very well the openness the School aims at, including a service mindedness with a personal touch to every reader of the Library.

The Librarian is responsible to the chairperson of the faculty, and since the organisation is small, it is obvious that the Library is visible as a service institution to everyone within the School, and also very well recognised. Consequently there is no difference in view between the objectives as seen by the Librarian and those recognised by the management of the School, and the Librarian certainly feels that the objectives as she sees them are taken into account, also because she is recognised as a main member of staff. Since the organisation is small, there is no need for a Library Committee.

The Library has its own budget in order to obtain library materials, but this does not include personnel. Every year the budget is being considered; generally the Library has no serious budgetting problems to face.

The Library is very centrally located in the main building of the School, close to the main entrance on the ground floor. It is mainly one room where books are stored to the walls according to subjects. Near the entrance newspapers and current information can be found, while the catalogues are at the back of the room, near a small room for Library staff. In one of the back corners of the room reference books are shelved and in the middle of the room there is a big table with chairs to be used mainly for reference and reading of newspapers.

In addition to this main room there are two rooms for the Library in the basement. One is used for company information, mainly including company reports that can be used on the
spot. In the other room statistical information can be found and a part of the main book collection. The Library faces severe locational problems and in fact the whole School needs more space, a problem that cannot easily be solved. Some years ago the Library has lost a part of its space to the administration now on the ground floor next to the Library. Sometimes the Library is used for a meeting, if no other rooms are available, which means that for the time the meeting takes place, readers cannot make use of the Library.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

Apart from the collection of company reports mentioned above, the Library has these special collections: student writing electives, consulting reports, industry trip reports, and faculty publications.

In addition to the main catalogues an index of journal articles was started in 1970, but this index was not continued after 1978.

At the time of the investigation the Library did not yet have possibilities for on-line literature searching. There is a current contents service and SDI-services are being provided to special profiles if needs are felt. This is not formally done, but these services are the results of recognized needs or replies to special requests on the spur of the moment.

The Library has a small library guide that is updated once a year. Other regular library publications include an accessions list and a list of periodical holdings, while occasionally a bibliography is produced.

Five groups of readers are recognized by the Library: staff, students, course participants, alumni, and others. No distinction is made between them in relation to library services provided. Even the current contents service is open to all readers, and journals can be borrowed for short terms, if a member of the library staff is advised beforehand.

The Library is open to the public, but the use by outside readers is not encouraged due to the limited collection. There are not many outside readers, also because Geneva has many good libraries on different subjects.

The collection includes some 12,000 books, about 250 periodicals are taken, annual reports of about 1100 companies are being collected, and there are 14 readers' places. Annual accessions of the library include approximately 400 books.

The Library is open 32 1/2 hours per week, but when closed, staff and students of the School can get a key if they want to make use of the Library without the help of library staff.

There are two members of the library staff, both professional librarians. The Library used to have three staff, but due to the economic recession one was not replaced after leaving at the end of the seventies.

No staff is paid by external resources, nor does the Library
have any external resources in addition to the library budget.
The classification system used is a combination of the UDC and Dewey. The Librarian is satisfied with this, considering that there is no perfect classification system.

POLICY.
The present policy of the Library is formulated by the Librarian as very customer oriented; the main concern of the library staff is to find out what the needs of the readers are in order to help them in the best possible way. The collection of the Library is very international oriented and as a result of this books and journals in many languages can be found. (There even are some reference books in Japanese.) Two main characteristics of the Library are its informality and openness according to the Librarian. In contradiction to most other business school libraries, this Library is not a place to study. It is more a social place, where newspapers can be read, books be borrowed, and references found if needed, while the Library is also used for social talks. Since the Library is very much involved in the provision of books to course participants, it is obvious that educational programmes of the School are well known.
In relation to research undertaken by academic staff members, it is generally known in the Library what research is undertaken and researchers will be supported with sources, while the Library keeps profiles of research in order to be able to respond to research needs whenever expressed.

According to the Librarian the objectives of the Library could be improved if at least the whole Library could be situated on one floor with more space and better possibilities for arranging materials. This would certainly improve the service and yet the openness and informality, that is characteristic to the School, could be maintained. The best solution however would be to have a new building.

Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde,

Delft, the Netherlands.
(investigated April 1983)

HISTORY.
The Library of the Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde was started in 1966, right after the establishment of the Stichting BedrijfsKunde, in order to supply course participants with the literature needed for successful participation to the courses. A need was also felt to have some additional literature available for easy consultation. A Librarian was appointed, who was working part-time for the
Library for the first few years, and temporarily assistance was provided sometimes.

When in 1969 the Interfaculteit BedrijfsKunde was founded, the Library became also the Library for this new School, and in 1972, when the Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde was established, it has become the Library of this Institute. After the movement to Delft in 1974, it has mainly served the Interfaculteit BedrijfsKunde.

In 1970 the Library obtained the complete holdings of the former International Contact for Management Education, including about 7,000 books, a number of periodical volumes, and the right to publish 'Documentation on Books', a documentation bulletin of new books on management and related subjects, from 1970 onwards published by the European Foundation for Management Development in Brussels. Review copies of books that were received for inclusion into 'Documentation on Books', have been included into the holdings of the Library this way.

Slowly more staff was appointed, but it was not until 1973 that professional library services could be developed. 1974 showed a rapid growth in the number of periodical subscriptions after the Institute moved to Delft; this growth has continued until 1979, when over 900 periodicals were taken. Due to price increases and reductions of the library budget, the Library had to cut on the number of periodical subscriptions, with the result that this had come to about 540 by the end of 1982.

The book collection grew to almost 30,000 in 1961; in 1982 weeding of older editions of books and books that were outdated has resulted into a reduction of the stock with about one third of the collection.

An individual current contents service for academic staff was introduced in 1974, but due to lack of interest from many academic staff members of the School and taking into account that this service was very time consuming, it was discontinued in 1981.

In 1981 a physical extension of the Library could be realized.

The Library staff grew to 6.2 full-time equivalent in 1977, and still was the same at the time of the investigation.

GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library, formulated January 1980 reads:

The objective of the Library is to supply information from the literature in its widest sense, or provide assistance to find this information, together with the improvement of services by means of effective systems and procedures in order to respond to information needs fast and efficient. [149]

As one of the central services the Library is not very well recognised within the Organisation, and although it is
frequently used - mainly by students, but also by most members of the academic staff - it is considered to be a lending library much more than the information centre it pretends to be. Here lies the main difference in view between the management of the School and the Librarian. The management recognises a need for books, for periodicals, it does hardly recognise a reference function, while abstracting and indexing services are not recognised at all. The library staff feels that the general objective of the Library is not accepted as such, and although it can be shown that information services are being supplied as a main function of the Library, the management seems not to be interested. As a result of this, it is thought that there are too many staff in the Library, even if all functions can be made clear.

There is a Library Advisory Committee consisting of representatives from the different departments of the School, together with a representative of the Sectie Post Academisch Onderwijs, the Librarian, and his Deputy; one of the professors of the School is chairperson of this Committee. This Committee advises the Library on matters of acquisitions of books, periodicals, reports, etc., but also the policy in relation to the management is discussed on matters like library materials, staff, the library budget, etc., while members of the Committee are kept informed on anything worth mentioning in relation to the Library. Although this Committee may sometimes advise to the management of the School, it has no formal status and its main task is to advise either to the Library when asked for, or as far as individual members are concerned to the departments represented.

The library budget fixed by the Faculty Council of the School annually does not include staff, but library materials and equipment; sometimes necessary equipment may be taken from the general budget of the School, to be decided by the Director, normally however equipment must be covered by the annual budget. The Librarian is responsible for the library budget and its divisions.

The Library is located on the second floor of the building, very centrally and easy to find. It is a big L-shaped room with the entrance in the corner of the L. Next to the entrance there is the counter; behind the counter a small Reserve Collection is stored including duplicate copies of all books used for the programmes of the School. Close to the counter are the catalogues, a coin-operated photocopying machine and a reading corner with newspapers and current information. Books are shelved in systematic order on free access. At one of the far ends of the Library journals can be found including volumes from 1981 onwards up to the current volumes. Unfortunately it has not been possible to put all volumes of periodicals together. Older volumes of journals are stored on the other far end of the Library, on free access as well. Near the current journals there is a reading place with reference materials and close to it a corner with bibliographical materials, while there also is a section of
statistics. Rooms for library staff are on different places in the Library where doors are normally open in order that members of the library staff are easily available if needed. Master's theses of graduates from the School are shelved in one of the staff rooms, ensuring control.

In a separate room there is a Company Information Department with company reports, house journals, banking journals, and a small collection of reference materials. All services are open to the readers and easy to recognize, periodicals of a separate kind, like statistical journals, or journals of employers' and employees' organisations are shelved separately from general periodicals.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

Special collections of the Library include the collection of company reports and the collection of Master's theses of graduates from the School as mentioned above. The Reserve Collection was also mentioned above. Books from this collection can be borrowed for consulting within the Library only, but first copies can be borrowed from the normal collection. The Library also has a collection of research reports and working papers on management and related subjects. Finally two small collections must be mentioned: a collection of statistical publications, and a collection of government publications. As mentioned above the Library produces 'Documentation on Books' on behalf of the European Foundation for Management Development in Brussels for which review copies of books are being received. After the production of 'Documentation on Books' (for which abstracts have to be made), the books involved are included into the normal collection of the Library.

In addition to the main catalogues, two small catalogues are being produced. One is a catalogue of master theses of graduates from the School, the other one is a small catalogue of staff publications of the School, from which the annual bibliography of staff publications is being produced for inclusion into the annual report of the School.

There are limited facilities for on-line literature searching in the Library, only for the benefit of academic staff. It started only in 1983 and has not yet been used very frequently, probably because it is not yet very well known. The Library produces two annual publications: the library guide and the list of periodical holdings. Furthermore a monthly acquisitions list is published. In addition to this several publications have been made to assist readers. In 1982 a library guide for external readers was produced, aimed at post-experience course participants of the Sectie Post Academisch Onderwijs. It contained less general information than the regular library guide, but more specific information of interest for business people, like an emphasis put on current information, an indication where to find which newspapers, etc. A company information guide was produced in 1981 to inform readers on what information can be found in the Company Information Department.
In general the Library recognises three groups of readers: academic staff of the School, students and external readers. Very few distinctions have been made between these three groups in relation to services provided. On-line literature searching is restricted to academic staff for the time being, and staff of the School does not have to pay for photocopying, but like other readers they have to do it by themselves or ask a secretary to copy for them. The general rules of the Library apply to all readers, and if occasionally an exception is made, this is not influenced by the group of readers the person belongs to.

The Library is open to the public, and is sometimes used by people from business firms, public organisations, etc. It is felt first that a management library should provide services to the business world if needs are being expressed, and second that a state-sponsored service institution should provide its services to anybody who needs it. Since there are not many external readers, this policy is not detrimental to members of the School.

The total number of books is about 20,000, approximately 540 periodicals are taken, and there are some 50 reader's places. The annual number of accessions is about 2,000 and the number of loans over 9,000 (books from the Reserve Collection not included).

The Library is open 42 1/2 hours per week all over the year.

There are 7 members of the library staff with a full-time equivalent of 6.2. The Librarian is a subject specialist in law, the Deputy Librarian is a functional specialist in library management, while the staff includes two more professionals. All functions are clearly distinguished and can be recognised from the main functions of the Library. No members of the staff are being paid by external resources, nor does the Library have any additional income.

The classification used is a mixture of the UDC and the London Classification of Business Studies. This system does not fit anymore all subjects covered by the Library as it should do. The reason for this can mainly be found in recent developments of the subjects covered; change of the classification system however has been too heavy a task to undertake in the last few years.

POLICY.

The present policy of the Library can be formulated as: "To provide the best service possible to readers in order to meet their information needs". The best service does not include any documentation, since readers are only helped to help themselves. They will be shown where to find books on a certain subject for instance, but have to select books by themselves.

Through secretaries of study programme committees, the Library tries to get informed about programmes and particularly about books to be used for these programmes, in
order to put second copies of the books concerned in the Reserve Collection, either by taking them from the main collection, or by ordering if not in the holdings. After the programme has run, books are put back into the main collection again. This means that the Reserve Collection is changing every few months.

The research that is undertaken by academic staff of the School is not generally known in the Library and the Library does not provide special services to meet research needs. Incidentally however individuals can be helped with their needs if a research subject is known by a member of the library staff who happens to find some information on this subject.

According to the Deputy Librarian the objectives of the Library could have been fulfilled much better if more services - like SDI-services - could have been provided. Unfortunately however many staff changes did occur and different members of the library staff fell ill for longer periods during the last few years resulting into restrictions in service for some years. It means that an extension of services provided could not be thought of.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS.

After the investigation of this Library, some major changes have taken place (see also pages 115-116). In September 1984 the Library has become a department of the University Library of Erasmus University Rotterdam, and in November of that year the Library moved to the university campus, where it is located on the ground floor of the new building for the Rotterdam School of Management (formerly: Interfaculteit Bedrijfskunde) of which it is not anymore a part, but which it still mainly serves. As soon as the library building of the University has been extended, the Library, now called Management Collection of the University Library, will move to the new part of that building and become a Management Reading Room. It is envisaged that this will take place in the course of 1986.

As a result of this change the library staff was reduced to three; this was possible because some major tasks were taken over by the University Library, e.g. acquisitions. Furthermore books and periodicals from the sciences basic to management (like economics, sociology, psychology and law) have been weeded in 1984, since these are available in the University Library. The main book stock of the University Library however has closed access, meaning that the service to readers of the Management Collection is reduced as far as basic sciences are concerned and will be further reduced when the Management Collection will be physically included into the collection of the University Library. At the beginning of 1985 the Management Collection included 15,000 books and 272 periodicals taken. Its main tasks from before the changes have not yet been changed, but changes may eventually occur in 1986.
London Business School,
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London, United Kingdom,
(investigated November 1983).

HISTORY.

The Library of the London Business School, formerly known under the name of London Graduate School of Business Studies, was established in 1966 immediately after the establishment of the School, since an immediate need was felt to establish a Library in order to provide information resources for the teaching and research of the School. The Library started to provide multiple copies of books for courses held; afterwards library services were built up one after another. Abstracting and indexing services were among the first services to start, then a reference collection was built up, before first the periodicals collection and after that the book collection was started. From the very beginning it was felt that a library must market its wares and tell its customers about new lines and new products. In order to do this the occasional circulation to members of the LBS-staff of a publication called Library Notes was started as early as 1966. It has become a regular library publication some years later, and in March 1981 the centenary issue could be distributed. May 1980 Prestel entered the Library.

GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library is defined as: "to support research and teaching of the School". Through the years this broad objective has not changed. Support in this respect is restricted to library services in its widest sense.

The Librarian has been appointed by and is responsible to the Principal of the School, but the Library is responsible to the Library Committee. The Librarian is a member of the academic staff of the School, and is born member of both the Faculty Board and the Executive Committee of the School. Given these facts the Librarian feels that the status of the Library within the School is firm, building on a good base, and it even seemed to be getting firmer at the time of the investigation. The access to external databases for instance is through the Library. Accordingly the Librarian does not think that there is a difference in view between the objectives of the Library as seen by himself - and these are certainly taken into account - and those recognised by the management of the School.

The Library Committee consists of one of the professors as chairperson, nominated by the Principal, the Librarian, four Faculty, one staff, one library staff, two MSc students, one student from the Sloan programme, and one PhD student. The Library Committee is one of the standing committees of the
School. Its main aim is to bring before the Faculty Board matters of policy, organisation and the general running of the Library, and to advise the Librarian on their implementation in accordance with the policy of the Faculty Board. In theory, the Library Committee also selects new library staff, but in practice the Librarian decides about it. The Library Committee meets regularly in order to deal with the main policy of the Library. The Library has its own budget, personnel included.

The Library is situated on the first floor of the main building, very central and easy to find. Through the years some rearrangements have taken place from time to time in order to improve the services supplied to readers, and in 1982 the Library could be enlarged due to the fact that a new building was constructed for the School. As a result of this, the library services were rearranged, and more space has become available for the library staff. Near the entrance, where a security system is operating, the information desk will be found, behind which the short loan collection (formerly called reserve collection) is shelved, easy at hand and under control. Opposite the counter there is a notice board and proceeding along the counter leads to the Corporate Library. Behind a door at the end of the Corporate Library most staff rooms are located.

Next to the information desk there are on-line terminals for use by readers of the Library, who may thus easily consult a member of the library staff when problems arise. Market research reports and other reference works, a display of new books, and the catalogues are not far from the information desk as well. Different kinds of the collection are clearly distinguished and so abstracts and indexes are shelved separately, while this is also the case with periodicals, statistical materials, government publications, newspapers, and working papers. Books are shelved in open access in systematical order. There are separate rooms for photocopying and microforms. Consequently all services are easy to recognise, with the Corporate Library as a complete separate entity.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

The special collections of the Library include:
- Corporate Library, including annual reports of all British publicly quoted companies, 1000 American companies, 500 European companies, and 100 companies from other countries; in addition this collection includes Extel cards providing financial data and news about some 5500 British companies, and McCarthy's British and European industry press cutting services. Finally, it includes a large collection of directories and handbooks.
- Short loan collection, including multiple copies of books for major courses of the School.
- Market research reports.
- Frost and Sullivan collection of market research papers, of which access is restricted due to the insistence of Frost and Sullivan.
- Working papers from university and research institutes.
- Government publications.
- Information files, including recent newspaper cuttings, reports, etc. on subjects, countries, organisations, and business schools.
- LBS theses and student projects.

Apart from the main cataloguing, journal indexing has taken place in the Library from its very beginning, but was stopped in 1980. In 1975 a computerised list of all items included in the short loan collection became available. In 1976 a card index was completed of articles on companies. The last two indexes are maintained and kept up to date. In 1981 indexing was started for serials, market research reports, Frost and Sullivan reports, and government publications. All this indexing was undertaken, because these kinds of publications are not very well covered by officially published indexes or abstract services.

The Library has on-line facilities for literature searching that can be used by staff, students and alumni of the School. Some money for this is budgeted, but not all. If the Library is charged for a literature search, readers will be charged as well, but inside people only pay marginal costs.

There are two small SDI services provided by the Library: a circulation of some periodicals which is exclusively for academic staff of the School, and a service of provision of contents pages of periodicals, for which a list is available with periodical titles covered by each section of subjects.

The following publications are being produced and distributed by the Library, some of them are for sale to external people:
- Library guide, updated annually.
- List of accessions, published quarterly.
- List of serial holdings, including entries for statistical series, published annually.
- Contents of current journals (see above).
- Photocopies of title pages of working papers.
- Library notes, published monthly until a few years ago, now being published a few times a year, when there is something worth informing to readers.
- Information notes, a series of small publications, each explaining a particular library service. Recently published information notes have been on on-line literature searching, on sources of industries, and on companies.

The Library recognises five groups of readers: staff and students of the School, alumni of the School, corporate subscribers and individual subscribers. A main distinction is recognised between internal and external people; alumni are generally treated as internal people. All readers may use the Library for reference, for which external people have to
produce a reader's ticket, if they use the Library regularly. For incidental use it is free to them, if the material wanted is not readily available elsewhere, and if the reader is of graduate level or above.

Loan facilities are not open to individual subscribers, but corporate subscribers may borrow from the Library and so are internal people with limits to the number of books taken at any one time. Staff are permitted more books than students, and only staff is permitted to borrow periodical issues overnight. Inter-library loans are open to internal readers within reason, meaning that subjects of materials asked for must be subjects covered by the Library. Express loans are possible if something is needed very urgently, but any reader asking for this service will be charged for £ 5. - to cover telephone and express costs.

The Library is open to the public excluding those in education up to graduate level, but only for reference, and if not incidentally one has to become an individual subscriber to the Library.

The collection of the Library consists of about 25,000 books, 700 periodicals are taken, annual reports, research reports, working papers, LBS theses, etc., and there are 130 readers' places. Annual book accessions are between 1500 and 2000, loan figures show approximately 6000 ordinary loans and another 600 to students from the short loan collection. The Library is open for 70 hours per week during term, and 45 hours per week during vacation.

There are 10 full-time staff working in the Library; in addition there is some part-time assistance, particularly for evening attendance. The staff can be divided into: the Librarian, the Senior Assistant Librarian, three assistant librarians, four library assistants, and the Librarian's Secretary, who is also responsible for office administration. The Librarian is responsible for managing the library budget, formal relationship of the Library with the School, external relations, planning and development of the Library, allocation of resources and appointments of library staff. The Senior Library Assistant is responsible for the day to day running of the Library and he also deals with on-line facilities. The three assistant librarians are responsible for acquisitions and cataloguing of books, acquisitions and stock control of serials, and the Corporate Library respectively. These five can be seen as functional specialists. There are no subject specialists in the Library. No members of the Library staff are being paid by external resources, but the Library has some external resources, viz.:
- On-line computer searches, for which outsiders pay more than the actual costs.
- Selling of library publications.
- Readers tickets to non-members of the School: individuals who want to make regular use of the Library may become individual subscribers at £ 50. - p.a.; corporate subscribers pay £ 250. - p.a.
The Library uses the London Classification of Business Studies that is appropriate to the area and was developed by the former Librarian of the School. The present Librarian thinks that it is difficult to maintain a "home-grown" classification system, but one should try to update it now and then in relation to new developments in the subjects covered.

POLICY.

According to the Librarian the policy of the Library is related to the library budget. The policy of the Library is first to provide document delivery, second to provide factual information, and third to advise readers. Limitations to the provision of these services are set by the Library budget. The Librarian observes a kind of conflict in library policy whether an information service is being provided, or an educational service. Good information services may hinder document delivery, while too much emphasis put on document delivery may result into too little attention given to the provision of factual information that may eventually reduce the library to a landing library only.

The Librarian and some of his senior staff teach about on-line literature searching and the use of the Library to different courses. This education and training by library staff is improving and also more formalised than formerly. Consequently not only library services, but also members of the Library staff become known to course members, making it easier to them to approach library staff when needed.

In relation to educational programmes the co-operation with the Library is increasing. Before a programme starts the Library will always ask what books will be used in those programmes in order to obtain them if not in the holdings of the Library, or put them into the short loan collection in order to give the opportunity to as many students as possible to make use of these books since the Library is unable to buy many copies of them. The Library however is not involved with course design.

The research that is undertaken by staff members of the School is not formally known in the Library, but of course some is known and the Library tries to meet research needs if possible. No bibliographies are available however on on-going or completed research.

All services the Library supplies are obviously incorporated in its policy, but when asked what influences the different services have on the general policy of the Library, the Librarian said that it is rather the other way around. Since the inclusion and improvement of automation is part of the Library's policy, the services are influenced by it.

The Librarian does not feel that the objectives of the Library can be fulfilled, since the Library always has to balance between many considerations in relation to the wide range of subjects to be covered and the size of the Library that is small in relation to university libraries. In addition to this the financial pressure of the Library is
increasing since electronic services demand more and more from the library budget, while the increases of the costs of books and serial subscriptions is far greater than the overall rate of inflation.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS.

After the investigation of this Library a new important service has been added in the Summer of 1984: the LBS Information Service. This has been started to fill a need from business corporations, by offering a comprehensive range of research and library facilities. This service provides:
- Fast assistance with all business information needs, ranging from short telephone enquiries to in-depth research,
- Immediate access to a broad spectrum of world-wide online computer databases.
- Personalised monitoring and analysis of economic and financial reports, management and marketing surveys, government and statistical series and news and current affairs publications.
- Confidential document acquisition, retrieval and delivery. [150]

The standard research charge is £ 35,- per hour (corporate subscribers £ 30,-), with a minimum of £ 5,-. The Assistant Librarian who was responsible for the Corporate Library is in charge of the Information Service now. Shortly after the start of this service her full salary could be paid from it, while two assistants had already been appointed by the beginning of 1986. This means that the number of library staff could be enlarged, due to the success of this new service.

Manchester Business School,

Manchester, United Kingdom.

(investigated May 1983).

HISTORY.

The Library of Manchester Business School was established shortly after the foundation of the School, because it was immediately felt that an academic institution needs a library. As a good start for the library was advisable in order to satisfy to the needs of readers the best way possible, it took a year before a librarian was appointed (September 1968). A secretary and two more staff were appointed shortly after this, giving the Library possibilities to build up professional library services almost from the beginning. It thus started by obtaining books and journals, and very soon a lending service could be
provided. Scanning of journals and indexing of journal-articles started in the late sixties already. Through the years the library staff has grown to twelve at present.

GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library is to provide members of the School with the information they require, especially if it is available in documentary form. The last part of this objective restricts the service mainly to library services since the Library does not provide a general information service as many libraries of business organisations do.

The Librarian is responsible to the Director of the School and the Library is very well recognised as one of the main central services of the School, mentioned in most brochures of programmes and courses. This means that the status the Library has obtained within the School is rather high, which also comes from the fact that although the administrative services are also responsible to the Director, the Library is not considered to be one of those.

The Librarian accordingly feels that the objectives of the Library as he sees them are taken into account by the management; there is not much difference in view between the Librarian and the management of the School in relation to these objectives, although the Librarian is more aware of the services that are actually provided, as well as of possibilities and restrictions, but that is rather obvious.

There is a Library Committee that is advisory without regulations. Its members are academic staff of the School, plus the Librarian. It deals with general policy and meets three times a year: one meeting in October when the annual report of the Library is discussed, one meeting in February when the library budget is dealt with, and one meeting in Summer to discuss different subjects. The Library Committee does not have much influence on the functioning of the Library.

The Library has its own budget including personnel. Library staff members have contracts with the University of Manchester, and the Librarian cannot decide by himself on having more staff, but the present number of staff is established, and those who leave may be replaced. If the Librarian feels that he needs more staff, he has to submit to the School Management Committee, which also decides on the annual library budget.

When in 1971 the School moved to its own building, the Library was located on the ground floor, centrally situated and easy to find, in fact the best place possible. It was however too small when the School moved in already, and the Library had to split into two, with one section on the third floor. Since the Library kept growing and as enlargement on the ground floor was not possible, it moved in 1977 to the third floor on the periphery, where it is not easy to find.
Of course most students and many course participants do find their way to the Library and members of the staff certainly have no problems in this respect, but still the Librarian thinks that the Library would be more used, if more centrally situated in the building. On the other hand the move to the third floor had the enormous advantage of bringing the Library together again, which more than offset the relative remoteness of the location. At present the Library finds itself again running out of space in certain areas, but it is not very serious yet.

Near the entrance - which has a security check when leaving and counts readers when entering - the loan desk is situated next to an enquiry desk and a company information desk. Behind the loan desk is the Reserve Collection, and a list of books on reserve is available here. All library staff work behind the Reserve Collection and the different desks.

Opposite the desks general reference works, bibliographies, the catalogues - in sheaf binders as far as books are concerned - and other bibliographical materials can be found. In addition there is library information, like library notes, information notes, etc. Photocopying machines and computer terminals are placed near the entrance.

In the next section of the Library are different kinds of microforms, together with statistical and parliamentary publications, annual reports and periodicals. Next is the book area with readers' places on both sides near the windows. At the very end there is a silence area, where a part of the book collection, working papers, etc. can be found. The sections blend into each other, but all services are very well to be recognised, even if no main departments can be recognised as such.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

The special collections of the Library include:

- Extel Service, financial information on cards on more than 8,000 publicly quoted companies received through Exchange Telegraph.
- Company Reports, a collection of annual reports of approximately 2,500 major companies, including a collection on microfiche of all Financial Times quoted companies from 1968.
- Clippings File, newspaper clippings on information relevant to management studies, regularly clipped by library staff.
- McCarthy Information, a published photocopied presscutting service, to supplement the clippings file, also available on microfiche.
- Microfilms of newspapers.
- Collection of theses.
- Reserve Collection.

As indicated above the scanning of all periodicals for articles of use to MBS staff and students has been one of the main services of the Library for a long time already. As a
result of this an index of articles on subject has been made available to the reader. This service turns out to be very valuable, mainly to students, even if specialised articles are not included and the service is not of high academic level. For information on companies and industries the main British newspapers are scanned for information of interest, resulting into a collection of clippings maintained as a source of information and retained for about three years. Other indexing undertaken by the Library apart from the main cataloguing are lists of theses and dissertations mainly from the School, but also from other universities as far as copies are available in the Library. The list of reserved books was mentioned above already; a list of working papers is also worth mentioning. Finally the Company Information list must be mentioned, listing for each company the types of information held by the Library, i.e., annual reports and accounts, clippings, house journals and whether articles on it have been indexed.

The Library has access to several computer retrieval services for on-line literature searching including some 15 databases. Since either the School, or the users themselves will be charged for it, these services are open to all readers. Payment is often taken from research funds, but in general this does not apply to MBA's. The use of the School's computer is not restricted to on-line searching; the terminal in the Library is also used for the production of many library publications, various lists, etc. Furthermore a computer is placed in the Library which is being developed for use in information retrieval, and will eventually provide access to Prestel and on-line databases.

The Library produces a lot of publications:
- A library guide, updated annually.
- An annual author and title index of monographs.
- A monthly accessions list.
- An irregular working papers accessions list.
- A list of periodical holdings published two or three times a year.
- Contents Pages in Management, a fortnightly compilation of the contents pages of about 200 journals to which subscriptions by non-members of the School are possible.
- Occasional bibliographies of which 20 had been published at the time of the investigation.
- Reading lists of which 21 are mentioned in the library guide 1982/83.
- Information notes written by members of the library staff about different activities, resources and services within the Library, under the serial title: Library Resources and Services.

In addition to these publications the Library produces two publications on behalf of the European Business School Librarians' Group: SCIMP, European Index of Management Periodicals, and the Union List of Periodicals in European Business Schools. These publications will be dealt with in chapter eight, where library co-operation will be discussed.
The Library recognises five groups of readers:
- members of staff of the School.
- members of courses in progress at the School.
- members of staff of the University of Manchester.
- individual or corporate subscribers.

The main distinction made between groups of readers are between internal and external readers. External readers may be charged for enquiries that take over half an hour of staff time to deal with. In practice this refers to corporate subscribers only and was introduced as a clarification of what a subscriber might expect in the way of service. There are differences in the number of books taken on loan, where staff of the School can get the most. Inter-library loans are not open to external readers, since they can ask for these services in their own organisations. In relation to readers it is worth mentioning that the Library of the University of Manchester is close at hand.

The Library is not open to the public, but the Librarian may grant permission to use the Library for reference in relation to the purpose of the person. Undergraduates are not entitled to use the Library.

The collection consists of about 35,000 books, 800 periodical subscriptions, microforms, annual reports, working papers, theses, etc. There are 120 readers' places. Annual accessions are about 1900 books and 1100 working papers. Loans are about 17,000 per annum, including 4500 loans from the short loan collection and 1000 reference loans overnight. The Library is open for 61 1/2 hours per week during term, and 40 hours per week during vacation.

There are twelve staff working in the Library. They can be divided into: one Librarian, three assistant librarians, one senior library assistant, five library assistants, one cataloguing assistant and the Librarian's secretary. The first five can be considered as functional specialists, and similarly a division can be made according to levels of actual work. The Librarian is responsible for the Library as a whole, the assistant librarians are in charge of acquisitions, of cataloguing and of reader services respectively, while the last one also organises the work for the library assistants. The senior library assistant is in charge of periodicals and company information. These five are all qualified librarians. There are no subject specialists in the Library.

The Library has a few external resources including a small amount of money. The Department of Social Administration of the University of Manchester was paying one-third of a library assistant for looking after their collection dealing with hospital management at the time of the investigation. Furthermore the Library has 12 corporate subscribers paying £200.- per annum and 55 individual subscribers who pay £15.- per annum. This subscription gives the right to make use of most library services.
The Library uses the London Classification of Business Studies; the Librarian is content with this classification system.

POLICY.

The present policy of the Library is to serve members of the School and to give to other people such services as able without detriment to the School. This has been the policy from the very beginning and is not likely to change, since it executes the general objective as well and includes what the Library is expected to do.

An introduction to the Library by means of lectures on sources is given to participants of major courses. Though it is thought useful, not a great deal of these introductions are given, because it may hinder other readers, and since it takes time, may result into poorer service. Since a high level of service must be maintained, the Librarian and his staff provide training to individuals if a need is expressed or observed.

Educational information will often be obtained from tutorials and from educational programmes of the different centres of the School, giving opportunities to the Library to satisfactory respond to recognised needs in relation to the educational programmes offered. In the building of educational projects the Library plays a large part, which includes heavy use of the Library's resources and the specialist help of its staff. In addition to this materials will be taken from the stacks for short periods and put on reserve.

Although not all research projects are known to the Library, some of them are, which means that the Library can try to respond to possible needs in this respect and research staff of the School will discover that services received from the Library can be directed to research projects, if the Library is aware of the subjects in which research is undertaken. On an informal basis, the Library supplies a service to bring to the attention of members of staff concerned journal-articles relevant to known staff research interests. Information from research seminars is also obtained, and by trying to respond to possible needs, one or two gate-keepers are recognised from whom information may be obtained now and then. Consequently the Library is very much organised for research needs, although research staff is not considered to be of more importance than other readers.

In general the Librarian feels that the objectives of the Library can be fulfilled, but there are a few services that influence the general policy in a negative way. Library staff does provide a photocopying service to MBS-staff and students, which has included approximately 11,000 copies produced in 1982. It is felt that this may take library staff off from more important things, taking more personnel resources than should be. The same is true for control of
readers, although it has been a main improvement in this respect when the security check was placed at the entrance of the Library.

Hordes Handelshoyskole,  
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Bergen, Norway,  
(investigated January 1984)

HISTORY.

Since there were and are no other libraries specialised in economics and business administration in Bergen, the Library of the Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration was established as a special library of the School immediately after its foundation in 1936, and started by obtaining some 2,000 books. Its aim was to provide the necessary books and periodicals to teaching staff and students of the School. The books were catalogued and classified by the Librarian of the Handelshoyskolen i København with the assistance of a Norwegian librarian. At first a part-time librarian was appointed, who did the bookkeeping of the School as well, but in 1937 already a permanent full-time librarian was appointed. From the beginning books could be borrowed, but the Library was open only for a few hours daily. In addition to this service there was a reading room with reference materials.

Until the School moved to its present building in 1964, the Library has been of moderate size, like the whole School, owing to space problems. After the move a period of growth started and by 1963 the collection of the Library included 35,000 books and some 550 periodicals taken. Ten years later the number of books had grown up to 105,000 and after another ten years the stock had become almost 180,000, while over 3,000 periodicals are taken. (When considering these figures, it must be remembered that the majority of readers are undergraduates of the School.)

GENERAL.

The general objective of the Library is to provide the best service to staff and students of the School, as well as to external people, and to remain the main economic library in the country. The last part of this objective is not shared by any business school outside Scandinavia, where business schools are schools of economics in the first place, to which management was added afterwards.

The Librarian is recognised as an academic staff member of the School and is accordingly responsible to the Board. It means that the Library has acquired a status as an academic service institution, that is recognised as such by the
management of the School. Consequently the Librarian does not think that there is a difference in view between the objectives as he sees them and those recognized by the management. He feels that the objectives as he sees them are certainly taken into account.

Although the Librarian is responsible to the Board of the School, the Library is responsible to the Library Committee. It consists of six members all elected for two years of office. These include four members of the academic staff of the School; two of them represent the Faculty of Economic Studies, while the other two represent the Faculty of General Studies. In addition to them the Library Committee includes a member of the library staff and a student. The Librarian is secretary to the Library Committee but has no vote; the chairperson is elected from the academic staff members of the Committee. The Library Committee deals with matters of general library policy, and nominates appointments on recommendation of the Librarian; to the Board as far as academic staff of the Library is concerned (the Librarian and his two deputies) and to a special Appointment Committee of the School as far as other library staff is concerned. The Library Committee meets irregularly about five times a year; it meets when necessary, mainly when staff changes occur. It should discuss the library budget, but since this has not changed the last few years but for taking into account price increases of books and periodical subscriptions, no need is felt to discuss the budget as no policy decisions have to be taken.

The Library has its own budget, personnel excluded.

The Library is centrally situated on the first floor of the main building of the School. Near the entrance of the Library there are some notice-boards and the enquiry desk. Opposite the enquiry desk are the catalogues and behind those the short-loan collection is stored for use by the students who may borrow from this collection for two weeks. This collection is divided into two sections: one for the first part of the undergraduate programme, consisting of multiple copies of textbooks of which one copy must be retained in the Library; those copies are marked and easy to recognize. The other section is for the second part of the undergraduate programme consisting of first copies of textbooks from the main collection.

Next to the catalogues reference materials are shelved together with bibliographic publications, but no readers' places are available here. From this main room a room with periodical holdings of the current year can be entered. In this room there is a small number of readers' places and it leads to a small reading room where another part of the reference collection is stored; here are some 40 seats available. Next to the main room different rooms for library staff and a room for on-line literature searching can be found as well.
The main collection of books is divided into two parts. Books published from 1960 onwards are stored on the ground floor of the building under the Library within easy reach for the library staff. Books are arranged in systematic order, but generally closed to readers. Books published before 1960 are stored in another building - called Merino - that can be reached in a few minutes by going down some 200 steps. Here books are shelved in a few big rooms, in systematic order as well and also closed to readers generally. Only academic staff members of the School may browse in both collections if they want to, while other readers may do so if they have specific needs, and on request. Three times a week all books asked for loan from the Merino building will be taken from the stacks and brought into the Library in order to be borrowed. In the Merino building back-issues of periodical holdings can also be found, in closed access as well. In addition to this some large reading rooms are located here, heavily used by the students.

As a result of all this the Library faces severe space problems; a new building for the School has been planned, but due to the present economic situation it was postponed, leaving the Library to deal with the present situation.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

The Library has a small Company Information Department, mainly consisting of information on Norwegian companies quoted on the Stock Exchange. It is stored in closed access on the ground floor of the main building near the book collection, easily to be taken by library staff when asked for at the counter. There is another collection of company information including most Norwegian companies and a number of foreign companies as well at the Institute of Business Administration of the School, but this collection is not controlled by the Library.

In addition to the short-loan collection for undergraduates, there are small collections for other programmes the School has to offer, including all books used in these programmes. These collections include second copies of books that are in the holdings of the main collection; these collections are shelved in the Merino building in open access. They may not be borrowed, but since there are no members of the Library staff on duty in this building, there is no control and books are taken away sometimes.

There are some small collections of books within the School for use by different groups of academic staff members. The Library has no responsibility for these collections, nor does it execute any control, but the holdings are registered by the Library, with the result that it is known what these collections include.

A journal circulation offered to academic staff of the School is provided by the Library of which the Librarian is not very content, since journals are being kept too long very often; the service cannot be stopped without getting into troubles however, and thus is maintained for the time being.
The Library provides on-line literature searching to anyone who is prepared to pay the actual costs, since all subscriptions to databases are fully covered by the library budget. For members of the academic staff of the School their respective departments will be charged. Students can get one free search in order to see what is possible and to be shown the benefits of on-line searching. All other searches must be paid for.

The publications produced by the Library include:
- Library guide, updated every two or three years.
- Accessions list, published 5 times p.a.
- List of periodical holdings, published annually in theory, but in practice it is published every few years. Anyone may obtain a completely updated list as a computer printout however, on request.
- Annual list of staff publications.
- List of students' reports, published every second year.

In addition to this, the Library produces LISBET, a current contents service of Scandinavian economics and business school libraries; this will be dealt with under the heading of library co-operation in chapter 8.

Formerly the Library published lists of subject holdings, but these were outdated very soon, and from the moment the Library has obtained possibilities for on-line searching, it is felt that these lists are not needed anymore. Between 1972 and 1978 25 source lists have been published. Finally a welcome brochure introducing the Library to new staff of the School is worth mentioning.

Three groups of readers are recognised by the Library: staff, students and external readers. No distinction is made between them in principle, but in practice some differences in relation to services provided do exist. Short-loan collections are of course restricted to the groups of students they are aimed at. Academic staff do have a few privileges already mentioned above. But loan periods for instance are the same for all readers, including borrowing of periodicals which is permitted.

As a completely government-sponsored institution, the Library is open to the public. The Librarian also thinks that it ought to, since it aims at remaining the main economic library in the country; as such it must be open to everyone who wants to make use of it.

The collection of the Library includes some 190,000 books and 1350 periodicals taken. Accessions are approximately 2,000 books p.a. and 28,000 books are borrowed every year. The number of readers' places is about 400, the majority of them being located in the Merino building.

The Library is open for 65 hours per week during term, during vacation between 35 and 40 hours per week.

There are 18 staff working in the Library with a full-time equivalent of 13,5. They can be divided among the different services as follows: three for acquisitions including the
Librarian, five for cataloguing, two for periodicals, seven for loans and one for projects. Eight members of the library staff are functional specialists, specialising in cataloguing, periodicals and loans. There are no subject specialists in the Library. According to levels of actual work the library staff can be divided into: one Head Librarian, two deputy librarians (being heads of the Cataloguing Department and the Loan Department respectively); in addition to these there are five more qualified librarians.

No members of staff are being paid by external resources, nor does the Library have external resources in addition to the library budget of the School.

The Library uses the UDC, of which the Librarian is more or less content, but he thinks that it develops too slowly.

POLICY.

The Library suffers from lack of space in addition to the difficulties of having a part of its stock in another building. Its budget is felt as too limited, influencing most library services and a need for more staff is felt. Even if all this may be mainly due to the economic situation of the moment, it nevertheless does influence the policy of the Library rather strongly. Given these facts it is understandable that the present policy of the Library is to keep the reputation as the main economic library of the country and in addition to this to maintain a quick and good service, which the Library owes its present reputation to. In addition to this it is a policy to keep the present number of periodical subscriptions if possible.

A very simple lecture on the use of the Library is provided by the Librarian or one of his deputies to undergraduates at the beginning of their first year. One of the deputy librarians in particular would like to do more lectures, because too often it is observed that students spend too much time in finding some information that could be found much quicker if it were better known what services the Library has to offer, and how to profit from them.

The co-operation with the Library in relation to the educational programmes of the School mainly consists of information to the Library on books to be used. The Library will respond by obtaining these books for its own collection to be available for students during these programmes, but unfortunately the information is not always received in time. A copy of any publication written by an academic staff member of the School should be sent to the Library, where most publications are received. They are being included into the list of staff publications of the School, produced annually by the Library. From these publications it sometimes may become known to the Library what research is undertaken (if not yet completed). But in general it is not known and thus the Library cannot adequately respond to research needs.

In the early seventies an emphasis was put on the service to
external people in order that the Library would become better known outside the School. Consequently the Library has a very good image at present, but it is felt a pressure to maintain that image. The Librarian feels that more resources are needed in order to fulfill the objectives of the Library that cannot be fulfilled at present, but it is not likely that more resources will be obtained in the near future.

Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale,
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Turin, Italy.
(Investigated June 1983)

HISTORY.
The teaching staff and the students of the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale of the University of Turin could make use of the Library of the Faculty of Economics and Commerce of the University before the School moved to its present building in 1967. This situation was not very satisfactory however, since the collection of managerial literature was too small and did not respond sufficiently to the needs of the teachers and students of the School. Furthermore it was too far away from the School. As no other library in Turin was specialised in the economic and managerial sciences, it was decided to establish a library in the School when it moved to its present building in order to assist the teachers with the preparation of their courses, and the students with the preparations for their examinations.

From 1952 to 1964 a postgraduate institute for the study of business organisations had been located in Turin and its collection of books, periodicals and teaching materials was transferred to the Library of the School in 1967 when it was established. In addition to this, library materials were also obtained from two other institutes when the Library was founded. The Library started with the production of an author catalogue of all books and pamphlets included in the collection in order to make them available. After that a list of periodical holdings was produced of which the first one was completed in 1971. The classified catalogue and the list of new acquisitions by subject were started in 1977/78.

GENERAL.
The general objective of the Library is to provide members of the School with the information they require. Members of the School are defined as teaching staff, but other staff of the School may eventually use the Library as well. Although the Library certainly aims at providing services to students and course participants of courses held in the School, they are not considered to be the main users of the Library.
As one of the main and central services of the School, the Library is well recognised by the management; it is visible and mentioned in the brochures of the courses. It is also something to be shown to visitors. The Librarian is responsible to the Director and she feels that the objectives as she sees them are taken into account. In spite of this the Librarian feels that the teaching staff does not generally show much interest in the Library and the way it functions; staff members are not very much concerned about how the Library is getting on, and the Librarian would like them to become more active in this respect. Still she feels that the status the Library has obtained within the School is the best possible.

There is no library committee in the School that could include active engagement of members of the School with the Library. The Library does not have its own formal budget, but the expenses of the Library are included in the annual report of the School. The expenditures of the Library are approved by the Director and the teaching staff.

The Library is located opposite the main entrance of the School, very central and easy to find. It is a big square room, very light with rooms for the library staff on both sides of the entrance, together with a small counter; next to this counter are the catalogues. Books, periodicals, reference materials, theses, etc. are stored on both sides of the Library in closed access. In front of these materials, the current issues of most periodicals taken are on display for easy consultation. In the middle of the Library as well as at the back there are reader's places, while newspapers are put on a table at the back of the room, to be kept for three months. On another table a list of services provided by the Library and some special library and other information can be found that is free to take by readers.

Since the Library has closed access, like most Italian libraries, books and periodicals are arranged by size, to be found by using the catalogues only. By means of application forms library staff will provide the literature needed either to be consulted in the Library, or to be borrowed if this is permitted.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

The Library has these special collections:
- Theses of students of the School including first degree theses as well as Master's theses.
- Company reports of about 300 Italian companies from 1971.
- Teaching material used for all courses held in the School.

It is regretted that the Library has been unable to undertake journal indexing of Italian periodicals.

The Library does not have on-line facilities for literature searching and as far as could be observed a need is not felt to start it yet.

There is no formal library guide, but there is a leaflet
explaining what services the Library has to offer, that is updated annually. Other library publications include:
- A bimonthly list of new acquisitions, listed by subject.
- A list of cases listed by subject according to the ASFOR classification, a classification system developed by the ASFOR, the Association of Management Training Institutes.
- An annual list of statistical sources and other reference materials.
- Some bibliographies on different subjects.

Two groups of readers are recognised by the Library:
- Internal readers, including staff of the School.
- External readers, including students and course participants to programmes of the School and other readers.

The Library is open to the public and all readers can make use of the facilities the Library has to offer, but external readers must present a letter of introduction when they first enter the Library and pay a deposit of Lire 10,000 (about £5.) before books can be borrowed. Inter-library loan services are not provided, but informally and occasionally books may be asked for by telephone from other libraries.

The collection includes some 16,000 books, 320 periodical subscriptions, approximately 1200 first degree theses of the School, and 50 Master's theses. The number of readers' places is 30.

The Library is open 37 1/2 hours per week, which is the same throughout the year.

The number of library staff is 4 with a full-time equivalent of 2.7. None of them is specialised neither functional, nor in relation to subjects.

The Library does not have external resources, nor is anyone of the library staff being paid by external resources.

The classification system used has been compiled by members of the teaching staff of the School. Although the Librarian is content with it since it works, she feels that it would be better to use the same classification system as other institutions, like the ASFOR classification used for the list of cases and mentioned above.

POLICY.

As teaching staff and students are considered to be the main users of the Library, its policy is aimed at responding to their information needs in relation to the educational programmes and training provided by the School. But it is also part of the Library's policy to pay attention to external readers as well.

The Librarian is included in the education of some major courses of the School by means of an introductory lesson at the beginning of these courses on the activities of the Library, the services provided, and on how information needs of students will be met.
The use of the Library by members of the teaching staff is related to the education provided by the School. Programmes and brochures are passed on to the Library in order to be able to respond to information needs of teaching staff and students. The use of the Library by teaching staff is almost completely restricted to this, since research is hardly undertaken. Although most readers do not read foreign languages, about 40% of the current periodicals are foreign, mainly English, French or American. It is felt that in order to encourage internationalisation, and since one may learn from management expertise in other countries, it is important to provide an easy access to management literature on an international level.

Strathclyde Business School,
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Glasgow, United Kingdom.
(established May 1984)

HISTORY.

The reason to establish a Business Information Centre (which name is felt more appropriate than library) within Strathclyde Business School has been that a business school without a library is unthinkable.

Spring 1976 the collection of the Library of the former Scottish College of Commerce became the start of the Business Information Centre (BIC) to which the collection of Chesters Management Centre was added. A Librarian was appointed who first had to arrange for the move to the new business school building, six months after the establishment of the Library. After that the stock was considered in order to build up a good and useful collection. Journals were also looked at and subscriptions taken after consideration. In November 1976 already the collection of company information was started and a subscription to Extel services was taken in 1977.

GENERAL.

The objectives of the BIC are to provide a library and information service to staff and students of the School. The University Library, called the Andersonian Library, is close to the School and all members of the School are entitled to make use of all services this library has to offer. Since it has a strong collection on business and management, the BIC has been aiming from the beginning at the provision of those services the Andersonian Library does not provide. Consequently the BIC is a specialist library aimed primarily at serving the needs of both the academic staff and the postgraduate students of the School. Its emphasis is on enquiry handling and the provision of current information. It
is a reference only library, since books can be borrowed from the Andersonian Library.

The Librarian of the BIC is responsible to the University Librarian, as the Centre is a separate part of the Reference and Information Division of the Andersonian Library. There are however close contacts between the Librarian and the different departments of the School, mainly through its Associate Dean. In relation to this it must be noted that the BIC is located in the building of the School and not in the Library building.

Within the School the Librarian is recognised and she does not think that there is a difference in view between the objectives of the BIC as she sees them and those recognised by the management. These objectives are certainly taken into account.

There is no library committee for the BIC. As far as books are concerned it has its own budget, but journals come from the Serials Department of the Andersonian Library. The budget of the BIC does not include personnel.

The Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School is situated on the second level of the building, centrally situated between the bar and the dining room. The main entrance of the building is on the third level. The BIC occupies a rather small square room that is functionally organised. Behind the counter, which is situated near the entrance, company reports and books that are in heavy demand are shelved and the staff of the BIC is on duty here. Opposite the counter current periodicals and newspapers are on display for easy consultation. In the second part of the room back issues of journals and research reports are shelved on one side, while books and reference materials can be found on the other side. At the back of the room the catalogues of the Andersonian Library are available in microform with a reader to make use of them. All over the room readers' places will be found. The room is in fact too small for the whole collection, but all services are easy to recognise.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

As a special collection the collection of company reports is worth mentioning. The BIC undertakes a lot of indexing. Working papers are indexed by author and body, MBA projects by author and subject, and the main articles of two Scottish journals are indexed. There are news cutting files maintained for selected topics in management, while country and industry files contain the latest newspaper supplements and additional information, started as early as 1976. In 1982 an index of statistics was started. All indexing is simple, started to meet recognised needs. If it would be observed that any of these services is not used anymore, it would be stopped
The Librarian aims at putting readers in the right direction of finding the information wanted with all these indexes, not to find solutions by means of very detailed indexing.

The Centre has on-line facilities for literature searching, that can be used by any reader, but it must be financed by the readers themselves. (For academic staff of the School it can be financed through departments of the School.) Readers will be charged for all costs.

The BIC has a small library guide that is updated when needed; in 1985 a new guide has been produced. In addition to this the Librarian has written a leaflet on marketing information in 1981 and intended to write another leaflet on company information at the time of the investigation.

These groups of readers are recognised by the BIC: academic staff, post-experience course participants, postgraduate students, ex-students and people from business organisations.

Services to undergraduates are not provided, but an undergraduate who has a problem is usually helped to solve it. In general no distinction is made between the different groups of readers, although a little more attention may be paid to members of the academic staff of the School than to other readers.

Since the BIC is a reference only library, books cannot be borrowed, but post-experience course participants staying in the building may borrow books overnight. All readers are entitled however to make use of the loan facilities of the Andersonian Library.

The BIC is open to the public, since no one is turned away. External use is not promoted however, and consequently outside people hardly come to the BIC.

The collection includes some 3500 books, about 100 periodicals are taken and company reports of approximately 1700 companies are held. There are 53 readers' places, which is much given the space that is available. The accessions of books are about 250 per annum.

The BIC is open 56 hours per week during term and 40 hours during vacation.

The BIC has two full-time staff; in addition to this there is some professional help from the Andersonian Library, particularly in the evenings. The total full-time equivalent is 2.4 staff. The permanent staff consists of one professional and one non-professional.

There are no external resources for the staff of the BIC, but the School augments the budget for journals and equipment in addition to the books obtained from the budget of the Andersonian Library.

The BIC uses Dewey classification and the Librarian is content with it most of the time.
POLICY.

The policy of the BIC is to respond to the needs of the School as quickly as possible. Non-members of the School are permitted to make use of the BIC, but they are not taken into account in relation to library policy.

Once a fortnight the Librarian provides training on sources of company information and marketing information to all kinds of students. One of the main benefits from this - apart from the training - is that the Librarian is known, students will easily approach her when they have a problem, and there is no barrier to enter the Centre.

There is informal co-operation between the Librarian and members of the academic staff of the School in relation to the educational programmes. Consequently the information received depends on persons and will be better for one programme than for another. Sometimes the BIC will be informed about student's projects beforehand, meaning that it can prepare to meet student's needs in relation to these projects before this information is asked for.

Some research that is undertaken in the School is known in the BIC, but it is too small to provide special services to meet research needs. Whenever possible research needs will be met, but research staff will not get more service than other readers.

The different services do in fact not influence the policy of the BIC, any new service means that readers' needs can be met in a better way, but limits are set by the resources that are available, particularly human resources. One of the main principles of the policy of the BIC is flexibility, the Librarian is always prepared to change services as a result of changed needs the moment these needs will be recognised. She was inclined to say yes when asked whether she feels that the objectives of the BIC can be fulfilled, having in mind the restrictions of space, budget and personnel.

University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce,
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Dublin, Republic of Ireland.
(Investigated July 1983)

HISTORY.

In order to provide library support for study, teaching and research, the Library of the University College Dublin was established on foundation in 1908; it was a general college library located in the City of Dublin, where it moved to another building in 1919. The services originally provided were lending and reference; it was a closed access library.

After the decision had been taken to transfer the College to new campus at Belfield, a new library building was constructed at Belfield and came in operation Autumn 1972. This is phase one of the library building; phase two was
postponed several times due to lack of funds, but its construction has started in 1983. Since the Library consists of many libraries attached to the different faculties that are located at Belfield and still at some locations in the City of Dublin, only the Main Library is located in the library building with free access to its readers. During the years specialized reference and information retrieval services have been built up to assist staff and students in pursuit of their study and research.

GENERAL.

The Library of the College contains of seven libraries according to different subjects on different locations. In the library building the Main Library is located, dealing with arts, commerce and law. Other libraries of the College include the Agricultural Library, the Architectural Library, the Engineering Library, the Medical Library, the Science Library, and the Veterinary Library. Since these branch libraries can be found near the faculties they serve, not all of them are on the campus at Belfield.

The general objective of the Library is to support the College's study, teaching and research. The Librarian is responsible for the whole library system including the Main Library and all branch libraries. The Library has no hierarchical position within any faculty, it is an independent academic service within the College and the Librarian is directly responsible to the Governing Body as one of the four administrative statutory officers of the College. Given this position it is not surprising that there is no difference in view between the objectives of the Library as seen by the Librarian and those recognised by the management. Consequently the Librarian feels that the objectives are taken into account.

The Library Committee is an advisory committee to the Governing Body to advise on library matters. It consists of 22 members: the President of the College is chairperson to the Library Committee, it has one representative from each faculty, six from the Governing Body, two from the Students' Union and the Librarian and two representatives from the library staff are among its members. Meetings of the Committee are held a few times during the year.

The Library has its own budget, library staff excluded.

As the aim of the empirical part of this study has been to investigate business school libraries, the emphasis for this library is put on the Social Sciences Section of the Main Library, since this section can be seen as a business school library, mainly serving the Faculty of Commerce of the College. The Social Sciences Section is not a complete library in itself however, and accordingly the Main Library as a whole will be referred to when necessary.
The library building has a central place on the campus; it has three floors with the entrance at first-floor level through a link bridge with the Arts/Commerce building. Near the entrance, where a security system is in operation, there are different counters for information, loans, inter-library loans, etc.; close to these counters are the catalogues. Most reference books are shelved on this first floor with the exception of language dictionaries and reference books on law; it includes bibliographies, indexes and abstract services, but there is not much reading space available for literature searching. Near the service counter is a Multiple Copy Library with extra copies of those items which are most heavily used by undergraduates. This collection does not only contain books, but also government publications and photocopies of periodical articles.

On the ground floor books on the fine arts, library and information studies, and a microform room can be found, with reading areas. Most books are shelved in open access on the second floor, arranged by subject and here most periodicals are shelved as well, arranged in broad subject groups. The main reading areas are on the second floor, and so is the Law and Official Publications Library, including reference books, periodicals and photocopies of articles on law.

Four main departments can be recognised in the Main Library from an administrative point of view: reader services, cataloguing and classification, acquisitions and periodicals, and law and official publications. Most administration is on the first floor; reader services are on different places in relation to subjects. The Library has a Special Collections Department on the ground floor with a separate entrance. This includes manuscripts, rare books and pamphlets.

SERVICES AND STAFF.

The Social Sciences Section of the Library is situated on the second floor as part of the Reader Services. For commerce students there is a collection of MBA theses that can be borrowed, as well as student projects on Irish companies. In addition to this a small Business Information Area is created near the social sciences office. In this area relevant directories, company reports, Extel services, McCarthy's Information Service, etc. are collected to serve staff and students of the Faculty of Commerce.

The Social Sciences Section of the Library produces a card-index to articles from Irish business and social science periodicals. It was started in 1977 to assist undergraduates and postgraduate students with their research, since they have projects on particular industries or on individual Irish companies to complete. Another reason to produce this index is that most of these articles do not normally enter in published indexing or abstracting publications, making it very time consuming to find the information wanted. An index of theses from the Faculty of Commerce of the College is being produced since 1986.
The Library has on-line facilities for literature searching that can be used by members of the academic staff and postgraduate students, for which they do not have to pay. This service is not open to other readers however.

The Main Library produces several different library guides: there are brochures in striking colours on general information, on borrowing and the Multiple Copy Library, on periodicals and inter-library loans, on the law library, and on official publications; these guides are being updated every two to three years. In addition to these guides, there are guides for various groups of students listing bibliographies, directories, abstracts and indexes, etc. Other guides to produce are being considered like an instruction on the use of the catalogues and how to find information in the Reference Library on Irish industries.

The Library recognises four main groups of readers: academic staff, postgraduate students, undergraduates and external readers. Only members of the academic staff of the College may receive content pages of periodicals and library staff will copy journal articles for them on request. A distinction is made in relation to the number of books that may be borrowed in order to ensure a fair distribution.

The Library is not open to the public, because there is not enough space, but external readers can make use of the Library if a written permission from the Librarian can be shown and they have to pay a deposit of £10 if they want to borrow books.

The collection includes about 675,000 books, and subscribes to about 9,000 periodicals. There are 2200 readers' places of which 1500 in the Main Library. Annual accessions are about 1500 and 400,000 books are being borrowed each year.

The Library is open 69 hours per week during term; during vacation it is different, but not always the same.

There is a hierarchical staff structure in the Library. Under the Librarian and the Deputy Librarian there are sub-librarians either in charge of a branch library, or in charge of a function. Under these there are assistant librarians in two grades and below them there are library assistants.

The total staff of the Library is about 100; in the Main Library there are four sub-librarians in charge of: Reader services, Law and official publications, Bibliographical records including cataloguing, and Acquisitions and periodicals. The Social Sciences Section comes under the Reader Services and has three staff: two assistant librarians and one library assistant. All library staff except library assistants have library qualifications. There are no subject specialists in the Library.

The Library does not have external resources in addition to the library budget, nor are members of its staff being paid by external resources.

The classification system used is Dewey Decimal System and books are shelved according to this system, even into details
which is sometimes confusing to readers. The Librarian is content with the system.

POLICY.

The policy of the Library has always been to fulfill the objectives, meaning that services must be as good as possible to support the College's study, teaching and research.

In order to co-operate in relation to educational programmes, library staff liaise with departments of the College and most departments have a member of their staff to liaise with the Library. As one of the results of these contacts heavy demand of some books may be anticipated and the Library can take precautions, e.g. by ordering extra copies of books for undergraduates to put into the Multiple Copy Library.

The research that is undertaken by academic staff of the College is known broadly, but the Library is unable to provide specific services to support research, as generally the Library is unable to provide any specific service given its size and the number of its readers.

Given the restriction that the Library is unable to provide specific services to groups of readers, the Librarian feels that the objectives of the Library can be fulfilled.
CHAPTER 5

EVIDENCE OF LIBRARY PERFORMANCE.

Business school libraries.

In the introduction to this study, three main characteristics of business school libraries have been recognized (page 101):
- Business school libraries serve both the academic world and the business community.
- Business school libraries must cover many subjects and consequently only a small percentage of all literature available on the subjects covered can be collected.
- English language materials form the larger part of business school library collections, since most management literature is written in English (or American).

As a consequence, many of the same publications can be found in all European business school libraries, which is remarkable since it means that, given the small percentage that will be collected from the total of all literature available on the subject, it turns out that a large part of this small percentage is the same for many libraries. Business schools can be either public or private organisations, but since they are all schools providing academic education and undertaking academic research, their libraries can be considered academic libraries. One of the main characteristics of academic libraries as distinct from many special libraries, is that readers will be helped to help themselves (this is not unique to academic libraries, it is characteristic to public libraries as well, but in general not to special libraries). An academic library reacts rather than it initiates, or in the words of Higham:

The traditional attitude has been that the university library should do all it can to assist the user to find the answers to his enquiries himself. [151]

Business school libraries usually do not initiate activity, but respond to readers' needs when they are expressed, making them behave like academic libraries in this respect as well.

These libraries are also special libraries, however, serving members of their schools, not only by means of services that can also be found in most academic libraries, but also by documentary services that have been built up through the years. In relation to this Jones has recently written:

So-called 'special librarianship' has been distinguished from librarianship in general by three emphases. First,
materials and service are closely related to the needs of the users and the librarian or information officer is much concerned with informing herself of those needs. Secondly, in addition to the provision of information materials there is an emphasis on information work, that is, the analysis, indexing and abstracting of the information contained in library materials and its communication to the user community through selective dissemination and other current awareness services. In terms of staff time and subject expertise the mediation of the information worker in the 'special library' between user and information materials is much more intensively pursued than in the conventional library, and at correspondingly greater cost. This is made possible by, thirdly, specialization in a restricted subject field. In some 'special library' systems an explicit distinction is made between the library and information unit. The former is concerned with the traditional core of librarianship whereas the latter mediates and interprets this and other information sources to the user community. [152]

The library of Strathclyde Business School is called Business Information Centre and to a certain level many business school libraries can be considered a kind of business information centre since, through post-experience course participants, the business community is being served indirectly. These course participants (and in schools like the International Management Institute and Strathclyde Business School also MBA-students) generally come from business and after their courses return to business again. Their behaviour is business-like; they often demand as much from the library of the School as they are used to do from the information units of the organizations they come from. Collins observes about this:

'It is part of the conventional wisdom that when a businessman asks for information he does not want the answer today, he wants it yesterday. So the information officer or librarian who has to respond to this demand is usually working under time pressure. [153]

They will find some documentary services in libraries of business schools, but will not find an individual approach as sometimes can be recognised in information units of industrial enterprises, particularly as far as top management is concerned. Blick recognizes two kinds of information services in industries:

The active information service uses its resources to take the information service to the customer, produces current awareness tailored to his needs, provides information to him when required. The passive information service uses its resources to develop information systems for the customer to use. It does not provide the information but provides the means for the
customer to obtain the information. There is usually a compromise between the two approaches but in both cases, customer liaison is essential. [154]

The benefits of a business information service to directors and senior management of business organizations have been formulated by Paterson:
- Regular receipt of information published by outside sources about their own company;
- Regular receipt of information on events taking place in the outside world.
- Access to an information research facility which can help find answers to most questions that arise concerning politics, economics, companies, industries, countries and personalities.
- Availability of a reliable depositary for published documentation. [155]

It is a remarkable fact that business school libraries do not serve the management of their parent organizations for decision making. This is a main distinction between information units of industrial enterprises and business school libraries. Tunley considers information for decision making one of the main services of special libraries as appears from:

Essentially special libraries exist to provide information and related services which will enable the parent body to function effectively to help achieve organizational goals. [156].

while Blagden simply states:

Special libraries exist to provide information which can be used to take a decision. [157]

Poole and Hott however observe in the introduction of their article on operations research for academic libraries:

We maintain that many crucial decisions made by management whether in the academic library, in the office of the academic dean, or elsewhere on the campus are made on the basis of insufficient information and with little objective effort to consider alternative courses of action and their economic consequences. [158]

They are not alone in observing this: Farrant said when he addressed a paper at an Aslib Social Science Information Group conference in 1984:

Universities are in the information business: to create, interpret, store and transmit knowledge comprises the greater part of their function. (I use the word 'universities' as shorthand for 'universities and other institutions of higher education', though what I say
does apply most particularly to universities.) It would be a reasonable inference, then, that universities would be particularly scrupulous in using information for their own internal management. Observation suggests the contrary: relatively little information is used for decision-taking, and without a high attention to accuracy. [159]

An explanation for this difference between academic and special libraries may be found by the fact that many special libraries are part of a profit organisation, while academic libraries belong to non-profit organisations.

The worst in the decision making process of academic institutions is not that decisions are being taken without any information obtained from their own libraries, but the fact that this is not recognised as a failure. One may wonder how academic institutions could possibly function, if their libraries were actively involved in the decision making process. Unfortunately business school libraries behave like academic libraries in this respect. Whatever the documentary services they provide to their readers, as far as institutional decision making is concerned their librarians are not included in the process. This is of course true for librarians of most institutions of higher education, but since business school libraries are specialized in management, it would be more likely if their librarians would be included in the decision making process.

Business school libraries are specialized in literature on management and the managerial sciences. As mentioned above this includes a broad range of subjects to be covered, making it impossible to try to collect everything published in these fields. Smith observed when making a bibliometric analysis of key books in business and management studies:

The most striking point about the subject breakdown is the wide spread of sub-disciplines that is hidden by the generic concept of business and management studies. [160]

There are more academic subjects that cannot be covered completely by a faculty or institutional library, but other subjects do not show such a wide spread of sub-disciplines and as far as business school libraries are concerned, there is even no need to specialise deeply in any of these sub-disciplines. The education and training provided by business schools does not specialise in any subject. After their graduation students of these schools must be able to understand different problems within organisations in order to be able to take decisions. Specialisation will not be demanded of them, but they must be able to understand what is going on, which requires knowledge to a certain level only on the different managerial subjects. This level also must be sufficient to be able to understand different subject specialists. This also applies to post-experience course
participants.
Consequently the libraries of these schools, by responding to
their readers' needs, have built up collections covering many
subjects, but none of these too deeply.

The general objective of the London Business School Library
is defined as: 'to support research and teaching of the
school'. Other business school librarians may use different
formulations, the meaning of their general objective is
similar to that of the London Business School. This objective
can be seen as the general objective of most academic
libraries, meaning that the main readers of academic
libraries are the teaching and research staff and the taught.
The research element in an academic library has always been a
major point. Higham, for instance, when considering that a
university library represents 'a multi-million pound
investment' that should be available for appropriate use by
the community outside the university, states:

The emphasis on the research element at the university
library, comprising the larger part of its stock, underlines the special contribution which it can make to
the community. [161]

In the library of the Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus research
staff is considered the most important group of readers. As
is often the case however, theory and practice are two
different things and whatever librarians of academic
libraries or business school libraries might think of their
service provision to research staff, it turns out that
generally the research that is undertaken by research staff
in business schools is not known by the librarians of these
schools.

Different reasons can be mentioned why business school
librarians generally are not informed about on-going research
in their schools:

1) Libraries of business schools are not specialized in one
subject as has been mentioned above, but research staff
needs specialized information.

2) Research staff is excluded from user education in
libraries: most of the time user education is seen as a
part of the curriculum of students, not as training for
all library users. Many books and articles have been
written about user education - a study of Fjalibrant and
Stevenson [162] is worth mentioning in this respect - but
they all deal with user education to students only, other
users are not included.

3) Research staff often does not know what services libraries
have to offer and they generally see no need to find out.
Speaking about awareness of sources, Jones states:
Most scientists are unaware of the vast range of available information sources. Most chemists will resort to Chemical Abstracts for any information about chemical compounds or chemical processes. Scientists are often unaware of other sources such as directories and technical encyclopedias and few scientists are familiar with more than a handful of journals covering their own specific interests. [163]

4) Research staff may see no need to inform the library on what they are doing, since many of them consider library staff as administrators who will not understand their subjects, let alone that they could be able to provide them with useful information. Murphy notes:

The expectation of the library as a place to find and check out only books continues to hold its preeminent place in the perceptions of users. [164]

5) Research staff prefers to be informed informally, by colleagues. One of the reasons for this is the same as why they do not inform the library: librarians are often considered as administrators. Another more important reason is that informal communication is preferred to the more formal act of finding literature by doing a search. Line observes about this:

There are fairly obvious reasons for preferring informal communication. It is usually easier and pleasanter. It gives a rapid feedback, so that if one does not start quite on the right wave-length it does not matter much - in contrast with formal systems, whether computer-based or printed, where a wrong initial approach yields no results at all. It brings added dividends in the form of additional information which the person contacted believes will be of interest. It may lead to further contacts. It has a stimulus value lacking much formal documentation. All these rewards are immediate, and although formal documentary systems have their own advantages, the fact that the rewards are less immediate is alone a sufficient reason why informal systems are preferred: given an immediate reward, however small, most people will prefer it to the possible long-term reward. [165]

The most important of informal communication in an academic atmosphere is the so-called invisible college. Kemp explains:

The essential idea of the 'invisible college' is that the leading workers in an academic field are likely to be in contact with each other, to know each other personally, and to meet quite regularly, regardless of problems of distance, nationality or language. Most of all they keep each other informed of what they are doing by such means as sending each other preprints of their
papers and by correspondence, so that they know of relevant documents in advance of publication. [166]

Librarians will argue that even if one is included in the closed circuit of an invisible college, the information that will be obtained is far from complete.

Research staff does not want to use libraries. Linc states that most researchers suffer from an astonishing degree of inertia, and continues by quoting Rosenberg:

It has been shown that, given a choice of going next door with a small probability of obtaining relevant information or indeed much information at all, and walking a hundred yards with a much higher probability of success and quantity, people go next door. [167]

Stevenson has formulated the same theme in another way:

From discussions it emerges that university scientists are relatively unsophisticated users of information services, including the library, using them by and large only when they have to and then not at all well. Generally they will not expend too much energy seeking information, though they are often unwilling to delegate that searching. They are faced with too much information and tend to read or seek only that information for which they have time. They are conservative in habit and do not accept change readily. [168]

To complete the picture of research staff and the information provision to them, the approach of White is interesting:

The self-perpetuating and self-validating 'invisible college' system is simply not geared to an awareness of newly evolving publication sources and publication formats, particularly when these require access to information in related or even unrelated disciplines in which the user has neither experience nor training. This is not intended as a criticism. I believe that the fact that professionals in various disciplines can no longer keep up (if in fact they ever did) with needed information in their fields is neither surprising nor disturbing. They have other, perhaps more important things to do. What I think is disturbing is that we, as information professionals, expect them to keep up themselves, or allow them to pretend that they do. [169]

The general objective of the Manchester Business School Library is to provide members of the school with the information they require, especially if it is available in documentary form. There may be differences in how librarians of these kinds of libraries formulate their objectives, the meaning of the objectives of the other libraries under study is the same. This is not surprising, only a few conservative
academic libraries still hold the view that libraries aim at building collections. About this historical development Simon remarks:

In the early years of the twentieth century, when the standard techniques and practices of library science were being worked out, the chief objective of libraries was simply that of building a scholarly collection without much thought for the people who might interesting to using it. But today, and especially on this continent, the predetermined objective is, or should be, to provide the user with the information he needs, not merely by calling upon the resources of the library where the request is made, but by tapping all the other resources that may be available elsewhere. [170]

Crossley has formulated in 1973:

The librarian's basic duty has always been to acquire, to organize and to exploit a collection of books and other sources of information. Concerning his ability to perform the first two tasks there has never been much doubt, but about the third responsibility he has either kept very quiet or done little - or both! - if we are to judge by the dictionary definitions attached to our profession. [171]

Smith simply observes that the actual role of many librarians has gradually changed from custodian of documents to exploiter of information. [172]

A very clear formulation of the objective of a library has been produced by Pritchard:

In very general terms we can say that the objective of a library is to maximise user satisfaction (by providing the right information at the right time). [173]

Kemp even terms it axiomatic that libraries exist for the benefit of their clients and that the importance of clients for libraries is absolute [174], while in the introduction to this study Urquhart has been quoted to whom it is a principle that libraries are for users (see page 12).

All these formulations of library objectives are not very satisfactory however. It is all right that libraries are for users and this is good as a principle, but not enough as an objective. These formulations do not provide any information on how to attain this objective, it is too broadly formulated. Evans has written about library objectives:

Objectives, in addition to being attainable, should give some indication of how they are to be met. It is somewhat surprising that even though this is extremely important, it is frequently overlooked. Serving 'the public good' or the 'community's information needs'
sounds good, but how is either one to be done? If an objective is at all quantifiable, planners and those who are to implement the procedure(s) will be able to determine their level of performance. Even if a substitute measure is adopted, the formulation will provide some guidance.

In libraries, because so much of performance evaluation of both organization and staff depends on stated objectives, unclear or imprecise objectives can cause very real problems. Like many organizations libraries tend to state their objectives too broadly rather than state them as measurable objectives. [175]

Jones has underlined the importance of defining library objectives:

The purpose of the objectives approach is to give librarians a more conscious, purposed and effective control of the social process which is a library in action. [176]

In only one of the libraries under study, its general objective turned out to have been formulated officially: the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde. This objective is more detailed than the objectives of the other libraries under study. It reads:

The objective of the library is to supply information from the literature in its widest sense, or provide assistance to find this information, together with the improvement of services by means of effective systems and procedures in order to respond to information needs fast and efficient. [149]

One may wonder why this is the only official formulation of the general objective of a business school library, and also the only one that is more detailed (although it still is a general objective). The answer to this may be found in a characteristic that is typical to this kind of libraries: business school librarians simply have no time to formulate objectives, they just perform, do what they feel must be done and theory comes when there is time for it, or when needed. The formulation of the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde for instance was written down because it had to be used for a report in which physical extension of the library was asked for; otherwise it would never have been formulated at all.

The general objective of a business school library thus does not provide much useful information; more information will be found when dealing with library policy, but most information will be obtained from empirical evidence. This chapter will first discuss how business school libraries perform within their task environments.
In the first chapter of this study, two levels of organisational environments have been recognised: the general environment and the task environment. These two levels can also be recognised as organisational environments of business school libraries. The general environment is formed by society at large, including all external readers. It does not very much influence library performance of the libraries under study with the exception of the London Business School Library where an information service is being offered to external readers from summer 1984 (see page 169 of this study). This has put a major impact on the performance of that library. Other business school librarians may have many contacts with people outside their schools, the performance of their libraries is not much influenced by these contacts. The task environment however has a main influence on library performance. About the relation between an organisation and its task environment Thomas observes:

The relationship between an organization and its task environment is essentially one of exchange, and unless the organisation is judged by those in contact with it as offering something desirable, it will not receive the inputs necessary for survival. [177]

The task environment of a library is of crucial importance, since the budget is allocated from it. This means that the library is dependent on its task environment which may have consequences if the librarian is asked to do something he or she is not willing to, but nevertheless has to do. In relation to this environment Moran remarks:

An understanding of the environment and some measure of control over external elements are as important to the success of a library as the efficient use of organizational resources. [178]

Understanding of the task environment by means of an understanding of the type and structure of the parent organisation as well as the freedom given to the librarian to take his own decisions are important in relation to the overall performance of the library. In the words of Thomas and Ward the kind of relations with the parent organization:

affects the place of the library within the overall organisational structure, the authority given to the Librarian, his freedom to manage, his reporting responsibilities, and the committees on which the library is represented. [179]
The nature of business schools has been discussed in the third chapter of this study (pages 88-93), where three main characteristics have been recognised:
- Business schools are academic institutions.
- Business schools are non-profit organizations.
- Business schools are service institutions.

In addition to this it has been observed that business schools have to adopt to changing needs much more than other academic institutions on a permanent basis. These characteristics do influence of course the performance of the libraries of these schools. Oldman and Hills observe:

"The benefits demonstrated by identifying its role in the organisational environment in which it is situated."

Business school librarians must be constantly aware of what is going on in their schools in order to act adequately when appropriate. This subject will be discussed in more detail under the heading of organisational communication.

Many business school libraries have been established immediately after the foundation of their schools. They were established because a need was felt or - as one librarian said - because a school needs a library. The librarians of these libraries recognized needs and built up services in order to respond to these needs. However strong the position of the library within its parent organisation may have become through the years, the librarians feel that they must work on it permanently to keep it as it is. In the words of Jones:

"The library must advance its credibility with its parent body, since it is no longer possible for libraries to be no more than a good thing which no institution or organization should do without. This requires a well conceived and sustained public relations effort in the several 'domains' of the parent body and environment which are important to the library's continued well being. It requires that community and subject librarians be convinced that this is as much part of their job as is reader service."

The central place a library should occupy in an academic institution has been recognised long ago. In 1921 a report of the University Grants Committee stated:

"The character and efficiency of a university may be gauged by its treatment of its central organ - the library. We regard the fullest provision for library maintenance as the primary and most vital need in the equipment of a university."

This sounds all very well in theory, but let us turn now to the practice of business school libraries. If the organisational design of a business school is being considered, differences can be observed between the different schools under study, particularly since schools in different West-European countries are considered here. Yet there are similarities and in order to discuss the position of business school libraries within their parent institutions, an organization model will be developed.

At the top of the organisation there is a Board often consisting of people from both the business and the academic world, most of them from outside the organisation. This Board takes the main overall policy decisions and in some cases is responsible for appointments of academic staff members of the School. For the running of the School there may be a Management Committee, or an Executive Committee, consisting of the main members of the School; this Committee responds to the Board. (A Principal may have been appointed or elected as chairperson to the Management Committee, which is the case at Henley, the Management College and at the London Business School.) Under the Management Committee a distinction is made between academic and administrative matters. An Academic Board, or Faculty Board headed by the Dean, or Academic Dean, is responsible for the teaching and research of the School, while departments and programme committees are responsible to this Academic Board. Of course there are sub-committees and advisory committees, but these are of no relevance for this model. A Director, or Administrative Director will normally be responsible for all administrative services, like the Finance Department, Personnel Department, Student and Course Administrations, Printing Department, Domestic Services, etc. The Computer Department and the Library are often not included in these administrative services.

As far as the Library is concerned three possibilities for the organisational setting are observed from empirical evidence:

1) The Library can be placed as a separate entity under the responsibility of the Director with formal or informal links to the academic staff, e.g. by means of contacts between the Librarian and the Academic Board, or by means of a Library Committee. (The Library can also be considered as one of the administrative services of the School which means that its status is rather low; this will not show on the model to be presented however.)

2) The second possibility is that the Library is placed under the responsibility of the Dean.

3) A third possibility is that the Library is placed under the direct responsibility of the Management Committee (or the Principal).

This model can be shown with an organisation chart:
Organisation model of a business school with two possibilities for the library in the setting.
Of course the status of the library need not be and is not always related to the place within the organisation, but the exception proves the rule that those librarians who are responsible to the Dean or to the Principal are better recognised in general than those who have to report to the Director. Even if there are formal links with the Academic Board or by means of a Library Committee whose members are members of this Board, there still is the danger that the Library that is placed under the supervision of the Director will be seen as one of the administrative service departments, headed by a librarian who operates at a lower level than the academic staff. As an exception to this the Library of the Manchester Business School must be mentioned, whose librarian has a high and very well recognised position within the School, even if he reports to the Director. A librarian who reports to the Dean or to the Principal is often considered as a member of the academic staff of the School and accordingly may be a member of the Academic Board. This means that teaching and research staff will find it easier to approach the librarian with any problem they might have. Students will not generally show a difference in approach to the librarian in relation to the librarian's status.

As far as the libraries under study are concerned, the situation of the different librarians is:

Centre d’Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires:
The Librarian responds to the Dean.

Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales:
The Librarian responds to the Dean.

Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus:
The Librarian responds to the Library Council, which is responsible to the Senate. (The Senate can be compared with a Board.)

Henley, the Management College:
The Librarian responds to the Principal.

International Management Institute:
The Librarian responds to the Chairperson of the Faculty. (This Chairperson can be compared with a Dean.)

Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde:
The Librarian responds to the Director.

London Business School:
The Librarian responds to the Principal.

Manchester Business School:
The Librarian responds to the Director.
Norges Handelshøyskole:
The Librarian responds to the Board, but the Library is responsible to the Library Committee.

Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale:
The Librarian responds to the Director.

Strathclyde Business School:
The Librarian responds to the University Librarian, who in turn is responsible to the Principal of the University of Strathclyde. The Librarian has close contacts with the School through the Associate Dean.

University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce:
The Librarian responds to the University Librarian, who is responsible to the Governing Body. (The Governing Body can be compared with a Board.)

Business school librarians generally feel that the objectives of their libraries as they see them are taken into account by the management of their schools and they also think that there is not much difference in view between the librarian and the management of the school in relation to these objectives, although it was noted by the Librarian of Manchester Business School that the librarian is more aware of the services that are actually provided, as well as of the possibilities and restrictions.

In general, business school libraries perform rather independently, which will be discussed when these libraries will be looked at as sub-organisations, later on in this chapter. This independency can be an advantage, but as Moss and Green observe:

There is an unfortunate tendency for the library to come to the attention of faculties and senate only when financial crises threaten large cut-backs in book or periodical budgets: the gradual erosion of its spending power arouses little interest. [183]

Business school libraries are not always mentioned in the brochures of their schools, and if they are, it may be very brief. Too often the importance of libraries is overlooked and in fact the importance of their services is not always recognised. This has made Rothwell conclude in relation to information departments of industrial organisations:

It is only when management appreciates the full importance of the information function that the information department can play its full role in stimulating and assisting innovation and growth. [184]

It is no use to rank the libraries under study in order of importance to their managements, but there are differences of positions held by librarians, mainly due to this kind of
recognition. The impression has been created that the librarians when investigated have sometimes impressed more favourably than was realistic.

Most business schools have a library committee, consisting of members of the academic staff from different departments of the school, the librarian and, in some schools, student representatives. Apart from the Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus, Norges Handelshøyskole and other Scandinavian schools which are schools of economics and business, where a library committee has an official status, most library committees of business schools are not very formal bodies. About library committees Thompson states that:

The library committee can act most effectively as a sympathetic forum in which the librarian can examine his problems and test his ideas. Very rarely does a library committee resort to voting procedure, very rarely does it over-ride the librarian's expert and professional recommendations. More often it enables him to formulate and improve his plans, and so inform and sharpen his own performance. [105]

Most library committees of the libraries under study meet a few times annually; they deal with the library's budget and sometimes with acquisitions, as well as with other subjects that may be raised by the librarian. The librarian will certainly use the Library Committee to strengthen the position of the library within the school whenever this is possible.

Another way to strengthen the librarian's position is by means of membership of different standing committees of the school of which Sharma advises:

The head librarian should be a part of the entire operational team of the institution. He should be a permanent and equal member of the dean's advisory council, the curriculum committee, and the academic affairs board with voting rights. This will help the head librarian to have full knowledge of the changes and developments in the institution which in turn will help him to prepare his library to meet the needs of students and faculty and to achieve the goals and mission of the institution. The head librarian should be treated as a division chairman, since he plays a very important role in the institution. [106]

Some librarians of business schools are a member of one or more standing committees of their schools, but this is not the case with all of them. The same is true as far as their personal status is concerned, since not all of them are considered a member of the academic staff of their school.
Organisational communication within business schools.

No organisation would be able to survive without communication. Even with the organisation of the two hunting men from the first chapter of this study, interpersonal communication between the two men was needed in order that they be able to take a decision leading to action. In the words of Roberts, O'Reilly, Breeton and Porter:

Communication seems to tie organizations together. Consequently, the relationship of various facets of communication to other processes such as coordination and decision-making appears to have high pay-offs in terms of understanding organizational behaviour. The relationships among communication, organizational efficiency, and quality of human life (for example, job satisfaction and motivation) variables also seem important. [187]

Hoey and Harris simply state:

In everyday life it may be necessary to remind people to give way at road junctions or not to smoke in inflammable atmospheres. In a business situation it may be necessary to remind someone that he needs more facts before he can make a good decision. [188]

Communication takes place between a receiver and a sender of information, but as Hoey and Harris observe:

For communication to be successful both receiver and sender of information must have a knowledge and appreciation of the environment within which they are working. Any one chosen environment is fluid and changes under the influence of external pressures. For information to be presented effectively in what is, then a dynamic situation it must itself be created by a dynamic sender. By this is meant one who has his eye constantly on environmental changes effecting the receiver and alters his presentation to take these changes into account. [189]

This stresses the importance of the environment again that was discussed above. Communication seems to be essential, particularly with the task environment, but for those who doubt about this Rothwell and Robertson note:

Perhaps one method for convincing management of the need for establishing strong and efficient communication networks, both internal and external, is to demonstrate the folly of ignoring this aspect of good management practice. [190]
What follows in their article is a presentation of brief extracts from nine cases from empirical evidence.

In the first chapter of this study three kinds of communication flows in organisations have been recognised (page 54):
- Vertical flows up and down the hierarchy.
- Horizontal flows between peers or between departments of equivalent status.
- Diagonal flows cutting across hierarchies.

In addition to this a distinction was made between formal and informal communication.

In business schools these communication flows can be recognised as well:
- Vertical flows: between the teachers and the taught, between academic staff and their secretaries, between heads of departments and their subordinates, etc.
- Horizontal flows: between academic staff (development of programmes), between students or course participants (working on projects), within departments between peers, etc.
- Diagonal flows: between members of service departments and other members of the school, including between library staff and users of the library.

About communication in the library system, Simon observes:

Communication in the context of the library might then be defined as the work a library administrator performs to create understanding between himself and the organization of which his library is a part, between himself and his staff, and between the individual members of the staff. It is also the work he and the library staff together perform in order to create understanding between the library and the user. [191]

She recognises four directions in which communication in libraries is carried on:

up, down, across, and out - up to a superior authority, down to subordinates, across to librarians in peer positions, and out to the library's clientele. [192]

There is, however, a fifth direction in which communication in libraries is carried on and this fifth one is of major importance: IN. As a service organisation, a library provides information to its readers, but in order to be able to undertake this task seriously and properly, it is not sufficient if library materials have been made available. In order to be able to provide information, the librarian should also obtain information and this information should be obtained from any source possible.

The librarians of the libraries under study have found difficulties in replying when they were asked how they get
informed. In fact they have been taken by surprise and at first most of them did not know what kind of reactions were expected from them. But after a short discussion, they considered and after that they all did understand the importance of this question. Their replies have been in the style of: information will be obtained at the bar; some formal communication channels do work; some useful information will be transferred over coffee, etc. In general formal communication flows are felt necessary, but the most important information is obtained by informal communication. In the opinion of the librarians there is not as yet a policy on how to deal with informal communication as an input to library performance. This is not incomprehensible, if it is considered that Ploman, Executive Director of the International Institute of Communications said in 1981:

The fundamental change in our attitude towards the entire communications/information complex is recent. We still seem very unsure about what it means and how to deal with it. Our universities and think-tanks have not been very helpful; there are as many paradigms and theories about communication as there are professors of communication. Similarly, each discipline, each profession has developed an approach of its own, as has each government department. [193]

Yet, just as librarians of business schools recognised the importance of communications in library systems when confronted with a question about it, so many others have recognised this importance as well. Given the fact that dealing with communications in a theoretical way is a rather new phenomenon to many librarians, and given the variety of papers written on this subject, it is felt to be useful to present a number of quotations, to show the differences in approach as well as the importance of communication to libraries. This importance can not be overvalued; without any information obtained from sources outside the library, the librarian could be considered as more or less blind, and this would certainly have consequences when the wrong decisions in relation to the provision of future services would be taken.

In all specialised information services an understanding of the information flow within the organisation, of the communication methods and media employed, and of other information sources (including people) used can be a valuable input to the development of effective information services. [194]

Problems of information flow can stem from poor relationships between the information centre and the R & D department. [195]

(Information staff must be) able to maintain a constant flow of information about the parent organization into the information unit. [196]
It is, of course, necessary for an information service to know the organization machine and all its protocols very thoroughly. [197]

An amazing amount of information can be picked up at social events, meal breaks, etc., and a good information type should be able to eat his lunch with one ear on the ground. [198]

The value of informal meeting over coffee or outside the library cannot be underestimated; neither should the work of memos and circulars be overvalued. [199]

Good librarians are not just good administrators, they should be good communicators. [200]

If he (the information manager) is naive enough to believe that decisions are made logically from the information he supplies, and that all he needs to do is to provide a good service and allow its virtues to speak for themselves, he is in for a rude awakening. [201]

Recognising the importance of informal communications within the organisation is one thing, but another thing is to become included in this information circuit. Business school librarians may have recognised the importance of informal meetings over coffee and may try to maintain social contacts as much as possible, they are not included generally in the informal information circuit of their schools. One of the main and obvious reasons for this fact is that unlike members of the academic staff, they have to work at one place most of the time; they may attend meetings now and then, they may meet people when taking a coffee break, their workplace however is in the library. Another reason is that the character of their work is different from that of academic staff and that may be a barrier.

The group of readers that is the most difficult to communicate with is research staff. It has been argued above that research staff prefers to be informed informally, by colleagues (page 196). Lester simply states:

Libraries have never been particularly important as sources of new, fresh information for 'professionals'. [202]

For research staff there is a special way to obtain information. Apart from the informal information network within business schools, there is the invisible college, that does not stop at the walls of the schools, but works beyond boundaries, even on an international scale between professionals of an academic discipline. This invisible college is not to be penetrated, certainly not by librarians.
There are however, individuals in every organisation who seem to occupy key positions in the communication network of the organisation. They are called technological gatekeepers (see also page 57 of this study) and from them the library may obtain useful information, if they will be recognised. Kemp observes about this:

Whereas invisible colleges are matters of communication beyond the boundaries of an organisation, technological gatekeepers relate to the flow of information within it. The idea of technological gatekeepers stems from the observation that within an organisation there are people who rarely if ever use the library or its services, but who are nevertheless surprisingly well informed about recent developments in their fields. Their information can only have come from other people, and it is these others, who do the informing, who are the technological gatekeepers. [203]

Wilkin notes clearly about gatekeepers:

The gatekeeper provides an informal information service as a natural extension of his professional activities. [204]

Business school librarians sometimes do recognise technological gatekeepers, and do use them in order to get information, but they do not consider them as a major source of information. A reason for this may be that technological gatekeepers are not being appointed as such and their position as gatekeepers may not be permanent. It also takes some time before they are being recognised as gatekeepers. Pearson observes:

It has never been entirely clear how one can identify such people (technological gatekeepers) in advance, whether their role is permanent or transient, and whether or not their positions can be formalized. [205]

Technological gatekeepers may be important in technological laboratories and may be important to information managers in technological firms, to business school libraries they seem to be of less importance. They may be more important to colleagues by bringing information from the libraries, than to the libraries by informing what is going on in the schools.

Even if the information provision to libraries in business schools is limited as far as the information from within the schools is concerned, a lot of information is still being picked up by the librarians at all kinds of events and this information is used to improve the provision of their information services.
The library as a sub-organization.

The professional literature is greatly deficient in all types of studies pertaining to organizational structure, administrative processes and the environmental conditions in which libraries are embedded.

Müllmann wrote in 1982 and he continued:

It appears as if the comprehensive body of literature on the theory of organizations has never been brought to the center of attention of the library profession. [206]

Many writers on organizational theory indeed do not even mention libraries as an example, let alone that the organisation of a library is discussed by them. But on the other hand a growing number of librarians and information managers are dealing with the theories of organization for a better performance of their libraries. A reason for this is formulated by Roberts:

The librarian's concern with performance and evaluation of his services is perennial, and the achievement of goals within the service can only be done at the price of having the right organization for the task in hand. [207]

And since libraries have to satisfy both their parent organisation from which the budget must be allocated and their readers to whom they provide their services, Evans concludes:

Libraries and information centers have a combination of features and functions that makes them unlike any other organization. [208]

Adding to this it can be mentioned that a library performs rather independently and this may explain why a library as an organisation will be the subject of the remainder of this chapter.

An organisation exists of people aiming at a common goal; whatever the changes in society have been, this has not changed. It is difficult to compare the organisation of the two hunting men from the beginning of the first chapter of this study with a modern library, but they do share these basic elements of organising. Another basic element of a library is that it performs as a service organisation, its product is the provision of a service. One of the qualities of a service organisation is that it is typically paid out of a budget allocation. As far as a library is concerned this is its main dependency: a library's budget is allocated from its parent organisation. (Libraries are understood here as
Academic libraries belonging to a university, or special libraries belonging to industrial organisations, apart from dependency in relation with the budget, a library performs rather independently given the library objectives on which the library will have agreed with its parent organisation. It is generally accepted that such an agreement often is not formally recorded and even more often there will not be any agreement at all, since it is accepted that the objectives of a library are well known and obvious, but the formulation of objectives is important enough to pay attention to. Drucker has stressed the importance of objectives:

Achievement is never possible except against specific, limited, clearly defined targets, in business as well as in a service institution. Only if targets are defined can resources be allocated to their attainment, priorities and deadlines be set, and somebody be held accountable for results. But the starting point for effective work is a definition of the purpose and mission of the institution - which is almost always "intangible", but nevertheless need not be vacuous.

Organisations are influenced by their environments, service organisations not excluded; the library within its environment has been dealt with above, but will be returned to briefly in order to come to organisational structure. In an article on the structure of educational organisations, Meyer, Scott and Deal have written:

An institutional model suggests that schools maintain high levels of interpenetration with their environments, not as a reflection of organizational weakness (as would be the case for a technical organization) but as a source of strength. While remaining stable and consistent in general structural features and broad institutional categories, schools are highly responsive to the demands of their local governments.

In another article Meyer and Rowan name a formal structure a blueprint for activities of an organisation:

This stability stems from the tradition of the theory of bureaucracy as developed by Weber and outlined in the first chapter of this study (page 40). Jones has very clearly formulated one of the main points of the theory of bureaucracy:

Bureaucracy relies primarily upon standardization of the work process itself, and, better still, the standardization of outputs.

If performed completely, this standardization conflicts with a flexible approach that is thought to be needed to respond to the needs of library readers nowadays. Speaking about the
new librarianship, Jones introduces the term 'proactive librarianship' of which he states that:

it marks the need for a dynamic library management tradition in place of bureaucratic administration and laissez-faire collegiality. [213]

The term proactive librarianship will be returned to when library policy will be discussed in the next chapter. For the moment the point is that Weberian bureaucracy is rejected when performed in its original form, because it is too static for a library that needs to be flexible and open to change in responding to recognised readers' needs. It must be reminded however, that bureaucracy has brought us rational organization from which we still benefit, not in the least in library organisations. Times have changed and even a bureaucracy with modifications would perhaps not be advisable to implement in modern organisations. That is why bureaucracy is rejected for the organisation of libraries. To organise a modern library demands a mentality of adjustment. Rizzo - writing for librarians - has a view which seems to be much in the line of this kind of library organisation:

Organizing never produces a stable entity. It is much more realistic and emotionally less stressful to treat organizing as an ongoing activity that will always produce a dynamic entity. Accepting these conclusions as inevitable can bring useful realism and more sophisticated approaches to managers interested in improved organization. [214]

After having considered that a library must be an organisation that is dynamic, organisational structure must now be considered. The theory of Burns and Stalker has been discussed in the first chapter (page 51) when mechanistic and organic organisations have been considered, mechanistic organisations performing in a fixed and stable environment, while organic organisations perform in a changing environment. Bedeian observes about these theories:

Burns and Stalker suggest that few, if any, management systems are purely mechanistic or purely organic, but most likely they combine certain mechanistic and organic characteristics simultaneously. [215]

Yet it seems that a library as an organisation shows many characteristics of an organic system. In relation to this Rizzo can be quoted again when he writes:

Theories of organization structure and design argue that organizations in a changing environment should be more organically structured. An organic structure is judged to be more appropriate to adapt and adjust to change. Such structures are also likely to be more appropriate for creating change as would be the case for a research
and development unit in an organization. One of the Key requirements of an organic structure lies in its ability to identify and solve problems. [216]

Drucker has been considering a similar approach:

Organization is not mechanical. It is not done by assembly, nor can it be prefabricated. Organization is organic and unique to each individual business or institution. We realize now that structure is a means for attaining the objectives and goals of an institution. And if a structure is to be effective and sound, we must start with objectives and strategy. This is perhaps the most fruitful new insight we have in the field of organization. It may sound obvious, and it is. But some of the worst mistakes in organization building have been made by imposing on a living business a mechanistic model of an ideal organization. [217]

In the remainder of this chapter business school libraries are discussed, in relation to the organic structure that is accepted for their organisation in the understanding that no theories can be absolutely adopted. The theory of organic structuring of organisations as developed by Burns and Stalker is no exception to that as has been outlined above. If adoption of the organic structure now has been accepted, this restriction must be taken into consideration. Business school libraries perform an organic structure with some mechanistic parts. In order to understand this organic structure, uncertainty must be dealt with briefly. It is Galbraith who has formulated a good description of uncertainty:

Uncertainty is the difference between the amount of information required to perform the task and the amount of information already possessed by the organization. [218]

Uncertainty can be reduced by obtaining information, but it is difficult for librarians to obtain the information needed to reduce uncertainty, since they are not normally included in the informal communications of their parent organisations. Uncertainty needs not be a problem however as long as librarians are flexible in adapting to change the moment this turns out to be advisable and possible, and at the same time try to diminish uncertainty to an acceptable level by keeping their eyes and ears wide open trying to be informed about what is going on in the parent organisation.

It has been argued above that business school libraries perform as academic libraries, but also show some characteristics of special libraries, particularly of those of business organisations. This has, of course, an impact on their performances. Two quotations may illustrate this distinction. Blagden states:
Special libraries exist to provide information which can be used to take a decision. [213]

and McClure observes:

The complexity of the typical academic library, the broad range of decisions that must be made, and the need to obtain maximum benefits from limited resources demand a rational approach to decision making. [220]

Special libraries assist the decision making process of their parent organisations, while academic libraries are working on their own decision making. Dealing with this subject, Wilson formulates clearly:

Academic libraries are, of course, governed by committees more closely representative of their clients than public libraries, whilst the special libraries, being involved with a small and tight community, will soon be informed of any apparent failings in service. [221]

Consequently, academic libraries perform rather independently from their parent organisations. Business school libraries are in a similar position. The librarian of such a library may be responsible to the Dean, the Director, or to the Management Committee of the School, there is not a day-to-day control however and the librarian can take all but the main policy decisions in relation to the performance of the library. As a result of this a business school library can be viewed as an organisation of itself, including all consequences this may have. Because of its independent performance it is better to speak in terms of a sub-organisation, rather than of a sub-system. A sub-system is not able to function separately from other parts of the organisation. A sub-organisation however, is part of a larger body indeed, but it is able to function independently.

As for all organisations, the basic elements of a library as an organisation are:

- Inputs, including human and material resources.
- Transformation processes, including the use of resources to making materials available.
- Outputs, including the provision of services to readers.

This can be put into a simple model:
INPUTS ---> TRANSFORMATION PROCESSES ---> OUTPUTS

From the view of operating functions of a library, a model of a management information system will show:

COLLECTING ---> PROCESSING ---> DISTRIBUTING

In order to avoid confusion two definitions may be useful.

Leinkuhler defines:

A system is a logically efficient way to accomplish some preconceived purpose by defining all of the necessary steps to be taken, including the alternative paths that might be followed. [222]

while Webster explains:

The term management information system is a label used to denote a range of means for collecting, processing, and distributing information on the operation of each of the components of the library model (i.e., inputs, programs and outputs). [223]

The analysis of such a system can be useful to see how the components are inter-related and what improvements can be made. In the words of Mason:

The technique of systems analysis can be used to study the system and its sub-systems in order to demonstrate the inter-relationship of the component parts, their effectiveness or otherwise and whether there is a need for any modification or replacement. It is also of use in design and implementation of new systems. [224]

The inter-relationships of the component parts of a library system are important, since co-ordination is needed however small the library may be. Library resources are always limited and they should be used efficiently. In a study produced by the management firm of Booz, Allen and Hamilton, it is observed that:

The challenge of management in the university library is to make the most effective use of all available resources. The challenge of management in the university library is to make the most effective justification, allocation, and use of limited resources in relation to the needs and objectives of the university community. The task of management implies the use of the tools of organization and of systems in planning, budgeting,
utilizing, and evaluating the resources and activities of libraries. [225]

In order to manage the library, functional groupings according to the different tasks will have been developed, and if the library is large enough, it will execute functional departments. Arnold terms the grouping of functions and activities probably the most important part of organizing. [226]

Examples of this functional division in relation to the components of the library are:
- Collecting: acquisitions
- Processing: cataloguing
- Distributing: reader services

Some library functions cannot be put under any of these components, like public relations and user education, although these functions can be related to the distribution process. This functional division is a kind of standardisation of libraries where the influence of bureaucratic organisation is still appreciated. It is also a dynamic policy not to completely reject a static theory.

The co-ordination of the organisational parts of the library then are interdependent, pooled as well as sequential. (For an explanation of these interdependencies, page 33 of this study is referred to.) This may guarantee a good performance as far as the system is concerned.

Business school librarians, performing as specialised units within their parent institutions in supporting education and research, are not specialising themselves into specialised subject departments, but into functional groupings as outlined above. Departmentalisation mainly consists of one-person departments, which means that every member of the staff executes a unique task that contributes to the overall performance. This is how many faculty libraries of universities perform. To a certain extent this is also similar to the performance of information departments of business organisations. Arnold observes about these:

In a small information department the most useful primary grouping will be into activities and functions concerned with 'obtaining and recording primary units of information' (for example books, periodicals, reports) and those concerned with the exploiting of these units (for example abstracting, indexing, current awareness). [227]

An information department of a business organisation however, puts more an emphasis on documentary services than a business school library. Departmentalisation is unlikely to lead to specialised goals that might contradict with the overall library objective. The libraries under study are rather small in this respect and this does not leave room for the development of policies that might contradict with the
The overall objective of the library: The structure in these libraries is hierarchical, which means that every member of the library staff has to report to the librarian, who thus can easily keep the library under control. This hierarchical structure is not at all uncommon to libraries. Gordon states:

The library is likely to be a line authority element within itself, a staff authority element relative to the host organisation and not likely to be a functional authority element unless the main business of the host organisation is somehow a library business in which case there may be several variations. [228]

The functioning of the library within its parent organisation has been discussed above. Since business school libraries are mainly serving members of their schools by providing them with information, their task environment is very important. As far as the internal functioning of the library is concerned however one may wonder in what way and to what extent the libraries under study are influenced by the environment as far as their processing activities are concerned. In order that organisations perform efficiently, their transformation processes must be protected from environmental influences. Thompson recognises four ways of protection: buffering, smoothing, anticipating and rationing [229]. Since library techniques such as processes of making available library materials are considered part of the professional library domain, the processing activities of a library have always been protected, not by means of any of the four ways of protection recognised by Thompson, but by the development of highly specialised techniques which cannot easily be understood by non-professionals, like cataloguing rules. The aim of developing these techniques has been to be able to apply the rules to every possibility, but as a side-effect protection of the processing activities turns out to be one of the results as well. Cataloguing rules in particular have also been used to protect the library profession with negative effects as well. Urquhart observes:

In many libraries, catalogue entries are checked and rechecked to see if they satisfy some local non-standard system before they are filed. Possibly this improves the final record marginally but its usefulness is reduced because it holds up the availability of acquisitions, often by weeks or months. [230]

The results of cataloguing can be found in the catalogues. The catalogue has always been considered the central place of the library instead of the enquiry desk, in the same tradition of the collection being of more importance than the readers. Whenever librarians enter a library, they first head for the catalogues and take a look into them. One may wonder what they intend to see which they do not already know. With the development of new technology and the introduction of computers into the library, Jones sees a new danger:
The computer-centred library follows in the same negative tradition of the catalogue-centred library. [231]

The emphasis put on cataloguing has been to defend the profession against the idea that it is just administration; the emphasis put on the computer seems to be to demonstrate that the profession has not fallen behind with its development.

The reason for dwelling on this subject is that it has a main impact on library performance. If too much importance is attached to the catalogues, this has reflections on how the library is managed. It would be inconsistent to put a main emphasis on the catalogues and cataloguing and at the same time state that the general objective of the library is to provide information services to readers, instead of building up a collection of documents. As far as the libraries under study are concerned however, this inconsistency does not show. It is just the contrary: to many business school libraries the handling of enquiries is of major importance. The handling of enquiries shall be returned to when library services will be considered in the next chapter: it can however be stated already that the handling of enquiries is considered the most important library service!

As a result of the protection of processing activities, it can be concluded that business school libraries perform independently from their task environment, let alone from their general environment. These libraries have been given a large amount of freedom to develop their own systems and provide their services in such a way as their librarians think best.

One of the few, but most important things a business school librarian has to discuss with the management of the school and possibly also with a library committee, is the allocation of the library budget. Here the librarian may find himself or herself in competition with heads of other service departments.

In some business school libraries the budget includes library staff, but even then the librarian normally cannot decide alone on new staff (and certainly not on new professional staff), and not at all on the extension of the number of the library staff. As far as library materials are concerned however, the librarians of most of the libraries under study have a complete or major say in the acquisition of these materials given the limitations of the library budget.

A few words must be devoted to internal communication within the library. It has been mentioned already that libraries generally have a hierarchical structure and business school libraries are no exception to this fact. Since the libraries under study are small, internal communication can be direct, both formal and informal. With a few exceptions all members
of the library staffs of these libraries have to report directly to the librarian with the result that there are no communication problems in the libraries.

It must be determined that it has not been the aim to find the best organisation for business school libraries. There is no best organisation; what is best depends very much on circumstances, including culture, economical and political conditions, etc. Every organisation also has to respond to environmental influences and consequently Holroyd states:

There is no One Right Way in the understanding or operation of organisations. [232]

Jones in defending a contingency approach explains why different kinds of organisation are needed by saying:

Different kinds of task system or environment will require different kinds of organisation. The best way to organize and manage is contingent on circumstances; there is no 'one right way', no universally applicable prescriptions or fashions. [233]

As far as the organisation of business school libraries is concerned, the organisation is organic, not completely, but organic enough to be able to respond to change. As a service organisation the ability to respond is very important. In general it can be concluded that business school libraries perform this way and behave as might be aspected.
CHAPTER 6

ORGANISATION AND POLICY OF BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

Comparison of libraries.

From the resemblances that have been recognised in former chapters, it seems obvious that business school libraries can easily be compared with one another. Chen observes however:

Each library is unique and should be assessed in the context of its particular history, constraints, users, and environment. [234]

While Meister notes:

A direct comparison of different libraries often must fail because of the lack of completely equal conditions of the library use and the different composition of the potential users, unless the innovation consists of basic changes in the principle use conditions like e.g. opening times or lending terms. [235]

Business school libraries bear resemblances, but also differences; these differences can be recognised in relation to:

- **Organisation**: business school libraries belong to public, private, or partly government sponsored institutions.

- **History**: different backgrounds are related to present developments.

- **Readers**: some business school libraries serve large quantities of undergraduates; others serve no undergraduates at all.

- **Tradition**: particularly as far as academic staff is concerned, differences in user approach are observed in different European countries.

- **Environment**: other libraries that are near by and accessible to readers of business school libraries, do influence library performance.

- **Size**: differences in management between smaller and larger libraries can be observed.
Libraries produce figures. These figures provide the reader with some quantitative information on the library; the number of books and the number of periodicals taken for instance, will give the reader some idea about the size of the library. For that reason this kind of information can sometimes even be found in library guides.

In the Directory of the European Business School Librarians' Group [236] some library figures are presented together with some additional information on twenty-three business school libraries in Europe, including all twelve libraries under study. It does present some information on each library, but not on library performance.

The importance of library figures is often overestimated. From the way figures are presented, many librarians think that the more books they have in their libraries, the better these libraries perform. In addition to this, library figures are often used to justify the library budget to the management of the organization.

In the words of Bloss:

In practice, one finds that in many cases where standards are cited by library managers and planners, their use has been to justify budget estimates - to obtain the needed funds to upgrade library services, resources, and facilities. [237]

Keeping in mind the limitations of library figures, figures of the libraries under study have been put together in order to be compared. The main problem with this kind of comparison is that many figures need explanations in order to be understood correctly. To remain readable however, the number of notes must not be too great. The result will always be a kind of compromise between readability and completeness. In the case under study the number of notes has been limited to what had to be mentioned. As a result of this, here are some library figures:
### SOME LIBRARY FIGURES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>62 1/2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>75,000(1)</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>110,000</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>5,600</td>
<td>42,000</td>
<td>50 1/2</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>- (2)</td>
<td>- (3)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>- (2)</td>
<td>32 1/2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>9,000</td>
<td>42 1/2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>790</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>1,750</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>35,000</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1,800</td>
<td>17,000(1)</td>
<td>61 1/2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>190,000</td>
<td>1,250</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>- (4)</td>
<td>- (2)</td>
<td>37 1/2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>3,500</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>- (5)</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>675,000</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Explanations:**

- **A** - number of books.
- **B** - number of periodicals taken.
- **C** - number of readers' places.
- **D** - annual number of accessions.
- **E** - annual number of loans (short-loan figures excluded).
- **F** - number of hours open per week during term.
- **G** - number of library staff.

**Notes:**

- (1) - Short loan figures are included.
- (2) - Loans are not counted.
- (3) - The library is open all times; the staff is on duty forty hours per week.
- (4) - The number of accessions is not known.
- (5) - There are no loan facilities.
Libraries of:

1 - Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires.
2 - Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales.
3 - Handelshojskolen i Aarhus.
4 - Henley, the Management College.
5 - International Management Institute.
6 - Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde.
7 - London Business School.
8 - Manchester Business School.
9 - Morges Handelshojskole.
10 - Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale.
11 - Strathclyde Business School.
12 - University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce.

As indicated above, these library figures are incomplete. A lot of information is needed before figures can be produced to be compared with figures from other libraries. If, for instance, the number of books in the holdings is asked for (which is very likely), one need to define as precisely as possible what is considered to be a book. As an example one may think of a research report produced by a company and included in their annual report. If in this case research reports are considered books, but company reports are not: a decision has to be made. When dealing with periodicals, the term periodical needs to be defined, since librarians may or may not include newspapers, annual publications, or other serial titles that are not considered periodicals in every library. Similar problems arise with other subjects. As mentioned above the result will be a kind of compromise, since otherwise the notes added to the figures will be very extensive and even then may result into confusion.

The emphasis in producing library figures has until recently only been on the input side of the libraries, just as the emphasis of library objectives has been very long on building a collection. Recently the importance of the output side for library statistics has been recognised, just as the emphasis of library objectives has been changed to reader satisfaction. Allred explains the importance of outputs for library measurement by referring to information in use in contrast to information in its raw state. In other words, he notes:

"Libraries are part of the knowledge industry, and like any other industry it is not acceptable to judge the competence of the operation solely by the magnitude of its inputs, or on the size of its capital and processing plant. It must also be judged by the quantity and acceptability of its outputs." [239]

Hamburg considers measures of achievement of library objectives and in addition considers the area of library
Because of a long standing tradition of accountability, libraries do a conscientious job of measuring inputs (costs), but they typically have done very little either in conceptualizing or in measuring outputs. That is, they rarely attempt to measure in any sophisticated and systematic way the outputs of services that are provided to the public by libraries.

In analyzing what a library tries to accomplish (its objectives), we considered the area of library standards. We concluded that existing library standards tend to be neither objectives nor performance measures, but rather are descriptive rules for 'proper' management or are quantitative rules for minimum inputs of materials, personnel, and physical facilities. They represent a static concept pointed toward the evaluation of library resource inputs but do not focus on the outputs of library service. [239]

The importance many libraries attach to library figures and library measurement has been mentioned above. The impression arises that many librarians are striving for too much perfection in this matter, like many of them also do with cataloguing. It takes too much of their time with possibly a marginal improvement. This time could be used much better by paying more attention to reader satisfaction for instance. Reader satisfaction is not to be measured by means of library figures. Jones notices that reader satisfaction cannot be accurately measured in terms of $x$ documents borrowed or $y$ pieces of information received. [240]

So far only the quantitative measurement of library services has been dealt with, but to get a real picture of library performance, qualitative measurement must be considered as well.

Bloss relates quality with quantity when he observes:

While books and other items of a certain number are to be provided, these are not to be just any books and other materials, but those that have been selected in accord with qualitative standards, that are part of the standards document. Quantitative standards cannot be applied without simultaneous use of qualitative standards or principles and guidelines for the particular kind of library service. [241]

Blagden has dealt with library statistics as well and arrives at a very clear conclusion:

Statistics of use do not answer three fundamental library management questions: (a) was the information disseminated read by the enquirer? (b) if yes, did this reading enrich the thinking of the enquirer? (c) if yes,
was this enrichment in accord with the goals of the organization which the library is serving, i.e., did it produce a better/quicker decision? [242]

The answers to these questions will not often be obtained by public and academic libraries. Even many special libraries will not be able to respond to these questions, because it is too difficult and time consuming to undertake such an evaluation. In information centres of industrial organizations however, or in special libraries with a limited clientele, it might be possible to find the answers to these questions that can be very useful to improve library performance. Allred observes about this kind of evaluation:

To measure the degree to which a library is successful in meeting demand means that we must have a measure of all the demand, met and unmet. Specialized libraries with a limited clientele, where the librarian or information officer is present and actively serving the clients most of the time, have a chance of measuring this. [243]

This kind of measuring demand is not possible in business school libraries, since the number of their readers is too large, but some information of this kind can be obtained now and then.

The figures presented do not provide any qualitative information; to measure quality, a lot of additional information is needed that will be dealt with in the remainder of this chapter. It is no use to compare libraries in terms of good-better-best, mainly because readers must be served not by the best library only, but by all libraries. It has been argued that every library is unique and even if business school libraries bear many resemblances, many differences have been observed as well. A comparison of the libraries under study by means of looking at their services, constraints, and given the environment in which each library performs, can be useful in order to get a picture of business school librarianship in Western Europe. The library figures presented indicate what these libraries are in relation to facts in a quantitative way, quality is much more difficult to measure and compare, but as Oldman and Wills notice:

What is surely needed is some means of comparing the usefulness of libraries. [244]

while Webster observes:

Useful comparative data on the characteristics and performance of other, similar libraries can assist in projecting future plans. [245]

In evaluating library performance, the usefulness of business school libraries will be compared in an indirect way in the remainder of this chapter.
The place where a library is located is important in relation to the use that is made of its services. The ideal place is next door to the readers of the library and in an academic environment this means a central place in the building or on the campus. Many business school libraries are located centrally and are easy to find, often near the main entrance of the school, like the libraries of the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale and the International Management Institute, or close to the restaurant or the coffee room like the Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School. Some libraries, like those of Manchester Business School and of Henley, the Management College, are located a little peripherally, but to most readers this is not a problem according to the librarians, who would prefer of course that their libraries be more centrally situated.

The library of the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires is located near the teaching offices and the lecture rooms as far as the provision of most services is concerned, but since this is on the edge of the campus, the lending library for students is to be found separately in the middle of the campus. This is a good example of bringing library services to the readers.

Generally speaking the librarians of business schools are content with the location where their libraries are situated.

Libraries tend to grow and accordingly they need more and more space when the years go by. As gradual, yet regular enlargement of the library on a permanent basis is almost impossible in most cases, libraries suffer from space problems sooner or later. Of course it is possible to weed the same number of books that are annually acquired and additionally keep the same number of volumes for all journals taken on a permanent basis. In that case there would be no growth at all. This is possible in theory, but will hardly be realised in any library. In the Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School the number of books is not growing very much, since books are regularly disposed of and sent to the Andersonian Library (the University Library of Strathclyde University) when they are outdated, to be replaced by new acquisitions. For periodicals a similar arrangement has been made as far as older volumes are concerned. Yet the Business Information Centre finds itself in lack of space, since it still keeps growing.

The importance of space in libraries has been stressed by Basker and Brettell:

The space dimension of library services supply is a critical one and clearly many aspects of innovatory change are associated with space saving in the storage of information just as much as in the effective recovery of information from store. [246]
Unfortunately this importance of space in libraries is not always recognised by the managements of academic institutions, since it is often hardly realised that more books and periodicals demand more space and more readers demand more seating accommodation, which means more space as well. In relation to this it can be observed that it is inconsistent to allocate a budget to a library without providing enough space to store what was bought out of that budget, meaning that materials bought cannot be used most effectively. Consequently many libraries have space problems and business school libraries are no exception to this. Examples can be found in the library of the Norges Handelshøyskole, where a part of the book stock is separately shelved in another building, and in the library of the International Management Institute, where a part of the stock can be found in the basement.

The layout of a library is a matter of organisation and of knowledge on how the library is being used, which is related to the objectives of the library. Arnold observes, speaking about an information department of an industrial organisation:

"Probably the most important part of organizing, and that by which it tends to be remembered, is the grouping of functions and activities in such a way that the objectives of the department are best served. [247]"

This grouping can be understood in a hierarchical way in order to organise the department or library, but it can also be understood in a physical way. It is important that all services a library has to offer are visible and are arranged in a logical way, while a kind of grouping must have been realised. A photocopying machine for instance, should not be placed in a silence area of the library, but also not too far away from materials that are heavily copied, like newspapers, while some control over photocopying, particularly as far as students are concerned, might be useful.

In the libraries under study the layout is functional and logical; all services can easily be found and library staff is visible and available to deal with any question that readers may have.

A large part of the space that is available, will be occupied by readers' places. The importance of this has been recognised by Basker and Brettell, who observe:

"One of the most important capital services provided by academic libraries that is space intensive (or perhaps it would be better to call it space extensive?) is that of seating accommodation for study purposes. This is widely recognized as an integral element in an academic library but is not as readily monitored as loan stock use. Yet it is probably the most expensive service to
provide for the consumers of library services and the least liable to any space saving technical innovation except in so far as one can envisage consumers operating on library services from distant computer terminals. Perhaps for certain types of material this is not too futuristic a prospect. Study seating services are clearly in joint supply with other services in the library, and, for that matter, in joint demand with other services as well. [240]

Among the figures of the libraries under study that are presented on page 224, the numbers of readers' places are listed for each library. It can be observed that they differ enormously and cannot be related to other figures presented. The reason for this is that many factors can be mentioned that influence the number of seats that have been made available in a library.

The main factors that influence the number of readers' places in a library are:
- the space that is available,
- the habits of readers,
- loan facilities of the library,
- the size of the reference collection.
- the kinds of readers,
- the policy of the librarian.

Some of these factors can be demonstrated by adding some additional information on the number of readers' places for some of the libraries under study:
- The Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School has a very large number of readers' places in relation to the total space that is available, but as a reference only library, it has no loan facilities.
- The library of the Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus has a relative small number of readers' places, but the number of loans is large and the majority of the readers is of undergraduate level.
- The library of the Høgskolen i Aarhus is very similar to that of the Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus, but in Norway students seem to be much more used to read in the library.
- The library of the International Management Institute is not considered as a place to read, but more as a social place where people meet, read newspapers and borrow library materials. Most materials can be borrowed in this library.
- The libraries of the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires and of the Ecole Supérieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales have many readers' places, but loan facilities to students are restricted.
- The number of readers' places in the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfswetenschappen is large in relation to the use that is made of it; the reason for this limited use is that most Dutch students only recently started to use libraries as a place to read.
These examples show some of the reasons why there is such a variety in the numbers of seats in the different libraries under study.

Finally it must be mentioned that the layout of a library can never be static. As the collections of libraries grow, but their librarians often have to do with the same space for many years, rearrangements of stock are often inevitable, and if the librarian succeeds in getting more space, a rearrangement of the stock will take place as well. These rearrangements include a lot of work that must be done, but it is an advantage that the librarian will have to consider the services the library is offering on a more or less permanent basis, which means that it will be possible to adapt to changing needs.

Library services considered.

Business school libraries provide a range of different services in order to perform as a service institution to their parent organisations and to satisfy to their readers' needs the best way possible. Since different readers have different needs, many services are being offered and given the rather limited number of readers in relation to main university libraries, it is possible to a certain extent to respond to changing needs that might be recognised within the schools. Unlike large university libraries, business school libraries—and other institutional or faculty libraries as well—have the advantage and possibility to offer different services to relatively small groups of readers and consequently a more comprehensive service can be provided. In the words of Havard-Williams:

In my experience branch libraries have frequently been able to offer a more comprehensive service, not only in terms of book selection, but also in terms of reference assistance, even bibliographical assistance, and other services because the clientele is more manageable —readers are personally known to the library staff, and vice versa—and the book stock smaller, allowing for greater knowledge of its content by the staff. [249]

This comprehensiveness guarantees a range of different services offered to different groups of readers. It does mean however that different services need to be considered if the library must be measured for performance, let alone if services are to be evaluated for comparison with other libraries.
Evans, Borko and Ferguson observe:

Libraries perform multiple services and therefore it seems unlikely that any single criterion can be considered as the sole valid measure of library performance. [250]

while Lancaster simply states:

One valid way to evaluate a library is by studying the range and scope of services it provides. [251]

Business school libraries offer many services to be found in other libraries as well, but many business school libraries did not start however with traditional library services as most libraries do, but started with supporting post-experience management courses by providing course participants with the literature needed and supplying teaching staffs with documentary information to assist in the teaching. To the libraries of Henley, the Management College and the International Management Institute, direct support for courses still is considered their main task.

The importance of handling enquiries has been recognised by many librarians of business schools from the start of their libraries. This is in conformity with Arnold who states:

It would be difficult to exaggerate the importance of having a well organized system for answering enquiries. [252]

and also in conformity with Smith, who observes:

The enquiry service is potentially the most important component of any information service. [253]

The handling of enquiries can be considered as the main library and information service; it is an important key to make use of a reference collection, many indexes would be of minor importance if enquiries could not be dealt with, and a lot of library materials would just not be found if the possibility to consult a library professional would not exist. This importance has been recognised by business school librarians from the beginning. In the libraries of the Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus and of the Manchester Business School separate information counters next to the counters for loans and general information can be found for the handling of enquiries, which are permanently manned by senior library staff. In the library of the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires such an information counter is located in the periodicals room. In the libraries of the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales and of the London Business School a senior member of the library staff is on duty behind the main counter most of the time to deal with difficult enquiries. The library of the Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde recognizes a policy of open doors of
all rooms of the library staff in order that library staff may help whenever this is necessary or asked for. In the libraries of Henley, the Management College, of the International Management Institute, of the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale, of Strathclyde Business School and in the Social Sciences section of the Main Library of the University College Dublin, the librarians are available most of the time to deal with enquiries, since there are only a few of the library staff in these libraries and enquiry handling is considered important by these librarians as well. Finally in the library of the Norges Handelshøyskole a senior member of the library staff is on duty close to the main counter.

Lancaster and McCutcheon divide the services that libraries provide into three major groups:
1) Document delivery services.
2) Reference service.
3) Literature searching service. [254]

This can also be formulated in another way: Libraries provide services that respond to:
1) requests for known documents;
2) requests for unknown documents;
3) requests for information.

The first kind of service is well known to readers: libraries have books and retain journals and if you know what you need this kind of services can help you to find it (through an author catalogue, a title catalogue, a journal index, etc.), and take it with you (through loan and photocopying services).

The second kind of service is not so well known by readers, but on second thoughts however it seems comprehensible to them that there are services to help you to find a book or journal article on a certain subject (by means of a classified catalogue, or with the assistance of abstracting and indexing services).

The third kind of services is the least known to readers: the fact that libraries can provide factual information (by means of directories, statistical materials, encyclopaedias, etc.) seems not to be so obvious to many readers. Lancaster observes about this:

Existing evidence suggests that many people are unaware of the reference function of libraries or, at least, of their capabilities in this area. [255]

(The promotion of library services will be dealt with later on in this chapter, when marketing for libraries will be considered)

Business school librarians have put an emphasis on literature searching and reference services right from the start of their libraries. Indexing for instance was started in some of these libraries right after their establishment, while
company information can be mentioned as an early example of a reference service.

In the beginning of this chapter the business school libraries under study have been compared by means of library figures, which means a quantitative comparison. A comparison of some library services will not provide a complete qualitative picture of these libraries, but it may indicate how these libraries perform in a qualitative way.

A COMPARISON OF SOME SERVICES AND LIBRARY PUBLICATIONS:

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Library services:

A - Index of journal articles.
B - Index of newspaper articles.
C - Index of Master's theses of the School.
D - Index of working papers.
E - Index of market research reports.
F - Index of staff publications.
G - Ad hoc indexing.
H - Newspaper cuttings.
I - Index on company information.
J - On-line searching facilities.
K - Individual current contents service.
L - Circulation of periodicals to academic staff.

Library publications:
M - Library guide.
N - List of periodical holdings.
P - Library Accessions List.
Q - Library information notes.
R - Bibliographies (incidentally).

Notes:
1) - from 1970 to 1978.
2) - from 1971 to 1981.
3) - from 1966 to 1980.
4) - very small service.

Libraries of:
1) - Centre d'Enseignement Superieur des Affaires.
2) - Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales.
3) - Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus.
4) - Henley, the Management College.
5) - International Management Institute.
6) - Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde.
7) - London Business School.
8) - Manchester Business School.
9) - Norges Handelshøyskole.
10) - Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale.
11) - Strathclyde Business School.
12) - University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce.

The services by which the libraries under study have been compared above, are typical in that they have been selected because they were started as a result of decisions based on the policy of the libraries. Library services do not always start as a result of a policy decision. When a newly established library has obtained a number of books, the production of an alphabetical catalogue will be started, not because it is a policy of the library to have an alphabetical catalogue, but because it must be possible to find the books on the shelves. The policy decision was taken earlier, when it was decided to collect books. If a library starts with the indexing of journal articles however, this is the direct result of a policy decision, since there is no need to start an indexing service just in order to find a periodical. It is notable that many of the services listed above are indexing services. In all business school libraries that have been investigated, it was striking that all indexing was only started when needs were felt and when the materials to be indexed were either not very well covered by officially
published indexes, or they were included very late in such indexes. The important thing here is that these kinds of services only started when needs were felt or perhaps expressed, and that the importance of these needs was recognised by the librarian who decided on new services, new activities. Cronin explains the importance of this active behaviour by explaining:

"Information provision is not a passive activity; the professionally trained information scientist or librarian has an important role to play as a catalyst in stimulating user awareness and ensuring optimal use of resources." [256]

The provision of information really is considered important by the librarians of the libraries under study. Many of the services they supply consolidate this policy. This is in concurrence with Price, who - when considering the information future - observes:

Management and control over data processing has overshadowed the delivery of services. And the fact that delivery of efficient and effective services require excellence in management, seems to go unrecognised. Don't let information management become an impediment. Focus on efficient and effective service! [257]

Not all library services are started with full support of the librarian. Sometimes the librarian is strongly advised, or almost forced to start a service that he or she would rather not provide. An example of such a service is the circulation of periodicals to anyone outside the library. As a matter of principle a good librarian does not want to privilege a few readers at the expense of many others and that is what is insuperable with this service. In addition to this a circulation of periodicals always induces administrative problems. Another problem of this kind of service is that it is often provided to non-users of the library, and as Jones observes:

"Few scientists are familiar with more than a handful of journals covering their own specific interests." [258]

When journals are being circulated to him or her, a reader may not feel a need to pay regular visits to the library, as it is thought that by means of the journals circulated it is possible to keep abreast of recent developments in his or her subject. In the first place it can be observed that a handful of journals will never be enough to keep abreast of any subject, and in the second place one of the main advantages of paying regular visits to the library is that one might incidentally find useful materials that one would never have dreamt of asking for. A circulation of journals will often narrow the view of a reader, since it may result in becoming a non-reader of the library and that is to be regretted.

Yet four of the libraries under study provide a circulation
of periodicals to members of the academic staffs of their schools, one of which is a very small service only. One of the librarians put an emphasis on the very good and automated system of journal circulation when explaining the service, but when asked about it, he had to admit that readers are often too late in returning journals. Unfortunately it is very difficult to stop a circulation of journals, particularly since senior members of the academic staff tend to make most use of this service.

A library is a service institution that must be visible and actively provide its services in order to perform as a good library. Sir Alistair Pilkington considered at an Aslib conference in 1979:

Customers are more likely to forget they have an information service if that service is not active. Then they will waste time and money going elsewhere for information. [259]

The need for library promotion has been recognised by many librarians as can be illustrated by these two quotations:

To maintain a level of service that libraries consider desirable it is important to 'sell' to the funders the value of what is being provided, and to demonstrate the acceptance of those services by the consuming public. To accomplish this the library must establish a set of priorities indicating where both funds and man hours are to be placed. [260]

Promotion is not just another library activity, discrete and intermittent, like say, cataloguing or classification; ideally it is a reflection of a particular management style, or philosophy of presentation, which can, and indeed should, permeate the library service and all it does. In fact I would go a little further and argue that promotion, in the broadest and most generous sense of the term includes the ability to anticipate social or organizational change, to interpret the implications of such change, and to convert this awareness to one's own advantage. [261]

Sir Alistair Pilkington observes another 'need' for library promotion:

It is an interesting aside that people tend to believe that things about which they know little or nothing are being done badly, particularly if they are paying for them. [262]

If librarians are to promote their services, they need to evaluate first in order to find out which actions are best to undertake. Here the marketing concept comes into the picture, of which Hannabuss considers:
Even though libraries are generally not directed towards profit, they can profitably take on board many of the principles and practices of marketing. [263]

Many books have been written on marketing and it is not at all necessary to deal with marketing theories in the frame of this study. It can be useful however to have a working definition of marketing in order to better understand its application to libraries. The working definition of marketing preferred by Wood reads:

The role of marketing is to match your capabilities with the needs of your customers, so that they respond by taking action profitable to you. [264]

while he states in relation to marketing analysis:

The key to any marketing analysis is to examine your users' needs, rather than evaluating the services and products you are currently offering. [265]

In addition to this Cronin, when dealing with marketing the library service, has formulated:

When we talk about the application of marketing principles and practices to the management of library and information services we are in fact talking about an approach or service philosophy which takes the view that service is primarily concerned with maximizing user satisfaction. [266]

The main point in the frame of this study is the central position of the user in the evaluation of library services. The concept of marketing in relation to libraries is rather new. Shapiro reported in 1980:

The use of a marketing approach by a wide variety of not-for-profit organizations such as libraries, universities, churches, and health services, is a development of the last decade. [267]

Business school librarians have recognised the importance of their readers from the beginning, but formal marketing has not been undertaken by them until now. The emphasis on enquiry handling has been discussed above. Promotion of library services has taken place on a permanent basis by talking about it and by pointing users at services whenever possible and applicable. The publication of library notes, information sheets, library bulletins, etc. must be mentioned in this respect. Altogether the librarians have made their services visible and let readers know that libraries have much more to offer than books to be borrowed and periodicals to be read or copied. Yorke can be quoted in relation to this, who recognizes marketing strengths and weaknesses of which he reports in relation to libraries:
In general, the library service has one fundamental and major strength - its personal contact between staff and users, a relationship which many commercial organisations envy [...] a major weakness of the service is its seeming lack of communication ability with its potential market. [268]

The problems of communications between the library and its readers have been dealt with in chapter five, while the advantages of personal contacts can be acknowledged. The subject of user evaluation will be returned to in chapter seven.

It has not been the aim to present a complete review of all services the libraries under study have to offer. In the frame of an evaluative study, only those services are important that have been started as a result of library policy. It can also be observed that the comparison of some services and library publications presented above presents a completely different picture of the libraries under study from the comparison of library figures presented in the first part of this chapter. It shows that a larger library need not necessarily be the one that provides most services.

Special collections.

Before special collections in business school libraries can be discussed, it must be made clear first what is to be understood by a special collection in the frame of this study. In Harrod's librarians' glossary a Special Collection is defined as:

A collection of books connected with local history, celebrities, industries, etc., or on a certain subject or period, or gathered for some particular reason, in a library which is general in character. [269]

Higham deals with special collections under the heading of the acquisition of gifts, where a special collection is not defined, but from the text it is clear that a collection that is donated, kept together and maintained, is considered a special collection; furthermore the term special collection in the index refers to this chapter. [270]

In the frame of this study a special collection is defined differently, because special collections as they appear in business school libraries, do require a different definition. A special collection then, is a collection of library materials (not necessarily books only) that is shelved and administered separately from the main collection.
Two kinds of special collections can be recognised:
- A collection that is special because of its subject.
- A collection that is special because of the use that is made of it.

Special collections usually get special attention of the library staff and have an impact on library policy. Since they influence the work-load of the staff, the librarian must have good reasons to establish a special collection. On the other hand special collections may well improve the image of a library.

A special collection that will be found in most business school libraries is a collection of company information. In some libraries this has grown to a Company Information Department, while the Corporate Library of the London Business School Library - dealing exclusively with company information - has become world famous. It includes annual reports of all British publicly quoted companies, 1000 American companies, 500 European companies, and 100 companies from other countries, together with Exel cards with financial data and news about some 5500 British companies, and McCarthy's British, European and industry press cutting services. In addition it includes a collection of directories and handbooks. In general company information is very popular in business school libraries.

A special collection that can be found in many academic libraries, including many business school libraries, is a reserve collection, or short loan collection. A reserve collection includes multiple copies of textbooks that can be borrowed by students for short periods only. Most reserve collections are heavily used.

Another special collection that can be found in many business school libraries is a collection of Master's theses of the school.

Some business school libraries retain a special collection of staff publications, some others do not collect staff publications separately, but do index them separately.

Special collections that can be found in one of the libraries under study only include:
- A collection of biographies of world leaders.
- A collection of company history.
- A historical collection on auditing.
- A historical collection on law.
- A collection of industry study trip reports.

Altogether it can be concluded that business school libraries maintain special collections as a consequence of library policy. Particularly a collection of company information does have an impact on library policy and can be seen as a special service of a business school library, or even as a characteristic of this kind of library.
Library staff.

In the introduction to this study, personnel management has been mentioned among the subjects that would not be dealt with. If nevertheless library staff will be discussed now, an extensive study of personnel management will therefore not be undertaken. Since staff can be considered the main resource of a library, however, attention to the people working in the libraries under study is necessary in the frame of business school library performance.

To most libraries the amount of money that will be spent on library staff is much more than the budget that is allocated to library materials. In the words of Jones:

It is a commonplace that staff are the most expensive resource in the library budget. [271]

The reason for this is also well known: libraries are very labour intensive. A library catalogue for instance is a most expensive tool if the amount of time put into its production is taken into account. Yet it is very difficult to get this labour intensiveness accepted by the management of the organisations of which libraries form a part. Couley notes:

Libraries are traditionally in a weak position within the context of competing educational interests. [272]

This does not only relate to labour intensiveness, but rather to the fact that the work that is done in libraries is often considered as administrative and clerical; the professionalism of librarians is not recognised. Ashworth declared at the Aslib annual lecture in 1978:

I can see no reason why librarians, trained and experienced in the selection and evaluation of the information on which judgments are made by planners and innovators, need to be regarded as any less competent and socially responsible than any other professionals who exert an influence on the progress of events. [273]

This is not the place to enter a discussion on professional librarianship; the non-recognition of it by many managers and academics who have to supervise libraries is just acknowledged here.

Business school libraries are not different from other libraries in relation to labour intensiveness and non-recognition of professionalism of their librarians. Even if it is felt that these libraries are well recognised by the management of the schools, some librarians feel that they are appreciated because of personality, not because of professionalism. This personality is not unimportant however as can be observed when considering Holbrook who notices:
Relations with schools are inevitably most influenced by the personality of those involved and the extent to which academics are confident their needs are advanced. [274]

Like in most academic libraries, functional divisions of staff have been made in libraries of European business schools according to tasks in a bureaucratic tradition. In the larger libraries departments have been established for acquisitions, cataloguing, periodicals, lending, etc., each headed by a professional. In many of these libraries one-person departments can be found, but the work can be taken over by other members of the staff if necessary. The structure in business school libraries is hierarchical like in most other libraries; junior staff respond to senior staff and they in turn respond to the librarian. In many business school libraries all staff respond to the librarian due to the size of these libraries.

In academic libraries subject specialists can be found, each specialised in one academic subject that is covered by the library. Holbrook has provided a definition of a subject specialist:

A subject specialist is a member of the library staff appointed to organize library services in a particular subject field. This subject field may be fairly narrow, or, more typically, be broad enough to cover an umbrella of related disciplines contained in a faculty/school/department structure. The subject specialist’s responsibility for developing the services and maximizing the use of the library’s resources in his area implies a wide variety of duties. [275]

Given the broad area of subjects covered by business school libraries, it is not surprising that subject specialists will not be found in most of them. As far as the libraries under study are concerned, subject specialists have only been appointed in the libraries of the Handelshojskolen i Aarhus and the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfswede.

The last subject to be dealt with under this heading is motivation. Motivation of staff is important and a lack of motivation is a problem to many organisations nowadays, libraries not excluded. Simon has defined motivation:

The objective of motivating is to create and maintain in all persons working in an organisation the desire to achieve the objectives of that organisation. [276]

The concept of motivation is not yet very old. The classical theory of organisation — as has been outlined in the first chapter of this study — speaks in terms of compliance that can be obtained from those working in an organisation by good enumerations. But people are much more important for an
organisation than machines for which you also have to pay. The definition of management Mason has presented reads:

Management can be defined as the art, or science, of organising and controlling enterprises through people. [277]

Gordon simply observes that:

work does not get done unless people perform. [278]

The realisation that the human aspect of organising is important started with the Hawthorne studies carried out at the Western Electric Company in Chicago (see page 25 of this study). Lumsdon notes about these studies:

The now famous 'Hawthorne' effect established that people will work hard if they feel that the objective is worth achieving. People apparently want to be involved in and participate in meaningful activities. [279]

But after the Hawthorne studies were carried out, the world changed completely; first there was World War II and after that there was a time of prosperity, before the economic recession started in 1973 with an oil crisis. It now sometimes seems as if the old theory of compliance to be obtained through enumerations only applies. Simon notes about this:

Today, lack of motivation is one of the most serious problems of management in industry - it has also become evident in libraries. [280]

In a service institution like a library, lack of motivation leading to indifference will not only have an impact on the amount of work that has to be done, but it may also damage the image that was built up through a number of years. It means that a service institution is much more vulnerable in this respect than other organisations. People who are not motivated to do their work are not very productive, which leads to less effectiveness of the library, of which Du Mont and Du Mont observe carefully:

It appears that library effectiveness is influenced by the behavior of the library staff, as well as the ability of the library to interact with individuals and its communities in a variety of ways over time. [281]

In the libraries under study it has been observed that particularly senior staff is motivated above average. Many of them have a real interest in their work as well as in their profession, and some of them are even active in regional or national library organisations. Moran has considered professional interest of librarians as follows:
Through their commitment to their profession, interest in professional matters, and involvement in professional organizations, librarians can become more aware of the organization's environment.

This certainly underlines the importance of motivation. If librarians feel committed to their work, this will improve the services they supply and may eventually motivate their staffs as well.

Library policy.

The objective of an organization is what the organization aims at, but this is not an aim that can be attained in order to be replaced by a new one afterwards. If the example of the organisation of the two hunting men from the first chapter of this study is considered again, it can be concluded that the objective of the two men was not to catch an animal in order to have a dinner for that day. The objective was perpetual in principle: to catch an animal every day, or more precisely: to get enough food for the needs of both families on a permanent basis. To attain this objective a policy of behaviour was needed however, answering to the question how to catch the animals. After studying animal behaviour, such a policy could be decided on, leading to the results wanted. This policy had to be adapted when the behaviour of the animals changed, for instance because of a change of the season, when the animals had to change their habits in search of food.

The same policy principle applies to the organization of a library. The general objective is perpetual, or better long-term, since nothing is indefinite and one can never know what changes may take place in the long run. This objective is very important as it may define how a library might perform, it may make clear what its position is within the parent organisation or community; in short: by a general objective a library will be characterised. The importance of a general objective can also be understood if the differences between two well-known general library objectives are considered. The character of a library aiming at building up a good collection is completely different from the library aiming at satisfying readers' needs.

To evaluate library performance however, a policy is needed, just as with the organisation of the hunting men. A general objective cannot be evaluated, only a policy can be evaluated; in the words of Lancaster and McCutcheon:

Before we evaluate any service, we must have in mind the objectives of the service, and this immediately raises some problems in the library world because libraries in general tend to lack clearly defined statements of objectives. In considering the objectives of libraries
and information services, a careful distinction must be made between long-range objectives and short-range objectives. The long-range objectives of libraries, and, in fact, of other kinds of service institutions, are largely unmeasurable. It is difficult, if not impossible, to evaluate the performance of a library in terms of what we might consider to be long-range objectives, we must concentrate upon the short-range objectives. [283]

Short-range objectives can be considered to be the policy of a library. Dealing with the policy of information for an industrial enterprise, Orna and Hall consider:

An information policy covers the information needs of the organisation, the information inputs required to meet them, and all the systems in the organisation that handle information. It is defined in relation to the objectives of the organisation, to what it thinks it is in business for. [284]

This information policy as outlined here, covers many more services than a library normally will supply, since most libraries will not be able to deal with all information that is dealt with by the parent organisation. Yet it is clear that policy must be related to the objectives, not only of the library, but also of its parent organisation. As far as a business school library is concerned, this means that it must be a policy of the library to serve the education and research of the school. This is in conformity with the objective of providing services to members of the school, since these services are related to the education provided and the research undertaken as far as the library is kept abreast of them.

Many business school libraries do not have an agreed policy, just as many of them do not have an officially formulated general objective. Some librarians turned out to have difficulties in formulating library policy as distinct from library objectives when they were questioned about it as part of the investigation of their library. A reason for this can be found in the fact that not only on an official policy has not been agreed by all libraries, but it is also not always thought necessary to formulate library policy, and consequently ad hoc decisions have sometimes to be taken.

This informal approach is possible in small libraries, where improvisation will not be detrimental to any service, since it is not difficult for the librarian to have an overall picture of all services that are provided. Larger libraries however, need a more formal approach, given the fact that more people are involved and that services are larger, which means that change is more difficult.
In general the policy of the libraries under study is to meet the needs of readers. In the next chapter evidence of this policy will be presented, when effects on library policy will be discussed. For the moment it is important to note that this policy includes a service-mindedness that is characteristic to business school libraries (though certainly not exclusively) of which the service of handling enquiries and the way this service is performed by these kinds of libraries as outlined earlier in this chapter, shows a good example.

Library policy is of course related to the library budget. Every year libraries defend claims for next year’s budgets by providing library figures, while other resources like staff and space are also related to the performance of library services. Orr considers:

Central to the decisions required for planning and control is the exercise of weighing the goodness of results (expected or realized) against the resources required. [295]

The balance of resources on one side and services on the other is ever moving; in order to take the best decisions in relation to the use of resources and the provision of services, planning is necessary, of which Evans defines:

The purpose of planning is to coordinate the library’s activities in order to achieve previously established objectives. The only alternative to planning is random movement, which has only a slight chance of leading to unified or coordinated activity. [286]

In addition to this Webster notes:

A successful planning approach must build an understanding of the library’s current capabilities as an essential first step to identifying future directions. [287]

Planning then, means co-ordination for future action. This is in conformity with Rizzo, who does however also take into account the unique position of any organization, writing:

Planning typically begins with forecasting relevant trends that should affect the organization’s strategic choices. It also should start with the determination of the unique and distinct contributions the organization is prepared to assume or undertake. [288]

An interesting approach to planning is made by Simon, who recognises three types of planning:

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Planning typically begins with forecasting relevant trends that should affect the organization’s strategic choices. It also should start with the determination of the unique and distinct contributions the organization is prepared to assume or undertake. [288]
There are three types of planning: organization planning, management planning, and development planning. Organizational planning is the kind of planning that initiates a new enterprise or a new project. It is concerned with setting the primary goals or aims and objectives of the enterprise as a whole, and with formulating the major policies which determine the form and structure of the organization into departments or divisions. Management planning, on the other hand, is concerned with developing the policies which determine the organization of work in these departments or divisions in order to carry out the major policies of the organization and so to achieve the predetermined objectives. Development planning looks to the future and seeks ways and means of improving performance and of increasing the effectiveness of the organization.

Business school libraries typically plan for future action, which then is called development planning according to Simon. Organizational planning may perhaps be undertaken when starting a new service, this normally can be considered as development planning as well. Finally management planning does not very much apply to business school libraries after all, since these libraries are rather small and improvisation will do should the case arise.

Forecasting means trying to look ahead in every possible direction. It means that the importance of recent developments must be recognised in order to foresee which trend might be interesting to consider in the near or distant future. Sometimes decisions must now be taken which have future implications; this means that one should keep abreast with professional developments. Wijnstrroom advises:

We must not take ourselves for granted, because then we will lose our motivation and, as a result, the goodwill of the world that we serve. That world is changing; we must never forget that, all-important fact. We are continuously challenged not only to adopt ourselves to changing circumstances and demand, but also to remain a step ahead of change. Flexibility of approach will become the keynote to success in the new knowledge society.

By considering library policy, it can be argued that an academic library is supporting the education provided and the research undertaken by its parent institution. And indeed the support of education and research is considered the main policy of an academic library. But one could also think of stimulation of the education provided and the research undertaken. This may lead to an ideal library where all resources will be completely used. Jones explains:

In essence, librarianship is about the dynamic interaction of the thought processes of library users.
and library staffs, and the thought content of library materials, with a piece of original writing as one possible end product. This is a creative synergy far removed from the mathematized reductionism of the technologies. [291]

This synergic conception of a library is seen by Jones as opposed to service. The service concept starts with existing services of which readers know what to expect, or will be told what can be expected. The library responds with the provision of services to needs that have been recognized. But the services do not change when they are used, expectations and assumptions are confirmed; services support, but do not stimulate. By contrast, Jones states:

the synergic model emphasises library stimulus and reader response, as well as reader demand and library response, and is constantly striving to expand the expectations and assumptions of actual and potential users. [292]

The whole idea of synergic librarianship is an idea of creativity. A reader may profit from a library service, but the service may benefit from the reader as well, which may stimulate the librarian to change the service, and this in turn, may have an impact on the reader again. Synergy includes permanent reciprocity in a dynamic environment between readers, documents and library staff. Jones observes:

To contrast 'service' with 'synergy' is no more than an introductory convenience, since these are different kinds of ideas. Good service does not only 'satisfy' the reader; it stimulates and involves him further, as does also a good, well-built stock of materials. It is simply that library 'service' is associated with a user-demand, library-supply transaction which is non-synergic in that it is not the stimulus for, and start of, a process of dynamic interaction of user, materials, and staff. [293]

Business school libraries in general cannot be seen as synergic libraries, but the synergic concept becomes visible in the handling of enquiries in this kind of libraries, where information provision may be reciprocal between library staff and readers sometimes. A creative environment is needed to 'create' a synergic library which will demand a complete use of the full potential of all staff, readers and materials. One may question whether this is obtainable at all. In different libraries some parts may eventually become synergic, but a complete synergic library seems an Utopia, since it means service in its optimal form. As an ideal library policy however, it is important enough to consider and striving at within realities; it is encouraging to see some synergic signs in libraries, business school libraries certainly included.
Before however a synergic concept can become reality, library services must be considered from the policy point of view. This means that effectiveness of services must be looked at. If a service does not perform to the right task, it is not effective and consequently cannot function optimally. It should however also be efficient. At this point a distinction must first be made between efficiency and effectiveness. Mackenzie explains:

Efficiency refers to the economical performance of a given task, while effectiveness is the performance of the right task, whether economically, or not. [294]

Pritchard observes in relation to these notions:

Efficiency and effectiveness must go together. It is no use having a potentially effective service if this is carried out so inefficiently that information only reaches users so late as to be of little or no use, or costs so much that it starves other services of staff and money. Equally it is of no use to have a very efficient service which produces results quickly if this information has no relevance to user needs. [295]

As can be concluded from all that has been observed about business school libraries so far, it is beyond doubt that this kind of library performs effective, services are not being provided because the library likes it, but only in response to recognized needs. These services are also efficient in general, not aiming at perfection, but at usefulness for readers. It means that the approach of a business school library generally can be termed dynamic, even if traditional elements can be recognised in some of these libraries, particularly in relation to favouring academic staff in relation to students.

Finally, as a result of its policy, overall library performance must be discussed. Libraries are shifting from product-oriented to customer-oriented, from an emphasis on the collection to an emphasis on the reader. Cronin observes:

It is now fairly widely accepted that attempts to revitalize and redefine goals are called for. Thus, the profession has been reviewing the service delivery philosophies and mechanisms. There is evidence of a shift from a passive or reactive to a proactive mode. This entails evaluation exercises, the design and promotion of new systems and facilities, investment of time in user education and sensitisation programmes, client group analysis, and the acquisition of new and relevant professional skills and competencies for those already 'in the field'. [296]
This introduces the proactive library as opposed to the reactive library. Oldman and Wills have presented short definitions:

- The reactive library is able to react effectively on known-item searches.
- The proactive library is able to interact professionally with the user in his own interest area. [297]

Jones speaks about the new librarianship of which he notes:

A more proactive and egregious library professionalism has vastly expanded the boundary mediating role between, on the one hand, a more complex and more standardized library core, and, on the other, changed user communities and sources of information. [298]

Proactive librarianship, then, is expanded boundary-mediation librarianship, according to Jones, which he puts in the special library tradition and of which he states that it characterizes a new era in librarianship together with automation. He then continues:

It implies a professionalism no longer intrinsically controlled by being confined within the machine bureaucracy, and poses the need for a purposive and systematically managed professional service in place of the traditional collegial 'cottage industry' professionalism. Similarly it marks the need for a dynamic library management tradition in place of bureaucratic administration and laissez-faire collegiality. It implies the extension of existing activities and services and the development of new ones, in information provision, acquisition of non-conventional types of information material, researching user needs, user education, publicity and promotion, and mediating the use of the growing range of data bases accessible on-line. It implies not only new forms of professional expertise, but, more important, the adoption of new roles and mentalities. [299]

Proactive librarianship includes an active approach, an involvement in the way the library is used. Thus librarians need recognition with an extension of subject specialisation in libraries; this should lead to librarians become included in research projects and influence curriculum changes in the case of academic libraries. In addition to this Jones wonders:

How far can the librarian's professional expertise be extended to span the gap between the traditional core on the one hand, and on the other the close identification with user concerns and perceptions which implied in the proactive, boundary mediation role? [300]

Oldman and Wills consider:
If librarians can become more pro-active, less product oriented, perhaps they can have more influence on the expectations-perceived actualisation relationship. [301]

Some similarities can be observed between proactive librarianship and synergic librarianship. It is remarkable that Jones, who has written about both theories, does not compare them to each other. Both theories aim at active librarians, by involvement with use in the case of proactive librarians, and by stimulation to better use in the case of the synergic librarians. Both theories can be seen as opposed to reactive librarianship, which seems inactive in the frame of this opposition.

Nothing is completely black or white however, just as nothing is completely good or evil, conservative or progressive, dynamic or static. It can be observed that business school librarians are passive in that they do not go out to meet their readers to find out actively what needs these readers may have and then try to respond to these needs by providing tailor-made and individual services. That is just not possible. But business school librarians do not just sit down and wait. The way they actually perform is in-between; it is in-between dynamic and static, in-between black and white and in an atmosphere of being alert and trying to respond to as many different readers' needs as possible, also by recognising change.

Business school librarians know where they will meet boundaries, they know their strengths and their weaknesses and perform in accordance with recognised possibilities including the realisation of limited resources of staff, space and materials. Some of these librarians are more flexible than others, which is also due to their characters. In general however, West-European business school libraries perform very satisfactory within their task environments, well recognised and appreciated by the majority of their readers.
CHAPTER 7

EFFECTS ON LIBRARY POLICY.

General.

Very often, though not exclusively, library policy aims at satisfying readers' needs by the provision of services, more often than not in documentary form. It has been argued above that a business school library performs partly as an academic library, in a tradition of reactivity in response to recognised readers' needs, and partly as a business information centre of an industrial organisation with a more proactive performance. Vernon, former librarian of the London Business School observes that business school libraries:

must provide services at varying levels according to the needs of their users and they must be flexible enough to change their method of service as needs and interests alter or fluctuate. [302]

In order to show the outcome of this policy, the library and information services of the libraries under study will be discussed below. It has not been the intention however to describe and explain all services in detail, since this study does not aim at becoming a textbook for undergraduates of library college. The services will be considered in order to show evidence of library performance as a result of library policy. In order to structure all services, this chapter will be divided into five main headings: acquisitions, indexing, information systems, reader services and user evaluation. These five subjects cover all services a library may provide.

It has neither been the aim to present an enumeration of services for each library under study, since that would be useless, nor to produce a complete comparison of library services of all twelve libraries, since that would be useless as well as impossible. Libraries will be mentioned and examples given, showing similarities and differences for a better understanding of the policy of business school libraries. Since libraries should never become competitors of each other, but on the contrary should help each other whenever possible in order that readers may obtain the information needed from whoever is able to provide this information, any presentation of library services that could be explained in a wrong way, will be avoided.
In former chapters of this study it has been emphasised that the general objective of a business school library is not to build a scholar's collection, which would stress the importance of the collection notwithstanding the use that is made of it. The emphasis of a business school library is on the reader and how he or she can be assisted to make use of the library in the most profitable way. Members of these schools are looking for information that can be used to respond to their educational and research needs. In relation to information, Dore has recognised four kinds of information sources:
- Published material.
- Semi-published material.
- Unpublished and ephemeral material.
- Verbal sources. [303]

Libraries of course collect published material and also semi-published material like company reports and other grey literature that can not normally be obtained from a bookseller or commercial publisher. Unpublished and ephemeral material like internal reports of an organisation are not collected by libraries outside that organization. Verbal sources then, are the communication channels that have been discussed in chapter five of this study (pages 207-211). Consequently libraries provide information, most of which from published or semi-published material.

The importance of library collections must not be underrated, even if it is recognised that a library collection must be a means to the objective of providing information and not an end in itself. Higham, although dealing exclusively with university libraries, could also have referred to other kinds of libraries when he wrote:

"Since the traditional method of study is by the use of printed sources, the building of collections is a fundamental activity of the library." [304]

A librarian cannot satisfy readers of the library if the collection is not adequate. In the past too much emphasis has been put on building collections; now that the importance of the readers has been recognized, the collection of a library should not be neglected however. Business school librarians collect books among other written material and the collection of books is considered very important for document delivery. In relation to this Dore and Bakewell, referring to managers, state very clearly:

"In spite of developments in the 'newer' media, books remain a prime source of information - on management or any other subject, though there are perhaps too many of them." [305]
Librarians have never been able to collect all books published in the subjects their libraries had to cover, and according: they always have executed a book selection policy. This policy has, of course, implications for readers, Jones observes:

Of the different library task areas, book selection policy, with its endless succession of forced choices, is a particularly fruitful one in which to review and revise priorities, emphasises and implications for users. [206]

It is not surprising that the acquisitions policy of a business school library is based on building a working collection. Its main criterion is whether readers can make use of it. In addition to this a fair division of the subjects covered must be taken into account. As an example how this division is made, the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfswetenschappen can be considered, where every month three days are taken at random when all loans are counted according to their main subject headings. As a result of this it is known what subjects are most heavily used as far as books are concerned that are taken out. This information, then, is taken into account by the librarian as part of the acquisitions policy.

The acquisitions policy is difficult for business school librarians for two reasons:
1) The subject to be covered is so wide that only a very small proportion of the total literature that is relevant and available can be collected.
2) A business school library is relatively small and library budgets are always too limited, consequently a selection policy is very important.

About selection and acquisition Vernon has written:

No textbook can teach a library student how to select and acquire material for building up a library and maintaining it with a flow of new and significant publications. He must learn how to do this on the job, by using his initiative, by consulting his colleagues, by studying the subjects with which his library is concerned and above all by having a lively mind which is attuned to the needs of his users. The most that a textbook can do is to give some helpful guidelines and tips which will assist the student to look for bibliographical information in the right directions. [207]

It must be remembered that Vernon has written this as a contribution to a manual of business library practice, thus aiming at special libraries. For in many academic libraries there are subject specialists dealing with acquisitions, who have the advantage of knowing the subject, but who tend to look on the other hand, at the theoretical side only, which
means that they will collect books on the theories of the academic discipline they have to cover and at the best keep abreast of recent developments on that field, by collecting materials that cover these developments, but unfortunately subject specialists often protect themselves from environmental influences by:
- avoiding contacts with readers if possible,
- claiming that they are specialists who know what they do in relation to their own academic discipline.

Results can be seen in some university libraries where the emphasis on new acquisitions is not always in conformity with trends that can be observed in education and training. Most business school libraries however do not have subject specialists and in all libraries under study the librarian is involved in acquisitions, either by full responsibility for the acquisitions policy of the library, or by shared responsibility with members of the academic staff as far as library acquisitions are concerned. Cowley expresses as his opinion:

We must return to the view that selection of materials is a joint venture between librarians and academic colleagues, within a policy of educational objectives and priorities. [308]

It can be argued however that members of the academic staff of an educational institution are primarily interested in the education to be provided or the research to be undertaken and building a library collection certainly is of minor interest to them. For that reason alone it would be better if the role of members of the academic staff is only advisory; another consideration is that one person should be responsible for the acquisitions policy of a library and the best person for this is the librarian, since he or she can best guarantee a fair balance of all subjects that must be covered, as the librarian - unlike any member of the academic staff - is not in favour of one single subject as a result of his professional interests. A librarian is supposed not to be in favour of any subject the library covers. Even if Cronin states that:

the balanced collection has something of an anachronism [309],

yet any librarian has to strive for a balanced collection even if he or she is never to obtain it completely.

It has been argued that management covers so many different subjects which influences business school library policy in a major way and consequently has a main impact on acquisitions policy. A librarian who has tried to organize management literature in order to provide information in the field, mainly to managers, is Bakewell who has produced several publications on this subject of which his latest book published in 1984 is worth mentioning. [310]
Vernon has recognised the difficulties of the different subjects covered by business schools long ago; in 1975, he wrote:

Management literature and business information is concerned with (a) the activities of enterprises and organisations, especially those concerned with manufacture, trade and commerce, and the control and organisation of these activities and the people engaged in carrying them out; (b) the techniques and methods available for use in managing and carrying out these activities; (c) the environment as it directly affects these enterprises and organisations. [311]

From this idea Vernon, together with Lang, compiled the London Classification of Business Studies at the end of the sixties. [312]

This classification breaks the field of business studies down into three main categories:

1) Management responsibility in the enterprise.
2) Environmental studies.
3) Analytical techniques.

It would take too far to completely describe the London Classification of Business Studies. It is widely used within the United Kingdom nowadays, but not very much on the European continent. Business school libraries on the European continent use different classification systems, like the Universal Decimal Classification that - unlike the London Classification of Business Studies - starts from basic academic disciplines. Particularly in Scandinavian countries the Universal Decimal Classification is widely used. Many other business school libraries have developed their own systems.

The readers of the library must be able to use the books acquired and the periodicals taken; consequently, all librarians of the libraries under study have stressed the importance of the relevance to their readers when a policy for acquisitions was discussed. In these libraries readers can suggest materials for acquisitions and very often these suggestions will be met in a positive way, meaning that the suggested material will be acquired. If a suggestion sometimes is not met, the reader will be informed about the reason why it was not accepted.

An important part of an active acquisitions policy is weeding. Since not the collection as such, but a working collection is the aim of the acquisitions policy of a business school library, weeding must be taken into consideration as well. Weeding of library materials then, is as difficult as obtaining them of course. A report of a working party of the University Grants Committee dealing with university libraries, suggested in 1976 that:
it is feasible and economic to withdraw annually from the main open access stock a proportion of a library's stock which is a considerable fraction of its annual acquisitions ten years previously. A significant proportion of every library's stock is little used and heavy use tends to be concentrated on a relatively small proportion of the total stock. The difficulty is that of deciding what to withdraw. [...] Selection for withdrawal can be done either by category, or by individual judgement applied to each item. The former method is rough and ready; but relatively cheap, the latter is academically preferable but may require many hours of work by highly qualified staff. [313]

Not all business school libraries need systematically, but the latter of the two methods mentioned in the report of the University Grants Committee is used when weeding is done. In particular in the library of the International Management Institute and the Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School weeding is regularly undertaken in the latter case to the Andersonian Library. But in larger business school libraries like the library of the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires weeding is regularly undertaken as well.

Particularly academic libraries tend to subscribe to journals more or less indefinitely once a journal is taken. An active acquisitions policy however should also include cancellations of journals if it is observed that their use has been diminished. Dorth observes:

As new and relevant periodicals are being published regularly, and since members of the academic staff or students may suggest new titles for subscription in relation to their research or education, the number of periodical subscriptions may grow too much in respect to:
- the percentage of the library budget to be spent on periodicals,
- the amount of work to be done by the library staff which number is not likely to extend,
- the available space to store the periodicals. [314]

Dorth describes in this contribution how the number of periodical subscriptions of the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde was reduced with one third in two years' time with the assistance of the academic staff of the School.

To finish the discussion on acquisitions policy a division of library budgets will be provided with percentages of the main divisions recognized for each library. Again it will be emphasized that a comparison of libraries is very difficult. Even with the figures presented below, where
it seems that no confusion can arise as to what is meant, one must be very careful in drawing conclusions. A membership for instance may in some cases only mean that to subscribe to the journal of the organisation, one has to become a member. This subscription then can be considered either as a membership or as a periodical subscription. Just as in the case of other library figures that have been presented, it is impossible to compare library performance of the libraries mentioned here in a qualitative way by means of library figures. These figures do not inform anything in relation to quality.

Yet some conclusions can be drawn particularly from percentages of library budgets spent on books and periodicals. The percentage of a library's budget that is spent on periodical subscriptions has increased the last five to ten years, since dramatic price increases of periodical subscriptions with an average of 15% to over 20% annually could be observed in this period. In four libraries only a percentage of the budget spent on on-line systems is mentioned as a considerable part of it. It may be expected that the number of libraries taking the prices of on-line systems into account, as well as the percentages mentioned below are likely to increase.

The aim of presenting these figures has not been to present a complete picture, but to complete the picture of the acquisitions policy of business school libraries.

DIVISION OF LIBRARY BUDGETS:

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Explanations:
A - Books,
B - Periodicals,
C - Information Systems,
D - On-line systems,
E - Membership of institutions,
F - Other services, including binding, etc.

Notes:
1) No information available.
2) The budget is only used for books, as periodicals are being paid by the Andersonian Library, while users are charged for the total costs of on-line searches.

Libraries of:
1) - Centre d'Enseignement Superieure des Affaires.
2) - Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales.
3) - Handelshojskolen i Aarhus.
4) - Henley, the Management College.
5) - International Management Institute.
6) - Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde.
7) - London Business School.
8) - Manchester Business School.
9) - Morges Handelshojskole.
10) - Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale.
11) - Strathclyde Business School.
12) - University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce.

As long as document delivery will remain one of the main tasks of libraries, an active acquisitions policy of these libraries will be inevitable. Business school librarians try to perform such an active policy aiming at responding to present needs of their readers and trying to forecast their future needs.

Indexing.
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Indexing includes cataloguing and this is considered a main task of any librarian, particularly in an academic library. The catalogues are placed near the entrance of a library in order not to be overlooked and in many libraries readers run up against the catalogue even if they do not need it. Fjallbrant and Stevenson have formulated it like this:
The catalogue, the so-called Key to finding required material within the library, is often incomprehensible to the user. Cataloguing is one of the mystiques of the profession and has been developed almost into an art for its own sake. Whilst within the academic community there are some who will benefit from the use of a fully developed catalogue, the great majority of users require a simple finding list - a true Key to locating required material - with a simple subject index that uses a language and terminology they understand. Attempts by librarians, usually in written form, to explain the use of the catalogue, introduce the user to yet another barrier to ease the use of the library. Such productions inevitably use a discipline-oriented terminology - jargon. This slips all too easily into publications, into talks, into audio-visual programmes, and only serves to perpetuate the mystique of the profession.

This does not mean however that cataloguing can be treated as of little importance; it certainly is important in order to find the books on the shelves, but its value must not be overestimated and this is often the case.

A librarian should always keep the readers of the library in mind in relation to every library task that is undertaken. If for instance a title catalogue, where books are entered in alphabetical order by title, is considered a catalogue of key words by readers, something has to be done to avoid this confusion beforehand, since many readers will always think they know and consequently may be disappointed in the library without having asked questions or having complained.

Indexing, then, is much more than cataloguing alone; by means of cataloguing books and reports become available and perhaps also journals by title. But journal articles will not normally be found in library catalogues; if journal articles are looked for, bibliographical material is often referred to. Bibliographical material however, does not always respond to the needs that readers of a library may have. It turns out that many librarians started their own indexing, because it was observed that some kind of literature that was regularly asked for by readers, was not very well covered by officially published abstracting or indexing services, or if it was, it often was published very late. Consequently many special libraries and information centres produce their own indexes; in academic libraries this indexing can be found mainly in the smaller ones, large university libraries usually do not undertake any indexing of their own.

Indexing that is undertaken by librarians can broaden the view of readers of the library. One of the reasons why some literature is not indexed, is that no need was felt and if a commercial publisher is considered in this respect, it can be stated that needs of libraries must be expressed by a
reasonable number of subscriptions to an indexing service. If there are too few libraries interested in subscribing, it cannot be produced without suffering a loss. Many indexing and abstracting services cover the same materials as far as management is concerned for instance, one can be sure that every abstracting or indexing service will include articles from Harvard Business Review, because it is so well known. It is even considered so very important that recently translations of articles from Harvard Business Review have started to be published in Harvard - l'Expansion (in French), Harvard Holland (in Dutch) and Harvard Manager (in German). Oldman and Hills observe:

The most cited journals are the most available journals and are therefore, the most likely to be cited again. [316]

As a result of this the mind of the reader will be narrowed and it is a task of a librarian to point at other sources than the most obvious. That is a reason to start indexing as well.

In many business school libraries indexing has always been considered as an important addition to the main cataloguing. The library of the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires was among the first business schools in Europe to start indexing of periodical articles, simply because students asked for it as far back as the early sixtees. This indexing is still maintained and regularly used by students. Many other business school libraries started indexing of periodical articles afterwards and much of this indexing is still being done.

The libraries of the London and Manchester Business Schools both started indexing of periodical articles shortly after they had been founded and when they discovered that they both produced the same kind of index, they decided on co-operative indexing in 1973 by means of an exchange of index cards, with the result that an index was produced that could be used by readers of both libraries, while each took its share of 50% of the indexing only. In 1975 other business school libraries, also outside the United Kingdom, joined this co-operative indexing. This subject will be returned to when co-operation of business school libraries will be discussed in chapter eight.

In the Library of Manchester Business School Journal articles are still being indexed, but the articles concerned are not of a high academic level. This means that they will be of a practical nature, thus assisting readers to keep abreast of recent developments and information rather quickly.

In the Library of the University College Dublin indexing of journal articles of Irish management journals was started in 1977, because it was observed that these journals are not very well covered by existing indexing or abstracting services.
There are other library materials that can be indexed however. Examples of indexing of different materials can be found in many business school libraries. Indexes are produced of market research reports, of a reserve collection, of working papers, of master theses of the school, but also of articles on company information, which is very specialised indeed. In the library of the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale a list of cases is regularly produced and in the Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School it is remarkable how much indexing is undertaken given the limited human resources. Among other indexes news cutting files are maintained here for selected topics in management in addition to this country and industry files containing the latest newspaper supplements and additional information are worth mentioning.

The librarian of Strathclyde Business School explains the indexing she undertakes by stating that the way she indexes is simple, only started to meet recognised needs; if it is observed that any of these services are not used anymore, it will be stopped immediately. She aims at putting readers in the right direction to finding the information wanted with all indexes that are being produced, but the aim is not to find solutions for the problems readers may have by means of very detailed indexing. This certainly reflects a policy of flexibility and of direct response to recognised needs, that need not even be expressed. This means that an approach in a proactive way can be observed here.

In general it can be said that library performance in business school libraries as far as indexing is concerned is completely in conformity with their policy as outlined in former chapters. The indexing, then, aims at satisfying needs of readers as much as possible and that is the only acceptable reason to undertake any indexing at all.

**Information systems.**

The importance of the service of enquiry handling was emphasised when library services were discussed in the former chapter. This service is the main information service any library can provide and its importance has been recognised by business school libraries as has been outlined already. It is the only individual service a business school library is able to offer to its readers; mainly by the execution of this service the library will become known and will be judged. Apart from the provision of service, enquiry handling also foster goodwill, which is the best marketing that can ever be undertaken. For that reason many librarians see to it that enquiry handling is dealt with exclusively by senior staff if possible.
Librarians have also recognised the importance of this service in relation to communication with members of the organisation. Streatfield, when dealing with the senior manager in an educational setting, suggests four types of information service to which he adds:

Implicit in all these suggestions is the idea of closer collaboration between the senior manager and librarian or information officer in providing a suitable and effective service. Without the sort of dialogue necessary to such collaboration it will not be possible to design adequate information services for senior managers in further and higher education – or anywhere else. [317]

The importance of communication with readers in order to be able to provide the best information service to them, is also emphasised by Jago, when he states:

It is essential that any Information Service maintain a constant awareness of the changing needs of its users, so that their needs are not only met, but where possible anticipated. [318]

As a recent development of enquiry handling the newly established Information Service of the London Business School should be mentioned. This is an extensive enquiry handling service to external readers for which they have to pay. In order to be able to provide this kind of service, three conditions must be met:

- The collection from which the information will be obtained must be more than adequate.
- The library must have a very good reputation outside its own organisation.
- The librarian who is going to provide this service, should not only be a professional with a lot of experience, but should also know the collection from which the information will be obtained thoroughly.

Since all three requirements were met in the case of the Information Service of the London Business School, it could become the success that it turned out to be. Now is to let readers pay for the costs that must be covered, since it has been a library principle and tradition not to charge the readers. According to this principle a library as a service institution that obtains its budget from a parent organisation, should cover all costs within that budget. (The situation in public libraries is not considered here; many public libraries recognise membership fees, but the total approach to readers in public libraries cannot be compared to that in academic or special libraries.) With the establishment of this new kind of information service an approach can be accepted where it is possible to provide more services than before by asking external readers to pay for the services supplied to them. During the short time the
Information Service of the London Business School has been in operation now, it turned out that readers are very well prepared to pay for information services, but all three requirements mentioned above must be met, otherwise it will not become successful. Besides it can be mentioned that readers will get accustomed to paying for services, since many libraries have come to ask readers to pay for on-line searching sooner or later.

Many information services are almost exclusively provided in special libraries. SDI, current awareness, information bulletins, etc. are services that are typical to special libraries, and particularly in business information units of industrial organisations extensive information services are often provided.

In business school libraries the number of readers is much too large to provide extensive information services. But some libraries, while discriminating between different groups of readers, do provide services like a circulation of journals exclusively to members of the academic staff of the school, or an individual current contents service that will also keep members of the academic staff out of the library. This has been discussed above when dealing with library services in the former chapter. It is mentioned here to illustrate that some information services of this kind are being provided by business school libraries, but their librarians generally are not very happy with it, since these services are detrimental to students, who will not find the journals they are looking for on the shelves, particularly not the most recent issues. Most business school libraries do not provide individual services to any reader of their libraries. This, then, is unlike many business information centres of industrial organisations. If a director of an industrial company asks his information officer to provide him with a list of recent literature on a given specialised subject, the information officer is not even to consider whether he will deal with this or not. In a business school however, the director will not even ask such a question, will not need the kind of information the director of a company needs, and finally the library of a business school will not be equipped to perform such a task. This, of course, is reflected in the services that are provided and in library policy in general.

There is one kind of information services however, that must finally be considered, since it has become, or will become a main service in many libraries. What is referred to is, of course, on-line literature searching. The majority of the business school libraries under study provide already on-line services. Very often these services are being provided free to staff; although in some schools departments will be charged for it. There are business school libraries where students get one free search in order that they will know what can be expected. This is the case for instance in the library of the Norges Handelshøyskole. If readers are being charged for on-line costs they usually have to pay for the
actual costs or even less, e.g. excluding subscriptions of data systems. On-line searching must not be overvalued however. Moores observes that:

online systems are not the universal panacea that many seem to believe they are. They do provide us with an exceedingly powerful tool, but it is a tool that should be used when needed. There are many questions better answered from other sources - not online - and there are those that should be answered using hardcopy indexes and not their online equivalent. The information scientist's skill lies in knowing where the best source of information is - be it online, hardcopy, book, government department, trade association, fellow professionals or whatever; this will guarantee the success they want. [319]

Appleyard, then, considers when dealing with the information industry, after introducing the concept of advanced computerised information centres:

I do not pretend that on-line access and data bases will in the near future eliminate the problems mentioned; traditional techniques will retain their importance, and on-line searching will be one of many means of information retrieval. However, on-line will alleviate the situation. [320]

The introduction of the computer in libraries has put a major impact on library performance. In the frame of this study it would take us too far, however, to enter a discussion on this subject. As has been explained in the introduction already, that would mean a complete study on its own.

Information systems, then, are important since they directly aim at serving readers. In business school libraries it can be observed that this importance is recognised, the policy is open to readers, since reader satisfaction is an aim that is taken very seriously.

Reader services.

It has been mentioned before and cannot be overemphasised; the reader should occupy a central position in library policy. It is for the reader that services are being provided and if the library performs worse and worse, readers will look for other means to find the information wanted, eventually resulting into a library without readers, which is a dead thing and cannot be considered as a modern library anymore. A library may provide many services of which the librarian thinks that they are perfect, if they are not properly used, something is wrong. Halloran has formulated it in another way:
Information may be provided, and it may be readily available, but provision and availability tell us little about use and consequences. [321]

Library services must aim at satisfying readers' needs and in order to know these needs, the reader must occupy a central place in the mind of any librarian. Needs should be known and a librarian will not always be informed about these needs. He or she has to be active, trying to recognise as many needs of readers as possible.

The importance of the enquiry handling has been emphasised before and need not be explained again. In the frame of discussing the right service provision however, its importance must be stressed here. Olson considers enquiry handling in relation to reference librarians, stating:

The importance attached to the reference librarian's ability to negotiate a question to its ultimate level and provide the correct response to the question cannot be overstated. [322]

Whatever the importance however that is attached to enquiry handling, there are limitations to this service. According to librarians of business schools the limitations to enquiry handling can be reached:
- if the library does not cover the subject.
- if the collection of the library is too limited on a given subject.
- if a reader tries to make a member of the library staff do some work for him or her.
- if an enquiry is too time consuming to deal with and therefore detrimental to other readers.

These limitations are the most generally mentioned by librarians of business school libraries, even if not any librarian has mentioned all four of them.

Three more special limitations that have been mentioned are worth considering:

In the library of Manchester Business School it depends on who is enquiring in combination with the kind of enquiry whether it will be dealt with. External readers are less privileged than members of the School. This policy is executed by more business school libraries.

In the library of the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires an enquiry may be refused to deal with if it is thought that it has nothing to do with study or research.

In the library of the Norges Handelshøyskole finally, an enquiry will not be dealt with if its level is considered too low. It was not explained what too low means and when it is just acceptable.

Altogether these limitations show even more how much concern business school librarians have for their readers, while the importance of satisfying enquiries within reason is underlined.
In most business school libraries five groups of readers are being recognized:
- academic staff, in most cases including teaching and research staff,
- students,
- post-experience course participants,
- alumni of post-experience courses and former students,
- external readers.

For students a distinction is made between doctoral students, postgraduate students and undergraduates in some libraries; in many of them there are no undergraduates however.

As a leading principle most librarians would like not to make any distinction between groups of readers, particularly as far as the first three groups are concerned, since these groups can be considered members of the school. But as Mackenzie observes:

Every library has a loan policy, even if it reads 'No books will be lent'! In an academic library, university staff traditionally have the benefit of a more generous policy than students either in length of loan or number of volumes out at a time, and there will probably be several different loan policies hidden in the regulations of the library. [323]

Members of the academic staff then, are privileged in most business school libraries as well; sometimes only marginal when the only difference between them and other readers is that they do not have to pay for photocopying, which - by the way - must often be done by themselves, and that they do not have to pay for on-line literature searches, since the department to which they belong will be charged for it. But in other business school libraries however, academic staff members are treated with much more respect than students, will be helped by senior library staff if possible, in short, they get a more or less personal service. This individual service often comes from a tradition that is still alive in countries like Belgium, France, Spain and Italy. In the library of the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale students are even considered external readers.

As far as students are concerned, doctoral students may have more privileges than MBA-students, while postgraduates in general may be more privileged than undergraduates. Post-experience course participants may sometimes get less services than postgraduate students, since the participants to courses are members of the school for a much shorter period than postgraduates. Alumni of post-experience courses and former students will in some libraries be treated like members of the school, in some others less services are provided to them. External readers finally, are often turned away, or accepted as an exception to the general rule, since they can be prejudicial to other readers, to whom the services aim in the first place. Dewe recognises four courses of action that are open to a library to restrict the use of the library by external readers:
1) The number of external readers may be restricted by setting criteria which those allowed to use the library must meet, and excluding the rest.

2) Differentiation of services: the services available to external readers are restricted, whilst full services are maintained for internal readers.

3) Allow the library to be used by all who wish to do so, and accept the costs, one of which may be degradation of the service to internal readers (but not necessarily so).

4) Impose some charge on the external readers, which either reduces their numbers to a tolerable level, or alternatively generates sufficient funds to enable the larger numbers to be saved. [324]

Sometimes it may be necessary to consider the use of some or all of these courses of action in order to maintain library services to internal readers for whom they are aimed in the first place. In libraries where external readers are accepted without restrictions, like in business school libraries of Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands, their use is often not promoted, given restrictions in place and the number of library staff.

Apart from their status there are other reasons why groups of readers may be discriminated. Blagden formulates:

Some customers may be regarded as more equal than others, not only in terms of seniority or status, but also because some groups rely more heavily on documentary information than others. [325]

If, for instance, library materials on a certain specialised subject are collected from the shelves and put together for the benefit of a special group of students because of a project or something similar, this group is privileged in relation to other students, but there is a good reason for it. A Reserve Collection is another example since only students are allowed to use it and members of the academic staff will not be permitted to borrow from this collection. To finish this subject, it must be mentioned that in every library some readers are permitted something against the rules now and then, because they are known, or sympathetic, or are packing their request in a very good story, etc. This is very human and not bad, even if every library has to face breaches of trust now and then.

An important subject that must be considered when dealing with reader services, is user education. Readers must know how to profit from the resources the library has to offer. In order to educate the user however, there first must be something worth educating for; if librarians are to teach now their services must be used, they first have to be sure that these services are good and effective, while their use must lead to results. In the words of Fjallbrant and Stevenson:
Much library instruction is only rendered necessary by the complexity and inefficiency of the systems employed by librarians. The first task of any user education programme should be to ensure that the systems are effective, straightforward and self-explanatory. Too much time and effort is wasted explaining away the problems of the librarian's own making, the professional mysteries, time and effort that could more valuably be spent making libraries easier to use. [328]

A common definition of user education is provided by Malley, who formulates that user education is:

A process whereby the library user is firstly made aware of the extent and number of the library's resources, of its services and of the information sources available to him or her, and secondly taught how to use these resources, services and sources. [327]

The results of this process have been investigated by King and Or., who evaluated a library instruction programme at the University of Illinois. [328] They concluded that students who had been following the library instruction programme made more use than before of periodical articles, periodical indexes and microforms, while their use of monographs had diminished. Lester - after having complete different experiences - believes that with user education students can only begin to explore the boundaries of what is a large and complicated field in its own right - library and information science.

He then continues:

It is no wonder that librarians are having difficulty justifying graduate professional status, if at the same time they are offering library users 'all you need to know about libraries in six easy lessons'! For the business we are in is large and complicated and we should admit it. [329]

This, then, seems to be exaggerated; not any user education programme will ever try to teach all library techniques, and certainly not in six easy lessons. What user education programmes aim at is teaching the reader how to make efficient use of those library services he or she will most probably need in the near future. User education programmes must be tailor-made to the groups they are aimed at: postgraduates for instance need completely different programmes from undergraduates and within the group of postgraduate students it is possible to recognise different groups in relation to specialisations selected.

In the conclusion of the same article, Lester expresses as his opinion:
User needs for information are so diverse and unpredictable that the majority just cannot be programmed into a library user education course or a library information service. Users need help from knowledgeable librarians when they need help. [330]

In order to oppose against this opinion, it is necessary to distinguish between different kinds of user education programmes. These programmes can be divided into:
- Library orientation programmes.
- Particular service programmes.

Library orientation programmes must be just orientation. In the words of Fjallbrant and Stevenson:

Library orientation is concerned with enabling the student to become aware of the existence of the university library and the services available there (WHAT is available) and enabling the student to learn about the general use of the library: WHEN the library is open; WHERE specific items are to be found; and HOW to actually obtain/borrow the material required. [331]

This certainly does not include a complete knowledge of all services the library has to offer; it is just orientation, just to learn to know what most readers need to know.

Particular service programmes aim at explaining one kind of services more in detail, but not too extensively. One of the best examples of a particular service programme is a programme on the use of abstracting and indexing services in order that readers will be able to search literature on a given subject successfully. But a programme on the use of company information for instance can also be thought of as a particular service programme.

Orientation programmes then, aim at large groups of readers, but can be adopted to special needs of a certain group, making it a kind of tailor-made orientation programme. Particular service programmes aim at small groups interested in a special service because this service must be used for a purpose of the group. Both kinds of programmes can be programmed and do not try to respond to user needs that are so diverse and unpredictable as Lester believes. All user education aim at helping readers to help themselves: flexibility in the design of the programmes is a condition for success, just as the librarian who is to teach about the use of the library, must have a thorough knowledge of all library services. The reader then will be taught all he NEEDS to know about libraries, but not more than that! Fjallbrant observes:

User education must on the one hand be closely related to the needs of the users, and on the other hand, to the other functions and activities at the library. It provides the opportunity for increased contact between
members of the library staff and user groups and this can, in turn, lead to increased awareness of the needs of the users, thereby affecting the type and quantity of material acquired and its potential value for borrowers. Awareness of user needs can also lead to changes in existing library practice. [332]

Readers who have completed an orientation programme on the library and its services will not have any fear of entering the library or ask a question, neither will they have to ask many questions, since they will be able to find out about many services themselves. They have learned how to help themselves. Stevenson observes:

The problem that not everyone who needs help will ask for it can be largely overcome if the affective objectives of initial orientation are attained, and the library is orientated to the user. [333]

Another advantage of user education is that readers will recognise the librarian who has provided the courses, which makes it even easier to ask questions. This has been observed by the librarian of Strathclyde Business School among others. The librarian of this school provides training on sources of company information and marketing information once a fortnight to all kinds of students and course participants, which she certainly feels as a burden, particularly since there are only two members of the staff in the Business Information Centre, but one of the main advantages for her is that she is known by all students and course participants, who will easily approach her with any question they may have in the information field.

User education is not provided in all business school libraries, for which three reasons can be observed:
- limited staff resources,
- a need was not felt,
- it is felt that staff time must be devoted to library service provision as much as possible.

In many business school libraries however user education to students is provided, mainly by orientation courses. This training is often restricted to once a year, viz. at the beginning of the first term, or to a few times a year only. In the library of the Norges Handelshøyskole the deputy librarian has a very strong wish to extend the training to students, since she often observes that students spend too much time in finding some information wanted that could be found much quicker if they only knew better what services the library has to offer. The orientation course is sometimes combined with a tour in the library, while as a part of it practical work may be undertaken in the library. Apart from the training provided in the Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School however, where an exception to the rule that business school libraries provide mainly orientation courses can be observed, user education does not
influence library policy in this kind of libraries generally. This does not mean however that its importance is not recognized. The size of the library and the number of library staff are mainly due to the fact that user education is a minor task, if provided at all.

User education is one approach of encouraging readers to make use of the library. Other means to do this can be recognised however.

A most well-known introduction to the library is the guided tour; it aims at showing new readers where to find the main services the library has to offer and how to make use of them. Sometimes a guided tour is provided in combination with programmes of user education that are offered to students.

Two disadvantages of guided tours must be mentioned:
- With the provision of guided tours the librarian often tries to show the bright side of the library, which means that his or her talk is more promoting and advertising than explaining. The students will observe this and will not be interested anymore.
- Guided tours are often too long and too detailed with the result that students get bored and look at other things, or try to escape the tour.

In order to avoid these disadvantages, guided tours are often short and to-the-point nowadays, being a real orientation. It may help to let students know that they are welcome in the library and what they may expect to find there. Most business school libraries provide guided tours to students, but it is generally felt that the results are marginal. Guided tours are being provided however, because students may eventually benefit from them. A possible alternative is the self-paced orientation tour of which Fjalibrent, Kihlen and Malmgren conclude from empirical evidence:

It can be concluded that the self-paced tour with exercises is an excellent method for library orientation. It appears popular amongst students, and the results of learning are good. At the same time, this form of teaching is economical on library staff time, especially when compared with the alternative the guided tour. [334]

Another form of introduction to the library is the tape-slide presentation. In 1973 a tape-slide presentation on searching the literature of management was shown to the European Business School Librarians' Group at its fifth meeting in Manchester, by the librarian of Bradford Management Centre of the University of Bradford. About this presentation the report of the meeting reads:

It was generally agreed that the lecture method of introducing students to the literature was intensely boring to both lecturer and student, and that audio-visual aids such as this provided a much more
interesting way of communicating information which needed to be frequently repeated to different audiences. It was not a substitute for the lecture, but provided the basic information which could then be followed up in discussion. For this reason it was an advantage for the voice on the tape to be different from that of the lecturer. [335]

Other tape-slide presentations have been made to introduce a business school library to its readers, like one that has been used in the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde for some years and a general presentation produced by three British business school librarians. In the London Business School a presentation was produced called 'Desk-bound', on the use of different library materials and services: it was a very good and instructive presentation and many libraries have taken the opportunity to buy their own copy.

In 1976 three specialised tape-slide presentations of the library of the Handelshojskolen i Aarhus were shown to members of the European Business School Librarians' Group at their eighth meeting in Rome. These presentations were instructions on the use of the alphabetical catalogue, on the use of the classified catalogue, and on their International Library. They were very successful at the time and the librarian of this school had the intention to continue making short programmes aimed at explaining how to make use of a special service of the library. [336]

When this library was investigated in 1983 in the frame of this study however, it turned out that these presentations were not used anymore and considered out of date. Given similar developments in other libraries it can be concluded from empirical evidence that tape-slide presentations have been popular as an introduction to the library for a relative short period only and are hardly used anymore nowadays.

One of the best-known public relations activities of a library is the distribution of a library guide. Almost every library has a library guide to be distributed among readers, particularly to new readers. Oort has examined library guides of business school libraries in 1982 and in a contribution to the fourteenth meeting of the European Business School Librarians' Group in Aarhus, an evaluation of library guides was presented, in which he concludes:

Library guides should be providing the information any reader may need if not too specific. Some groups of readers and some services require a different, or more detailed information that sometimes can be given. [337]

Librarians generally admit that library guides are not read, but since some readers may find it useful, they are still being produced. It can be observed that people will take away anything that is free to take and it may be hoped that some of them will even read it. Stevenson observes:
The traditional pattern of talks, tours, tape-slide presentations, printed library guides is still very much in evidence, though tours are no longer considered essential and are omitted by several libraries. The library guide which many librarians admit is not read and of little value in its present format is still produced however. [338]

Other library publications may help readers with their information needs. Many libraries produce a list of periodical holdings - very often a new list is published every year - and from reactions of readers it can be concluded that generally these lists turn out to be useful. The same is true for library accessions lists, that are produced quarterly, bi-monthly, or monthly; most of the time and are distributed among regular readers.

In addition to this library notes or information notes may inform readers about developments, new acquisitions etc. of which the librarian wants the readers to pay attention to, because he or she thinks that readers will profit from knowing. Other library publications can be thought of and are being produced indeed; the policy behind all this is to help readers before they start asking questions, to inform them in general. These services can certainly assist to find responses to needs of readers, even if this may be a marginal help only. On page 234 it is shown which major library publications are being produced by the business school libraries under study.

When the term new readers is used, most librarians of business schools will understand new members of the academic staff. In most libraries these new readers will be introduced by another member of the academic staff to the librarian. Incidentally a new member of the academic staff of the school will just enter the library and introduce himself or herself. In most business school libraries they will be shown around by the librarian or by another senior staff member of the library, who will provide a more or less extensive and individual guided tour.

New external readers will also be considered as new readers by some librarians. It will depend on the kind of enquiry then what kind of introduction is provided. Generally external readers will get a less extensive introduction to the library than new internal readers.

So far reader services have been dealt with by explaining how readers will be taken to the services. One might consider however, to change services in order to adopt the services to readers' needs as well. To quote Exon:

Instead of thinking in terms of systems into which the user has to be fitted (e.g. 'let's circulate a bulletin'; 'let's buy in Lockheed'), one can think critically about which systems would be of most help at the time, and in the way, most suited to the user. [339]
In addition to this Stretfield can be mentioned, who considers:

It is easily assumed that existing services are the best possible response to an assumed problem and are therefore inevitable and immutable. Consequently it becomes the duty of all information service users to adapt their behaviour quickly in order to derive full benefit from maximum use of the services. The role of the service provider is confined to explanation, demonstration - and complaining to colleagues that too many 'users' seem unwilling or unable to adapt [340].

This is not the place to enter a discussion on how to adapt library services to readers; when considering reader services however, it must be remembered that one may try to inform readers and instruct them how to use the library, but equally important is to consider to bring the services to the readers; in other words: librarians should not only explain readers how to adopt to their services, but must equally consider how to adopt services to changing needs. The aim with reader services is to respond to readers' needs; librarians should not forget that there are two ways to respond: let readers come to the library, or let the library go to the readers.

User evaluation.

Library services are being provided in order to respond to needs that readers of the library may have, expressed but also unexpressed needs. In order to be able to provide these services satisfactory, they must be known by the librarian. User evaluation aims at finding out what kind of use is made of the library, how it is used and whether readers are satisfied with the services provided to them. In the words of Cronin:

The purpose of evaluation is to relate performance to objectives. Every information service has a set of objectives, explicit or implicit. Evaluation really is nothing more than a form of self-audit and should be seen as an integral part of the information manager's job. Perhaps performance measurement is a better phrase to describe what we are talking about: performance measurement being the process of systematically assessing effectiveness against a predetermined norm, standard or expressed goal. [341]

Hannabuss stresses the importance of effectiveness in relation with user needs, considering:
However else it is seen, evaluating the effectiveness of library and information services is closely bound up with user needs and demands and the extent to which those needs and demands are satisfied. [342]

Before evaluating user needs the librarian must consider what kind of information is needed, since many kinds of evaluation can be recognised, from a simple questionnaire on one small item to a complete extensive research on the performance of large library systems. The information to be obtained must be useful for possible improvement of services, while the technique to get the information must not be too complicated. James observes:

The requirement is thus identified for techniques which have two qualities. First, they must give information about users which is sound enough to be an improvement on ignorance. Second, they must be simple and economical enough to operate without professional researchers or grants. [343]

Yet user evaluation is often thought of as a long and difficult process providing information on user requirements all right, but taking a lot of staff time, which in some cases is right. Librarians need to consider however that improvement of their services may be the final result, which often turns out to be worth-while, even if it may take a lot of time. Evaluation of services however must not be undertaken for the pleasure or the sake of the librarian; it must aim at finding out what readers need in order to be able to improve services as a result of the evidence.

Formal user evaluation is undertaken in business school libraries sometimes, but not on a regular basis. One of the few larger evaluations on European business school libraries that has been undertaken, is a user survey on the library of the Institut European d'Administration des Affaires, that was recently done by Horton and Gautschi, who formulate:

The object of the exercise is to perform an overall evaluation of the INSEAD library service as perceived by segments of the overall user-group. The aim is to translate the results of such an evaluation into keener insight into the habits of the users, and ultimately into policy formulation and action for the future development of the service. [344]

As a result of this survey needs and preferences of readers of this international library, also in relation to their nationalities are now known and the next step will be to implement the results into the services provided.

Extensive evaluations on library performance like this one are exceptional however as far as business school libraries are concerned. Even if it is recognised that evaluations could provide useful information for the improvement of
library services, there is not enough staff available to undertake user evaluation seriously without a reduction of the provision of services from which readers would certainly suffer. This has also been observed by Dougherty and Heinritz referring to libraries in general:

Evaluation of an operating system, a complex, demanding activity, is one of the weakest links in library information work. [345]

Returning to business school libraries, surveys and evaluations by means of questionnaires worth mentioning are:

- In the library of the Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus an evaluation was done by means of a questionnaire in 1981 on handling enquiries. The results were not outstanding in a positive, nor in a negative way and it was felt that it takes a lot of time and work, while the results will often consolidate in fact what was known already.

- In the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde an evaluation by means of a questionnaire was carried out in 1976 on all services of the library. From the results it could be read that 95% of the staff and students were very content with the services provided, but the response to the questionnaire had been very low. It was felt that many readers thought it useless to complete and that it generally was completed by those who were satisfied with the services. In 1981 a questionnaire was sent to all members of the academic staff because the need to reduce the number of periodical subscriptions had to be faced for budgetary reasons. Owing to an accompanying letter written very carefully and many telephone calls, the results were satisfactory and a reduction of 186 periodical subscriptions could be realised without a real cut back in service. Oort has reported on this evaluation to the thirteenth meeting of the European Business School Librarians' Group in 1981. [348]

- In the library of the London Business School general evaluations on the use of the library by means of a questionnaire have been undertaken in 1975 and 1976, while a survey on enquiry handling was done in 1977 from which it turned out that most requests were on company information. In 1981 a survey was done on the opening hours of the library together with an experiment of extended opening hours until 11.00 pm to help those studying on the School's part-time M.Sc.-programme that started in 1983. In 1982 current periodical subscriptions were reviewed to see whether some titles would have to be replaced with new subscriptions. As a result cancellations and new subscriptions taken could be listed in an edition of Library Notes afterwards.
In the library of the Manchester Business School a one-day survey was carried out in 1979 giving an insight of who uses the library, for what reasons, and what remarks readers had on the services. Some of the results could be expected, like the fact that postgraduates are the main users. The library policy proved to be right as far as such a conclusion may be drawn from a small survey like this.

In the library of the Norges Handelshoyskole a survey on users in economic subjects was done once, in 1978.

Finally, a survey of usage of company information sources by third year commerce students in the library of the University College Dublin must be mentioned. It was undertaken by means of a detailed questionnaire and from the results it was learned that user satisfaction was too low at the time; particularly an expansion in the provision of Irish company information in the library was wanted.

This is by far not all user evaluation that is undertaken in the libraries under study. Most evaluation is done very informally by means of library staff keeping their eyes and ears wide open. In addition to this it can be mentioned that in the library of the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales there is a suggestion book for readers and in the library of the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale information on user satisfaction is often obtained by reactions to lessons on the use of the library. In some libraries readers may be asked at random what they think of some services the library has to offer; observation of readers is used in all libraries as an important source of information on user satisfaction or dissatisfaction; sometimes this kind of information is obtained directly from talking to readers. As a total result librarians of business school libraries feel in general that they know what their readers think of the services they provide. They know their strengths and weaknesses and act accordingly if opportunities arise.

Even if librarians will declare that they are prepared to change services as a result of recognised readers’ needs, this adaptation of library policy should not be exaggerated. Shinebourne observes about this:

In practice, the responses of readers are of no consequence to a library system unless something goes drastically wrong. To what extent can user needs influence library policies and activities if their results and effects are not closely monitored and evidence of user behaviour is not systematically acquired?

What we do is make broad generalisations about the kinds of material that different interest groups use by
investigating the existing habits of a number of individuals. [347]

In business school libraries complaints and recognised needs of readers do influence library policy, although the changes that will be realised can be considered as minor ones generally. Examples of adaptation to recognised readers' needs are:

- In the library of the University College Dublin a business information area was created as a direct result of user evaluation.
- In the library of the International Management Institute preference was given to updating company information when readers expressed their needs for updated information on companies.
- In the library of the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales materials of statistics were brought together because of recognised readers' needs and the arrangement of short loans in a reserve collection was organised as a result of student complaints.
- In the library of the Centre d'Enseignement Superieur des Affaires possibilities for lending books overnight was started as a result of a wish expressed by many students.

These are just a few examples to show how library services may be adapted to recognised needs of readers, or to expressed complaints. It shows a library policy that has proactive elements.

User criticism is not very often received in libraries. If it is received however, librarians are taking it very seriously and act accordingly: if this is possible and appropriate. Sometimes criticism has to do with the size of the library, or people wonder why a certain book is not in the holdings. In general, however, readers adopt to the services that are provided easily and are satisfied with the library as it is. This may be dangerous since the librarian may feel that whatever he or she does will be accepted. If he or she remains keen on knowing what readers really want, the library will be able to adopt to readers' needs as much as possible and accordingly will have a good reputation among its readers.

Many business school libraries are known for good service and kindness of their staff indeed. It shows a fulfillment of general library objectives.
CO OPERATION OF BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

Library co-operation.

The aim of a library is to satisfy readers' needs, and this is understood as satisfaction by supplying library and possible information services, to which can be added most of them in documentary form. Libraries then, are non-profit organizations and satisfaction of readers' needs may, in some cases, mean that a reader is advised to pay a visit to another library that is better equipped to deal with a particular need that was expressed. Libraries generally are not competitive to one another and consequently co-operate. Library co-operation does not only include the provision of inter-library loan services. The presence or absence of other libraries, preferably open to readers of the library concerned, may have an important impact on library performance and may influence library policy. Reynolds formulates:

Library cooperation may be defined as a voluntary exchange of goods and services between individuals employed in formal organizations. [348]

As an example of the influence that other libraries may have on library policy, three business school libraries can be compared with each other:

Hanley: the Management College is situated in the country and during courses, participants do not have time to do a lot of traveling in order to consult different libraries. Consequently, the library of the College must satisfy their needs almost completely.

The International Management Institute is situated at the outskirts of Geneva, indeed, but traveling to town is easy and there are many libraries in Geneva including those of international organizations, that are open to course participants of the Institute. Consequently, the character of its library is different from that of Hanley, the Management College, even if it is not taken into account that the former is much more international oriented than the latter.

The Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School is situated very close to the Andersonian Library, which is the main library of Strathclyde University. This means that students and course participants of the School can easily pay a visit to the Andersonian Library if they want to and this is even encouraged, since they are considered members of the University with the right to make full use of all services this library has to offer. As a result of this the policy of the Business Information Centre is strongly...
influenced by: the presence of the Andersonian Library, on which it is even partly dependent.

Similarly it can be observed that for instance the policy of the library of Manchester Business School is influenced by: the University Library of Manchester University situated at a distance of a few minutes' walk. Another example is the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfswetenschappen that was situated at a short cycling distance from the Central Library of Delft University of Technology before the former moved to Rotterdam Autumn 1984. This situation has influenced the acquisitions policy of the institutional library: particularly as far as reference materials are concerned.

Another aspect of regional co-operation is observed by Burkett:

An interesting feature of most regional networks is: the more informal groupings that exist within them at a more local level, sometimes with a greater number of constituent libraries. Some overlap of functions may occur, but not to any significant degree. The local scheme: generally justifies their operations by offering services not normally covered by the regional network. Additionally, because they are more compactly located it is easier and quicker to transfer material information and staff. [349]

Since the main subject of this chapter is co-operation of business school libraries on a national, but also and mainly on an international, level and as these libraries generally are not located in the immediate environment of each other, regional co-operation will not be discussed any further.

It is not only distances that influence library policies, the enormous potential of information available worldwide demand: a growing co-operation between libraries. Bliss considers:

It should be clear, although perhaps not accepted by: very many planners and managers of libraries: and information services, that the pluralistic or independent entity: made of library service delivery: is open to great question. Just because it worked fairly well in the past does not mean it will work in the future. The separate library can no longer serve its own clientele with a reasonable degree of adequacy, with perhaps a little help from a friendly nearby library: by way of interlibrary loan.

The advances in technology, the costs of acquisition, personnel and other costs, and the tremendous growth in the quantity of information are forcing cooperation and interdependence among libraries. [350]
In addition to this, Muzmann observes:

Interorganizational cooperation is particularly important in its application to libraries and their evolving relationship to networks and other cooperative ventures. [351]

Library cooperation usually starts with the provision of inter-library loans to readers and cooperation may start on a local basis. After some time this cooperation with a new library may be extended to regional and/or national cooperation; this is mainly due to circumstances, the subject(s) covered and the policy of the librarian. International cooperation may be useful in some cases, but is certainly not the most common kind of library cooperation. In the introduction of a paper on information policies in West-European countries, presented at the fifty-fourth Aslib annual conference in 1981, Conisius considers:

It seems to me that no-one has talked or written about this subject before. In fact, although information is a border-crossing reality; there seems to have been little or no border-crossing coordination. And what has been done by international bodies surely cannot be counted as an exchange of ideas about national policies. [352]

Additionally, Burkett describes European library networks, considering mainly international organizations like the European Communities and specialized international organizations dealing with different subjects. [353]

Neither Conisius nor Burkett do provide any information on inter-library cooperation; however, the former deals with separate information policies of different countries, while the latter deals with library provisions of international organizations. The kind of library cooperation that is interesting to discuss is of the kind that influences library policy outside local or regional cooperation, preferably on an international scale. Jefferson deals with this kind of library cooperation when considering:

Interest in promoting a particular kind of library service crosses national frontiers into the international arena to develop co-operative approaches to common problems or to increase potential on a collective basis. Libraries concerned with Hospital and Health Care, for example, held a meeting in September 1970 of European representatives in Stockholm to examine the possibilities of better cooperation in documentation and information on a European basis. Frequent meetings thereafter have been held and 'an important, early decision taken by the group was to exchange with each other all reports, specialist bibliographies, and other literature produced by the institutes themselves'. Other topics have been discussed
at these meetings for future action such as the establishment of national and international registers of research and the exchange of personnel between different institutes. [354]

This kind of co-operation is very similar to that between business school libraries in different European countries, which also started in 1970 with the establishment of the European Business School Librarians' Group, that will now be discussed.

European Business School Librarians' Group.

In January 1970 librarians of several European business schools met in the library of the Institut d'Administration des Affaires in Fontainebleau and decided to set up a co-operation between the members of that meeting. It was felt that libraries dealing with the same academic disciplines and serving similar kinds of readers by the provision of the same kinds of services should be able to benefit from exchange of information and ideas because of mutual interests. The second meeting was held in the summer of the same year and meetings have taken place annually ever since. The eighteenth meeting will be held at the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale in Turin, Summer 1986.

The objectives of this Group are:
- to exchange information and ideas,
- to discuss topics of mutual interest,
- to co-operate in the development of joint projects,
- to provide individual help to each other when required.

The Group seeks to achieve these objectives by:
- the arrangement of an annual meeting of a few days to be held in different places by invitation of members of the Group,
- the production of an annual Newsletter in which libraries report on their recent developments as far as other libraries may be interested; from 1982 this Newsletter is more or less structured (see below),
- individual contacts between members throughout the year whenever this is felt useful.

Incidentally, exchanges of library staff have taken place between business school libraries in different countries, which turned out to be useful, particularly as far as individual experiences are concerned.

Vernon, who is one of its founding fathers, has written about the Group and its unique functioning in different journals. [355]
Through the years many contributions have been presented by members as well as by invited guests. The subjects dealt with show an enormous variety: since business and school librarians are interested in and concerned with many library subjects in their daily routine, while background information is useful and necessary, to keep abreast of developments and new opportunities. Not surprisingly: an increasing interest was shown in new technology in recent years and many presentations on the use of computers in libraries have been shown to members of the Group. At the seventeenth meeting in 1985 new technology was even considered a main theme of the whole meeting.

STRUCTURE OF THE GROUP.

The Group aims at:
- informing each other on recent library developments,
- discussing topics of mutual interest,
- exchanging ideas, and
- initiation, elaboration and participation of joint library projects.

In order to be a working group that is active and tries to fulfill its aims, the organization of the Group has been reduced to a minimum from its very beginning. The Group has a secretary, Mlle. Cuisset from the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires. Since a central person and a central address is needed to co-ordinate the functioning of the Group, but this coordination is reduced to things that really must be done and cannot be avoided. There is no permanent chairperson; the chairperson to the Group is the host librarian of the library who has invited the Group for its annual meeting and it follows that his or her main task is to manage the annual meeting with the assistance of his or her own library staff; consequently there is no permanent chairperson ever. Finance is an unimportant issue within the Group; there is an account on behalf of the Group, in order to be able to receive money from the sale of Group publications, and pay expenses for the production of these publications, but that is all for finance, since membership is free.

There are however some membership guidelines:

1. Membership is institutional; members are representatives from business school libraries, in most cases the librarians.
2. Institutions that are members should be interested in international co-operation.
3. Members should be libraries that belong to educational institutions providing at least postgraduate management education and/or post-experience management training.
4. Members should be experienced librarians.
5. Members should take an active part in discussions and joint projects.
6) Members must be able to organize the annual meeting of the Group and act as a host.

7) A fair balance of members from different countries is aimed at; the number of representatives from one country must not exceed one third of the total number of members.

8) A balanced representation from each country should be aimed at.

9) As many west-European countries as possible should be represented.

10) Individual members who have not attended a meeting during the past three years are not considered members anymore.

11) The Group decides on participation of new members after an enquiry after the characteristics and works of the candidate at the advice of a selection committee, consisting of the secretary of the Group, the host of the year, the host of the following year and the two preceding hosts.

12) Libraries participating in SCIMP indexing (see below) must be members of the Group.

In relation to its structure three characteristics are important as far as the functioning of the Group is concerned:

From its very beginning it has been realized that independency is an asset, since the Group has no obligations to other groups or bodies. The Group does not recognize any responsibility to any business school either.

In order to make it possible that not only larger, but also small libraries are able to organize meetings of the Group, it is advisable to keep it small, preferably in the range of 25 to 30 members. If the Group would grow too large, this could also become detrimental to its functioning, as discussions are much easier in small groups, where members will know each other.

Finally: informality is an advantage, since members will feel free to speak and with a minimum of paper work most benefits will be attained and most profit may be obtained from meetings.

Apart from the first few meetings, there has been a more or less similar structure for the meetings, even if no rules have been set. The programmes of most meetings that have taken place did include:

- a talk or paper by a member of the school where the meeting was held,
- a visit to the library of the host of the meeting,
- a visit to one or more libraries in the neighbourhood,
- discussions on ongoing joint projects of the Group,
- an official dinner offered to the Group by the School and preceded by one of its main members,
- a business meeting, the first of which was held at the fifth meeting of the Group.
At the annual business meeting of the group the same subjects are raised every year:
- reports of national groups,
- new members,
- place and, if possible, date for the next meeting,
- any other business worth discussing.

It can be concluded that due to this structure the Group is able to perform very well as a working Group of active librarians, who aim at gaining most benefits from the membership of this Group for their own libraries.

MEETINGS OF THE GROUP.

During the years many subjects have been dealt with at meetings of the Group. Whatever the subjects: however, the main reason for presenting a paper, or raising a subject for discussion has always been that it was felt that it could provide information useful to business school libraries, or that discussion could help business school librarians with a particular problem. At the first meeting this was examined in order to find out whether a co-operation could be useful at all. For that reason each member of the meeting described his or her organization and informed the others briefly on the activities of the library. In addition to this could reports:

At that first meeting it was decided that each library would choose a subject to specialize, related to its interests and exchange documents produced. Although this was the first and only time they ever spoke about it, within half a year a second meeting was held, and the Group that was created has held annual meetings ever since. [356]

At the second meeting the first papers were presented dealing with classification and with documentation and indexing.

It is no use to list all papers that have been presented to the various meetings, or even to mention all subjects dealt with. Meetings have shown a variety of subjects informing members of the Group, helping them to solve problems, widen their horizons and also showing them that other librarians sometimes meet similar or even the same problems. From the third meeting joint projects of international library co-operation have formed important parts of the meetings, but individual papers and presentations were provided at every meeting as well and members have been encouraged to be active in this field, since it has always been recognised as a main part of the kind of library co-operation the Group aims at.

The first meetings were of one day duration, but soon it was realized that if members had to arrive the day before when coming from other countries, the meeting could start in the evening and take about 24 hours. When it turned out that programmes were either overloaded, or parts of it had to be
cancelled, considering that a social part was wanted as well, meetings became of longer duration, in the range of two and a half days. From the tenth meeting in 1978 half a day to a full day preceding the meeting has been devoted to the SCIMP project (see below) to be attended by those involved in this project only. Meetings have been held in many different places in different environments and the host-librarians have been proud to show something typical of their own countries to members of the Group in a social programme. The 17 meetings have taken place in these countries: Denmark (1982), Finland (1979), France (1970, 1972, 1978), Ireland (1981), Italy (1976), the Netherlands (1974), Norway (1975), Sweden (1984), Switzerland (1970, 1980, 1985) and the United Kingdom (1971, 1973, 1977, 1983).

At the eighth meeting, in 1976, Cuisseen from the library of the Centre d’Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires and Vernon from the London Business School Library presented a review of the seven previous meetings together with a list of themes discussed, while Dewes from the Manchester Business School Library presented a paper on the future of the Group. [357]

At the fifteenth meeting, in 1983, Durt from the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde presented an attempt to evaluate the first fourteen meetings [358], which has been published in December of the same year. [359]

Even if the Group remained small deliberately, with many the same participants every year, there has never been a chance that entering by outsiders might become difficult, because members of the Group know each other too well. At all meetings members of the library staff of the library where the meeting was held, have been joining and very often the host invited observers to attend the whole meeting, while many guest speakers have been invited through the years to provide a talk or paper.

JOINT LIBRARY PROJECTS.

From the start of the Group in 1970 its members have realised that evidence had to be presented of reasons to establish a Group and afterwards to maintain reasons for existence. Since this evidence was sought in practical co-operation, the start of joint projects between libraries from different countries was a logical consequence. The importance of undertaking joint projects has been recognised almost from the beginning and consequently joint projects started easily, when members felt that it was useful to undertake. Besides librarians could show the importance of meetings of the Group to the management of their schools, making their attendance acceptable.

The first joint project was started in 1971: A CORE LIST OF PERIODICALS for European business school libraries. In the report of the third meeting of the Group Dewes from the Manchester Business School Library provided an answer to the question: Why should we compare a core list of periodicals?
A good library can exist without some important periodicals, but if an agreed core list of titles was available it would ensure that at least we all have the most important basic periodicals within our subject area.

There is a tendency to start subscriptions to new journals which may be of interest to readers. However, 80% of the use of periodicals is limited to 20% of the titles held. The question we have to answer is: what is the 20% of the subject?

A core list would be useful (i) for new institutions when they are forming their library; (ii) for university libraries which may require only the more important journals; (iii) smaller business schools; (iv) because we could then begin to agree on co-operative schemes for holding other journals outside the basic list. It would be particularly useful to us, as business school librarians, if we were to think about a possible next step in co-operation. [360]

A first list of 100 periodical titles considered as core journals and held by the libraries of London and Manchester Business Schools was distributed among the other members of the group for consideration of additions and deletions. The results were discussed and a new list presented several times until a final list could be produced that was published by Dewes at the end of 1973. [361]

The second joint project, a UNION LIST OF PERIODICALS IN EUROPEAN BUSINESS SCHOOLS, was suggested at the fourth meeting of the Group in 1972 and with information on their periodical holdings obtained from 19 libraries, the first edition of this Union List could be published in 1973 by Manchester Business School Library, compiled by a computer and distributed among the members of the Group, who paid a small amount of money to cover the costs. In addition to the main list all libraries participating received a list of their own holdings, which was used for the updating for the next year. The Union List has been updated and produced annually (with the exception of 1976) until 1979, when the last edition was produced so far [362]. This latest edition lists approximately 5,000 titles held by 24 libraries. The production of the Union List could not be continued, as too much time was needed by library staff of the Manchester Business School for the annual updating. Besides British members of the Group felt that there was not so much a need for this list in the United Kingdom, given the opportunities for the provision of periodical articles in this country; they did however recognize a value in the possibility provided by the list to find the core periodicals in a European setting being titles held by most libraries. At the seventeenth meeting in 1985 however, it was decided to find a way to start the production of a Union List again. The holdings of Scandinavian members of the Group have never been included, since they have their own list, called List Econ, that will be discussed below under the heading of National
Groups of business school libraries.

The third joint project was an ANNOTATED LIST OF 35 ABSTRACTING AND INDEXING SOURCES covering both general and specific areas in business studies that was presented by Vernon from the London Business School Library to the fourth meeting of the Group in 1972. It was agreed that members of the group should send details of similar sources available in their countries to him. At the next meeting a revised edition was presented and the final version was published by Vernon in 1975. [363]

The fourth joint project is the NEWSLETTER of the Group that was started in 1973. It was felt that it is useful to get information from member-libraries between meetings and accordingly it was decided to start an annual Newsletter. Members were asked to write a contribution on their own library, by presenting information of which it was felt that it could be useful for other libraries, with an emphasis on recent developments. The information was sent to the host of the last meeting, who sent a reminder by the end of the year and who just copied the letters received and combined them to a Newsletter that was distributed among all members of the Group.

At the thirteenth meeting of the Group, in 1981, it was decided to appoint an editor for the Newsletter, who would edit it for three years. A kind of structure of the Newsletter was decided on as well. Its main headings are from 1982 onwards:
- Figures of the library;
- Events and plans for the future;
- Group projects (main): information on SCIMP to members not involved in the project, but new projects can also be raised;
- Subject of the year.

In addition to these subjects, new librarians, publications, procurements and experiences of equipment, staff changes, a critical view on on-line searching, subjects for discussion at the next meeting and recommended reading can be dealt with by the choice of the librarians. The first editor was the deputy librarian of the Handelshojskolen i Aarhus, who edited the Newsletter for three years (1982-1984), until he handed the editorship over to the librarian of Strathclyde Business School, who started to edit the Newsletter with the 1985 edition.

Subjects of the year for which information was asked from all libraries have been:
1982 - Sources of company information.
1983 - Sources of theses in economics and management.
1984 - Sources of grey literature.
1985 - Software used in libraries.

The fifth joint project - CO-OPERATIVE INDEXING OF MANAGEMENT PERIODICALS - was proposed at the sixth meeting of the Group in 1974. It has grown to a unique cooperation that is made available on a subscription basis as well as on line from
1975. This project that was named SCIMP, European Index of Management Periodicals afterwards, will be discussed below under a separate heading.

The result of the sixth joint project is a booklet on SOURCES OF COMPANY INFORMATION, edited by Broms and Ruokonen from the library of Helsingin Kauppakorkeakoulu including information obtained from members of the Group. [364] It was presented at the seventh meeting of the Group in 1975 and has provided useful information to readers of business school libraries.

The seventh joint project was a STUDY ON BOOK SELECTION carried out by Cuijsset from the library of the Centre d'Enseignement Superieur des Affaires in 1975, based on a questionnaire sent to members of the Group. The results were presented at the seventh meeting of the Group in 1975 and showed information on acquisition policy of the libraries involved, where the vernacular language of the materials was compared to foreign language materials.

The eighth joint project was a EUROPEAN LIST OF NEWSPAPERS WITH BUSINESS SECTIONS started by Fletcher from the library of the University of Warwick in 1975 of which a sample page was presented at the eighth meeting of the Group in 1976. It was published by the end of the same year. [365]

As the ninth joint project the STATISTICAL SURVEY OF EBSL LIBRARIES can be mentioned for which information was collected by the librarian of the Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales and of which she reported at the ninth meeting of the Group in 1977. It provides information on member-libraries concerning staff, readers, the collection, loans, finance and special services. After three years the survey was repeated. On this survey the report of the twelfth meeting reads:

Due to a lack of detailed information and the problem of definition it was difficult to compare libraries but the results will be sent to participating libraries. The results of the survey are for the use of the participating libraries only and not for publication. [366]

Spring 1981 these results were distributed among the participating libraries and showed some interesting information.

The tenth joint project, introduced at the tenth meeting in 1978, was a SURVEY OF REGULAR PUBLISHED CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS. Members were asked to send information about their own countries. The result was compiled by Kaardal from the library of the Norges Handelshøyskole and published in 1979. [367] Although it was meant to be updated regularly, a new edition had not yet been published in 1985.
The eleventh joint project was the updating of the INTERNATIONAL DIRECTORY OF INSTITUTIONS AND INFORMATION SOURCES published by the International Labour Organization. Several members agreed to co-operate at the eleventh meeting in 1979 and in 1981 a new edition of this Directory was published. [368]

The twelfth joint project was the DIRECTORY of the Group that was launched by Cuisset from the library of the Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires at the fourteenth meeting in 1982. The directory provides the main information of all members of the Group and can be used to make the Group known. It was first published in 1983, while a second edition could be realized in 1985. [369]

The thirteenth joint project, a new edition of SOURCES OF COMPANY INFORMATION, was suggested at the fourteenth meeting in 1982, following the subject of the year in the Newsletter of the same year and considering that the former edition had been published in 1976 and was outdated and out of print as well. It was accepted as a new project of the Group and the librarian of Henley, the Management College, agreed to compile the information and see whether this would form the basis of an updated version of the former publication. In the course of 1983 however, it was observed that a publication 'EUROPEAN COMPANIES', of which the latest edition was published in 1972, needed updating as well. [370] After consultation of all members of the Group in the Autumn of 1983 it was decided to combine the two publications, meaning that members of the Group will assist in the updating of the directory on European companies. It is envisaged that the new edition of this book will be published in 1986.

Further joint projects had not yet been started by the end of 1985.

SCIMP, EUROPEAN INDEX OF MANAGEMENT PERIODICALS.

For a reasonable time already, indexing has been recognised as a rather quick service to provide users with a way to find journal articles potentially relevant to them; secondly there is a retrospective function for literature searching. An index in the field of management is the Business Periodicals Index, published since 1958, but as it is an American index, it does not cover European management literature. In 1972 Bakewell observed:

"The most notably gap in British management documentation is a comprehensive index to periodical articles on the lines of the American Business Periodicals Index." [371]

In 1966 the libraries of both the London and Manchester Business Schools started independently a selective indexing of periodical articles which were related to the work of the
respective schools and to the information enquiries which were being received in these libraries. The subject terms used originated therefore from practical experience. When it turned out that the subject interests and the indexing practice of both libraries were very similar to each other, joint indexing was decided on between the two libraries in 1972, aiming at:
- to share the respective lists of terms of both libraries and combine these into a common list which would be jointly edited and periodically updated;
- to exchange copies of the index cards produced in each library.

This co-operation started in 1973 and in 1974 was described to the European Business School Librarians' Group at its sixth meeting in Delft. It then was agreed to extend the indexing scheme by sharing the indexing work between more business school libraries in Europe and January 1975 joint indexing of periodical articles started by the co-operation of twelve members of the European Business School Librarians' Group, including the libraries of both the London and Manchester Business Schools of course.

The objectives of this joint indexing project were:
- to index articles from an agreed list of core journals in order to answer to the subject enquiries received in business school libraries.
- to develop a thesaurus of terms which will be suitable for the indexing work that is envisaged.

The project was called SCIMP (Selective and Co-operative Index of Management Periodicals).

The list of journals to be included consisted of those listed earlier as core periodicals as a result of a joint project of the Group mentioned above and published by Dewi in 1973 (361); it was considered that if all articles in these periodicals could be indexed, the management literature from periodical articles would effectively be covered. 81 journals were included and in 1977 the list of periodicals indexed had grown to 107, due to the fact that the libraries involved in the project considered periodical titles for addition and deletion every year. Obviously more titles had been added than deleted in that period. For three years each of the twelve libraries undertook its share in the indexing and produced index cards that were distributed among the other eleven libraries.

After some time other business school libraries, that were not able to join the indexing, showed their interest in SCIMP and asked if it could be made available to them. Some business organisations also showed their interest after using the system in one of the libraries participating in the project. For the indexing libraries then, SCIMP turned out to be a valuable source to their readers.

Concurrently with SCIMP, a co-operative index of Scandinavian-language management periodicals, called SCANP
(Scandinavian Periodicals: Index in Economics and Business) had been in existence for some time already, but started with a new format in 1977. The other libraries sent punched card and tape input to the library of the Helsingin Kauppakorkeakoulu, where it was merged with their own input. The print-out was used as a camera-ready copy for printing a quarterly index with annual cumulation made available on a subscription basis. In 1978 SCIMP became accessible on-line.

In 1977 it was considered that the proven value of SCIMP would be largely lost unless the job was completed first by computerising and by making it available to other libraries in the Group as well as to a wider number of libraries. It was also felt that no other existing information service fulfilled the needs that SCIMP responded to. SCIMP and SCIMP obviously had to be compatible and it was decided to use the same thesaurus for indexing; consequently one thesaurus was produced and regularly updated afterwards, edited by the librarian of the London Business School. In 1983 the fifth edition of the Thesaurus has been published. [372]

At the ninth meeting of the Group, in 1977, it was decided to start a printed version of SCIMP on a subscription basis in 1978 and make it available on-line at the same time, while the former distribution of index cards between indexing libraries would be discontinued. Since the SCAMP database was already in the library of Helsingin Kauppakorkeakoulu, it was decided to start the SCIMP database in Helsinki as well, for economic reasons. SCIMP thus became available on-line through the library of Helsingin Kauppakorkeakoulu from 1978. On long-term development the report of that meeting reads:

In the long term we feel that some co-operation between SCIMP and larger commercial databases and services will be desirable, but that before trying to co-operate with any other existing information service the Group needs to have a viable, commercially successful service, in order to bargain from strength, and to be able to continue to provide the service wanted by members even if co-operation proves impossible. [...] We are convinced, however, that the European business schools have an information need which is not being filled by existing services, and that the Group should retain sufficient control over the future of SCIMP to ensure that it meets that need. [373]

The procedure of SCIMP practice - that has not changed since the start in 1978 - is as follows: indexing libraries produce entries on work sheets where five different fields are recognised: (a) subject code and language, (b) subject index terms to be taken from the Thesaurus, (c) author(s) of the article, (d) title of the article and (e) journal reference. Company names were added afterwards as index entries, put in the title field, if applicable.

Indexing libraries, then, send their work sheets to the library of the Erasmus University Rotterdam (formerly:
In 1985 sixteen libraries were co-operating in SCIMP, while five more libraries expressed their wish in the same year to join the indexing. The sixteen indexing libraries are situated in these countries: Denmark (1), Finland (1), France (1), Ireland (1), the Netherlands (1), Norway (1), Sweden (1), Switzerland (1) and the United Kingdom (5).

In 1985 160 journals were allocated to SCIMP, adding 6,827 new entries to the database and making up a total of 49,948 by the end of 1985. This means that 49,948 journal articles have been indexed in the period 1978-1985. For 1986 165 journals are allocated of which 58 from the original 81 in 1975. The majority of articles indexed is written in the English (or American) language. In addition however articles in the French and German languages have been included, while in 1982 two Dutch journals and two Spanish journals have been added. For Italian journals no indexer had yet been found by the end of 1985.

The main policy decisions and other matters of interest are dealt with by the SCIMP Management Board that consists of representatives from all indexing libraries. The Management Board meets annually the day before the annual meeting of the Group starts and it reports to the whole Group at this annual meeting. In 1978 the SCIMP Management Board met the day preceding the general meeting for the first time, and afterwards its meetings have been held every year. Subjects the Management Board deals with every year include: computing, finance (in relation to the printed version as well as to SCIMP on-line), the number of subscriptions of both versions of SCIMP, journals proposed for addition and deletion for the next year, the thesaurus, the editor's report, and marketing. In addition to these themes SCIMP policy has often been dealt with as well as indexing principles and techniques and many other subjects that members put on the agenda of these meetings.

The SCIMP Executive Committee is formed by representatives from libraries that do not only index for SCIMP, but have accepted additional tasks as there are: allocation of journals, computerisation, distribution, editing, editing the Thesaurus, marketing, printing, and production. The members of the Executive Committee are used to meet twice a year at the London Business School Library to discuss matters that are important in relation to SCIMP. These meetings are held in the beginning of December in order to be able to change anything that turns out to be necessary for the year to come,
while the second meeting is held in Spring to prepare for the annual meeting of the Management Board.

In the Autumn of 1980 Newman, who made a study on SCIMP considered:

Although SCIMP is now in the market in competition with other larger and longer established secondary services such as Business Periodicals Index and the Anbar publications, perhaps the most admirable aspect of its protection is the degree of co-operation which goes on between the indexing libraries, between the editor at the Interuniversitair Instituut BedrijfsKunde in Delft, the computer staff at Helsinki School of Economics, Manchester Business School where SCIMP is printed and where subscriptions are handled, London Business School where the Thesaurus is edited and finally Executive Committee members whose responsibility it is to manage the whole operation. [375]

In 1980 it has been considered to deal with a commercial publisher; this was rejected for the time being, because:
- the number of subscriptions to the printed version was relatively small (about 160, which has hardly changed in the next five years),
- indexers would lose some of their freedom,
- SCIMP might become more expensive to subscribers,
- the time between the publication of an article and its appearance in SCIMP could become longer,
- the work of the indexers and particularly of the members of the Executive Committee would hardly be reduced, since the responsibility for the quality of SCIMP would remain with the indexers.

Yet it was recognized that a commercial publisher would have to be dealt with, if the number of subscriptions would grow too much.

To finish the description of SCIMP a general policy statement may add some useful information. It was produced June 1980 and the Management Board of SCIMP has agreed with it:

(a) SCIMP is essentially an index which reflects a European use of the management literature published in English, French and German. It indexes many journals in the management field which are not covered by the large American indexing publications or by the European economic abstracting journals. It therefore fills a gap, it is up to date and cheap compared with similar publications.

(b) Articles are selected and indexed by experienced librarians from European Business Schools and the subscribers to SCIMP are business schools, academic institutions, public libraries and business organizations. Experience in our libraries shows that SCIMP is very well used.
(c) The articles are well selected from the most important journals and SCIMP is the only index produced completely on an international basis.

(d) The thesaurus is the best available in the management field and is regularly updated.

(e) SCIMP depends on the goodwill and hard work of librarians from our business schools and it has been organised, run and developed internationally. We firmly believe that we have started a service which will develop and flourish in the future as on-line bibliographic searching becomes increasingly important. One of our members described SCIMP as a miracle of cooperation!

(f) We recognise that we will need a commercial publisher for SCIMP in the future. [376]

BENEFITS OF GROUP MEMBERSHIP.

Being a member of the European Business School Librarians' Group is important to most members of this Group. Benefits of Group membership that have been recognised by the librarians of the libraries under study include:

- It is useful to meet in order to keep abreast of recent developments in library provision of this particular kind of libraries.
- The possibility to exchange ideas and experiences might eventually improve the services of the library.
- It can sometimes be comforting to see that other libraries face the same problems as your own library.
- Given the similarities between libraries that are members of the Group, there is a possibility to solve problems that others may have solved already, or that can be solved by co-operating together.
- Co-operation with colleagues enables business school librarians to do things they would not have been able to do on their own.
- It is sometimes useful to undertake an activity on behalf of the Group that one would not have undertaken otherwise.

About the benefits of the Group Oort observes:

When any of us is asked what the benefits of the European Business School Librarians' Group are, we will speak in terms of mutual interests, exchange of ideas, cooperation by means of joint projects, etc. Our meetings yield much profit, because we know each other, discussions can start naturally in a relaxed atmosphere without preliminary shyness which often hinders the start of meetings, and anyone new to the Group will be adopted almost immediately.

Like in any group, we do not always agree with each
other, sometimes there is some tension as well, and
because of different cultural backgrounds
misunderstandings occur. This is of minor importance
however, particularly since we all want to cooperate, to
become informed for the benefit of our own libraries.
There also is curiosity, we keep wondering about the
fact that much information to be found in our own
libraries, can also be found in other libraries, in a
different environment, even if the language spoken in
that library is different from our own. [377]

As far as SCIMP is observed it is of course a benefit to
provide an indexing service that is produced in joint
co-operation, to readers of the library; no library would be
able to produce such an index on its own. The main benefit
however is not the result, but the motivation making it
possible to undertake such a large project and maintain it
through the years. One librarian has called SCIMP a
challenge! Motivation is very high, not in the least because
there still is a kind of astonishment that this international
co-operation is not only possible, but turns out to work
effectively through the years.
Apart from the information obtained or the contacts that can
be maintained, the meetings are also useful because librarians are enabled to think about their own work from a
distance.
Finally some librarians feel that being active in an
international co-operation with similar libraries gives an
additional value to the libraries included in the Group.

National groups of business school libraries.
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It has been shown above that business school libraries
cooparate actively in the European Business School
Librarians' Group. It seems more natural and certainly easier
to form national groups of business school libraries. And
indeed the Scandinavian Group of libraries of business and
economics started before the European Group was established
in 1970. The British Group however was only established in
the mid-seventies. In France co-operation among French
business school libraries did exist before the establishment
of the European Group, but the French Group was not formally
established before the mid-seventies. Co-operation of Italian
libraries in the management field was never very active. It
seems that mainly due to the success of the international
group, national groups have been established, or become more
active.

Scandinavia has been considered here as a national group,
even if more countries are included. There are several
reasons why these countries have formed one group that can be
compared with national groups:
- They are situated on the Northern edge of Europe.
- They have parts of their histories in common.
- There are small differences in language between them.
- There is a cultural affinity between them.
- They have certain political links.

The different national groups that have been established between business school libraries will be dealt with separately; since there is no direct contact between them other than through the European Business School Librarians' Group, there seems no need to discuss them together. Yet some differences in performance must be considered in order to put them right.

The four national groups of business school libraries that have been established, show some essential differences as far as their main characteristics are concerned:

- The Scandinavian Group mainly deals with joint projects. The libraries involved are large in relation to European business schools in other countries and all these libraries deal with economics and business administration. Consequently their staffs are larger, which makes it easier to join projects.

- The British Group is very similar to the European Group; its size is similar: 25 to 30 members; many papers are presented at meetings, a lot of information is transferred and there are a few on-going joint projects. From the meetings of the British Group is reported to the European Group and conversely, but the two groups perform independently: there are only a few librarians who are members of both groups.

- The French Group consists of the French members of the European Group, including members from other French speaking countries from 1984, making a total of eight members. This Group discusses matters concerning the European Group and projects of the European Group, like SCIMP, in addition to other subjects of interest to all members. Furthermore some joint projects are undertaken or existing projects joined.

- The Italian Group consists of librarians who know each other and come together now and then trying to undertake something together as a result of co-operative effort. This turns out to be very difficult.

SCANDINAVIAN GROUP.

In 1975 the librarian of the Norges Handelshøyskole reported:

For a long time there has been a practical co-operation between Scandinavian Libraries of Economics and Business Administration. A more active co-operation was started three years ago and regular annual meetings were started. In addition to minor questions some general
projects have been discussed and started as a consequence of these meetings. [379]

The main co-operation between these libraries exists by means of joint projects. For the financing of these projects it is possible to make use of Nordinfo, the supreme body on Nordic research libraries, scientific information and documentation. It provides financial support to projects for the planning and for making a start.

The main joint projects of the Scandinavian schools of economics and business administration include:

SCAMP, Scandinavian Periodicals Index in Economics and Business, a co-operative indexing project that was started about 1965 between schools of economics and business administration in Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden to supplement to the international abstracting and indexing publications for Scandinavian articles in economics and management. Each library indexed journals published in its own country and exchanged index cards produced. In 1977 this project was computerised and the indexing libraries then started to send their indexing in machine-readable form to the library of Helsingin Kauppakorkeakoulu, which produces the quarterly published index with annual cumulations, that has been made available on a subscription basis. From 1978 SCAMP is also available on-line through Scannet (an inter-Scandinavian data network) and afterwards became available through Euronet. The relations between SCAMP and SCIMP have been discussed above.

LIST ECON is a union list of periodicals available in Scandinavian schools of economics and business administration. It is produced and published by the library of the Handelshogskolan i Stockholm. The 1976 edition included some 3,500 periodical titles. In 1982 a new edition has been produced and the information has also been put into NOSP, Nordinfo's Periodicals' Database.

LIST BET is a Scandinavian current contents service of journals in management and economics. It is produced and published 20 times a year by the library of the MORGAS Handelshoyjkulu and available on a subscription basis.

The UDC PROJECT aims at developing of a common Nordic UDC thesaurus of business economics for which a grant from Nordinfo has been received in 1982 by the library of the Handelshogskolen i Aarhus, that co-ordinates the project. At the fifteenth meeting of the European Business School Librarians' Group in 1982 was reported:

The project aims at a Scandinavian UDC classification within business economics which can be admitted into each library and used in a common data base as i.e. Bild. Furthermore, the project is to create a possibility for the Finnish libraries of the schools of economics and business administration of entering the
Nordic UDC-collaboration which necessitates that the Danish subject headings are translated into English in order to avoid any problem of interpretation. [379]

The aim is to publish an alphabetical and systematic UDC-thesaurus covering the fields of business economics and administration, especially adopted to the Nordic countries.

In 1977 Ruokonen published the results of a survey of economic and business libraries in Scandinavia, which she introduced as follows:

The International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions' (IFLA) sub-section of the Social Science Libraries is promoting a special directory series which will cover economic and business libraries in different countries or areas of the world. As a part of this large publication project the Directory of Economic Libraries in Scandinavia was published in 1976 [380]. It is designed to be a handy, small guide for librarians and other persons in need of economic and business information indicating suitable institutions in the Scandinavian countries, Finland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden, but not Iceland.

The following study is based on the results of this survey with some additional information, and gives a general, overall view of the economic and business libraries in the Nordic countries. [381]

BRITISH GROUP.

In January 1975 an informal meeting of British business school librarians was organised at the London Business School. At this meeting - attended by 17 librarians - different papers were presented as well as brief reports on recent developments by different librarians. In order to decide whether it could be useful to form a group, it was considered:

We are, as a group, divided equally between those libraries which operate in independent institutions and those which operate as departments of their university libraries. The operating differences which we have are not so broad that they will debar us from finding plenty to talk about that is common to all of us. For example, our users are all much the same kinds of people; we have a common subject coverage with some specializations here and there; our methods of service to our users are much the same; our libraries are used at different levels of intensity by the members of the different courses which we serve. [382]
At the end of the meeting this first decision was agreed on:

Today's meeting had been a successful and valuable one and it was evident that, although our libraries did not form a fully homogeneous group, we had many common interests and problems which were worth sharing. We should therefore form ourselves into an informal group with the object of exchanging ideas, holding discussions and promoting informal contact between our libraries. [383]

In one of the other decisions that were agreed on it was emphasised that the Group should be informal with a minimum of administration and should model its structure on the European Group. This British Business School Librarians' Group has met twice annually since at different locations. The number of its members has grown to 25 to 30; in 1979 a membership ceiling of 35 was agreed on.

At the third meeting, March 1976, it was suggested to produce a LIST OF UK THESIS AND DISSERTATIONS which was jointly produced by all members of the Group and compiled by the librarian of from Bradford Management Centre. Afterwards this List has become an annual publication of the Group under the title: Selected List of U.K. Theses and Dissertations in Management Studies, for the time being produced by the librarian of Coventry (Lancaster) Polytechnic.

At the seventh meeting, March 1978, the idea was put forward:

that members of the group should compile a guide to the different courses being offered and the type of research being done, which would be both up to date and fairly cheap. [394]

As a result of this the directory POST-EXPERIENCE COURSES IN MANAGEMENT was published by the Group in 1979. This first edition included only courses from British business schools; in newer editions other European schools have been included. From 1981 the publication has been in the hands of a commercial publisher. The introduction to the fourth edition reads among other things:

Post Experience Courses in Management is a practical guide for training officers and for anyone with an interest in management education. It gives full details of short courses provided by centres of management training both in the U.K. and Europe. A 'Short Course' is defined for the purpose of this directory as any full-time course lasting from one week to three months. [385]

It is a successful publication produced annually in which members of the British Group participate.
In addition to these two main joint projects of the British Group, members have contributed to a MANAGEMENT TRAINING DIRECTORY and Kirtley from the library of Lancaster University has produced a DIRECTORY OF SPECIALISED CENTRES, of which was reported to the European Group in 1981:

This is a very useful listing of specialised research units which tend to be hidden within larger institutions. [386]

In addition to these joint projects a tape/slide Guide to a Management Library must be mentioned that was produced jointly by the libraries of the Polytechnic of Central London and the University of Warwick in 1979 for use in business school libraries. It has been made available to other libraries. The librarians who actually produced it said that it should be usable in most management libraries without adaptation.

Prestel must be mentioned as a subject raised at many meetings of the British Group when librarians reported from their experiences with the system.

Finally a small article on this Group can be referred to that was published in 1979, providing a clear and useful information on the Group. [387]

**FRENCH GROUP.**

In the English version of a report of the meeting of the French Group of European business schools librarians, held 22nd and 23rd November 1979 is written:

> Although they were used to work closely together in the past in an informal way, this meeting is the first formal session of the French group of European business schools librarians. [388]

At this meeting five French member-institutions of the European Group were represented and this report was prepared for the twelfth meeting of the European Group in 1980. Co-operation between the French members of the European Group had been mentioned before however, it mainly consisted of an exchange of books, photocopies of journal-articles, bibliographies of research papers and doctoral theses, but the scanning of periodicals had also taken place, even before the European Group had been established.

The first joint project of the French Group was a union list of periodicals. The first edition of this CATALOGUE COLLECTIF DES PERIODIQUES was published in 1978. The third edition was published in 1982 in two parts and included some 5,000 titles held by five libraries.
Another joint and ongoing project is the production of a JOINT BIBLIOGRAPHY for which the Group selects a topic every year. These topics have been:
1981: Gestion hoteliere.
1982: Gestion hospitaliere.
1983: Circles de qualite.
1984: Robotique.
1985: Venture capital.
These bibliographies turn out to be very helpful to assist to the information provision of French business school libraries, where people are not only helped to help themselves, but where bibliographies may sometimes be requested by members of the academic staff. By producing bibliographies on topics that are known to be of interest in joint co-operation, these requests can sometimes be anticipated, while the labour to produce them is shared. Besides these bibliographies are made available to other libraries as well.

In 1980 a bibliographical data bank was started in France called Documentation Automatisée en Gestion des Entreprises (DOGE) in which several members of the French Group participate. It aims at listing grey literature on management and has proved to be very useful; it is publicly available as a bibliographic journal since 1981. A small, but very useful service by members of this Group to each other is the exchange of second copies of periodicals and summaries of magazines.

In 1984 the Group was renamed into Francophone Group when French-speaking members from the European Group from outside France joined the Group, making a total of eight members.

ITALIAN GROUP.

In 1979 librarian of the Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale reported:

The ASFOR (Association of Management Training Institutes) that consists of 18 institutes is carrying out five projects; these include:
- Diffusion of information on business school courses and archives.
- Library: union list of periodicals and classification of books and articles.
- Audio-visual aids.
- Italian case clearing house.
- Current research and projected research.

It is not easy to carry out these projects because:
1) Not all the institutes take part in the work or send members to the meetings.
2) Not all the institutes have a librarian who works full time in documentation and can.
a) follow the work methodically and with continuity,
b) give standardised working instructions to people working in the institutes and bring out regularly at least the list of periodicals and the list of the new accessions,
c) make the staff and the students aware of the problems of documentation so that it will be an instrument useful to and answering to the needs of both.

It has been very difficult to make the members of the ASFOR work homogeneously which is the premise of every collaboration. [389]

Yet a Union List of Periodicals including 751 titles held by ten libraries could be produced in 1978 and in relation to the other subjects mentioned above there has been a lot of planning but unfortunately only a few small results. One of the other results that has been attained is the exchange of library publications between ASFOR-members. Italian business school libraries do provide many kinds of services to staff and students, but co-operation in joint projects or other activities turns out to be difficult.
CHAPTER 3

FUTURE POLICY OF BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

In the first chapter of this study, organizational innovation has been dealt with (p. 5761), considering that organizations have to face change in order to survive over time. In relation to this the term innovation was introduced indicating that change may include the introduction of new ideas to the organizational process. Drucker formulates innovation as:

the effort to create purposeful, focused change in an enterprise's economic or social potential. [390]

Innovation is not synonymous with change; a distinction need be made between the two. Zaltman, Duncan and Holbek note about this:

Innovation is any idea, practice, or material artifact perceived to be new by the relevant unit of adoption. The innovation then, is the change object. Change, on the other hand, is the alteration in the structure and functioning of a social system. All innovations imply change. Not all change involves innovation; since not everything an organization adopts is perceived as new. [391]

Innovation does not just happen, it is planned change, as a specific function of entrepreneurship, an activity that will start as the result of a process of thinking, leading to something new that is thought to become an improvement in the performance of the organization. All organizations need innovative thinking for survival, not only business organizations facing competition, but also non-profit organizations like service institutions. Jones observes:

All organizations are subject to continuous change. There are only differences of degree between (a) change which is managerially planned and organization wide; (b) innovations introduced by management more or less expeditiously and in specific areas; and (c) small 'coping' changes in work methods accommodated within the informal system which, combined perhaps with shifts in attitudes, may cumulate and combine into a situation which is a problem for some, and a need or an opportunity for others. [392]
Whatever the degree of change however, action will only be taken when a need is felt to do so. Even in the ideal organization, where every department performs an ultimate potential in the best cooperation with other departments possible and where any element of the environment that may be important is taken into account, there still will be change, because the environment changes and the organization has to adapt to it, which demands action. Zaltman, Duncan and Holbek consider:

The impetus to innovation arises when organizational decision makers perceive that the organization's present course of action is unsatisfactory. When a discrepancy exists between what the organization is doing and what its decision makers believe it ought to be doing, there is a performance gap. [393] This performance gap increases the search for alternative courses of action. Thus performance gaps provide a stimulus for innovation. [394]

This performance gap then, must not be viewed as an exception to the rule that normally no discrepancy as indicated should exist. The performance gap can be considered as permanent; there will be a kind of performance gap all the time, but it will never be the same. Change should be a part of the organizational process. In relation to this Damanpour and Evan note:

Organizations strive to maintain or improve their level of performance. To accomplish this goal, they introduce changes in their structure and processes. These changes can be the direct result of managerial choice (planned change) or can be imposed by external conditions. Regardless of the origin of forces including organizational change, innovations are a means of creating changes to ensure adaptive behavior. [395]

Damanpour and Evan recognize two kinds of innovations of which they think that the two should supplement each other: technical innovations and administrative innovations, while additionally there are very often social consequences. In an acquisition department in a library is considered where a computer will be introduced for the ordering of books, it is obvious that the administrative system needs adaptation to the new system, while the acquisition staff must be trained in order to be able to deal efficiently and effectively with the new system. Damanpour and Evan then discuss libraries in relation to innovations. They realize:

The sequence in which innovations are introduced in the social and technical systems of an organization can also be affected by the type of organization. Libraries are historically relatively stable in their technology. They are not normal: the originator of innovations based on technology, but rather are the users of innovations that are originally developed in other industries. [396]
For a very long time there was no need for libraries to consider innovation, since survival was not at the stake. Readers knew what they could expect in libraries in relation to collections and services. The environment did not have a main impact on library performance. Drake observes:

Until recently, librarians have had the luxury of living in a relatively certain and risk-free environment. An innovative environment calls for new skills in risk assessment, ability to understand uncertainty, and ability to manage increased entrepreneurial activity.

Society has been changing rapidly the last few decades, thus creating innovative environments where libraries have to survive among other service organisations. There is another, important consideration however. In a now famous article written less than a decade ago, Bell considers:

A post-industrial society is basically an information society. Exchange of information in terms of various kinds of data processing, record keeping, market research and so forth is the foundation for most economic exchanges. Data-transmission systems are the transforming resource of the society, just as in an industrial society, created energy - electricity, oil, nuclear power - is the transmuting element, and natural power - wind, water, brute force - is the transforming resource of the pre-industrial society. The strategic resource of the post-industrial society becomes theoretical knowledge, just as the strategic resource of an industrial society is money; capital, and the strategic resource of a pre-industrial society is raw materials. Thus, just as capital and labour frame the problems of an industrial society, so information and knowledge frame the problems of post-industrial society.

This leads to the conception of the information society, about which there is much talk, even if it hardly has started yet and there is also a lot of confusion, since many definitions exist for the word information, originating from different academic disciplines. The stability of the libraries of the past has gone and librarians are facing uncertainty in relation to their future. In a paper presented at the 52nd AcLib annual conference, September 1978, Kent stated:

Until we have produced a realistic and informative model of the information society, it will not be possible to assess whether a particular policy will add to, or subtract from, the overall effectiveness of information management.

Dealing with document delivery, Line recognizes the same uncertainty:
The immediate future will be more or less a continuation of the present, with no easy or cheap solutions to the economic problems facing libraries: they will not be able to afford to buy, or obtain from elsewhere, so many documents as they have done in the past, and their users will not do much to help them out.

In the medium term, the situation will be confused and confusing. It looks as if there will be a mix of supply from conventional documents, as now, and supply from master copies on demand, the latter on terms set largely by the publishers, but ultimately by the market. The two kinds of supply can and should be accessible through the same channel or channels. [400]

Uncertainty can also be found in information centres of business organizations. Dealing with the future of information services for business Scarfe considers:

Information workers must face the fact that their future, and that of the services they provide, is uncertain: their work is often seen by their employers as peripheral to the central interests of the organization, contributing little to its competitive and productive effort. [401]

In response to the uncertainty that librarians and information managers have to face, they must act in order to survive. And if they put a claim on being providers of information, they should be proactive and adopt innovation as a means to develop their services. As far as academic libraries are concerned, activities should obviously be related to the education that is provided by the school or university; and to the research that is undertaken, as far as this research is known, Webster considers:

Libraries must be responsive to changes in the environment of higher education, if they are to remain the focal point for the collection and exchange of information in the academic community. Changes in the nature and objectives of higher education, the technology of instruction and research, and the information needs of users present librarians with demands for different and improved organizational performance. In dealing with frequently competing pressures and events, the managers of academic libraries need to prepare their libraries to deal with present conditions and to plan for future needs. [402]

In addition to this Drake adds an important element:

There is not nor should there be uniformity among academic libraries. Each library should be encouraged to recognize the important factors and the unique elements within its own institutional setting. A 'me too' approach should be used only when it is compatible with the goals and operations of the library. [403]
A complicating factor in relation to the future prospects of libraries that must be mentioned here for completion is that library science as a science has not yet been fully accepted. Roberts argues:

On the one hand librarianship can remain close to what it has always been - a practical art with a rather limited scope for formal intellectual endeavour about itself and its activities. On the other hand librarianship could become what it has tried without great success to become over the last twenty or so years - a scientific and intellectually prestigious discipline allied to some of the most basic disciplines in the whole of the sciences, those dealing with communication, information and human activity. (104)

The main problem here is again uncertainty, since uncertainty in library research will have a main impact on library performance in the future. If no developments take place as a result of theoretical evidence, this will eventually lead to a standstill in library theory with negative effects on library performance after some time. Roberts considers:

In the research sector of librarianship there is a higher degree of uncertainty than that found in many of the more established research fields in the social sciences. The uncertainty comprises a lack of professional confidence about roles and intellectual doubts. This uncertainty is bound to affect the researchers who are in the long run concerned with a rationale for their activities. The need to determine and clarify a rationale under circumstances of ingrained professional pragmatism and general uncertainty is urgent and is sufficient to inhibit the development of the crucial mediating function that research should have between theory (at whatever stage of development) and practice. (105)

The combination of all these factors in relation to innovation means that library innovation is very complicated, as so many subjects have to be taken into consideration. At the same time it is badly needed in order that librarians survive over time by providing their services, of which it is felt that it fills a gap and will be needed in the future. The handling of enquiries might be recognised in the end as a main service for which human resources will always be needed.

Innovation should also mean that situations will be looked at from different points of view in order that the best decisions can be taken. Drucker provides an interesting example of this:

'The glass is half-full' and 'the glass is half-empty' are descriptions of the same phenomenon but have vastly different meanings. Changing a manager's perception of a
glass from half-full to half-empty; opens up big innovation opportunities. [106]

To finish the discussion of library innovation, Drake can be quoted again, who summarises:

Innovation is purposeful economic and social change. If libraries are to continue their important contribution to the instructional and research missions of academic institutions, a climate conducive to change and generation of new ideas must be created. Library administrators must view innovation seriously; and provide follow-through to develop ideas into innovations that can be integrated into library operations. Librarianship may be the fastest-changing and most exciting profession today. The potential to improve information service through technology is largely unrealized. Transforming potential into reality will require capital, innovation, perseverance, and leadership. [107]

Business school libraries: planning and forecasting.

After the need for libraries to innovate has been recognised, it is important to know how libraries are actually viewing their own future. Theory and practice always have to supplement each other and together they will provide a complete picture. Given all developments of the last few decades in relation to theory as well as to practice, this supplementation is even more important today. In the words of Sherl:

Practice identifies areas where research is needed, research shapes and otherwise influences practice. The assumptions and ad hoc methods of the older librarianship will no longer suffice in today's complicated world of recorded knowledge. [108]

Consequently, modern library performance must be very seriously considered for possible changes, whereas the fast changes of society at large must be taken into account. Moreover the fast developments of new technology and its implications on library performance may certainly not be overlooked, since they have had and still have a main impact on library performance. Given the developments in society, it is obvious that higher education had to face many changes as well in the recent past, as society strongly influences the education of the country. Since business school libraries are serving institutions of higher education, these changes must also be taken into consideration by them. Marshall observes about librarians of institutions of higher education:
As librarians look at some of the problems confronting higher education, there must continue to be strong desires to provide innovative ideas on how their services can contribute to the vitality in education that society seems to be demanding. This means more than complaining about the lack of library usage by faculty and students. It means that librarians must become involved with the long-range planning process in order to help determine the direction of policies and planning for their institutions.

Many business school libraries in Western Europe have been established independently from each other in the mid-sixties, because the need for establishment of business schools, and in addition their libraries, was felt in different European countries almost at the same instant. Many of the older business school libraries that had been in existence for a shorter or longer period already, have shown a rapid development at the same time, obviously in combination with similar developments of their schools. Generally speaking business school libraries are well recognized within their institutions now after some twenty years. They have reached a stable position within their schools if no dramatic changes took place, like with the library of the Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde that has been merged with the University Library of Erasmus University, Rotterdam in the Autumn of 1984 (see p. 163).

The business school librarians of the libraries under study generally feel that their libraries and the services they supply are very well recognized within their schools, but at the same time they realize that they have to work hard in order to maintain that position.

Another consideration in relation to future planning is that planning very much depends on the future of the schools and for some libraries may even depend on how the schools expect their libraries to function. This dependence on their task environments is not the same for all business school libraries; however, the more dependent a library is, the less possibilities its librarian has to influence any future planning of the library.

As an example of an external factor that has had a major impact on library policy, the start of part-time programmes at the London Business School can be mentioned, leading to a new kind of readers that could be recognized in the library. Consequently the library had to respond to new needs to be met like a wish to extend the opening hours to late evenings, since these new readers could not consult the library at normal office hours.

Another influence of a development of the school on its library might be seen at the Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School. If the numbers of students on the programmes of distance learning will extend to a large amount, it may well be that the Business Information Centre
will have to consider to provide a kind of service to these students different from its present services, that may then have a main impact on library policy and library performance. It could perhaps lead to a consideration of lending with many consequences, of which the relation with the Andersonian Library will certainly become a main consideration.

The development of new technology in libraries will certainly have a main impact on the future policy of business school libraries. In relation to this a few different developments can be recognized:

1) The on-line searching of literature will be extended and more libraries will start this kind of service in the near future.
2) Computers will be incorporated in the production of library publications as is already the case with those of the Manchester Business School Library for instance.
3) The use of computers in library administrations will be increased. As an example of this the administration of periodicals of the library of the Norges Handelshøyskole can be mentioned, which is fully automated.
4) Readers will obtain more and more information by means of services like Prestel in the United Kingdom. This kind of service is particularly important as far as factual information is concerned.
5) In the years to come the development and use of on-line library catalogues will certainly increase.

As a result of these prospects library staff and readers must become accustomed to the use of different aspects of information technology. The developments in this area seem to become faster and faster and only by keeping abreast of recent developments it will be possible not to lose contact with the services that are demanded by the world of today. Business school librarians have very well recognized the importance of all this and are actively preparing to start new services or extend existing services as far as their budgets will permit them. The main development is that they have recognized given possibilities by introducing new technology in their libraries. Even those libraries that have not yet started to make use of new technological developments, are prepared to make a good start the moment this will become possible.

Physical extension of a library will always have a main impact on library performance, while the policy of the library may even change. Some business school libraries are planning for physical extension like the Main Library of the University College Dublin, where phase two of the library building was under construction in 1985. For other libraries, like that of the International Management Institute physical extension is not yet planned, but is badly needed. There are other means of extension however. The library of the Handelshøyskolen i Aarhus has opened a department in the centre of Aarhus in 1985 in order that a group of students is
served to whom it is much more convenient if the library is close to where they attend their lectures.

These are just a few examples of a main influence on library performance by extension of the space that is available, or by making a different planning.

When business school librarians are enquired about their future planning, they start to speak in terms of flexibility, responding to readers' needs and accordingly try to find out what these needs are, etc. This shows a proactive approach that is needed to provide and maintain good services. Services are bound to change over the years, since needs are changing. These changing needs on their turn result from changes in education which come from changes in society at large. This leads to what this chapter started with: innovation.

The limits to every extension in services are set by the limits that can be recognised with the three main resources as there are: budget, staff and space. Only if an extension of all three can be realised, it will be possible to realise real extensions. This has been recognised by the librarians of the libraries under study. When asked what they are planning for the near future, they have only mentioned small improvements they hoped could be made. Due to limited resources the main thing for a business school librarian today is to maintain the services that have been built up through the years and to keep the position within the organisation that is presently held. By keeping abreast of recent developments and recognising the needs of readers, forecasting may lead to positive results.

In general it can be stated that business school libraries have been firmly established in Western Europe, and that they show a flexible approach to performance with some proactive elements. In future they will most likely be continuing to provide the kind of services they have been providing all the time with a policy that includes possibilities to change. As a result of the evidence of this policy, different services have been changed through the years indeed.

A good library policy does not need any change and it can be stated that a policy directed at adapting to changing circumstances by responding to changes of the task environment, is a good policy. Even when it is not envisaged that the library policy of most business school libraries will drastically change in the near future however, a general change in library policy can be recognized indeed and business school libraries will not be excluded from this development. The change to a more proactive approach has been mentioned already. A shift from a traditional library aiming at building a collection to a more active approach of taking into account readers' needs is inevitable. In relation to this Webster notes:

What may be needed is a willingness to question tradition, confront unrealistic attitudes, and redefine
the purpose of the research library. It is not a matter of saying that past library performance was inadequate, but rather that the situation has changed and what was rational and achievable in the past may not be now. An important leadership task will be to influence libraries' constituencies to accept and deal with the same realities. [410]

Even if business school libraries perform less traditional than many other academic libraries, they will be influenced by this general change and accordingly will have to adapt to it when necessary.

The uncertainty business school libraries have to face is not internal, but external. Influences from outside the library are not always predictable and changes do take place to which the library must respond adequately. If then there is enough flexibility to do this, the internal organisation of the library will show very healthy. All planning must be seen as a result of this evidence. This is not remarkable as such; the most remarkable fact is that business school libraries in different countries are so very similar in their performances, that their planning for the future hardly shows differences between them. This is the more remarkable, as libraries of different sizes and in different cultural and social environments are considered here.

Finally, through planning for future action, some synergic elements may be developed where librarians aim at stimulation of reciprocal effects between readers, documents and themselves. However small these attempts may be, they may become a development into the direction of the ideal business school library. It is not only reader satisfaction that will be the aim then, but the influence readers may have on the services that on their turn, may influence the readers again.

Future prospects of library co-operation.

Libraries do not perform on an island relying only on their own resources; with the provision of services it has long been realised that libraries can help each other and it can be observed that libraries generally do not feel any compatibility, even if their parent organisations are compatible to each other, like with business schools, particularly those in the same country. Libraries do co-operate together and if the future of library co-operation will be considered, this must be developed from present co-operations, that are very useful as far as business school libraries are concerned. It can be mentioned that local co-operation is likely to be continued, but changes that effect library policy in this respect are not forecasted. In relation to other forms of library co-operation sweeping changes in the near future are not foreseen either, since
Library policy is not expected to change very much as has been shown above. The co-operation between libraries obviously is included in the policy of these libraries. Library co-operation thus will be continued at different levels and will be needed as it has been for a long time already. Webster observes:

Useful comparative data on the characteristics and performance of other, similar libraries can assist in projecting future plans. [411]

The future of the co-operation within the European Business School Librarians' Group should be considered in this respect. In general the members of this Group feel that the present policy of the Group should be maintained. For some years already many members of the Group feel that new joint projects should be started. It is rightfully thought that the best way to profit from library co-operation is by undertaking a joint project that could not be undertaken by one single library on its own, providing it is useful. The joint projects that have been undertaken through the years have been the main strengths of the Group. Yet it is remarkable that if many members feel that new joint projects would be welcomed, no one has been suggesting such a new project in the last few years.

In relation to the future it is also felt important that business school libraries keep abreast of each other's activities. New developments in one library may be useful to introduce in another as well and therefore it is important to know what other libraries do.

A third important element in relation to the future of European business school library co-operation is that the co-operation should remain practical. Some business school librarians have expressed their feeling that a continuation of useful co-operation of business school librarians is only possible when they do not only speak to each other, but also do something together by active co-operation. Some others feel that members of this Group should be excluded when they are no longer active within the Group. In relation to this Oort considers:

The future of the Group lies in the hands of individuals. Although membership is institutional, it all depends on persons. We have seen that librarians left their jobs with the result that the library did not take part anymore in our activities. My conclusion is: membership should be based on participation; for our own benefit, allright, but also to show what Business School Librarians do, not as a pressure group, but as a group of experienced and active librarians, working for the benefits of their own readers by means of international cooperation. An example also for the library profession, for the improvement of our professional image. [412]
Like in every group, there are some members who are more actively involved in joint projects and take a more active part in meetings, than others. To a certain limit, this is acceptable, but members should be encouraged on a permanent basis to contribute to the Group, otherwise the number of active participants in this small Group would become too small and since the Group can be considered as a working group, it would then lose its fundamentals. For that reason it has always been a policy of the Group that every member should be actively involved in discussions and joint projects. The percentage of time that is devoted to new technology at meetings is increasing. There is a danger that discussions will aim too much at this single subject; this should be avoided.

In general it can be ascertained that the future of business school library co-operation within the European Business School Librarians' Group will be a continuation of the kind of co-operation that has been experienced since the beginning of 1970 and which has proved to be very useful in different respects. This kind of co-operation with the inclusion of the activities in relation to the SCIMP-project, is unique in the library world. Given its success of over fifteen years of co-operation and the advantages that have been recognised by its members, there are reasons to be proud of what has been attained by this form of international co-operation.
APPENDIX

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THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

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A. THE INSTITUTION.

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1. GENERAL.

1) When was the School established and by whom?
2) Why was it established?
3) How was it established, are there similar schools in the country; where?
4) When did the educational programmes start, and what did they include?
5) Is the School a private or a public institution, or is it partly government sponsored?
6) What is the general objective of the School?
7) What is being done to fulfill this objective?

2. ORGANISATION.

8) How is the School organised, what is its structure?
9) Are the main managerial positions permanent, or a result of regular elections?
10) Who is taking policy decisions, and how can these be influenced?
11) What are the main responsibilities of those who hold managerial positions (director, dean, chairperson of a department, etc.)?
12) What can be seen as the general policy of the School?
13) Is there a democratic process of decision-making; how does it work?
14) How is the general budget divided?
3. EDUCATION.

15) Does the School provide postgraduate and/or undergraduate education, and what educational programmes are being provided in this respect?

16) Does the School provide post-experience education, what educational programmes are being provided in this respect?

17) Is there any additional education being provided, which?

18) Is there anything particular in relation to education or training worth mentioning?

19) What kind of research is being undertaken?

20) What are the numbers of teaching staff, research staff, undergraduates, postgraduates, and post-experience course participants?

B. THE LIBRARY.

1. HISTORY.

21) What has been the reason to establish a library within the School?

22) Was it established immediately after the foundation of the School, or later, and why?

23) When did the library start?

24) How did it start?

25) What services were originally provided, and how did it actually work?

26) What services have been built up since, and why?

2. GENERAL.

27) What are the objectives of the library?

28) What is the hierarchical position of the library within the organisation, to whom is the librarian responsible?
29) What is the status the library has obtained within the School, and how did it get this?

30) Is there a difference in view between the objectives as seen by the librarian, and those recognized by the management?

31) Does the librarian feel that the objectives as he/she sees them are taken into account by the management?

32) Is there a library committee, who are its members, and what are its duties and responsibilities?

33) Does the library have its own budget, and does it include personnel?

3. LOCATION AND ORGANISATION.

34) How is the library located within the organisation?

35) Does the library have locational problems, what are these?

36) Are there any main departments in the library easy to recognize: which?

37) Are all services to be recognised from a locational view?

38) Does the library have special collections, what collections?

39) What are the opening hours of the library, and what are the total numbers of: books, periodical subscriptions, readers' places, accessions for last year, loans for last year?

40) Is the library open to the public: why or why not?

41) How many staff are working in the library (actual number and full-time equivalent)?

42) How is the staff divided among the different services?

43) Does the library have functional specialists, how many, what are their specialisations?

44) Does the library have subject-specialists, in what subjects?

45) How can the staff be divided according to levels of actual work?
46) Are there members of staff being paid by external resources; by whom, and to what extent?

47) Does the library have external resources as an addition to the library budget, what resources?

48) What classification system is being used?

49) Is the librarian content with the classification system used?

4. POLICY.

50) What is the present policy of the library, how was this developed?

51) What flows of information can be recognized within the organization, and how does the library deal with them?

52) Is there a co-operation with the library in relation to the educational programmes, to what extent, and how?

53) Does the librarian, or other members of the library staff, provide education or training on the use of the library or something similar?

54) Is it known in the library what research is being undertaken, and what services are prepared to meet research needs?

55) What influences do the different services have on the general policy?

56) Does the library have obligations in relation to the national network of libraries; what does it include?

57) Does the librarian feel that the objectives of the library can be fulfilled?

C. EFFECTS ON LIBRARY POLICY.

1. ACQUISITIONS.

58) Who selects materials for acquisitions?

59) What criteria are being used for acquisitions?

60) Can readers make suggestions for acquisitions, and how will these suggestions be met?
61) How can the acquisitions be seen as part of the library's policy?

62) How is the budget divided among books, periodicals, etc.?

63) Are there separate budgets for special collections?

64) If there are no separate budgets for special collections, what percentage of the library's budget is being spent on these?

65) Does the library have additional income, where does it come from, and how is it being spent?

2. INDEXING.

66) What indexing is being done in the library apart from the main cataloguing?

67) Why is this indexing being done, and whom is it aimed at?

68) Why and when have these services been started?

69) How can they be seen as part of the library's policy?

70) How often are they being evaluated, what is being done with the results of those evaluations?

3. INFORMATION SYSTEMS.

71) What services are being provided in addition to the main and obvious services as a result of the policy, and how is this related?

72) Does the library have on-line facilities for literature searching, whom are these services provided to?

73) Do readers have to pay for on-line searches, are they being charged for the total costs?

74) What SDI-services are being provided and why?

75) Are there any services to individuals, what kind of services?

4. READER SERVICES.

76) What kind of enquiries are not dealt with, and why not?
77) Have any special locational arrangements been made to meet the needs of readers as a result of the policy?

78) What groups of readers does the library recognise?

79) Is there a distinction between the different groups of readers in relation to library services provided?

80) If there is a distinction between the different groups of readers, does it include a different general approach?

81) Are there limits to the number of books taken on loan, and why?

82) Are inter-library loan services open to all readers?

83) Are there other libraries in the neighbourhood to be used by your readers?

84) If the library has subject specialists or functional specialists, whom do they serve?

85) Does the library provide regular guided tours, to whom, what do these include?

86) Does the library have tape-slide presentations on the use of the library?

87) Does the library have a library guide; how often is it updated?

88) Does the library have other library publications to assist readers with their needs; what publications are these?

89) Does the library intend to produce new library publications shortly?

90) Is there any other general approach to readers?

91) How does the library deal with new readers?

92) How can the general or specific approach to readers be seen as a result of the library's policy?

5. USER EVALUATION.

93) How is user evaluation done in the library?

94) How does the library obtain information on user satisfaction or dissatisfaction?

95) Is it known what readers think of guided tours?
323

96) Is there a kind of evaluation on tape-slide presentations?

97) Is it known whether the library guide is clear to readers, whether they use this information, and what they think of it?

98) Is there any other general user evaluation?

99) What results can actually be seen from guided tours, tape-slide presentations, library guides, or from other general approaches to readers?

100) What does the librarian feel about these services?

101) How does the library deal with user criticism?

102) Is the library prepared to change services as a result of user evaluation, and to what extent?

103) How can user evaluation be seen as part of the library's policy?

D. SPECIAL CHARACTERISTICS.

104) How can the policy of the library be seen as part of the culture, traditions, way of life, etc. of the country?

105) Is there a kind of reader's approach in this respect distinguishing this library from those in other European countries?

106) What are the differences between this library and libraries of business schools in other countries?

107) Is it felt that readers are different from those of foreign business schools; what are these differences?

108) Does the library have foreign readers (visiting staff, visiting students, etc.), and in what way are they different from readers of your own country?

E. EUROPEAN BUSINESS SCHOOL LIBRARIANS' GROUP.

109) When did the library join the EBSLG.

110) What does the librarian think of the library's membership?
111) What are the advantages of this membership for the library?

112) What has been the most useful event, paper or service of the EBSLG for your own library?

113) Can the membership of the EBSLG be seen as part of the library's policy: how?

114) Does the policy of the EBSLG influence the library's policy: to what extent?

F. FUTURE POLICY.

115) Is it thought or known whether the library's policy will change in the near future, why will this happen and what will it include?

116) Will the library start new services or extend present services in the near future?

117) Is there any short-term or long-term planning?

118) Are there any objectives that cannot be fulfilled yet, but perhaps will be in future?

119) Will it be possible to strengthen the position of the library within the organisation in the near future?

120) Will the library reduce services with a continuing economic recession?

121) What will be the policy with a continuing economic recession?

122) What would the librarian want to do if it were possible?

123) How can co-operation within the EBSLG be improved?

124) How does the librarian think that other libraries can help improve the services of the library?

125) What would an ideal business school library look like?
SUMMARY.

An evaluative study of business school libraries in Western Europe need not go back into history very far, as the main development of European management education has taken place in the sixties of this century. Even this short history is hardly considered in this study; however, since present library performance is seen as much more important and history accordingly is only used as a means to understand the present and plan for the future. Business school libraries are academic libraries, but do not have long traditions, nor large collections that both are often put forward as the main pillars of academic libraries on which their reputations are built, while very proudly the catalogue is considered the centre of an academic library. In business school libraries reputations are built from relations with their task environments and with different kinds of readers, while an emphasis is put on the provision of services to these readers. In relation to this it must be observed that academic libraries generally are only recently developing from product-oriented to customer-oriented, thus making the importance of a collection subject to its use. To many university libraries this is a complete new approach that was not experienced before. Business school libraries however have never been product-oriented in general. Consequently their main objective is to provide their readers with the information they require, if possible, but not exclusively, in documentary form.

This study deals with the organisation and policy of twelve European business school libraries situated in eight countries. Libraries of the following institutions have been included:

- Centre d'Enseignement Supérieur des Affaires, Jouy-en-Josas, France.
  This Centre includes several different schools, related to different kinds of programmes. It can be considered as a kind of department of the Paris Chamber of Commerce and Industry. The different schools provide undergraduate, postgraduate and post-experience education and training. Its medium-sized library has developed different indexing services through the years. It has an external department on the campus where students can borrow books.

- Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales, Cergy, France.
  This school, now called Groupe ESSEC, comprises different schools according to educational programmes offered at undergraduate, postgraduate and post-experience levels. It is a kind of department of the Chamber of Commerce of Versailles. In its
medium-sized library many traditional services are being provided, but different documentary services have also been developed.

- Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus, Aarhus, Denmark.
Like similar schools in Scandinavian countries, this is a public school of economics and business where an emphasis is put on undergraduate education to which postgraduate programmes have been added. The library is rather large and very independent and is considered a main economic library in Denmark. In 1985 a department of the library was opened in the centre of the town. Little attention is given to actual information, but a main interest exists for the use of new technology.

- Henley, the Management College, Henley-on-Thames, United Kingdom.
This College is a private institution mainly providing post-experience education and training, now including distance learning programmes, while through co-operation with Brunel University postgraduate programmes have been developed. The small library is heavily involved with college life and very open to its readers.

- International Management Institute, Geneva, Switzerland.
This private Institute is very internationally oriented in the provision of a postgraduate programme to which post-experience courses have been added. Its library is small and the services aim at responding immediately to actual enquirers of readers. Since the library faces severe space problems, the collection must be developed very carefully and books that are not used anymore must be disposed of.

- Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde, Delft, the Netherlands.
This public Institution has been supervised by several Dutch universities, but enjoyed a complete independence. It has consisted of two schools, providing postgraduate education and post-experience training respectively. By the end of 1984 the Institute has closed down and merged with Erasmus University in Rotterdam, where the Rotterdam School of Management was established. In its medium-sized library different services have been built up through the years including a documentary service on behalf of the European Foundation for Management Development in Brussels. In the Autumn of 1984 the library has become a department of the University Library of Erasmus University.

This school has been established after the recommendations of Lord Franks. It is partly government-sponsored and independent, but attached to the University of London, providing postgraduate and post-experience education and training. Its medium-sized
library has developed extensive on-line searching services. Its Corporate Library is the largest in Western Europe. In addition to this a range of different services are offered to readers.

- Manchester Business School, Manchester, United Kingdom.
  Like the London Business School this school has been established after the recommendations of Lord Franks. It is partly government-sponsored and independent, but attached to the University of Manchester. Postgraduate and post-experience education and training are being offered. Its medium-sized library has been the first to develop computer printed catalogues and has always been on the forefront of using new technology for library processes. Among the many services that have been built up through the years, the handling of enquiries is considered of main importance.

- Norges Handelshøyskole, Bergen, Norway.
  Like the Handelshøyskolen i Aarhus this is a public school of economics and business, where an emphasis is put on undergraduate education, to which postgraduate education was added, while it provides a few post-experience courses. Its library is rather large and is considered the main economic library in the country. Its performance is similar to that of a university library with little attention to the provision of actual information. The library is seriously involved in office automation. Due to space limitations a large part of the library's stock and some large reading rooms are located in another building.

- Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale, Turin, Italy.
  This is a public institution with administrative, financial and didactic autonomy, but in fact it is a faculty of the University of Turin with strong links with the business community. It provides undergraduate and postgraduate education to which a few post-experience courses are added. Its library is small and has closed access, which is traditional in Italy. Unlike many other business school libraries academic staff of the school are very much privileged as compared with students, since students are considered external readers who have to pay a deposit before they can borrow books.

- Strathclyde Business School, Glasgow, United Kingdom.
  This School is a division of the Scottish Business School including several business schools in Scotland. As a faculty of Strathclyde University it can be considered as a public school, but post-experience courses are not government-sponsored. It provides postgraduate and post-experience education and training, to which undergraduate education has been added. In 1983 an MBA by distance learning was launched; it was a British first. The Business Information Centre of the
School is very small, providing services the University Library - of which it is a department - does not normally offer. Consequently it does not offer borrowing facilities, but has put an emphasis on reference and information services. All systems developed are simple in order to meet as many different needs as possible. It shows more similarities with business information centres of industrial organisations than other business school libraries.

- University College Dublin, Faculty of Commerce, Dublin, Ireland.

This is a faculty incorporated in a university setting, providing undergraduate and postgraduate education. The social sciences section of the Main Library can be considered as a kind of business school library, since it mainly serves commerce students. As a part of the reader services section, the emphasis is put on reference and information services.

These libraries are all part of academic, non-profit organisations that provide at least postgraduate management programmes outright, but this selection includes libraries with differences in size, in background, in organisation, in services, in culture, etc.

This means that a variety of different approaches in many respects are included providing a representative picture of European business school library performance.

The main common characteristics of business school libraries include:

1) Business school libraries serve both the academic world and the business community.

They can be considered as academic libraries that mainly support academic education and research and as such readers are helped to help themselves. They can also be considered as special libraries however, serving mainly members of their schools by providing documentary services in addition to the main and obvious services that are available. Individual services are not normally provided. The business community is served either directly, or indirectly by the provision of services to post-experience course participants. A remarkable fact is that the management of the parent organisations is not served for decision making.

2) Business school libraries must cover many subjects and consequently only a small percentage of all literature available on the subjects covered can be collected.

Management as an academic discipline covers many basic disciplines, but none of them very deeply, since it is impossible to study all academic subjects that are basic to management in a comprehensive way. Consequently business school libraries are not very specialised libraries, but their collections cover many subjects related to management in its widest sense.
3. English language materials form the larger part of business school library collections, since most management literature is written in English (or American).

Taken together these characteristics show a combination that is unique in library performance. Additionally a pragmatic approach can be observed in business school libraries, that guarantees a flexibility making it possible to react to changing needs fast and efficiently.

Many business school libraries have been established immediately after the foundation of their schools; they must be active as they are not any more just a good thing a school cannot do without. Library services must be visible and the aim must be on the provision of the right services at the right time. Consequently the library should be a central service, central in a physical way, but also visible in the organisation. In relation to this it is observed that business school libraries are either placed under the Management Committee of the School, under the Principal, or under the Dean, where they are very well recognised within the organisation; or they are placed under the Director of the School which generally means less recognition of the status the library should occupy. The exception proves the rule however with Manchester Business School Library: that is placed under the Director of the School, but is very well recognised by the management. However well recognised and visible most business school libraries may be within their institutions, their librarians have to work permanently to keep that position.

One of the means to keep an organisational position is to keep abreast of recent developments in the school by means of recognising communication flows, formal as well as informal. Both kinds of flows are important to get informed. Business school librarians have recognised the value of informal meetings over coffee and try to maintain social contacts, but they obviously have to be in the library most of the time, which excludes them from the informal information circuit within their schools. In order to provide information, librarians need to get information as well. Information to the library is far from optimal, also because readers do not generally recognise a need to inform the library on what they actually do and why they do it.

Apart from a dependency that can be recognised in relation to the budget, business school libraries perform rather independently, given the library objectives on which the libraries may have agreed with the parent institutions. These libraries do not face a day-to-day control over their performances and the librarians can take all but the main policy decisions in relation to library performance; consequently business school libraries can be viewed as sub-organisations. Even the task environment does not much influence library performance, since this performance is protected by highly specialised techniques. This is the case
with many libraries and cataloguing is a good example of this.
To organise a modern library demands a mental outlook of
adjustment and even the organisation of a small library is
not always as easy as one might think. The organisational
structure generally is hierarchical, but this does not
necessarily include a bureaucratic structure. As far as
business school libraries are concerned, bureaucracy is
rejected when performed in its original form, because this is
too static for a library that needs to be flexible and open
to change in responding to recognised readers' needs. This
kind of libraries performs in an organic structure with some
mechanistic parts. Uncertainty is dealt with by flexible
adapting to change the moment this turns out to be advisable
and possible.

The inter-relationships of the component parts of a library
system are important, since co-ordination is needed however
small the library may be. Library resources are always
limited and should be used efficiently. A way to make use
efficiently of human resources is functional
departmentalisation that can be found in many business school
libraries. Very often this means that one-person departments
have been established, but at the same time the system is
flexible in that work can be taken over by other members of
the staff if necessary.

The libraries that have been investigated for this study have
similar objectives and subject coverage; it appears that they
can easily be compared. Differences however can be observed
in relation to: organisation, history, readers, traditions,
environment, size, and also in relation to the views of their
librarians. Objective standards of achievement, needed to
compare the libraries with one another, cannot be obtained;
besides every library is unique. Given the environment in
which each library performs and the way it performs, a
comparison of libraries by means of looking at services and
constraints is possible and useful to get a picture of
business school librarianship in Western Europe, but it is
useless to try to compare libraries in terms of
good-better-best.

Business school libraries provide a range of different
services in order to perform as a service institution to
their parent organisation and satisfy to their readers' needs
the best way possible. Given their number of readers, it is
impossible to provide individual services, with one important
exception the handling of enquiries. This is the most
important and most individual service any library can
provide. This importance has been recognized in that an
emphasis is put on this service by many business school
libraries.

Indexing was often started just because needs had been felt
and the materials were not covered by officially published
indexing and abstracting services. A library is more than a
place to borrow books and read or copy periodical articles.
In order to maximize reader satisfaction and make the services the library has to offer visible, marketing is needed. This has been recognised by the libraries under study, even if formal marketing has not been undertaken by any of them. By flexible adopting to circumstances, services were built up, sometimes for a short time only on purpose. This study has also shown that the number of services is not at all related to the size of the library. The Business Information Centre of Strathclyde Business School is one of the smaller libraries under study, but also among those providing most services. Reader satisfaction is rather high in these kinds of libraries. One of the reasons for this is that motivation of senior library staff shows above average in general.

Special collections can be found in all business school libraries, where a special collection is understood as a collection of library materials that is shelved and administered separately from the main collection. It aims at the fulfillment of a special need that has been recognised. A special collection that can be found in every business school library is a collection of company information materials, in some libraries grown to a separate department and in the library of the London Business School even to a special information service now also offered to the business community, that will be charged for it. Other special collections that can be found in business school libraries include reserve collections and collections of Master’s theses of the schools.

An official library policy will only be formulated by a librarian when there is a need to do so, otherwise the policy will mainly be to fulfill the objectives. Library policy has much to do with how readers will be approached and how reader satisfaction can be attained. Academic libraries support the education and research of their parent institutions; in addition to this however a stimulation of this education and research could be thought of, leading to a synergic conception of librarianship. This concept includes a permanent reciprocity between readers, documents and library staff in a dynamic environment. Some synergy can be observed in business school libraries with the handling of enquiries, where change can sometimes be seen as a consequence of an enquiry.

Business school libraries perform effectively, meaning that services will only be provided if needs can be recognised, and will be disposed of when they will not be used any more. At the same time these services are efficient, not striving at perfection, but at usability. It is when considering this that a more proactive approach can be observed as opposed to a reactive approach. This approach means activity, the librarian is prepared to change services if that would be an improvement. Of course differences between libraries can be observed, some are more active, more flexible and less traditional than others, it has however also to do with whereupon to emphasise. A business school librarian cannot
provide tailor-made and individual services and consequently has to compromise. Given the numbers of readers a limit must be put to flexibility, to activities, also since library resources will always be too limited. In accordance with recognised possibilities the libraries under study show an appropriate performance.

By co-operation within the European Business School Librarians' Group, business school librarians have been able to widen their horizons, learn from each other, get useful information, and undertake joint projects like SCIMP, an index of journal articles produced in joint co-operation by 16 business school libraries from 9 West-European countries, which includes a division of the work-load, making it possible to undertake a project that otherwise would not have been possible.

In a distant future librarians will have to face an information society, about the concept of which is already talked, but it is difficult to foresee how it actually will perform. Librarians are facing uncertainty in relation to their future. One of their certainties is that the fast development of new technology will have a main impact on library performance, mainly in relation to on-line searching and office automation, but it is impossible to forecast how this development will proceed and how readers' needs might change in relation to this. Society at large is changing rapidly and consequently the education and training of managers changes as well. Business school libraries have to respond to these changes, but must also try to respond to future needs by the recognition of trends, preferably in anticipation and before they become present needs. This demands a more proactive approach in the provision of information; signs of this kind of approach can be recognised in business school libraries now and then. Planning for future action is important, but in relation to the future a main concern is to maintain the services that have been built up through the years, and to keep the position within the organisation that is held at present. Given the limited resources this is not always easy. In relation to this an active and flexible policy has been recognised in the libraries under study.

As a final result it can be stated that business school libraries perform very actively, effectively and efficiently within their parent organizations, aiming at satisfying their readers' needs. They support the development of future managers in public and private organizations, and as many alumni of their schools still make use of the libraries even long after their graduation or course attendance, it may be concluded that business school libraries do not only have a function in society to fulfill, but also that their functioning is very well appreciated.
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evaluation of the management review and analysis program.

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research and development laboratory.

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and service.

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Current awareness services.

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study.
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Why educate the library user?

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MCNAY, I.  
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MALLEY, I.  
Educating the special library user.  

MARCH, J.G. and SIMON, H.A.  
Organizations.  

MARGULIES, N., and A.P. RAIA  
Conceptual foundations of organizational development.  

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MOONEY, J. and A. REILLY
Onward industry.

MOORE, P.
The London Business School.

MOORES, P.
Information users' changing expectations and needs.

MORAN, Jr., R.F.
Improving the organizational design of academic libraries.

MOSS, G.D., and A.M.H. GREEN
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MURPHY, M.
Measuring library effectiveness: a prelude to change.
MUSMANN, K.
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MORTON, R., and D. GAUTSCHI
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OLSON, E.E.
Organizational factors affecting information flow in industry.

OLSON, L.M.
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OORT, B.B.
European Business School Librarians' Group: an evaluation of international cooperation.

OORT, B.B.
Library guides: an evaluation.

OORT, B.B.
Reduction of periodical subscriptions.

ORNA, E., and G. HALL
Developing an information policy.

ORNA, E.
Should we educate our users?
ORR, R.H.
Measuring the goodness of library services: a general framework for considering quantitative measures.

OSBORN, R.M., and J.G. HUNT
Environment and organizational effectiveness.

PATTERSON, G.D.L.
Designing a business information service for top management.

PEARSON, A.W.
Fundamental problems of information transfer.

PFEFFER, J., and G.R. SALANCIK
The external control of organizations: a resources dependence perspective.

PILKINGTON, SIR ALISTAIR
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RUKOMEN, K.

SCARFE, D.

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SHARMA, R.N.

SHERA, J.H.

SHINEBOURNE, J.

SIMON, B.V.

SIMON, H.A.

SIMON, H.A.

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Information and the academic community.

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STREATFIELD, D.
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The senior manager's information needs.

TAYLOR, F.W.
The principles of scientific management.

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An analysis of managerial activities in libraries.
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Management literature.  

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AUTHOR INDEX

Aldrich, H.E. - 26, 38, 12, 47, 18, 50.
Allen, D. - 12.
Allen, T.J. - 56.
Allred, J. - 225, 227.
Ansoff, H.I. - 83.
Appleyard, R.K. - 265.
Arnold, D.V. - 218, 229, 232.
Ashworth, H. - 241.

Barnard, C.I. - 25, 53.
Barker, J. - 228, 229.
Bedian, A.G. - 29, 30, 34, 50, 52, 53, 54, 55, 57, 61, 214.
Bell, D. - 307.
Bennett, R. - 13
Blick, A.R. - 192.
Block, M. - 223, 226, 281.
Borko, H. - 232.
Brettel, S. - 228, 229.
Bretton, G.E. - 207.
Brons, H. - 290.
Burkett, J. - 281, 282

Canisius, P. - 282.
Chen, Ching-chih - 222.
Cohen, S.I. - 56.
Collins, J. - 192.
Cowley, J. - 241, 255.
Cronin, D. - 236, 238, 249, 255, 275.
Crossley, C.A. - 198.
Cuisset, G. - 287, 293, 291.

Damannour, F. - 306.
Deal, T.E. - 213.
Dessler, G. - 24.
Deus, J.D. - 267, 287, 288, 292.
Dill, W.R. - 46.
Dougherty, R.M. - 277.
Doyle, P. - 94, 87, 92.
Drake, M.A. - 307, 308, 310.
Dumont, P.F. - 241.

Eilon, S. - 55.
Exon, A. - 271.
Evan, H.M. - 306.
Evans, E. - 232
Evans, G.E. - 198,212,246.

Ferguson, P. - 232.
Fletcher, J. - 290.

Galbraith, J.R. - 215.
Gautschi, D. - 275.
Green, A.M.H. - 205.

Hall, G. - 245.
Hall, R.H. - 27.
Halloran, J.D. - 265.
Hamburg, M. - 225.
Hannabus, S. - 237,275.
Harris, P. - 207.
Havard-Williams, P. - 231.
Heinritz, F.J. - 277.
Hickson, D.J. - 34.
Hinings, C.R. - 34.
Hoey, P. O'N. - 207.
Holroyd, G. - 221.
Hummel, R.P. - 41,42.
Hunt, J.G. - 46,47.
Hutchinson, J. - 80.

Jago, A. - 263.
James, P. - 276.
Jefferson, G. - 282.
Jelinek, M. - 43,44.
Jones, C. - 236.

Kaardal, K. - 290.
Kahn, R. - 25.
Kemp, D.A. - 196,198,211.
Kihlen, E. - 272.
King, D.M. - 269.
Kirltley, B. - 302.
Kubr, M. - 84.

Lancaster, F.H. - 232,233,244.
Lang, V. - 256.
Laurence, P.R. - 26,52,53.
Leimkuhler, F.F. - 217.
Lester, R. - 210, 269.
Likert, R. - 25.
Lorsch, J.W. - 26, 52, 53, 60.
Lumsdon, C.A. - 213.
Lurton, T. - 87, 92, 121.

McClure, C. - 216.
McCutcheon, D. - 233, 244.
McNa, I. - 10, 64, 84.
Malle, J. - 269.
Malmgren, M. - 272.
Marceau, J. - 98.
March, J.G. - 29.
Margulies, N. - 57.
Meister, H. - 222.
Mintzberg, H. - 32, 35, 36, 55, 56.
Moore, P. - 117.
Moore, P. - 265.
Moran Jr., R.F. - 200, 213.
Moss, G.D. - 205.
Murphy, M. - 193.
Mussman, K. - 212, 282.

Norton, R. - 278.

Oldman, C. - 201, 227, 250, 261.
Olson, L.M. - 286.
O'Reilly, III, C.A. - 207.
Orns, F. 245.
Orr, R.H. - 216.
Ory, J.C. - 269.
Osborn, R.H. - 46, 47.

Pearson, A.H. - 211.
Pfeffer, J. - 30, 49.
Pilkington, Sir Alistair - 237.
Plovan, E.H. - 209.
Poole, H. - 193.
Porter, L.H. - 207.
Price, W.H. - 236.
Pritchard, A. - 198, 249.
Pugh, D.S. - 34, 38.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Page Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aid, A.P.</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reilly, A.</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rey, F.</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reynolds, M.M.</td>
<td>208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rizzo, J.R.</td>
<td>38,214,246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roberts, K.H.</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robertz, S.</td>
<td>212,309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robertson, A.B.</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rosenberg, V.</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rothwell, R.</td>
<td>205,207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rowan, B.</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ruokonen, K.</td>
<td>290,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salanki, G.R.</td>
<td>30,19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scarfe, D.</td>
<td>308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scott, W.R.</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shapiro, S.J.</td>
<td>233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharma, R.N.</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shera, J.H.</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shinebourne, J.</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simon, B.V.</td>
<td>198,200,242,243,246,247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simon, H.A.</td>
<td>25,29,11,42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith, G.M.</td>
<td>194,198,232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stalker, G.M.</td>
<td>43,51,53,214,215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stevenson, M.B.</td>
<td>195,197,259,268,270,271,273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stewart, R.</td>
<td>37,89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Streatfield, D.</td>
<td>263,275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taylor, F.W.</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas, A.B.</td>
<td>85,88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas, P.A.</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thompson, J.</td>
<td>206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thompson, J.D.</td>
<td>21,27,33,35,45,46,48,91,200,219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thompson, V.A.</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tichy, N.</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunler, M.</td>
<td>193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urquhart, D.J.</td>
<td>12,198,219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urwick, L.</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vernon, K.D.C.</td>
<td>252,254,256,283,287,289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vickery, B.C.</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walsh, K.</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward, V.A.</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weber, M.</td>
<td>21,10,41,42,13,213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Webster, D.E.</td>
<td>217,227,246,308,313,315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White, H.S.</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whitley, R.D.</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wijnstroom, M.</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilkin, R.</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willis, G.</td>
<td>25,201,227,250,261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilson, A.</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wood, D.</td>
<td>238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodward, J.</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wright, R.G.</td>
<td>27,28,31,32,37,88,89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Yorke, D.A. - 238.
Zeit-Ferrell, M. - 47, 51, 54, 58.
Aarhus School of Economics, Business Administration, and Modern Languages, see: Handelshøjskolen i Aarhus.
Abstracting - 192,218.
Abstracting services - 160,164,166,188,233,260,261,270.
Accessions, see: Library accessions.
Accessions list - 142,155,157,161,166,172,178,235,271; see also: List of acquisitions.
Acquisition policy - 251,255,258,257,258,259,281,290.
Actual users - 248.
Ad hoc decisions - 245.
Ad hoc indexing - 234.
Adaptability - 23,30,51.
Administrative innovations - 306.
Administrative management - 24,27,129.
Administrative services - 121,126,170,202,203,204; see also: Central services/General services.
Administrative Staff College - 106.
Administrative structure - 10,11.
American business school - 10,83,85,112.
Andersonian Library - 183,184,185,228,257,258,280,281,312.
Annotated List of 25 Abstracting and Indexing Sources - 289.
Annual reports - 165,167,171,172,225; see also: Company reports.
Anticipating - 45,219; see also: Forecasting.
Apprentice tax - 95,97,100.
ASFOR classification - 182.
Ashridge Management College - 93.
Association of Management Training Institutes - 303.
Authority - 16,25,37,38,39,40,41,42,43,51,85,200.
Authority: decentralisation - 56.
Autocratic leadership - 22.

Balanced collection - 255.
Bargaining - 50.
Basic elements of a library - 212,216.
Basic elements of an organisation - 15,21,22,31,35,37,212.
Basic objective - 132; see also: General objective/Main objectives.
Bibliographical information - 254.
Bibliography, see: Subject bibliography.
Biographies - 240.
Book collection, see: Library collection
Book selection policy - 254.
Citing - 261.
Classical theories of organisation - 15,23,24,25,27,45,212.
Classification - 71,143,152,188,237,286,300.
Classification of organisations - 30,31.
Classification system - 143,147,153,155,158,162,168,174,182,
189,190,256.
Classified catalogue of journal articles - 142.
Clippings file - 171,172.
Closed access - 139,141,145,163,177,181,186.
Closed system theory - 24,27,29,42.
Coalition - 50.
Coalitions - 15,29,30,49,50,60.
Collection, see Library collection.
College library - 186.
College publications list - 155.
Common goal - 21,27,212; see also: Goals, Organisational goals.
Communication, see: Organisational communication.
Communication ability - 239.
Communication barriers - 55.
Communication channels - 209,253.
Communication flows - 54,208; see also: Information flows.
Communication methods - 209.
Communication networks - 53,57,207,211.
Communication problems - 221.
Communication techniques - 53.
Company: history - 154,240.
Company: information - 64,142,145,150,156,172,173,177,183,
185,186,234,240,262,270,271,277,278,279,289; see also:
Business information.
Company: Information Department - 177,240.
Company: information guide - 161.
Company: reports - 146,151,154,156,157,161,171,181,184,188,
225,253; see also Annual reports.
Comparison of libraries - 222-227, 231,234,235,252,257,290.
Competition - 47,50,51,84.
Complaints - 147,148,279.
Complexity - 16,23,29,30,37,42,48,53,84,216.
Compliance, see: Organisational compliance.
Computer-centred library - 220.
Configurations of structure - 16,43.
Conflict - 39,47,49,49.
Consultancy: - 91,109,122,131,135.
Consulting reports - 157.
Contemporary organization - 35,10.
Contents Pages in Management - 172.
Contents pages of periodicals, see: Current contents.
Contingency approach - 221.
Contingency theory - 33.
Contract research - 68,92,99,115,127.
Control - 31,40,51,54,56,174,177,199,246.
Conventional library - 192.
Co-operative indexing - 261,269, 292-296, 299.
Co-opting - 50.
Core Journals - 292.
Core List of Periodicals - 287,288.
Corporate subscribers - 166, 167, 169, 173.
Country files - 184.
Creativity - 23, 26, 248.
Culture - 76, 81, 109, 221.
Current affairs - 169; see also: Current information.
Current Affairs Room - 151.
Current awareness - 18, 192, 218, 264.
Current information - 156, 160, 161, 164; see also: Current affairs.

Danish Teledata Experiment - 151, 152.
Data processing - 236, 307.
Decentralization - 23, 25, 51, 52.
Departmentalization - 91, 119, 218.
Deposit - 182, 189.
Desk-bound - 273.
Development planning - 217.
Dewey Classification - 143, 158, 185, 189.
Diagonal flows of communication - 54, 208.
Differentiation - 30, 43, 47, 52, 53.
Differentiation of services - 268.
Dimensions of environments, see: Environmental dimensions.
Direct supervision - 32, 36, 37, 43.
Directory of Economic Libraries in Scandinavia - 300.
Directory of Specialised Centres - 302.
Distributing - 217, 218.
Diversification - 23.
Division of labour - 15, 21, 22, 31, 32, 33, 37, 38, 40, 43.
Documentary information - 232, 268.
Documentary services - 191, 192, 194, 218.
Documentary systems - 198.
Documentation Automatisée en Gestion des Entreprises - 303.
Documentation bulletin - 86, 159.
Documentation centre - 150.
Documentation on Books - 86, 159, 161.
Dynamic approach - 249.
Dynamic environment, see: Organisational environment.
Dynamic equilibrium - 28.
Dynamic interaction - 248.

Economic growth - 23, 205, 223.
Economic Justification - 31, 37.
Economic library - 175, 178, 179.
Economic recession - 78, 157, 243.
Economic situation - 177, 179.
Economics Library - 150, 152.
EDP-cataloguing - 151.
Effective control, see: Control.
Effective systems - 199, 249.
Electronic services - 169.
Enquiry handling - 16, 74, 81, 147, 149, 184, 220, 232, 233, 238, 246, 248, 262, 263, 266, 277, 309.
Environment, see: Organisational environment.
Environmental conditions - 52, 212.
Environmental dependency - 47, 50, 51.
Environmental dimensions - 47, 18, 49.
Environmental influences - 219, 221, 255.
European Communities - 150, 151, 282.
European Companies - 291.
European Foundation for Management Development - 86, 159, 161.
European Index of Management Periodicals, see: SCIMP.
European Index of Management Periodicals.
European List of Newspapers with Business Sections - 290.
Evaluating - 218, 227.
Exchange of ideas - 283, 284, 296, 301.
Exchange of information - 202, 203, 308.
Exchange of library publications - 292, 304.
Express loans - 187.
Extel service - 165, 171, 183, 188, 240.
External environment - 28, 52, 60.
External people - 173, 175; see also: Business people. Outside people.
External readers - 140, 142, 143, 147, 152, 161, 162, 166, 178, 182, 189, 200, 263, 266, 267, 268, 274.
External relations - 167.
External resources - 70, 71, 143, 147, 152, 155, 157, 158, 162, 167, 173, 179, 182, 185, 189.
Factual information - 233, 312.
Faculty library - 194, 218, 231.
Faculty publications - 157; see also: Staff publications.
Figures of the library, see: Library figures.
Filtering - 56.
Finance - 13, 73.
Financial information - 165, 171.
Financial reports - 169.
Fixed environment - 214.
Flows of communication, see: Communication flows.
Flows of information, see: Information flows.
Focal organisation - 47,53.
Forecasting - 18,49,59,61,77,107,216,247,310-314,315; see also: Anticipating.
Foreign readers - 76.
Formal communication - 16,51,55,208,209,220.
Formal documentation - 196.
Formal structure - 27,43,48,213.
Foundation for Business Administration, see: Stichting Bedrijfskunde.
Foundation for Management Education - 117,121,131.
Francophone Group - 303.
Free access - 141,146,150,160,187; see also: Open access.
Functional approach - 98.
Functional authority - 219.
Functional departments - 91,218.
Functional organization - 43,44,52.
Functional specialists - 70,74,80,143,147,152,155,162,167,173,179,182.
Functional structure - 43,51.
Future action - 216,217,283,314.
Future needs - 259.
Future plans - 227,289,308,309,315.
Future policy - 18,66,77,81,305-316.
Future services - 209.
Gatekeepers - 56,57,174,211.
General budget - 67,105,124,160; see also: School's budget.
General environment - 16,200,220.
General information - 143,145,150,161,189,232.
General objective - 67,88,101,112,117,121,129,136,194,197,199,220,244,245; see also: Basic objective. Main objectives.
General objective of a library - 140,145,148,149,154,156,159,160,164,170,175,180,187,253; see also: Library objectives.
General policy - 97,110,113,114,118,120,122,124,127,130; see also: Policy.
General services - 99,102,130,133,141; see also: Administrative services/Central services.
Goals - 15,26,27,28,33,37,49,59,87,88,89,206,247,249,275; see also: Common goal/Organizational goals.
Graduate School of Management, see: Interfacultiteit Bedrijfskunde.
Grapevine - 55; see also: Informal communication.
Greek literature - 253,289,303.
Groupe ESSEC, see: Ecole Superieure des Sciences Economiques et Commerciales.
Groups - 34, 39, 87.
Groups of readers - 18, 74, 75, 81, 114, 147, 152, 155, 157, 162, 166, 173, 178, 192, 195, 189, 190, 218, 231, 259, 267, 268, 270, 273, 278.
Growth, see: Economic growth.
Guided tours - 75, 76, 272, 274.

Handelshogskolan i Stockholm - 63, 81, 94, 293.
Handing of enquiries, see: Enquiry handling.
Harvard Business School - 85, 87.
Hawthorne studies - 25, 213.
Helsinki School of Economics, see: Helsingin Kauppakuopan.
Hierarchical position - 69, 187.
Highest authority - 97, 101, 126, 132, 136; see also: Supreme authority.
History, see: Library history.
Hochschule fur Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaften St. Gallen - 64, 81.
Horizontal dimension of an organisation - 38.
Horizontal flows of communication - 54, 208.
Human aspects of the organisation - 25, 243.
Human behaviour - 25, 28, 55.
Human resources - 22, 23, 31, 186, 216, 262, 309.

Ideal business school library - 78, 247, 314.
Ideal organisation - 41, 215, 306.
Ideal - 95, 116.
Improvement of services - 276, 277.
Independency - 93, 205, 300.
Index of periodical articles - 146, 157, 172, 188, 233, 234.
Indexing - 18, 66, 73, 81, 139, 147, 154, 166, 170, 172, 181, 184, 185, 192, 218, 233, 235, 252, 259-262, 286, 291, 292; see also: Joint indexing.
Indexing libraries - 292, 293, 294, 295, 299.
Indexing services - 160, 164, 188, 234, 235, 260, 261, 270.
Individual approach - 192.
Individual behaviour - 25.
Individual services - 235, 251, 262, 264, 267.
Individual subscribers - 166, 167, 173.
Industry files - 184.
Industry trip reports - 157, 240.
Inefficiency - 37, 44.
Informal approach - 245, 285.
Informal communication - 16, 32, 51, 55, 56, 196, 208, 209, 210, 215, 220.
Informal structure, see: Organic structure.
Informal systems - 196, 305.
Information and Documentation Department - 150, 151.
Information circuit - 210; see also: Information network.
Information department - 205, 218, 219; see also: Information unit.
Information files - 166, 171.
Information flows - 16, 56, 71, 80, 82, 209, 211; see also: Communication flows.
Information future - 236.
Information industry - 265.
Information management - 11, 12, 236, 307; see also: Library management.
Information materials - 192, 250.
Information needs - 192, 199, 245, 274, 293.
Information network - 210; see also: Information circuit.
Information notes - 166, 171, 172, 235, 274.
Information overload - 43, 56, 57.
Information policy - 249, 282.
Information provision - 198, 211, 238, 248, 250, 252, 253, 255, 303, 308.
Information retrieval - 172, 187, 265.
Information Service of the London Business School, see: LBS Information Service.
Information services - 74, 168, 169, 170, 183, 188, 263, 264, 275, 276, 308.
Information sheets - 238.
Information society - 307.
Information sources - 192, 196, 198, 209, 210, 211, 250, 253, 263, 278.
Information supply - 73, 159, 168, 199, 208, 286.
Information systems - 14, 18, 66, 73, 149, 192, 245, 252, 259, 262-265.
Information technology, see: New technology.
Information transfer - 54, 55.
Information unit - 192, 193, 209, 264; see also: Information department.
Innovation - 16, 57, 61, 205, 222, 305-310.
Input - 31, 33, 34, 35, 45, 47, 52, 91, 216, 217, 225, 226, 245.
INSEAD, see: Institut Europeen d'Administration des Affaires.
Institut d'Administration des Entreprises - 61, 81, 94.
Institut Europeen d'Administration des Affaires - 61, 82, 85, 93, 276, 283.
Institut IMEDE - 61, 85.
Institutional library - 194.
Institutional model - 213.
Integrated departments - 91, 114, 119.
Integration - 52, 53.
Interdepartmental communication - 54.
Interdependence - 15, 27, 30, 33, 34, 35, 37, 38, 47, 48, 49, 218, 281, 285; see also: Technological interdependence.
Inter-library loan services - 18,74,147,152,167,173,182,188,189,260,281,282.
Internal communication - 220.
Internal readers - 166,167,268,274.
International co-operation - 282,284,297,315.
International Directory of Institutions and Information Sources - 291.
International Federation of Library Associations - 300.
International Labour Organization - 290.
International Library - 150,152,273.
International library co-operation, see: Library co-operation.
International organisation - 63,64,85,93,111,112,156,280,282.
Inter-school co-operation - 88,106,282.
Interuniversity institute - 63,84,115.
Interuniversity Institute of Management, see: Interuniversitair Instituut Bedrijfskunde.
Intradepartmental communication - 54.
Invisible college - 196,197,210,211.
Irish Management Institute - 82.

Job identification - 25.
Job structure - 31.
Joint bibliography - 303.
Joint indexing - 292-296.
Journal circulation, see: Circulation of journals.
Journal indexing, see: Indexing.

Kinds of business schools - 16,62,93-95.
Kinds of communication - 16.
Kinds of information services - 192.
Kinds of organization - 221.
Kinds of readers - 283.
Kinds of services - 233,313.
Knowledge industry - 225.
Knowledge society - 247.

Laissez-faire collegiality - 214,250.
Language Library - 150,151,152.
Lateral flows of communication, see: Horizontal flows of communication.

Layout - 166, 229, 231; see also: Physical arrangements, Physical location.

LBS Information Service - 169, 263, 264.

Leadership - 43, 154.

Legal authority - 16, 39, 40.

Lending - 150, 152, 186, 242, 279, 312; see also: Borrowing/Loans.

Lending department - 149.

Lending facilities - 140; see also: Loan facilities.


Lending policy - 149.

Letter of Introduction - 182.

Library - 146.

Librarianship - 191, 192, 247, 309, 310.

Library acquisitions - 70, 80, 143, 152, 157, 167, 173, 178, 185, 189, 224.

Library activities - 218, 237, 246, 253, 286.

Library administration - 72, 150.

Library Advisory Committee - 160.


Library bulletin - 238.

Library characteristics - 191.


Library committee - 69, 79, 119, 137, 140, 145, 151, 156, 164, 185, 170, 176, 181, 184, 187, 202, 204, 205, 206, 220.

Library concepts - 14.


Library Council - 105, 149, 150, 204.

Library departments - 69, 171.

Library environment - 222, 227.

Library evaluation - 223, 232.


Library functions - 218.


Library history - 16, 68, 69, 139, 144, 149, 153, 156, 158, 164, 169, 175, 180, 183, 186, 222.

Library holdings, see: Library collection.

Library information - 171, 181.

Library information notes, see: Information notes.

Library introduction - 178.

Library maintenance - 281.

Library management - 139, 162, 214, 228, 250; see also: Information management.


Library measurement - 225, 226, 227, 231, 232.
Library model - 217.
Library networks - 284.
Library notes - 142, 164, 166, 171, 238, 274, 277.
Library objectives - 17, 69, 71, 72, 80, 139, 141, 155, 159, 168, 174, 183, 186, 187, 190, 198, 199, 205, 213, 218, 219, 225, 226, 229, 244, 245, 271, 275, 279; see also: General objective of a library.
Library organisation - 16, 139, 165, 214, 221, 244.
Library orientation - 270, 271, 272.
Library performance - 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 37, 61, 67, 68, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 80, 81, 82, 139, 191-221, 222, 223, 226, 227, 231, 232, 237, 241, 244, 245, 246, 249, 252, 258, 262, 265, 275, 276, 280, 307, 309, 310, 312, 313, 314.
Library policy - 16, 17, 18, 66, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 80, 81, 82, 95, 139, 140, 142, 143, 144, 148, 153, 154, 155, 158, 160, 162, 165, 168, 170, 174, 176, 179, 182, 186, 190, 199, 214, 230, 232, 235, 239, 240, 244-251, 252, 255, 262, 264, 265, 266, 272, 278, 279, 280, 281, 292, 311, 312, 313, 315.
Library principles - 263.
Library profession - 219, 250.
Library promotion - 237, 238, 250.
Library publications - 75, 78, 139, 152, 155, 157, 161, 164, 166, 167, 172, 175, 179, 182, 235, 239, 274, 289, 304, 312.
Library resources - 172, 217, 218, 241, 242, 246, 269, 269.
Library science - 198, 269, 309.
Library standards - 226.
Library statistics - 226; see also: Library figures.
Library survey - 14.
Library system - 187, 209, 217, 276, 278.
Library task area - 254.
Library techniques - 13, 219, 269.
Library use - 222.
Line department - 54.
Line function - 44.
List Econ - 280, 299.
List of acquisitions - 147, 180, 182; see also: Accessions list.
List of periodical holdings - 142, 147, 152, 155, 157, 161, 172, 179, 180, 235, 274, 303, 304.
Literature information - 140, 145, 149.
Loan facilities - 148, 167, 170, 224, 230; see also: Lending facilities.
Loans - 70, 74, 80, 147, 155, 162, 167, 173, 179, 188, 224, 230, 232, 254, 267; see also: Borrowing/Lending.
Location of a library; see: Physical location.
London Classification of Business Studies - 155, 162, 168, 174, 256.
London Graduate School of Business Studies - 117, 164.
Long-linked technology - 35.
Long-range objectives - 245.

McCarthy's industry services - 165, 171, 188, 240.
Machine bureaucracy - 250.
Main collection, see: Library collection.
Main objectives 97, 125; see also: Basic objectives. General objective.
Management education - 10, 16, 80, 83-136, 140, 147, 301.
Management information system - 217.
Management reading room - 163.
Market conditions - 45.
Market research reports - 165, 166, 234, 262.
Market subenvironment - 52.
Marketing analysis - 230.
Marketing concept - 237, 238.
Marketing for libraries - 17, 233, 238, 262.
Marketing information - 185, 186, 271.
Marketing surveys - 163.
Mass production - 31, 35.
Matrix structure - 44.
MBA projects - 184.
Measurable objectives - 199.
Measurement of libraries - 17.
Mechanistic structure - 51, 214, 215.
Mediating technology - 35.
Membership guidelines - 204.
Microfiche - 171.
Microfilm - 151, 171.
Microform - 146, 165, 171, 173, 184, 188.
Middle line - 36, 43.
Misinformation - 55.
Mission - 96, 206, 213.
Motivation - 12, 23, 25, 29, 31, 34, 43, 207, 212, 243, 244, 247, 297.
Multiple copies - 164, 165, 176, 240.
Multiple Copy Library - 188, 189, 190.
Multiple services - 232.
Mutual adjustment - 32, 35.

National groups of business school librarians - 286, 297-304.
Natural system - 24, 27, 28, 89.
Nature of business schools - 16, 201.
Needs of organisations - 20.
New activities - 236.
New librarianship - 250.
New readers - 75, 236, 272, 273, 274, 311.
New services - 77, 78, 81, 186, 236, 247, 312.
New systems - 217,249.
New technology - 12,13,18,23,57,59,74,219,284,310,312,316.
News cutting files - 184,262.
Newspaper clippings - 171.
Newspaper cuttings - 166,231.
Non-profit organisations - 31,60,89,90,91,114,194,201,238,260,309.
Nordinfo - 152,299.
Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration, see: Norges Handelshøyskole.
Notes, see: Library notes.

Objectives - 16,82,107,109,176,184,242,244,245,247.
see also: General objective.
Objectives approach - 193.
Objectives of a library, see: Library objectives.
One-person department - 218,242.
On-line facilities - 10,74,139,142,146,151,152,154,157,161,162,165,166,167,169,172,175,180,185,189,234,250,260,265,267,299,293,295,312.
On-the-job training - 83,84,89.
Open access - 112,145,165,177,180,257.
see also: Free access.
Open system theory - 21,25,27,28,30,42,88,89.
Operating core - 35,36.
Operating functions - 217.
Oral interview - 14,65.
see also: Change. Environmental change.
Organisational characteristics - 39,51.
Organisational communication - 16,17,44,45,50,53-57,71,201,207-211.
Organisational compliance - 12,22,23,24,25,42,242,243.
Organisational co-operation - 50.
Organisational decision making, see: Decision making.
Organisational dependency - 47,50,51.
Organisational design - 26,29,51,52,53,60,90,202,214.
Organisational efficiency - 207.
see also: Business environment.
see also: Common goal/Goals.
Organisational hierarchy, see: Hierarchy.
Organisational loyalty - 25,41.
Organisational model - 17,202.
Organisational needs - 24.
Organisational policy, see: Organisational strategy.
Organisational size - 23, 36, 41.
Organisational subsystem - 26, 52.
Organisational survival, see: Survival.
Organisational systems - 17, 30, 46, 52.
Organisational technology - 15, 34, 35, 44, 45, 46, 51, 59.
Organisational theory - 15, 16, 22, 25, 26-31, 37, 41, 45, 49, 53, 60, 89, 212, 213.
Organisational typologies, see: Typologies of organisations.
Output - 31, 33, 34, 35, 41, 44, 45, 47, 52, 55, 216, 217, 225, 226.
Outside people - 185; see also: Business people/External people.
Overall performance - 200, 218, 219.
Overall policy, see: General policy.
Oxford Centre for Management Studies - 64, 62.

Parallel information channels - 56.
Participative management - 25.
Performance evaluation - 199.
Performance feedback - 54.
Performance gap - 58, 59, 306.
Performance measurement - 275.
Performance measures - 226.
Periodical articles, see: Journal articles.
Periodical subscriptions, see: Subscriptions.
Periodicals Room - 141, 146, 176, 232.
Personnel management - 12, 241.
Physical arrangements - 139, 142; see also: Layout.
Physical extension - 199, 312.
Physical location - 17, 69, 70, 229-231; see also: Layout.
Planning - 17, 18, 70, 77, 217, 229-231, 246, 247, 304, 310-314.
Planning systems - 36.
Policy - 90, 94, 98, 101, 107, 120, 123, 134; see also: General policy.
Policy formulation - 276.
Policy principles - 244.
Policy statement - 295.
Polytechnic of Central London - 302.
Pooled interdependence - 33, 35, 218.
Population ecology model - 50.
Post-Experience Courses in Management - 301.
Potential user - 248.
Power - 16, 30, 39, 42, 54, 55.
Press cutting services - 165, 171, 240.
Prestel - 164, 172, 302, 312.
Price increases - 159,176,258.
Printed sources - 253.
Private sector - 30,120,132,135.
Proactive approach - 262,279,308,313.
Proactive librarianship - 214,249,250,251.
Proactive library - 250.
Problem areas - 14,88,114.
Processing activities - 219,226.
Productivity - 23,24,31.
Professional interest - 243,244.
Professional librarianship - 241.
Professionalism - 37,241.
Profit organisations - 31,89,90,91,114,194.
Public institution - 97,125,139,136.
Public relations - 18,36,143,201,218,273.
Public schools - 93,94,132.
Public sector - 89,90,120,132,135.
Public service institution, see Service institution.
Publicity - 250.
Published material - 253.

Quality - 29,29,226,258.
Quantity - 226.
Questionnaire - 14,15,16,18,65,66-78,79,276,277,278,290.
Quick reference - 145.

Rational approach - 216.
Rational norms - 41.
Rational organisation - 214.
Rationality - 22,27,28,38,41.
Rationing - 46,219.
Reactive librarianship - 219,251.
Reactive library - 250.
Reader satisfaction - 225,226,265,280,311; see also: User satisfaction.
Reader services - 18,66,71,149,173,189,199,201,218,252, 265-275.
Readers' places - 70,80,141,142,143,146,147,150,152,154,155, 157,162,171,173,176,178,181,182,184,185,199,221,229,233; see also: Seating accommodation.
Reading room - 141,144,150,175,176,177.
Reciprocal interdependence - 33,35,47.
Reciprocity - 248.
Recruitment - 42.
Reference and Information Division - 104.
Reference Library - 188,189.
Reference only library - 184, 185, 230.
Reference room - 145, 146.
Reference services - 233, 234.
Regional co-operation - 281, 282.
Reputation - 263.
Research libraries - 299.
Research reports - 161, 167, 184, 225.
Research techniques - 13.
Resource dependence model - 50, 51.
Retrospective function - 291.
Robbins report - 85.
Rotterdam School of Management - 91, 115, 116, 163.

SAMKAT - 151.
Scandinavian Group of libraries of business and economics - 297, 298-300.
Scandinavian Periodicals Index in Economics and Business - 293, 299.
Scanning of journals - 155, 168, 171, 302.
SCIMP, see: Scandinavian Periodicals Index in Economics and Business.
Scholarly collection - 198, 253.
School of Business Administration, see: Scuola di Amministrazione Aziendale.
School's budget - 102, 110, 113, 114, 126, 127, 130; see also: General budget.
Scientific management - 23, 24, 27.
SCIMP, see: Selective and Co-operative Index of Management Periodicals.
SCIMP, European Index of Management Periodicals - 172, 290, 291-296, 297, 298, 299, 316.
Scottish Business School - 132, 134.
SDI, see: Selective dissemination of information.
Seating accommodation - 229, 230; see also: Readers' places.
Section of Post-Academic Education, see: Sectie Post-Academisch Onderwijs.
Selected List of UK Theses and Dissertations - 301.
Selection of materials - 255.
Selective dissemination of information - 18, 74, 157, 163, 166, 192, 264.
Selective indexing of periodical articles - 291.
Self-paced orientation tour - 272.
Semi-published material - 253.
Sequential interdependence - 33,35,218.
Serials Department - 184.
Service concept - 248,249.
Service department - 206,220.
Service institution - 89,90,156,162,175,201,213,231,237,243,245,263,305.
Service organisation - 208,212,213,221,307.
Short-loan collection - 166,167,168,173,176,177,178,240; see also: Reserve collection.
Short loans - 163,279.
Short-range objectives - 245.
Small organisation - 32,32.
Small questionnaire - 15,16,64,80-81.
Social change - 57,58,237.
Sources of Company Information - 290,291.
Sources of information, see: Information sources.
Space, see: Physical location.
Space dimension - 228.
Space problems - 17,157,175,177,179,228,229.
Special collections - 16,17,70,73,88,139,142,146,151,154,156,161,165,171,177,181,184,188,239-240.
Special Collections Department - 189.
Special librarianship - 191.
Specialisation - 16,33,36,37,38,40,43,44,192,191.
Specialised goals - 218.
Specialist departments - 37,218.
Specialist library - 183,227.
Stability - 28,36,44,45,50,51,58.
Staff function - 44.
Staff publications - 161,178,179,234,240; see also: Faculty publications.
Stages of the innovation process - 58.
Standardisation - 35,36,48.
Standardization of libraries - 218.
Standardization of work outputs - 32,213.
Standardisation of work processes - 32,213.
Standardization of worker skills - 32.
Status - 140,150,161,170,175,180,202,204,206.
Stichting BedrijfsKunde - 112,113,158.
Stimulation of education - 247.
Stock Control - 167.
Strategic apex - 36.
Strategy, see: Organisational strategy.
Strathclyde University - 63,131,132,133,228,280.
Structural relationship - 34.
Student projects - 166,188.
Study on Book Selection - 290.
Subject area - 119.
Subject bibliography - 142,154,157,168,172,182,188,189.
Subject breakdown - 194.
Subject coverage - 301.
Subject departments - 91,218.
Subject expertise - 192.
Subject librarians - 201.
Subject reference - 154.
Subject specialisation - 250.
Subject specialists - 70,74,80,143,147,152,155,162,167,173,
179,181,189,194,242,254,255.
Sub-organisation - 205,212-221.
Subscriptions - 70,80,169,172,173,176,178,179,182,183,189,
257,258,261,265,277,288,294,295.
Subsystems - 30,52,53,216,217.
Supervision - 36,40.
Support staff - 36,37,89.
Support to courses - 153,232.
Supreme authority - 91,104,110,113,118,122; see also: Highest
authority.
Survey - 13,14,65,276,277,278,290,300.
Survey of Regular Published Conference Proceedings - 290.
Survival - 23,27,30,45,47,51,59,61,63,91,200,207,305,307,
308,309.
Synergic conception - 248.
Synergic elements - 314.
Synergic librarianship - 248,251.
Systematic - investigation - 14.
Systems analysis - 217.
Systems approach - 15.
Systems development - 14.

Tailor-made services - 251,269.
Tape-slide presentations - 75,76,272,273,274,302.
Task environment - 16,18,46,47,91,92,189,200,207,219,220,
221,251,311,313.
Task performance - 42.
Technological gatekeepers, see: Gatekeepers.
Technological interdependence - 34,35; see also: Interdependence.
Technology, see: Organisational technology.
Technostructure - 36,37.
Templeton College - 64.
Theories of organisation, see: Organisational theory.
Thesaurus - 152,292,293,294,295,296,299.
Theses, see: Master theses.
Thought processes - 247.
Top management - 36,37,43,85,90,192.
Total budget, see: General budget.
Traditional authority - 48.
Traditional core - 192,250.
Traditional library - 139,313.
Traditional library services - 232.
Traditions - 76,81,222,226,249,263,267.
Trends - 216,247,255.
Types of organisations, see: Kinds of organisations.
Types of technology - 34,35.
Typologies of organisations - 15,30.

UDC, see: Universal decimal classification.
UDC-project - 299.
UDC-thesaurus - 300.
Uncertainty - 18,27,28,30,31,36,42,45,49,50,51,52,215,307,
308,309,314.
Union List of Periodicals in European Business Schools - 172,288.
Unit production system - 34.
Universal Decimal Classification - 153,158,162,179,256,300.
Université de Droit, d'Economie et des Sciences
d'Aix-Marseille - 64,81,94,100.
University College Dublin - 11,63,64,91,135-138,186-190,
205,225,233,235,259,261,278,279,312.
University faculty - 90,91,94.
University Grants Committee - 95,116,117,121,131,132,201,
256,257.
University libraries - 183,195,228,231,253,255,256,260,270,
288,300,311.
University of Warwick - 82,290,302.
Unpublished material - 253.
Usefulness of libraries - 227,249.
User approach - 222.
User awareness - 236.
User community; 192,250.
User conditions - 222.
User criticism - 18,76,279.
User evaluation - 18,66,75,76,81,82,239,252,275-279.
User perception - 196.
User satisfaction - 18,75,81,198,238,278; see also: Reader
satisfaction.

Valuation - 39,39.
Verbal sources - 253.
Vertical dimension of the organisation - 38.
Vertical flows of communication - 54,208.
Video - 88,108.

Weeding - 133,159,163,228,256,257.
Western Electric Company - 25,243.
Work flow - 36,43.
Work organization - 38,41.
Working collection - 254,256.
Working papers - 146,153,161,165,166,167,171,172,173,184,
234,262.