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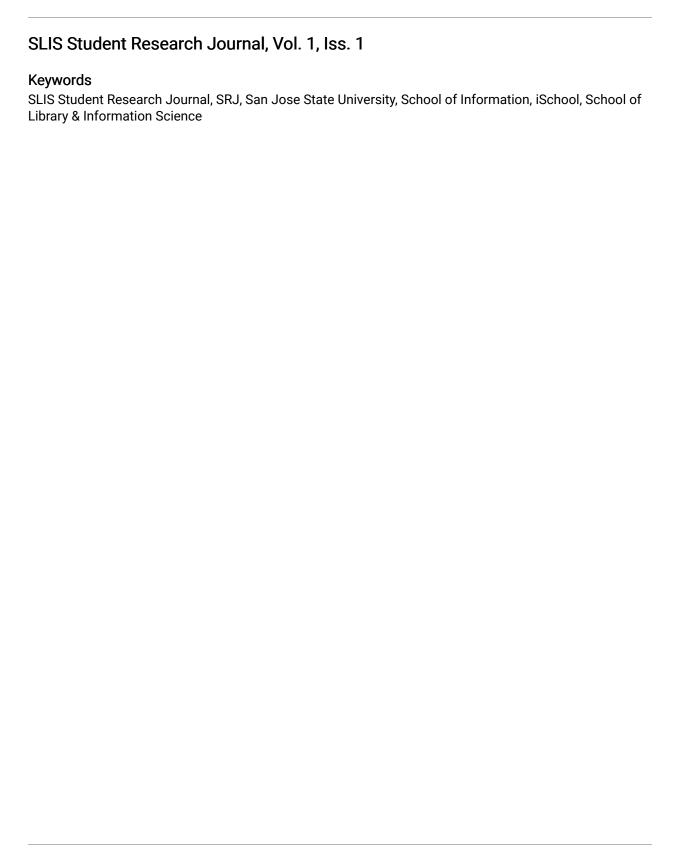Part of the Library and Information Science Commons

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July 2011

Collaborative Scholarship in Library and Information Science

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EditorScape: Collaborative Scholarship in Library and Information Science

Professionals in the discipline of library and information science, if they are to drive discourse of and action resolution to the issues of discovery, access, and preservation of critical information and new knowledge, must actively promote their expertise through evidenced-based research, scholarship, and communication. The decision made by the School of Library and Information Science at San José State University to publish a graduate student journal is one way to promote this accord. For those conducting research and those who aspire to, the literature review - representing both what has occurred and the formulation of what can be - underpins the advancement of library and information science graduate scholarship.

The inaugural issue of *SRJ* opens with an invited contribution written by Dr. Anthony Bernier, Associate Professor with the School of Library and Information Science at San José State University. *Reaching Escape Velocity and the Purpose of SLIS Student Research Journal* embodies the commitment of our editors to promote evidenced graduate work about current topics in the fields of library and information science, records and archive management, and museum studies. If there were to be a Bernier 'brand' it should surely be marketed as *driving escape velocity.* Bernier presents an appealing perspective of the deep engagement a researcher has with a particular subject, and outlines the research paradigm by describing the steps to prepare a secondary research literature review. A scholar asks critical questions, surveys and reviews relevant texts, formulates a thesis, prepares evidenced analysis, and articulates, in their own words, a proposal or new direction to advance the knowledge of a field. All elements of critical inquiry are intrinsically linked by its core thesis; it's as straight a path as any.

Three graduate student articles submitted to the journal stood out among several peer-reviewed, as having met the criteria of graduate scholarship described by Bernier (2011). These authors present the reader with core questions, fluid sections of evidenced review of literatures, and suggestions to advance an idea or practice forward. Each author has a distinctive voice, and all are clearly passionate in their interpretation of the issues impacting their respective field of study. Independently, each author has targeted a central thesis that collectively I express to the library information science community is this: there is a need for greater collaboration. Collaboration that moves beyond the license agreements or the dashed lines of hierarchical charts to the model Peters (2009) terms "open knowledge production" (p. 142), taken deliberately as a creative, asynchronous, and reflective development process to advance our collective understanding of what can come next. Such is the essence of graduate scholarship that these authors offer to making a critical turn toward *reaching escape velocity*.

In *Discovery Tools and Local Metadata Requirements in Academic Libraries*, Mary Wood examines the effectiveness of current metadata creation practices evident in the academy to represent unique local collections. Woods' (2011) imparts a technical perspective on the need of academic librarians to evaluate metadata quality standards, in particular to ensuring access for users to discover special collections and institutional repository materials. Her review of current research about system interoperability and content limitations show "collaborative, incremental metadata creation processes are imperative" (p. 10) to ensuring quality and optimizing the discovery of local resources. Woods' sees opportunities to transform existing standards, and to create new best practices in digital resources management. This article highlights the challenges faced by library personnel to ensure discovery tools are effective, so in turn, they may successfully influence the research community to utilize its valued resources.

Mary completed her MLIS in May 2011, and works at Palo Alto University in California, where she is recently appointed as a Technical Services Librarian.

Antoinette Baker investigates the emergence of social media archives in *Ethical Considerations in Web 2.0 Archives*. In an era defined by an online 'public sphere', freely assessable personal productions intersect the tenets of intellectual property and protection of privacy and space. Archival practice is commonly understood as collecting and preserving historical accounts and artifacts deemed of 'societal value'; but what of individuals' personal media – their social pages, Tweets, and blogs authored in the public domain – do the same rules apply? Our personal communications medium is mass media, used regularly by school children and presidents alike; a mesh of societal history with the prosaic exchanges of routine life that raise questions examined by Baker (2011): What is a record of 'societal value'? Who has rights to manage the collection, preservation, and dissemination of personal media into the future? Is the legal donation by social media company Twitter, of the publics' communications to the Library of Congress, without third-party consent, ethical? Baker draws attention to professional ethics codes that "[empower] archivists to negotiate with donors" (p. 2) in constructing agreements that ensure ethical obligations are met when collecting and preserving personal collections. Her review may elicit discourse of the merits of Web 2.0 archives, and the role of archivists to educate and influence society to take care in the protection of its third-party privacy.

Antoinette began her MLIS in 2010, and is a part-time student and an attorney in private practice.

Joseph Andrews Jr. reviews the currency of health information resources in *Collection Development of HIV/AIDS Information Resources in American Libraries*. His is a compelling review of apparent voids in library collection

policies and practices that could otherwise provide services to meet the information needs of two high-risk communities that contract HIV/AIDS. Andrews (2011) synthesizes a chronology of decisions evident within the library community that have influenced the development and advocacy of HIV/AIDS information resource collections. In outlining the availability of sexually explicit health information he found underlying conflict among practitioners to providing access to relevant resources while conforming to certain or perceived societal norms. His analysis reflects an embarrassing reality that marginalized groups in society do not always know how to find and then interpret critical information resources. From reading Andrews (2011) one may wonder whether the ethos of public librarians to strengthen relationships with all library users will embrace "involving community members in the collection development process" (p. 9) as a means both to improve relevancy of its services, and to help develop literacy skills that may benefit all.

Joseph is a second year MLIS student, and works as a copy cataloguer at the University of California, Los Angeles.

These authors identify specific concerns among a breadth of issues and events that intersect our domains of knowledge. Explicit connections among these works may be relevant to not only the library information science community, but to all audiences. As we know of our online environment information can be ephemeral, presenting challenges to source and exchange credible, valued information. Our electronic ecology establishes "relationships between documents" (Borgman, 2000, p. 98), wherein "references become actionable items" (ibid) that connect a reader with author. In one nondescript moment a reference that Andrews had trusted disappeared. Does removal of a source signal a change in its value? Has the information been updated or re-located? Does the content creator (or provider) no longer authenticate the work? These fundamental concerns about information access and its relevancy, currency and accuracy, are core values that ground the discipline of library and information science. How are information professionals to begin ascription of metadata for information discovery detailed by Woods (2001), or to contemplate design of proactive archival practices described by Baker (2011), if access to an authoritative source acknowledged by Andrews (2011) is not to be persistent? How will critical trust among people, and of their productions, be established and sustained in our digital communities?

The discourse and resolution to these issues is advancing in multivariate initiatives across a breadth of scholar and professional communities. Work focused on resource sharing, persistent access to digital information, data rights management, and content preservation, to name a few. The cooperation evident among researchers and practitioners and in partnerships with commercial

enterprise to design sustainable infrastructures for digital information (Borgman, 2000) will surely address some of the concerns articulated by the authors published here. If the reader also draws a linkage between these works, any proposal to enhance relationships and evolve greater collaboration among our interdisciplinary endeavors is advanced.

Suzanne Scott, Editor-in-Chief
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Reaching Escape Velocity and the Purpose of SLIS Student Research Journal

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Reaching Escape Velocity and the Purpose of SLIS *Student Research Journal*

Anthony Bernier, Associate Professor
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SLIS *Student Research Journal*

As we inaugurate and launch our school's new *Student Research Journal* I want to borrow a term used by our colleagues in physics because it applies to those of us who read, evaluate, edit, and produce research: "escape velocity." In our present context, escape velocity aptly characterizes what all new and original research must achieve in order contribute to our base of knowledge. More specifically *escape velocity* represents the intellectual 'breaking free' of the gravitational pull of current scholarship in library and information science and the charting of new vistas, identification of new questions, and the proposal of new answers as we advance our knowledge and insights about what comes next. *Escape velocity* is the demonstration that an author has mastered what the scholarship currently says, has creatively identified what they feel should come next, and has a few recommendations of ways in which to get there.

So the question before us as we launch our new journal is this: How can students reach escape velocity through the submissions selected for publication in the *SRJ* and within the contexts of our LIS and archival concerns? The answer, simply put, is to build upon and advance our work through the recognized patterns of academic literature, discourse, and practice.

This naturally raises the question: "What constitutes academic literature and discourse?" In this brief space I attempt to outline the salient features of these patterns largely within the vehicle of a "literature review." As someone interested in reading or editing or evaluating or even publishing in the *SRJ* you should know that these are also among the criteria used by our Editorial Team as it conducts the double-blind peer review process.

Among the best vehicles in which to achieve escape velocity, although certainly not the only vehicle, remains a successful literature review. The literature review is key to any scholarly field of study in its capacity to accurately assemble and synthesize a sense of "what's going on" about a particular topic at a particular time. This would be the "gravitational pull" of a particular topic… it grounds and locates the current center of scholarly achievement and answers the question "Where is the field?" on a defined subject or topical concern. Then, armed with this assessment, an author nominates new and exploratory research questions to build upon that scholarship, thus advancing our profession's knowledge and propelling the topic into *escape velocity*.

More specifically, a literature review performs two functions: first, to frame and ground one's discovery, analysis, and synthesis of the relevant secondary literature produced by scholars about a particular topic; and two, to inaugurate new questions, concerns, and inquiry beyond what we already know from that scholarship. Note that while a literature review does include applying reference skills and can be characterized as "doing research" on something, one must distinguish between "searching" for and discovery of the scholarly literature on a topic (through "tertiary" or reference sources and "secondary research") on the one hand, from conducting "primary research," which involves the collection and analysis of data and primary sources through the execution of explicit research methodology on the other. Literature reviews are constituted nearly entirely by tertiary (reference sources) and secondary research. It is common for students to confuse these terms so be aware that the same term "research" is often casually confused with conducting "reference" or search and discovery activities. They are not the same.

While it is true that there is no "standard" or formal "format" for a topical literature review, there are persistent scholarly practices widely viewed as more or less successful. The following recommended basic steps and tasks lead to producing an authentic and scholarly secondary literature review that, upon conclusion, would justifiably demonstrate that a researcher knows "what's going on" about a particular research topic, and is thereby also entitled to launch new questions and concerns that may lead to further original research.

Stepping Through to Escape Velocity

An author writing a literature review capable of reaching *escape velocity* begins by consulting updated and relevant "tertiary tools" (also known as reference tools) to identify the best search terms, vocabulary, and descriptors for a particular topic. These terms then inform the searching of appropriate indexes or databases (either print or electronic, depending on the topic and approach). Here search syntax strategies are deployed (using "Boolean operators," for instance, to expand, delimit, and refine searches) including searches of title words from relevant works; searching by author (if an authority); mining footnotes and endnotes of pertinent works; book reviews; and other published literature reviews, to name the most frequently employed methods.

Once the recent and relevant scholarship has been identified in scholarly monographs and peer-reviewed journal articles the intellectual labor shifts from searching and discovery to analysis. While space does not allow for a detailed treatment of all of the analytical aspects required of a quality literature review some key features deserve special attention. Researchers must identify the core

question – the "super-ordinate" question lying at the heart of each piece of scholarly writing. It is these core questions that drive research forward.

Another feature in building a literature review toward *escape velocity* is identifying each author's thesis as the single, overarching *answer* to his or her core question. Scholarly writing contains both – a core question and a thesis statement that together constitute the essential components for comparing and contrasting scholarly works, and help establish and propel one's new and current analysis of "where the field is" – of where the center of gravity lies. More important still is that together these two components provide comparable analytical stepping stones to the next step.

Once each of the relevant sources has been examined and the respective core questions and theses have been determined the time comes to *synthesize* these into a new framework. When examined side by side, how do *all the works under review* compare and contrast in terms of these essential components? How do respective works relate to, connect with, or contrast the other important works on the same topic? What core or over-arching questions emerge from *all* of the works when considered as a whole body of work? What thesis or answer to that core question emerges, again, from all of these works together?

Also helpful in contextualizing the literature is identifying several other aspects of the scholarship under review. Among these additional aspects are identifying the subordinate questions advanced by respective authors as well as their companion sub-theses. These components commonly appear within the contexts of sub-sections and sub-headings in longer works. What research methods were deployed in collecting or amassing and analyzing the data in the research? What methodological benefits and/or liabilities were evident and how were these treated in the respective works? How did authors respond to those liabilities?

This process of comparing and contrasting and distilling and compressing essential components of relevant scholarship into analytical categories constitutes the process of "synthesis." It is only upon completion of the synthesis of "where the field is" that one becomes qualified to nominate new and original questions to advance the field's knowledge base.

Note: This synthesis step in reaching *escape velocity* marks a significant difference between a literature review and an annotated bibliography. The former treats all the works collectively as one body of knowledge while the latter simply treats each item sequentially and individually.

Formulating new questions might come from observing gaps in the current literature (a user group or experience thus far ignored or slighted in the research

literature; a new technological procedure or process not yet recognized; a theoretical concern not addressed, among many other possibilities). Alternatively, new questions can come from observing that the previous scholarship has over-emphasized a group, an experience, a process, or theory.

Some students may better recognize synthesizing using other terms. The phrase "red thread," for instance, may be recognized by some to represent a common "theme" running through the material under examination. The caution here is that a "theme" is not a question, nor is a "red thread" a thesis statement. However, "red thread" does signal a dimension of commonality arising from a comprehensive examination of all the works in a collection of readings.

Once the new questions have been articulated the author of a successful literature review begins to sort, synthesize, and prioritize them. Which of these new questions combine into a larger concern? Which ones fall off for not being sufficiently large or important enough? Which ones appeal to the researcher as more interesting? Which is the most useful question for the profession to pursue at the present time?

It is only after synthesizing the topic's scholarly literature, and articulating a new and original question, that an author can begin to reach *escape velocity*. Arrival at a new question based upon the gaps or omissions from previous scholarship is also called making "the turn." "The turn" refers to that moment in a literature review in which the author swiftly characterizes *all* of the current and relevant scholarship in a brief and sweeping statement, before separating from it and launching off into articulating a new and original core question.

A scholarly literature review declares and demonstrates that the author can defend the originality of a new core question and is thus prepared to engage or recommend original research: collect, evaluate, and examine primary data, and articulate a new thesis in response to that core question.

Moving Toward a New Narrative

After the analytical steps have been completed the researcher will render the intellectual yield in narrative form. Here the basic rhetorical structure of any academic narrative comes into play: an introduction, supporting paragraphs, and conclusion. And here too literature reviews capable of reaching *escape velocity* demonstrate some common characteristics.

The Literature Review Introduction

An introduction includes the announcement of the overall topic, its importance to the field and an explanation of why it is important; it defines key terms; it notes basic features of the literature searching steps; it answers why

some aspects of a topic were selected for treatment and why others were not; it characterizes the current nature and state of the literature and points out significant landmark studies or scholars; it identifies how the literature review is organized (i.e. identifies sub-topics and sub-questions); it announces the single over-arching (super-ordinate) question; and, without the author having conducted original primary research, a good introduction offers the reader a speculative or "educated guess" as to the answer for that single core question.

Note: Due to the nature of most master degree programs it is important to realize that unless an author has had the opportunity to actually enter the field, collect and analyze original primary data, and render it within the context of established methodological practice (such as might occur in the process of producing a master's-level thesis), presenting original field research will be a difficult challenge to surmount. However, a well-executed and successful literature review does certainly qualify as a legitimate and valuable contribution to our secondary research knowledge.

The importance of both a single over-arching question and a thesis statement emerging from the literature under review appearing prominently in an introduction cannot be overemphasized. Without these essential and synthetic components characterizing the current "state of the field," a literature review cannot achieve its most valuable goal: to demonstrate to the reader that the author's work has reached *escape velocity*. Without a new core question emerging from the previous scholarship the narrative does not achieve much beyond being a merely descriptive summary "report" of the readings at hand. A literature review that does not offer the reader an over-arching synthetic question, such as "What a recent review of the scholarly LIS literature asks about our culture's view of librarians is…," demonstrates that the author has yet to truly master the covered works.

Note: One might consider the story of the auto mechanic to illustrate the importance of achieving this synthetic "state of the field" view. Say one was to leave one's car with an auto mechanic for the purpose of diagnosing a persistent problem and then return at the end of the day to inquire after the problem. Upon emerging from under the car's hood the mechanic says: "Well, it could be the transmission. Or it could be the muffler. Or it could be the carburetor." After having had the car all day to examine and to arrive only at a mere list of possible problems would not inspire much confidence in the mechanic's ability. A reasonable expectation would have been for the mechanic to identify one problem and offer, at minimum, a strategy or course of action to resolve the issue and seek approval to proceed. What the customer really wants from the mechanic is this:

"I've examined the car. Here's the problem. Here's what needs to be done." That is the same thing that readers want from a literature review: "I've examined the literature. Here are the gaps in what needs to be done next. Here's what I think so far."

The Literature Review in Sub-Sections

After the introduction, the second component of academic execution remains, of course, the body of the essay. The body supports the answer of the essay's core question in parts, that is to say, in sub-sections. Ideally these sub-section parts of the body each contribute a portion to the essay's thesis – in answer to the core question. These sub-sections have taken shape and form through the building of two, three, or sometimes even four groups of secondary sources (identified by the author) that have emerged in the analysis of the recent literature on the topic.

Because a literature review's primary objective is to conclude with the author's version of *escape velocity,* certain practices appearing in many other kinds of student writing should be viewed differently. One's own opinion, for instance, of a particular topic or subject or author should be clearly delineated from that of the authors' of the secondary literature under review. A literature review must properly and faithfully characterize the core questions and answers to those questions as rendered by their respective authors in order for the analysis to be useful. Second, quotations from the texts under review, especially long block quotes, should appear only sparingly. And, unlike in annotated bibliographies where the uniform demands of meta-data practices should be addressed, major or key scholarly works might well require more space than less influential works in a literature review.

Within each sub-section certain critical analytics should be applied to each secondary source under review, as well as to the group of works in that particular sub-section. Beyond identifying the respective core questions and thesis statements for the works in a particular sub-section, works can be compared and contrasted for strengths and weaknesses, methodological approaches, the effectiveness of the primary data analysis, and any gaps or omissions. No matter the specific criteria used to evaluate each item individually, the conclusion of a sub-section should point the reader back to the essay's overall core question. In other words, the concluding statement in each of the literature review's sub-sections should point out the commonalities that lead the author to constitute the works under review as a sub-section, and point out why and how these works, when treated together, address the essay's overall core question and contribute to the essay's thesis.

The criteria for assembling a group of secondary works into a sub-section will vary greatly and depend on many factors. Among the more common ways in

which to group secondary scholarship are by topic or subject of a work's major concern, date or era in which a work was published, the population under examination by a particular work, the institution under examination (for instance, all works on public libraries might indicate a sub-section, while academic libraries might be a second), particular theories or "schools of thought" (authors who believe that archivists treat all their procedures objectively, for instance, versus those who do not believe that is possible or achievable), among many examples. The process of selecting how to group or categorize the works under review constitutes a significant and creative act of intellectual labor. But it is also an essential component in producing a successful literature review.

Concluding a Literature Review

The third and final component of a literature review is the conclusion. As with the general format of a literature review's structure there may not be a strict "formula" for deploying an effective concluding section but there are components that commonly appear in successful essays. One common feature of a conclusion is how an author draws the sub-sectional components together to contribute to an assessment of the literature's overall core question and to answer that question furnished by each. This practice insures that the essay does not simply repeat the same over-arching question in each sub-section, and rather, provides the reader a sense of dynamic building of new discourse throughout the essay. Drawing together each sub-section in this way also proves to the reader that the essay's author has mastered the recent and relevant literature and is qualified to launch into *escape velocity*.

It is important to note that the core question arrived at by the author in the conclusion of a literature review must agree with the core question announced in the essay's introduction. It can be stated, of course, in varying terms. But, if the key function of the introduction is to preview where the essay is ultimately going, the conclusion must, of course, demonstrate to the reader that the essay delivers what it promised.

A second common feature of a conclusion is the way in which the author can add up the gaps or omissions and questions unanswered by the current literature. This is also a very creative moment in the literature review process. While the author should eventually arrive at and justify a single core question to drive future research forward so as to reach *escape velocity*, the conclusion is an excellent place also to list any unanswered questions.

Finally, after articulating a substantial new and original core question based upon analysis of previous scholarship, the author is now entitled to offer their educated guess to a provisional thesis or answer to that new question. The reason

that this is only an "educated guess" is because upon concluding a literature review the author has yet to gather and analyze new primary source data.

It is common for students to shy away from developing or asserting their own views at this point. While this is understandable to some degree, developing your professional point-of-view and volition is very important. Base your opinions of what might be investigated or researched next from what you have read and examined. After completing a thorough literature review you are informed enough about the scholarship to render an educated guess. Further, without the advantage of applying actual data to the new question it is impossible to be "wrong." After having read, analyzed, and synthesized the recent literature one is *entitled* to form and express an opinion. Seize that moment!

Using our *Student Research Journal*

This is the role our new *Student Research Journal* can play in the LIS field – a meaningful role in documenting graduate student views about "where the field is" and where they believe it needs to go. A successful literature review remains one of the best ways in which to achieve this *escape velocity*. Our *SRJ* thus offers you, as an emerging professional, a unique opportunity to directly apply your analytical skills both in exercising your professional volition and voice, as well as charting a new direction for the scholarship in our field: articulating a direction in which the field should take the next "turn."

As the faculty advisor for the journal, and speaking on behalf of the Editorial Advisory Board, we heartily invite you to take advantage of this opportunity. We welcome your contribution to advancing scholarly conversations and contributing to the School's developing community of research.

July 2011

Discovery Tools and Local Metadata Requirements in Academic Libraries

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Discovery Tools and Local Metadata Requirements in Academic Libraries

Librarians in the academy who work to optimize collection access face an onerous task given the complex nature of information and the information world. This complexity is reflected on academic library websites, which typically feature an online public access catalog (OPAC) as well as lists of database links, all of which function independently of one another. These distinct access choices require consolidation to facilitate efficient and effective searching for users who tend to engage in "Google-like" search behaviors. Discovery tools have been developed to address this problem, but their effectiveness depends on the quality of the metadata created to represent collection materials. This paper examines the current research on metadata creation practices employed in academic libraries to represent unique local collections—specifically institutional repository (IR) and special collections (SC) materials—in order to identify metadata quality issues that impede access to these resources in a discovery environment.

Problem Statement

To meet the scholarly research needs of students and faculty, academic librarians have traditionally been responsible not only for selecting resources but also for facilitating resource access. With the advent of electronic resources and the increasing demand for these resources among students and faculty, academic librarians must manage a widening and evolving array of electronic content.

> Not a week passes in an academic library without major electronic resource additions or revisions—new titles, changed titles, cancelled titles, platform upgrades and feature additions, or migrations to new platforms and vendors. Growth is not restricted simply to more online versions of print equivalents—more bibliographic databases, e-journals and e-books. "Born digital" genres are on the rise—numeric data resources, image galleries, multimedia reference works, and interactive tools. Over a remarkably short period of time, the range and complexity of commercial and open access electronic resources has expanded—from bibliographic indexes to full text, from electronic journals to electronic books, from text-based interfaces to GUI (graphical user interface), from plain text to digitized facsimile to "born digital" and multimedia. (Kichuk, 2010, p. 55)

Given the complex nature of electronic resources, the academic librarian's job of providing access can be quite challenging. Complicating this job further, publishers retain substantial control over electronic resource content and delivery (Bergstom, 2010; Evans & Saponaro, 2005; Torbert, 2008), and the subscription databases required for retrieving these materials are less controlled and consistent than OPACs (Collard & Whatley, 2011) and do not always function optimally (Beall, 2011; Gilbert, 2010). Consequently, an academic library's electronic

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collection can become quite extensive and complicated to search, yielding results that users may not sufficiently comprehend (Wolverton & Burke, 2009).

Federated search tools have shown promise for streamlining information retrieval by enabling users to query multiple databases simultaneously, albeit separately. Unfortunately, these tools have demonstrated inherent problems related to visibility and use, speed, and metadata inconsistencies (Collard & Whatley, 2011; Wolverton & Burke, 2009). Academic libraries are beginning to adopt new discovery tools to more effectively and efficiently streamline the search process in the hopes of facilitating better search results.

> Discovery tools…allow the user—through a single search box—to search a base index of metadata as well as many of the library's digital resources such as proprietary databases, the catalog, and institutional repositories. Mimicking the Google experience, results from both internal and external sources can be served up in a single relevancy-ranked batch. (Kenney, 2011, p. 25)

A notable advantage of discovery tools is that they can provide access not only to proprietary electronic content but to local collections as well. In their quests for information, users are more likely to use search engines than local metadata tools (Calhoun, as cited in Anderson, 2008), which are essential for finding unique materials held locally. Anderson (2008) suggests that providing access to these materials should become the focus of libraries, particularly academic libraries, if they are to remain viable in a changing information world. As Adamich (2010) aptly concludes,

> the online catalog still appears to be an important tool for locating library materials and accessing information. However its scope and role may be modified to become more of a marriage with other similar tools used to manage library materials and information access. (p. 4)

Discovery tools provide an opportunity for such a marriage and promise to make unique local collections more accessible, but they also put these collections at greater risk for being overlooked if the corresponding metadata—which must be created in-house—is not sufficiently developed to translate into appropriate relevancy rankings for the materials it represents. To investigate this matter, the following literature review looks specifically at metadata creation practices that are associated with IR and SC materials and focuses on metadata quality issues that might hinder access to these local collections of unique resources in a discovery environment.

Literature Review

Before adopting a discovery tool, an academic library would be well advised to consider metadata quality issues that might impede access to the unique local materials it collects. This review of the recent academic library literature reveals

some of these issues. It focuses on IR and SC materials—the two primary types of unique materials that comprise local collections and thus may not be adequately represented by their associated metadata—and the processes through which metadata is created to represent these resources for retrieval.

Institutional Repository (IR) Materials

According to Chapman, Reynolds, and Shreeves (2009), an IR "collects, manages, and disseminates materials produced by an institution" (p. 310). In a comparison of IRs at three major universities in the United States—the University of Minnesota, Johns Hopkins University, and the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign—these researchers investigated metadata creation processes and examined variations in metadata creation strategies across institutions. The IRs under investigation used the same DSpace software package and represented mixed metadata environments in which multiple metadata creation workflows were performed by creators (faculty and other researchers), managers (repository staff), and catalogers (library staff). A number of metadata creation issues were considered: inconsistency in metadata within each repository, lack of authority control, and complex controlled vocabularies. These researchers found that the blanket DSpace metadata format (Dublin Core) did not provide the flexibility required for describing materials given the diversity of disciplines and content formats represented, and they noted that IRs should incorporate a variety of metadata schemes and controlled vocabularies to provide more granular description. They also pointed out the need for more comprehensive metadata capabilities to capture administrative, structural, and standardized author identifier elements. Differences in metadata creation strategies across the IRs under investigation reflected local efforts to work around these issues, and the authors concluded that "metadata tool investment would help to minimize the amount of customization each institution has to do in order to produce metadata that meets their requirements" (Chapman et al., 2009, p. 324). This suggests that a mixed metadata environment requires a variety of metadata creation tools to capture the mix and thereby enhance discovery.

In another study concerned with IR metadata quality that looked at multiple metadata creation tools, Birrell, Dunsire, and Menzies (2010) investigated the interoperability, duplication, and authority control of OPACs and IRs by surveying 85 academic libraries across the United Kingdom. They found little evidence of interoperability between the metadata systems at each institution despite considerable overlap in content scope, reflecting duplication resulting from differences in the types of metadata contained in each metadata system (i.e., the OPAC and one or multiple IRs). Like Chapman et al. (2009), Birrell et al. (2010) suggested improving institutional research metadata through the creation

and maintenance of many different metadata tools:

> Duplication and scope overlap in fact serve a useful purpose in some instances, especially in an institution with multiple repositories. Different sites may be used by different types of user/community [sic], some feeling more at home (whether as depositors or users) when working within a departmental IR rather than a "centralized" one. Department IRs may be tailored around the needs of a specific user community (e.g., in terms of formats supported, subject granularity reflected, or tools built into the user interface). Some may prefer electronic journal catalogs where they can look at what other content appears in a given issue, rather than being limited to individual records; some researchers may prefer the interfaces of a "classic catalog," and others those of a "Web 2.0" style Resource Discovery Platform. (p. 398)

They also made the critical point that in order for this type of multi-use system to work, institution-wide processes must be developed so that each metadata instance is based on an original source to which it is then linked, thereby establishing a network of links to all other related metadata instances (Birrell et al., 2010). Such collaborative processes should facilitate the development of the rich metadata content necessary for increasing relevance in a discovery tool search by providing a mechanism for identifying and filling metadata gaps.

Boock and Kunda (2009) provide an example of collaborative processing in their assessment of metadata workflows for print and electronic theses and dissertations at the Oregon State University Libraries. Workflow collaboration was driven by the need to streamline processes due to library staff reductions, resulting in a process in which IR metadata is generated first in Dublin Core using DSpace then mapped to Machine-readable cataloging (MARC) using a modified version of MarcEdit to generate OPAC metadata, a duplication of efforts that a discovery tool might render unnecessary unless the OPAC metadata is then enriched. However, they asserted that full subject analysis for these materials may no longer be warranted and could be discontinued to yield greater workflow efficiencies. They also claimed that the use of Library of Congress Subject Headings (LCSH) is impractical due to time and cost considerations and that the utility of LCSH to researchers is questionable, but they conceded that "a more thorough analysis is necessary before making a decision to discontinue the long-standing library practice" (Boock & Kunda, 2009, p. 303). However, as McCutcheon (2009) concluded in her comparison of keyword versus controlled vocabulary searching, "the one with the most tools wins" (p. 62), reinforcing the notion that metadata enrichment is essential to enhanced discovery.

Lubas (2009) looked at the issue of metadata enrichment in her research on thesis and dissertation metadata, which focused on electronic materials in an

attempt to identify best practices for metadata creation given a new electronic-only collection policy at the University of New Mexico. Her article addressed concerns about the duplication of metadata in DSpace and the OPAC, the enrichment of author submitted metadata, and the standardization of metadata creation. She pointed out that DSpace enables full-text searching and provides the ability to create descriptive metadata using Dublin Core; however, like Chapman et al. (2009), she lamented the lack of metadata elements in Dublin Core that are critical for thesis and dissertation discovery. Her literature review indicated that institutions have dealt with their IR systems' limited thesis and dissertation metadata capabilities either by including supplemental metadata in linked MARC OPAC records or by creating descriptive metadata records in MARC that are housed in the OPAC but linked to full-text records housed in the IR system. These solutions required the development of standardized metadata creation processes and methods for correcting inadequacies and inconsistencies in the author-supplied metadata on which these processes have relied. According to Lubas (2009):

> While during the early days the use of a simplified metadata element set such as Dublin Core may have seemed limiting, over the course of a decade of experience with electronic theses and dissertations metadata reveals [sic] that blending the use of qualified Dublin Core with harvesting and crosswalks, plus creating tools to encourage better results from author-generated metadata have proved useful. (p. 257)

However, the University of New Mexico had not yet progressed to this point at the time of her study:

> Prior to this study [and the change to an electronic-only thesis and dissertation submission requirement] in spring 2009, the author-submitted Dublin Core metadata was not reviewed in detail or enhanced by a cataloger or metadata specialist. There was no connection between the metadata for the electronic version and paper version; no link for the electronic version was added to the MARC metadata for the paper version. (p. 254)

Based on her assessment of the thesis and dissertation data submitted under the electronic-only requirement, Lubas (2009) recommended a hybrid approach that commits to Dublin Core-based IR records, which can then be harvested directly, and then crosswalks those records to MARC for local discovery via the OPAC and remote discovery via the Online Computer Library Center (OCLC). While noting that discovery tools and OCLC can also harvest Dublin Core, she made the point that converting to MARC enables institutions to enhance records to fuller levels for more effective local and remote searching. She indicated that this should be accomplished through incremental metadata creation, starting first with the development of IR metadata for immediate full-text searching followed

by metadata enhancement through more time-intensive MARC record development to enhance discovery.

McCutcheon, Kreyche, Maurer, and Nickerson (2008) also looked at an incremental approach to enhancing the discovery of electronic theses and dissertations in their study examining the development of Kent State University's metadata creation process. These researchers described efforts to "promote and devise electronic thesis and dissertation (ETD) storage at OhioLINK's ETD Center, to find efficient methods to represent these unique scholarly materials within the library's catalog, and to foster the establishment of state-wide library catalog standards for ETDs" (McCutcheon et al., 2008, p. 41). The university uses a consortium's IR rather than an institutional IR to provide its scholarly material with broad, immediate visibility using author-supplied metadata; the IR metadata is then extracted, modified, enhanced, and inserted into the OPAC through a semiautomatic process that was developed to create provisional records for immediate catalog access using a Perl program and the Open Archives Initiative for Metadata Harvesting Protocol (OAI-PMH); the resulting records are then enhanced using ETD-specific cataloging standards developed specifically for this purpose; and the completed MARC records are then shared with OCLC for further discovery enhancement (McCutcheon et al., 2008). This comprehensive, enriching metadata creation process seems ideal for optimizing ETD access via a discovery tool, but the authors noted that it requires great flexibility and collaborative cooperation on the part of catalogers and systems professionals.

Special Collections (SC) Materials

Like IR materials, SC materials are unique to their institutions, rely on locally created metadata for access, and as such are at risk for being overlooked in a discovery environment if metadata quality standards fall short. Han, Cho, Cole, and Jackson (2009) defined SC materials as "materials that need special care and arrangement, or collections of materials that have been assembled for specific themes" (p. 214). These researchers looked at CONTENTdm metadata created for the digital surrogates of different types of SC materials to support local access at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign. Their objective was to investigate quality issues associated with mapping this metadata to Dublin Core using OAI-PMH to enable sharing with external metadata aggregators. They noted that although it is based on Dublin Core, CONTENTdm allows for more detailed description and is widely employed in academic libraries to create local metadata that can be tailored to capture unique attributes and contextual information pertaining to different SC materials; however, external aggregators require standardized metadata records, so sharing requires that CONTENTdm metadata be mapped to Dublin Core, which is the minimum standard for use with OAI-

PMH. Han et al., (2009) found that this process diminishes metadata quality due to inadequate mapping capabilities, and they identified six considerations for creating CONTENTdm metadata to facilitate interoperability with Dublin Core:

1. Balancing specificity and generality in defining unique local fields.
2. Deciding in advance which unique fields should be shared and which should remain local.
3. Being cognizant of how values will be created in the local environment and how they will translate to Dublin Core.
4. Maximizing the use of Dublin Core elements for labeling.
5. Using field names and definitions from other metadata standards that have crosswalks to Dublin Core.
6. Sharing the logic of mapping decisions with aggregators.

(pp. 233-235)

Since discovery tools aggregate local metadata as well as proprietary metadata, these findings bear consideration for ensuring that unique SC metadata is sufficiently developed for optimal harvesting and highlights the need for developing interoperable SC metadata at the local level.

In an article that illustrates how another university handled the metadata interoperability issues associated with SC materials, Hurford and Runyon (2011) described the management a born-digital collection of 30,000 orchid photographs that was donated to the Ball State University Digital Media Repository. According to the authors, managing a born-digital collection challenged traditional archival processing methods and description standards and required more than the usual amount of institutional collaboration to arrange, describe, edit, and make available to researchers; however, they were able to implement a metadata creation process that appears to address the issues identified by Han et al. (2009). Local metadata was created so that it would not only be accepted and displayed in a standardized way in the repository using CONTENTdm, but it could also mapped successfully to Dublin Core. This strategy addressed interoperability as part of the metadata creation process and would likely facilitate access via a local discovery tool. Unfortunately, this project has been labor-intensive and slow, resulting in a backlog of materials that cannot be accessed at all (Hurford & Runyon, 2011).

Nelson (2010) also described a labor-intensive metadata creation process in his paper focusing on the cello music collection at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. This process has been so labor intensive that it has required the expertise of a specialist cataloger; the Cello Music Cataloger is a tenure-track librarian who performs both the technical services and the public services functions associated with managing this collection. The position reports to cataloging but liaises with the SC department and the music library, suggesting

considerable collaboration. Most of work to date has focused on high-quality, research-intensive, original cataloging to provide access to manuscript materials that are "uncommonly rich in the raw materials of original scholarship" (Nelson, 2010, p. 639). Collaboration has been reserved for the public services component of the position. This model has created organizational problems, not just because it is labor intensive, but also because it does not incorporate other media types, or leverage other metadata creation processes that have been developed and collaboratively implemented to support research more broadly throughout the university (Nelson, 2010). While traditional cataloging might provide the rich metadata required to increase the relevancy of selected collection items for local access using a discovery tool, other materials that are required to provide collection balance must be adequately represented as well, rather than overlooked altogether in the metadata creation process.

One of the biggest conflicts in the processing of SC materials has resulted from a "desire to provide superior physical care and descriptive strength for…collections and the resultant proliferation of…unprocessed backlog[s]" (Cox, 2010, p. 135). Greene and Meissner (2005) introduced the notion of *more product, less process* (MPLP) to resolve this conflict, arguing that the goal of processing should be to maximize user access to collections by eliminating tasks that are not productive and adopting minimal processing standards. To assess the impact of MPLP, Crowe and Spilman (2010) conducted a survey of American archivists and concluded that MPLP has been widely accepted and has improved processing backlogs, researcher access, and reference service outcomes. However, they noted that research on the effects of MPLP on descriptive practice is lacking. This is a critical issue for discovery given "Greene and Meissner's recommendation that description of a collection should match the level of arrangement" (Crowe & Spilman, 2010, p. 122). Eisloeffel (2010) pointed out that while Greene and Meissner's 2005 work "focused on larger twentieth century collections of records as their baseline, admittedly focusing on 'the paper issues'" (p. 20), it also recognized that some SC materials are more retrieval intensive and therefore require item-level treatment. In a more recent work, Meissner and Greene (2010) pointed out that MPLP, in fact, is not a processing dictate but rather a guide intended to help practitioners balance resources, in order to accomplish their goals within their own institutional contexts, while achieving economies along the way. Toward the goal of optimizing discovery, making SC materials visible by eliminating backlogs must be balanced with adequate description.

This balance has been illustrated by Cox (2010) in his model of maximal processing, developed at the University of Massachusetts. The model's first step is to provide comprehensive online access to holdings, whether they have been

processed or not. This is accomplished through a systematic review of each collection, the creation of standardized collection-level metadata, and the assignment of future processing priorities—the equivalent of MPLP. When implemented, this step resulted in "a relatively dramatic rise in use, with several smaller and previously obscure collections finding an audience along with the old, much used chestnuts" (Cox, 2010, p. 144) as well as a more expeditious workflow for processing new collections. The model's second step is to queue up collections for full processing:

> Arrangement and description are the keys to discovery, usability, and serviceability. Accessibility is not a binary, not a yes or no, but rather a continuum that extends from no description to full text availability, and as maximal processors, our goal is to push our collections as far along this spectrum as possible, privileging the benefits that accrue to our researchers over the limitations of our resources. (Cox, 2010, p. 145)

Finally, the model's third step is post-description, which recognizes the dynamic nature of collections and allows for additions, corrections, updates, and reprocessing in order to meet changing collection needs over time.

In an article illustrating how the description of unique, museum-type objects can be enhanced using methods similar to those described by Cox (2010), Baca and O'Keefe (2009) reflected on their efforts to integrate collaboratively created metadata within a traditional MARC framework. These researchers provided an overview of the struggle librarians face in their attempts "to create the kind of immediate access and instant gratification that Google seems to offer, [when] the area of metadata standards is experiencing a period of profound evolution" (Baca & O'Keefe, 2009, p. 59). They noted that metadata realities require librarians to judiciously and carefully employ a combination of standards to ensure that metadata creation yields online access tools that are viable and effective:

> Cataloging of unique, museum-type materials—whether in a library production system or elsewhere—require[s] different approaches, different standards, different skill sets and subject expertise. For most of these materials, the "item in hand" is not the source of core information, as it is for published materials. (Baca & O'Keefe, 2009, p. 60)

These researchers focused on two trends for facilitating metadata creation for these resources, so that "diverse data content standards and vocabulary tools can be integrated within the classic data structure/technical interchange format of MARC21 to better describe unique, museum-type objects, and to provide better end-user access and understanding" (Baca & O'Keefe, 2009, p. 59). The first trend is the use of *schema-agnostic* metadata like RDA, which is generally associated with MARC because of its origins in the cataloging world but can also be used effectively with other metadata schemes, like MODS and Dublin Core. The second trend is incremental metadata creation, which can be performed

collaboratively by trained staff from the variety of departments that participate in digitization projects. Baca and O'Keefe (2009) claimed that this type of metadata creation workflow can add to the intellectual value required for high-quality description while saving time and costs, assuming that the technical infrastructure required for activities like expert social tagging, as well as the organizational support required for the assumption of new roles, can be put in place. Based on these trends, they suggested employing a metadata creation process in which static resources are provided with dynamic records that develop over time to include a wide range of elements—capturing information about everything from the original work to groups, collections, and items to surrogates to related works—"in order to satisfy user expectations for one-stop information shopping" (Baca and O'Keefe, 2009, p. 67).

Implications for Practice and Research

Baca and O'Keefe's (2009) suggestion that dynamic records should be created for static resources provides the necessary framework for developing the rich metadata required for effectively accessing unique local materials using a discovery tool. However, they noted that this approach requires academic librarians to go beyond traditional cataloging practices that generate static records for static resources (e.g., books) and dynamic records for dynamic resources (e.g., serials and websites). Academic librarians must also consider the research on metadata creation for IR and SC materials, which highlights a number of quality issues that should be assessed and resolved to ensure that a discovery tool, once implemented, will yield optimal results. The research indicates that a variety of metadata creation tools are needed to capture the range of elements associated with different material types and that interoperability must be built into the overall metadata creation model to ensure optimal access to local resources via a single search interface. Furthermore, the research shows that standardization in the creation of metadata is essential for maintaining metadata consistency and that collaborative, incremental metadata creation processes are imperative for balancing immediate local resource access with the enhancement of local resource discovery.

Future research should address issues related to the quality of local metadata created for a wider range of purposes, such as user and expert tagging for improved keyword searching. As McCullough (2010) noted, discovery tools have been developed to facilitate both types of tagging, so the effectiveness of these and other broad local metadata creation processes should be evaluated. In addition, future research should assess the impact of different metadata creation processes—as well as the impact of changing these processes based on best practices suggested by the literature—on search effectiveness using discovery

tools to locate local materials. To date, discovery tool outcome studies have been limited and have not addressed local retrieval issues, although this is likely to change once discovery tools become more widely used in academic libraries. Research examining and comparing different discovery tools and how they operate is more common. "The discovery approach is still in its infancy" (Notess, 2011, p. 47) and therefore warrants ongoing examination and development.

Conclusion

The tide has shifted in academic libraries with the advent of discovery tools and their promise of a more "Google-like" search experience, moving information retrieval away from complicated, librarian-centered methods and toward a more streamlined process that accommodates today's user preferences. Discovery tools obviate the need to represent the vast array of proprietary electronic resources in the OPAC as well as in multiple stand-alone databases accessible via academic library websites, which is a boon to academic researchers who expect user-friendly search options, as well as to academic librarians who are responsible for ensuring that electronic resources are visible and accessible. However, these tools also create an imperative for enriching the metadata that represents unique local resources so these resources can withstand the relevancy competition that discovery tools impose during the information retrieval process. It is unfortunate that in the wake of *more product, less process* (Greene & Meissner, 2005), some practitioners have traded backlogs of local materials for inadequate processing while others have continued with exacting processing standards and have consequently missed opportunities to provide new materials in new formats to their users. "Ensuring users are always matched with the right resources for their need—and that they don't get lost in the vastness of information available online—is a critical component of the [l]ibrary's role" (McCullough, 2010, p. 10), one that requires institution-wide collaboration both to optimize and to assess user outcomes. The adoption of discovery tools should reduce the time required to manage proprietary electronic resources to such an extent that academic librarians will be able to focus on local collections needs, attendant metadata issues, and essential collaborations. These collaborations should extend to users, as well as to colleagues, and should focus on enriching metadata over time using multiple interoperable tools, developing research-based metadata creation standards, assessing metadata creation practices, and evaluating discovery tool outcomes. The implications of discovery tool adoption demand this shift in priorities to improve practice and advance knowledge in the field.

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Ethical Considerations in Web 2.0 Archives

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Ethical Considerations in Web 2.0 Archives

In April of 2010, digital media company Twitter announced that it had donated its entire archive of "Tweets," 140-character messages distributed via the Internet or telephone text message, to the Library of Congress (Stone, 2010). The gift consists of all public Tweets from 2006 on, numbering more than 50 million Tweets per day (Library of Congress, 2010). When we think of archives it is often about public figures – artists or politicians – who voluntarily donate their papers to an institution long after any expectation of personal privacy has passed. Or we may imagine materials created by ordinary people, such as letters and diaries that have been discovered or collected, rather than voluntarily donated. In these cases, the privacy of the affected persons is not a concern because the affected persons are deceased. Nonetheless, scholars have typically addressed ethics and privacy for these types of archives.

However, the decision by the Library of Congress to create and maintain a Twitter archive was not made by the users who generated the content; rather, the archive was donated by a corporate sponsor. Most users understand that their Web 2.0 creations are disseminated publicly. The Twitter Privacy Policy says as much (Twitter, 2011a), but as the volume of Web 2.0 materials grows, so does the interest in preserving it. One can imagine archives of Facebook posts, YouTube videos, or Flickr photographs that were not sanctioned for donation by the users who created the content or the users who are described or featured in the content. As Web 2.0 grows, the need for definite ethical guidelines for information professionals becomes acute.

This paper explores three issues related to the ethics of archiving Web 2.0 materials, and interprets professional ethics codes and scholarship to suggest possible answers to these questions. First, I consider whether Web 2.0 materials such as Tweets merit archive preservation and conclude that there is an ethical imperative to preserve these materials. Second, I explore whose privacy concerns must be considered and protected when users who generate Web 2.0 materials do not consent to, or have knowledge about, the archive; I conclude that there is an ethical obligation to protect the privacy of these so-called blind donors. Finally, I explore historical approaches for protecting the privacy of blind donors, and suggest ways to adapt privacy protections in the Web 2.0 era.

Discussion

Ethical Codes

The Society of American Archivists (SAA) approved its most recent ethical code in 2005, at the start of the rise of Web 2.0 (SAA, 2005b). There are several provisions in the code that are applicable to digital archives. Under Professional

Relationships the code states, "Archivists select, preserve, and make available historical and documentary records of enduring value" (SAA, 2005a, para. 5).

Two separate sections address privacy. Under Access, the code states, "Archivists strive to promote open and equitable access. … Archivists may place restrictions on access for the protection of privacy or confidentiality of information in the records," (SAA, 2005a, para. 9); and under Privacy the code states:

> Archivists protect the privacy rights of donors *and individuals or groups who are the subject of records* [emphasis added]. They respect all users' right to privacy by maintaining the confidentiality of their research and protecting any personal information collected about them in accordance with the institution's security procedures. (SAA, 2005a, para. 9)

To summarize, the SAA (2005a) articulates three broad concerns relevant to archives of Web 2.0 materials: selecting historically valuable material; permitting open access to the material subject to reasonable privacy restrictions; and protecting privacy of donors and subjects of the records. The code does not spell out how to weigh these concerns when they are in conflict, and in fact the code states in its preamble, "It does not provide the solution to specific problems" (SAA, 2005a, para. 2[1]).

The International Council on Archives (ICA) adopted its most recent code of ethics in 1996. The ICA (1996) addresses the same general concerns about selection, access, and privacy as the SAA code and includes additional detail; one helpful recommendation is,

> Archivists negotiating with transferring officials or owners of records should seek fair decisions based on full consideration – when applicable – the following factors: authority to transfer, donate, or sell; financial arrangements and benefits; plans for processing; copyright and conditions of access. (para. 5)

This provision reminds archivists that they should not passively accept gifts, and should instead evaluate gifts in accordance with the recommended factors. This provision empowers archivists to negotiate with donors the conditions under which gifts are made. The ICA (1996) privacy provision also includes a special admonition on third-party privacy rights, stating, "they must respect the privacy of individuals who created or are the subjects of records, *especially those who had no voice in the use or disposition of the materials*" [emphasis added] (para. 7). The emphasized clause seems particularly relevant in the Web 2.0 era, wherein

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[1] SAA Code of Ethics for Archivists is currently being revised with proposed text submitted for member comment in spring 2011 (SAA, 2011). The proposed new Code contains provisions about archive purposes and restrictions to protect privacy with guidance to archivists; however, it does not yet address particular challenges presented by Web 2.0 archives.

corporations will be establishing archives of material created by third-party users who do not explicitly consent to or are unaware of the archive gift. Curiously, the SAA code contained a similar clause about those with no voice in the use or disposition of the archive, but the provision was deleted when the code was revised in 2005 (SAA, 2005b). Despite the amendment, the SAA code values third-party privacy.

There can be advantages to the ICA approach of including a specific reference to third-party privacy in the ethical code. Dingwall (2004) discussed the role of ethics codes for archivists, particularly as new technologies impact the profession. He argued that ethics codes, when adhered to, can preserve the public trust in archives, and accordingly, drafters of ethics codes must acknowledge that the public is a primary audience for ethics codes. Put simply, if ethics codes emphasize third-party privacy, those same third parties may be more trusting of digital archives generally. As archivists try to navigate new ethical questions that arise as a result of Web 2.0 the profession should endeavor to revise and update its ethics codes, both to provide guidance to professionals and to persuade the public that archives can protect public interests.

Ethical Imperative to Preserve Digital Archives

According to the SAA Code of Ethics for Archivists (2005a) archivists must preserve "historical and documentary records of enduring value" (para. 5). Several authors have made persuasive cases for maintaining archives despite potential violations of personal privacy. Danielsen (2005) described the archives of the East German State Security Service (Stasi) after the fall of the Berlin Wall. These archives raised enormous concerns about personal privacy, as East German citizens could have been exposed as either subjects of police investigation or police informants. Members of the Communist Party shredded a part of the archive, and an ad hoc government agency advocated for its destruction (p. 94). Nonetheless, Danielsen (2005) argued that taking extensive steps to preserve the archive with appropriate protections for individual privacy, including restoring the shredded materials and providing individuals with copies of their Stasi files, made the Republic stronger (pp. 110-111).

Allen (2005) argued that privacy should not come at the expense of other societal values; privacy can be over-valued, and "people not subject to [censure] may lack incentives for avoiding antisocial conduct" (p. 402). Allen (2005), referencing the writings of John Stuart Mill, argued that in certain circumstances, exposing criminal actions justified invasion of privacy. Privacy then, in and of itself, is not a sufficient reason not to maintain a Web 2.0 archive. The Danielsen and Allen examples justify invading privacy in the name of politics, crime, and justice – issues that our society values more than the subject of the average Tweet.

Balkin (2005) addressed this distinction in his essay on freedom of speech in the digital age. Specifically he argued the "republican" model of freedom of speech, by which citizens require freedom of speech to debate political topics, has been usurped by a digital model, by which citizens use speech to comment on arts, culture, media, and corporate control (pp. 325-332). Applying Balkin's (2005) analysis, a movie review is speech that is as essential to our democracy as a political endorsement.

Scholars have stressed the growing importance of archives of ordinary people in historical and sociological studies, including diaries, scrapbooks, letters, and popular culture (Berger, 2009). Schwarz (2005) argued that these non-traditional materials have been essential in preserving the history of marginalized communities, such as gays and lesbians. Hookway (2008) encouraged the use of blogs in social science research as preferable to diary research or interviews. As a source for research blogs are easy to access and provide insight into different cultures and communities without requiring the researcher to travel. Furthermore, blogs are not "contaminated" by the interests of the researcher; they are not constructed in response to an interview question (Hookway, 2008).

The Library of Congress makes an impressive case for the importance of the Twitter archive: "individually, [T]weets might seem insignificant, but viewed in the aggregate, they can be a resource for future generations to understand life in the 21st century" (Raymond, 2010, para. 6). Raymond (2010) referenced the past activities of the Library of Congress in archiving oral histories of veterans and citizens and argued that the Twitter archive will be a continuation of that, serving as a record of "citizen journalism" and "glimpses of the lives of ordinary people" (paras. 6-7). Digital archives of Web 2.0 technologies have intrinsic value as a record of our society's exercise of its freedoms and as a snapshot of everyday life. Accordingly, these meet the ethical criteria for records that merit preservation.

Questions of Access

MacNeil (1992), one of the foremost scholars in the area of individual privacy and archives, focused her early research on private data in government archives. She explored the archives of mundane information we provide to the government as a matter of course, either to fulfill our legal obligations or to obtain government benefits. MacNeil (1992) described privacy protections, including limiting access to personal information entirely, anonymizing data, and screening access to the archives based on the qualifications of the researcher or the nature of her project. Perhaps with thanks in part to MacNeil's work, statutes now protect much of the private information she was concerned about.

Anonymizing Data

Archives should be established with a purpose in mind, and should be administered in a way that is useful to the community the archive will serve. For example, MacNeil (1992) was concerned about archives of census data or records of welfare agencies. For those materials, anonymizing data and limiting access to personal information by masking out names, addresses, and other identifying information are sensible solutions. Visitors to those archives presumably will be more interested in data trends than in a particular individual's census form. Anonymizing data might thwart visitors who wish to learn personal details about their neighbors, but archives do not have to serve every interest of the public at large.

A Web 2.0 archive may have to include more identifying information in order to make it useful to its intended audience. It may be interesting to know the number of Tweets corresponding to a past news event, but it will be of greater historical interest to read the Tweets of the individuals personally involved in the news event. On the other hand, a Web 2.0 archive can restrict personal account information, such as users' addresses and credit card numbers. MacNeil's (1992) suggestions of anonymizing data and limiting access to personal information will have to be considered in connection with the mission of the archive.

Scholars-only Access Restrictions

MacNeil's (1992) suggestion of limiting access to an archive based on qualifications of the researcher and the nature of the project merits further discussion. When discussing electronic privacy, the public is typically concerned about employers, investigators, family members, or past and future romantic partners accessing digital information. No one seems too concerned about academic scholars, which makes this type of restriction attractive.

Geselbracht (1986) described the history of archival access restrictions at the Library of Congress Manuscript Division. The first archival manual, authored by the Division's assistant chief and published in the United States in 1913, warned against access to archives by a 'scandal-seeking' press. Later publications at the Division encouraged archivists to read the notes of scholars who had accessed archives, and permitted archivists to withhold quotations of libelous or personal nature. These restrictions were not lifted in entirety until 1963, in favor of an open access policy (Geselbrecht, 1986). Scholars-only restrictions can also impose a research monopoly on particular topics. For example, a past curator of the Rodin Museum in Paris restricted access to materials while she wrote what she hoped would be a definitive work on Rodin (Case & Xu, 1994). Similarly, when the Huntington Library made a complete photocopy of the Dead Sea Scrolls available to the public in 1991, the scholars who had been granted exclusive access to the

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materials for 40 years opposed the move. Nevertheless, democratic access can only benefit the public and the academic community (Case & Xu, 1994).

The United States Supreme Court has twice attempted to restrict its archives to scholars (Cox et al., 2009). After portions of oral arguments in a controversial case were broadcast on the radio, former Chief Justice Warren Burger learned that all recordings of Supreme Court oral arguments had been publicly available at the National Archives for decades; subsequently, he asked the National Archives to require anyone accessing the arguments to sign a statement agreeing that they would only use the records for private research and teaching. Eventually, the Court lifted restrictions on the tapes (Cox et al., 2009). Controversy arose again when former Supreme Court Justice Thurgood Marshall died and his papers were donated to the Library of Congress. The terms of the gift restricted access to "scholars or researchers engaged in serious research" (Cox et al., 2009, p. 44) but reporters immediately accessed the papers. Librarian of Congress James Billington defended its Open Access policy as consistent with Marshall's wishes, acknowledging that reporters can be engaged in serious research (Cox et al., 2009).

A scholars-only restriction is antithetical to the mission of many archives, as well as the SAA (2005) and ICA (1996) codes of ethics, which advocate open and equitable access to archives. These restrictions place a burden on administrators to evaluate scholars' credentials and the scope and breadth of their research and future projects. Ultimately, it is preferable to initially craft the mission of both the archive and the collection, and then permit all interested persons to view it, rather than restricting access to appropriate persons and projects.

Electronic Access

Electronic archives of digital material raise further concerns about security of information. Speck (2010) argues that all donors to archives in this era have an expectation that their materials may be digitized and placed on the Internet, and that archivists must address this issue in their agreements with the donor in order to reassure the donor that the archive is "forthright and sophisticated in its use of technology" (p. 49). Hodson (2006) is more circumspect, acknowledging, "it is one thing to make available possibly sensitive letters for research in a library reading room, but quite another to post them on the Internet, where they can be read potentially by millions of people" (para. 25). If we allow scholars to conveniently access a digital archive with a username and encrypted password, they might still provide access to others. This risk is not entirely a product of the digital era; certainly scholars have misused archival information in the past. But concerns about privacy are best served by imagining all the possible security

breaches that could occur. Archives in the Internet age should rely on privacy protections that are not dependent on the integrity of the user.

Sealing Archives to Protect Privacy

Hodson was one of the first scholars to discuss the issue of third-party privacy in manuscript collections, which are a step removed from government data collections described by MacNeil. Hodson (2005) wrote about archives of celebrity authors as a special case; unlike archives of political figures, writers' archives are often valued for the private nature of the contents. Furthermore, writers may include correspondence with third parties (lovers, friends, colleagues) who did not give permission or do not even know that their personal information is archived. Hodson (2005) advocated a commonly used procedure to protect individual privacy - namely, "sealing archives for a 'reasonable' period of time, possibly past the lifetime of the author" (p. 142).

Gaudette (2003), after exhaustively analyzing different types of protection for third-party materials in archives-materials created by persons she terms "blind-donors" (p. 21), concluded that "the simplest and most sensible solution" (p. 30) to the dilemma is to apply time restrictions to the entire archive or the portion that contains blind donor material. Gaudette (2003) proposed a restriction based on United States Copyright Law of life of the author plus 70 years, unless the blind donor consents to earlier inclusion in the archive.

Web 2.0 users are similar in nature to blind donors. They may understand that they are posting material on the Internet for their friends and family to access, and that strangers may also see the information as a matter of course; this is not necessarily the same as understanding that their web postings will be preserved, collected, and studied, perhaps even past their death. Regardless, both the Hodson (2005) and Gaudette (2003) proposals for sealing material in archives beyond the life of the author, while laudable for their simplicity and heady respect for privacy, would not work in the Internet era. Web 2.0 archives include the material of too many blind donors – the archivist would not be able to track all the users, nor their dates of death.

In a few decades of widespread public use, the Internet has transformed several times over. Internet communities have risen, fallen, and been forgotten in the space of years, and archives of Internet material should reflect how rapidly the medium changes. A time restriction on an Internet archive that is as lengthy as Hodson (2005) and Gaudette (2003) suggest would effectively result in an archive of questionable value.

Donor Agreements

Hodson (2006) argued that monitoring archives for privacy violations requires particular attention by the archivist:

> Archivists must examine the content of this material, must be aware of the donor's or family's knowledge of the material and their sensitivities about it, must keep in mind the currency of the material (i.e., is it contemporary?; how many people are still alive who might suffer invasion of privacy from the revelation of information in the material?), and must probe the motivations for considering restricting the material. (para. 20)

As previously described Hodson's (2005) work involved manuscript collections of famous authors. These collections, by definition, are smaller and circumscribed. While it may be desirable for archivists to know their collections inside and out, it is unlikely that Web 2.0 archivists will be able to master the contents of their archives, let alone the sensitivities and motivations of millions of people who participate in Web 2.0 activities.

Mark Greene, Director of the American Heritage Center and a Fellow of the Society of American Archivists, has criticized Hodson's approach as impractical for it is "implying archivists can afford to focus immense attention on making fine distinctions and decisions for small numbers of VIP collections" (Greene, 2005, p. 13). Archival collections of ordinary people merit the same attention and concern for third-party privacy as celebrity archives, but as a collection gets larger, knowing the collection intimately and making case-by-case decisions becomes more impractical (Greene, 2005).

In a separate article Greene (1993) considered whether questions of third-party privacy are best addressed by donor restrictions, suggesting that most archivists simply do not and should not impose institutional restrictions to protect third-party privacy. Greene acknowledged that archivists cannot know what material might be sensitive, damaging, or offensive to third parties, and that no two third-parties will necessarily view these issues similarly. Green (1993) writes,

> I consider it a fond delusion to believe that we can realistically find "sensitive" material in large, modern manuscript collections, that we can make tenable judgments about whether material represents a potential invasion of privacy, or that (as an alternative), we must self-impose lengthy restrictions on large portions of our collections. (p. 34)

Greene (1993) suggested that donor-imposed restrictions are ideal because donors presumably understand the privacy concerns of affected third parties whose names appear in the archives, and donors can impose restrictions to address privacy, including unequal restrictions, without violating any archival ethics codes. To draft thoughtful donor agreements that address third-party privacy,

Greene (1993) proposed a "donor version of the Miranda card" (p. 37), which would assure the donor understands their obligations and alternatives.

Greene's (1993) argument that archivists should not be taxed with protecting privacy on an item-by-item, person-by-person basis is very compelling. Requiring archivists to make judgment calls on materials before releasing them would be time-consuming and prone to error. Multiple archivists could reach different conclusions about the same material. Administration of this privacy scheme could bottleneck the operation of an archive, and excessive restrictions on sensitive material could hamper research efforts on sensitive topics. And yet, Greene's (1993) total confidence in donor agreements might be overestimated. Historically, donor agreements were used to restrict access to archives based on religion or gender (Case & Xu, 1994). When excerpts from former Supreme Court Justice Thurgood Marshall's papers appeared in the *Washington Post*, then Chief Justice Rehnquist explicitly threatened the Library of Congress, stating that "future donors of judicial papers will be inclined to look elsewhere" (Cox et al., 2009, pp. 44-45). When making agreements, donors may be motivated by factors that archivists rightly find unsavory or immaterial.

Particularly, I am troubled by Greene's (1993) suggestion that archivists can end-run around ethical obligations by permitting donors to place restrictions that an archivist cannot. In the Internet era it seems that many user privacy protections come about as a result of legislation or as the aftermath to large-scale public relations disasters following a breach of privacy. Corporations may have little incentive to create protections for third-party privacy, and when they do create those protections, they are doing so to protect their corporate interests rather than blind donor interests. Although donor agreements are one of the most practical tools to protect privacy, the thoughtful archivist must be prepared to suggest and influence corporate donors, and provide options and alternatives, including novel technical solutions. Archivists must also be prepared to turn down donated archives if the donor is not willing to address fundamental privacy concerns.

Twitter: A Case Study

Matt Raymond, Director of Communications for the Library of Congress, wrote a thoughtful blog post approximately two weeks after receiving the gift of the Twitter archive. In the post he described some safeguards that the Library of Congress would employ to protect the privacy of Twitter users. For example, private account information and deleted Tweets will not be included in the archive, and there will be a minimum six-month delay before the publication of a Tweet and its availability in the archive (Raymond, 2010). These precautions reflect scholarly suggestions made about protecting privacy in archives. The rules will be applied consistently and universally; this is a sensible approach where

affected blind donors will presumably number in the millions, and may be anonymous or pseudonymous. In the age of Web 2.0 archives, tracking privacy to the date of death of the user creator simply is not practical. Implementing some delay is wise, because it allows users to delete their account or individual Tweets if they post something they regret. A six-month delay is short, but in the fast-paced Web 2.0 world, a period of decades or even years might diminish the relevance or value of the archive.

Raymond (2010) states that the archive will be available to researchers, but it is not yet clear whether this is an institutional policy or a condition of the gift from Twitter. Given the Library of Congress's actions when the Thurgood Marshall papers were restricted to scholars, it is likely that this provision will be interpreted broadly. Since much of the Twitter archive will be available to search on Google (Stone, 2010), a scholars-only restriction has less practical import. Encouragingly, the Library of Congress (2010) plans to collaborate with researchers to assess issues of third-party privacy, using the Twitter archive as a case study. Use of the archive may expose some serious privacy violations as a result of the new technology, but the Library of Congress is cognizant of the potential for problems and committed to protecting privacy as an ongoing goal (Raymond, 2010).

Twitter's documentation of the archive issue however, is not as reassuring. Its Privacy Policy informs users, "Your public information is broadly and widely disseminated. … You should be careful about all information that will be made public by Twitter, not just your Tweets. … Tip: What you say on Twitter may be viewed all around the world instantly" (Twitter, 2011a, paras. 6-7). In its Information Sharing and Disclosure section, Twitter (2011a) does not reference the archive or the Library of Congress, merely stating, "We may share or disclose your non-private . . . information, such as your public Tweets" (para. 19). Similarly, in its Terms of Service, Twitter (2011b) reminds users they "consent to the collection and use (as set forth in the Privacy Policy) of this information, including the transfer of this information to the United States and/or other countries for storage, processing and use by Twitter" (para. 7).

Although it is not providing users with incorrect or false information, Twitter is capable of disclosing the Library of Congress Twitter archive in a more straightforward way. Explicit references to the archive institution and the restrictions placed on the archive would educate users and enable them to make more informed decisions about what they post. Twitter does include specific information about the archive, clearly stating, "It should be noted that there are some specifics regarding this arrangement. Only after a six-month delay can the Tweets be used for internal library use, for non-commercial research, public display by the library itself, and preservation" (Stone, 2011, para. 3). The

reference to "specifics regarding this arrangement" (Stone, 2011, para. 3) does suggest that Twitter and Library of Congress negotiated the terms of the gift. By including this information in a blog post rather than in its official Privacy Policy or Terms of Service, Twitter could be suggesting to users that the restrictions on the use of the archives are malleable or unimportant, and this may damage public trust in the archive, or in digital archives generally.

Conclusion

Archives of Web 2.0 information are essential and merit preservation. In order to protect the privacy of third parties who create the information, archivists should consider the following protective measures:

- Anonymize sensitive personal information, such as account registration information, that will not be useful to users, keeping in mind the mission of the archive;
- Seal archives for an appropriate period of time;
- Implement technical solutions to permit access to the archive while protecting privacy;
- Establish policies for addressing complaints and monitoring potential privacy violations;
- Revise and update professional ethics codes to address Web 2.0 archive challenges; and
- Educate other archivists about Web 2.0 archive problems and solutions.

Archivists should use their expertise to educate and influence donors of archive materials. In the case of a corporation donating material created by third parties, archivists should work with corporate donors to create policies that allow third parties to make informed decisions, such as:

- The archival institution, the existence of the archive, and the restrictions on its use should be clearly disclosed on the website's terms of service or privacy policy;
- Users should be given an opportunity to opt-out (or opt-in) to archives via a checkbox;
- Changes to the archive policy should be disclosed to users in the same way changes to the website's terms of service or privacy policy are disclosed; and
- In the event that archivists cannot persuade corporate donors to adopt measures reasonably protective of third-party privacy, and cannot protect third-party privacy completely in the archive in practice, the archive gift should not be accepted.

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Collection Development of HIV/AIDS Information Resources in American Libraries

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Andrews: Collection Development of HIV/AIDS Resources

Collection Development of HIV/AIDS Information Resources in American Libraries

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) remains an incurable epidemic that in the United States disproportionately affects men who have sex with men (MSM) and African Americans (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention [CDC], 2010b). Library and information science (LIS) professionals can play a vital role in keeping these higher risk groups informed about preventing or living with HIV/AIDS through a variety of current information resource formats that address their specific questions. This paper reviews collection development policies proposed by LIS professionals and libraries since the late 1980s and evaluates how these policies have taken higher-risk user groups into consideration. The review findings suggest that collection development policies have previously drawn attention to individual user groups and currently to user groups in developing countries, but that LIS researchers have consistently overlooked the most vulnerable groups of MSM and African Americans who still need up-to-date materials about the disease.

For statistics about HIV/AIDS in the United States the most recent publications available on the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) website were consulted. For information about library policies that pertain to disabilities and HIV/AIDS as a disability, documents available on the CDC and the American Library Association (ALA) websites were referenced. Print and electronic materials that address HIV/AIDS-related collection development in American libraries proved more difficult to research as relatively few texts are written on the subject. Searches of LIS and scholarly databases, including Academic Search Premier, Emerald Management Xtra, Library Literature & Information Science Full Text, Google Scholar, and ABI/INFORM Complete, as well as general search engines, retrieved materials and citations focused more on HIV/AIDS in developing African and Asian countries than in the United States. Consequently, bibliographic references in works that did address HIV/AIDS-related collection development in American libraries were reviewed in a chain-like fashion, subsequently supporting the chronological trends described in this paper and making evident the lack of current HIV/AIDS resources tailored to MSM and African Americans.

About HIV/AIDS

As a preface to the discussion of collection development policies related to HIV/AIDS, a background of the disease will underscore its severity in the United States and articulate its status as a disability relative to libraries. HIV cripples a person's immune system by destroying the CD4+ T cells that help fight diseases

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(CDC, 2010a). An HIV-positive person can develop AIDS, as the final stage of HIV infection, characterized by the immune system's inability to combat diseases and cancers. Although persons infected with HIV can delay the development of AIDS for decades by taking antiretroviral medications, no cure exists for the virus (CDC, 2010a). Scientific research has shown several possible routes of HIV infection; however, the three primary ways include unprotected sex with an HIV-positive person, sharing intravenous drug paraphernalia with an HIV-positive person, or being born to an HIV-positive mother (CDC, 2010a).

As of 2007 the CDC (2010b) estimates that 580,371 persons diagnosed with HIV live in the 37 states it studied, and that 459,594 persons with an AIDS diagnosis live in the United States. According to the CDC's 2008 estimates, the rate of HIV diagnoses in the 37 states from which it collected data was 19.4 per 100,000 population, while the rate of AIDS diagnoses in the United States was 12.2 per 100,000 population. From 2005 through 2008, the CDC (2010b) found no change in the rate of HIV diagnoses, except among people of Native American, Asian, and African descent, demonstrating the stark reality that HIV infections strike ethnic and racial minorities at a disproportionately higher rate than Caucasians in the United States.

The 2008 HIV infection rate for African Americans is 73.7 per 100,000 population, which is over three times higher than the overall rate of all other groups (CDC, 2010b). The 2008 CDC reported rates for Latino and Pacific Islander populations are also higher, at 25.0 and 22.8 per 100,000 population respectively. Another minority disproportionately affected by HIV includes men who have sex with men (MSM). From 2005 through 2008 the rate of HIV diagnoses among this group increased to 54% of all HIV diagnoses in the 37 states studied in 2008, almost double the rate among people who contracted HIV through heterosexual contact (CDC, 2010b). Clearly, MSM and African Americans represent two higher-risk groups, not entirely mutually exclusive, of persons more prone to becoming infected with HIV.

HIV/AIDS as a Disability

Under the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, HIV/AIDS is recognized as a disability, and a person diagnosed with HIV/AIDS, perceived to have an HIV/AIDS diagnosis, or associated with anyone who falls within these categories is protected from discrimination in "public accommodations, employment, transportation, state and local government services, and telecommunications" (ADA, 1996, p. 1). The ADA (2011) recognizes libraries as a public accommodation (Sec. 12281, 7(H)) wherein "no individual shall be discriminated against on the basis of disability in the full and equal enjoyment of the goods, services, facilities, privileges, advantages, or accommodations" (Sec.

12182, A). Depending on their funding sources, libraries would fall under state and local government services to also be considered places of employment.

The ALA's "Services to People with Disabilities: An Interpretation of the Library Bill of Rights" asserts that libraries should proactively provide equal access to its resources for all library users, including people with disabilities (ALA, 2009). Further bolstering the ADA, the ALA (1988) was early to adopt a resolution that recognized people with HIV/AIDS as *handicapped individuals* protected by anti-discrimination laws. With libraries' long-standing protection of people with AIDS/HIV in mind, this paper explores how libraries and LIS professionals in the United States have addressed HIV/AIDS issues through collection development, and whether their actions have taken into account the disproportionate effect that HIV/AIDS has on minority communities such as MSM and African Americans.

Beginnings of HIV/AIDS Collection Development

By 1989 the proliferation of scientific literature on AIDS garnered the attention of Self, Filardo, and Lancaster (1989), who concluded in their bibliometric survey of online databases that AIDS-related literature would continue to increase, and thus called "for the establishment of a specialized information center to collect this literature comprehensively to provide bibliographic control, and to exploit the literature in support of future research efforts" (p. 59); they noted their findings were in accordance with the CDC's intent to create a National AIDS Information Clearing System to serve as such an information center (CDC, 1990). This survey represented one of the first scholarly works within the LIS community to acknowledge the value of AIDS-related collection development; however, it could have expanded into the other subjects apparent in AIDS-related scientific literature, such as the prevalance of AIDS among MSM and African Americans. Referring to these realities would not have undermined the stance of Self et al. (1989) on an agency that collects comprehensive HIV/AIDS resources and could have spotlighted two higher risk segments of the general public, and by turn, library users with significant need for information about the developments in the HIV/AIDS epidemic.

During this period the CDC developed an information service known as the National AIDS Information Clearinghouse (NAIC), which provided free access to databases, through reference specialists who collected HIV/AIDS-related resources for scientific researchers, service organizations, and the general public (CDC, 1990). Although NAIC paralleled a library's traditional role of developing and providing access to a collection of information resources, it was not a library managed by LIS professionals; rather, it was a service managed by medical, health care, and social welfare professionals. It was not until approximately half a

decade after the research of LIS professionals Self et al. (1989) that the United States' two major national libraries, the Library of Congress (LC) and the National Library of Medicine (NLM), articulated a policy for library collection development of HIV/AIDS information resources. To suggest that NAIC had no influence on LIS professionals would be inaccurate, as Detlefsen and Huber (1991) favorably mentioned free posters from NAIC used in AIDS education displays to LIS audiences.

Among perceptions about HIV/AIDS in the LIS community during the late 1980s and early 1990s, Detlefsen and Huber's (1991) case study succinctly described how the School of Library and Information Science (SLIS) at the University of Pittsburgh combatted negative stereotypes of HIV/AIDS by raising HIV/AIDS awareness in its courses. Detlefsen and Huber (1991) included an annotated bibliography of print materials about the social aspects of HIV/AIDS, and even though their study is now 20 years old, LIS professionals can still derive general collection practices from it. In particular, libraries can consider creating exhibits and bibliographical materials about HIV/AIDS and develop instructional materials usful to other academic disciplines.

Despite identifying children and young adults as a group in need of HIV/AIDS materials, Detlefsen and Huber (1991) failed to emphasize the importance of collecting HIV/AIDS materials that specifically addressed high risk groups of MSM and African Americans; instead, the authors asserted that "AIDS does not discriminate by race, creed, color, age, or sexual orientation" (p. 237). Combating prejudiced views of HIV/AIDS by recognizing the disease as a universal threat is, and has comonly been, a successful technique to winning widespread public support, but LIS professionals should not neglect to source and collect current data about HIV/AIDS, and synthesize it into relevant information that may assist those at higher risk from becoming infected.

Hofacket (1993), an outspoken champion of HIV/AIDS information resources collection development, posed questions and concerns relevant to public libraries to develop HIV/AIDS collections, and urged librarians to identify resources that could be accessible to as many users and in as many formats as possible. She advocated that librarians consider their user populations' literacy levels, whether English is their users' preferred language, and recommended that librarians avoid censorship based on any personal assumptions about their user populations. Hofacket (1993) suggested materials that would be best for small libraries and encouraged large libraries to contact the AIDS Library (Philadelphia) for collection development recommendations because LC and NLM had yet to publish their joint policy on collecting HIV/AIDS information resources to guide libraries with sizable holdings.

http://scholarworks.sjsu.edu/slissrj   4

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As a conceptual basis for collection development, Hofacket (1993) stated that LIS professionals "can preserve and impose [their] own values, beliefs, and vocabulary on others, or [they] can present the honest, inclusive, understandable information that people need to stay healthy and alive" (p. 66). Bolstering this conceptual foundation, Hofacket (1993) asserted that her annotated bibliography's "intended audiences include[d] teens, men, and women; straight, gay, lesbians, or bisexual persons; intravenous drug users; and those who practice sadomasochism, oral, anal, or conventional sex" (p. 66), essentially every group at risk for contracting HIV. Hofacket (1993) also acknowledged information resources for prison populations; a group with a higher rate of confirmed AIDS cases than that of the general United States population since 1991, and more than three times higher by the end of 2004 (Maruschak, 2006).

Unfortunately, and commonly found in articles on HIV/AIDS collection development, Hofacket's 1993 bibliography now lists outdated materials. The author had then proposed acquiring many videos and some Spanish-language resources, perhaps in anticipation of both the increasing Latino population and the expansion of library media resources in the United States. Recognizing HIV/AIDS-related materials suitable for the Latino community again illuminates the importance of providing information to higher risk and/or minority groups disproportionately affected by HIV/AIDS. Like Detlefsen and Huber (1991), the recommendations by Hofacket (1993) addressed collection development for specific groups such as children, women, and the deaf, yet her focus was materials, including video and serial formats, suitable for those most at risk - MSM and African Americans.

Library of Congress (LC) and National Library of Medicine (NLM) HIV/AIDS Collection Development

In 1994, LC and NLM established their joint policy on collecting HIV/AIDS resources. Like Self et al. (1989), LC and NLM recognized the proliferation of HIV/AIDS information resources as both libraries acknowledged "simultaneous demand for information on the topic from the lay public and health professionals" (LC, 1994, para 2). The libraries' joint policy observed the rapid dissemination of HIV/AIDS information from scholarly research to popular reading materials was an "unusual situation" (LC, 1994, para 2), thereby justifying a collection development policy that specifically addressed HIV/AIDS as a medical and social issue.

Considering the growth of scholarly research regarding HIV/AIDS within the LIS community, it is doubtful that the overall high supply and demand of HIV/AIDS resources alone prompted the LC and NLM to establish the joint policy. The LIS professionals involved in the policy's development were likely

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aware of the LIS community's increasing awareness about HIV/AIDS issues as described by Detlefsen and Huber (1991), or perhaps they were encouraged by the HIV/AIDS-related collection policies developed by fellow LIS professionals such as Hofacket (1993). As models for libraries, in terms of collecting and cataloging materials, LC and NLM could not reasonably afford to lag behind other LIS professionals who were establishing focused HIV/AIDS information resource collections, and this may have served as an underlying catalyst to the two libraries' collaboration on a collection development policy.

Despite the joint policy, much of its structure and practices reveal divergent approaches that LC and NLM would take in developing HIV/AIDS information resource collections. Depending on their library users, LIS professionals can glean specific suggestions from the policy for developing local HIV/AIDS information resource collections. If a library's audience is primarily health professionals, it should follow the guidelines specific to the NLM, which "attempts to assemble a comprehensive collection of the scholarly biomedical literature of AIDS/HIV" (LC, 1994, para 5). Libraries with a broader audience should more closely follow the LC guidelines, which attempt "to acquire materials in all media which contribute to a knowledge of the cultural, ethical, psychological, legal, religious, social, economic, historical, and political aspects of AIDS/HIV" (LC, 1994, para 9). Public and academic libraries using this joint policy as an aid in developing their own HIV/AIDS collection policies should focus on LC's emphasis on audiovisual materials, which may be a more digestible medium for the general public in understanding HIV/AIDS issues.

Where LC and NLM converge in their joint policy is through their application of a collection level schema and four HIV/AIDS literature categories, though both often collect in each category at different levels. The policy charts literature category sub-categories and the collecting level that NLM and LC have adopted for each sub-category (LC, 1994). While higher risk minority groups such as MSM and African Africans are not explicitly mentioned in the schema, materials about them would certainly fall in the sub-categories of "Epidemiology of AIDS and HIV," which refer to "discrete populations" and "high risk groups" (LC, 1994, "AIDS Collecting Levels"). Such sub-categories are undoubtedly helpful to identify these minority groups from a statistical perspective, yet neither identify what these minority groups may face in their unique situations, nor how to educate or assist them in coping with HIV/AIDS. Admittedly, LC and NLM collect vast numbers of materials, but if one policy can approach epidemiology with such granularity it could also address other categories with the same depth. Another unfortunate weakness of the policy is, even with online databases such as NAIC and the comprehensive coverage of information formats, it fails to address online materials that can augment HIV/AIDS collections (CDC, 1990).

Dancy and Dutcher (2007) reported "HIV/AIDS continues to disproportionately affect certain groups in this country such as African American and Hispanic populations and minority women and children" (p. 324), and paralleled such disparity with the digital divide. Described by Gorman (2001), "if you are poor, disabled, rural, young, very old, and/or a resident of the inner city, it is more than likely that your access to 'the information age' is limited or nonexistent" (p. 10); thus, the digital divide illustrates the inadequate access to current HIV/AIDS information resources among these groups, and contributes to limiting people's knowledge to make informed decisions that may help them prevent contracting and spreading HIV and developing AIDS. NLM compensated for some deficits in its joint policy with LC through its collaborative efforts with the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of AIDS Research. Together, the two organizations sponsored the 1993 NIH HIV/AIDS Information Conference, which served "to review the various HIV/AIDS information services, assess NIH's current efforts in providing information services, and identify additional needs" (Dancy & Dutcher, 2007, p. 323). Since 1994, NLM has helped fund organizations, including libraries, seeking to improve their access to HIV/AIDS information resources, and has contributed to promoting electronic materials on the HIV/AIDS epidemic (Dancy & Dutcher, 2007). Public libraries have used NLM's financial support to "[enhance] both their print and video collections and [to establish] a technology base" (Dancy & Dutcher, 2007, p. 324), actions aligned with Hofacket's (1993) multi-format collection suggestions.

HIV/AIDS Epidemic and Women

LC and NLM crafted their policy according to the diversity of HIV/AIDS information formats rather than the diversity of user populations, and this created a void in scholarly literature that LIS professionals quickly sought to fill through their own research and policy suggestions. Among these professionals were Gillaspy and Huber (1996), whose research identified women as a particular group in need of HIV/AIDS information resources because in 1995 women and children represented "the fastest growing group of new AIDS patients in the United States" (p. 24). Gillaspy and Huber (1996) believed that the HIV/AIDS epidemic would continue to precipitate among women, observing that "HIV+ women seem likely to continue more rapid disease progression and mortality rates than HIV+ men" (p. 24).

The most recent CDC reports on HIV/AIDS, however, invalidate this forecast; AIDS diagnoses among women decreased between 2005-2008, while HIV diagnoses among women during the same years remained stable (CDC, 2010b). For men, AIDS diagnoses remained stable between 2005-2008, while HIV diagnoses during the same period increased (CDC, 2010b). These figures suggest

that contrary to the mid-1990s fears expressed by Gillaspy and Huber (1996), HIV/AIDS remains a disease that predominantly affects men. Furthermore, Gillaspy and Huber (1996) failed to refine their argument for developing women-oriented HIV/AIDS information collections by not incorporating racial and ethnic differences into their research and instead addressing only geographic and linguistic data. Nevertheless, if Gillaspy and Huber (1996) had addressed racial and ethnic differences they could have outlined the state of HIV/AIDS information resources for women in the higher-risk groups of African American and Latino communities.

Gillaspy and Huber (1996) researched a related issue evident during the mid-1990s, which was women with HIV/AIDS were not receiving as much attention as other groups from health care professionals due to the "paucity of literature" (p. 24) about women with HIV/AIDS. Gillaspy and Huber's (1996) conclusion that "access to health care goes hand-in-hand with access to information" (p. 24) is one that LIS professionals should consider when assessing their library user groups and specific needs for adequate HIV/AIDS information resources. By studying the HIV/AIDS-related information needs for a particular user group, Gillaspy and Huber (1996) augmented LC and NLM's policy of collecting diverse formats, such as speciality journals, conferences, monographs, videotapes, and newsletters, and to include electronic resource collections—a format distinctly absent in the LC and NLM's 1994 joint policy. However, Gillaspy & Huber (1996) warned libraries not to focus solely on electronic resources, describing such as lacking due to their "insufficient scope, lags in indexing, and human error" (p. 36), issues that persist today. Gillaspy and Huber (1996) characterised the civic role of LIS professonals to provide HIV/AIDS collections with "information forms the key resource for all professionals working in the epidemic; therefore, as professional managers and providers of information, librarians occupy a central role in the struggle against this disease, whomever and wherever it strikes" (p. 37), an enduring statement applicable to several topics today.

HIV/AIDS Collection Development during the Past Decade

Within the past decade other LIS professionals have continued Gillaspy and Huber's (1996) user-oriented HIV/AIDS collection development policies. Perry (2001) stresses the civic role of public libraries to provide free or inexpensive HIV/AIDS information to users, especially minorities and the poor, and artciluates the challenges that both censorship and Judeo-Christian values pose on libraries when providing access to such resources. In contrast to LIS professionals Detlefsen and Huber (1991) who suggested the need for HIV/AIDS information resources for youth, Perry (2001) describes highly vocal opinions of LIS professionals, community groups, and media pundits who each suggest that

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sexually explicit information should be restricted, and filtered on public computer terminals accessing the Internet in order "to protect the nation's youth" (p. 121). Opposing this view, the ALA Intellectual Freedom Committee (2000) states "libraries are governmental institutions subject to the First Amendment, which forbids them from restricting information based on viewpoint or content discrimination" ("Problems"), and cannot reasonably filter or control access to certain content, suggesting that parents take responsibility for regulating their children's Internet usage. Perry (2001) characterized the ALA as "traumatized" and "under attack" in its struggle to ensure "unhindered access to information representing the broadest spectrum of opinions possible" (p. 121).

Gross, Goldsmith and Carruth (2008) suggest current HIV/AIDS awareness education focuses on the epidemic in developing countries, which "may be an unintended message for young people in the United States that their own health is not at risk" (p. 400). LIS professionals must be aware that HIV/AIDS is still an epidemic in the United States, and that they can better serve American youth by arming them with sufficient and current HIV/AIDS information resources that may help them prevent contracting the disease.

Perry (2001) summarizes the historical reaction of libraries toward HIV/AIDS as responsive in terms of collection development yet lacking in terms of information services; he concludes that a more proactive approach is necessary, recommending that public librarians cooperate with local organizations to develop HIV/AIDS information services. Perry (2001) accentuates the importance of choosing materials suitable to the local population citing literacy, language, and the explicitness of content as major considerations, but adds that collection budgets should allow for some technical biomedical materials that users with HIV/AIDS will demand. For materials and online resources about HIV/AIDS for children, Perry (2001) recommends a collaborative approach with community members when selecting resources in order to minimize controversy that can arise from data about sexual and drug-related issues relevant to HIV transmission. Involving community members in the collection development process would better assist LIS professionals in directly identifying their users' HIV/AIDS-related needs, rather than attempting to extract these needs from bibliometrics. By addressing minorities in specific sections of his bibliography, including the higher-risk MSM and African American groups, Perry (2001) revived Hofacket's (1993) *inclusive collection development* stance, which emphasized the needs of those most vulnerable in the HIV/AIDS epidemic that should underpin collection development decisions.

Williams (2007) exemplifies the collaborative model in her annotated bibliography, which has been a valuable resource for libraries that serve large African American populations, and is one of the few current bibliographies on

HIV/AIDS resources specific to this demographic. African Americans, as a higher risk group in the HIV/AIDS epidemic, deserve the focused attention of LIS professionals developing resource collections; figures cited by Williams (2007) strongly support such: "while they make up only 13 percent of the U.S. population, blacks accounted for a shocking 50 percent of Americans diagnosed with HIV/AIDS in 2004" (para 2). Criticizing the "sorry lack of print materials" (Williams, 2007, para 7) on HIV/AIDS and African Americans, she also references Hofacket (1993) as one of the last LIS professionals to adequately address the collection issue.

To develop collections of current materials, of various formats and for different audiences, Williams (2007) recommends a comprehensive set of resources pertinent to HIV/AIDS in the African American community, and an extensive list of relevant websites. Libraries that serve African American populations could benefit from adding the suggested materials to their collections and providing links to the online resources on their websites. One major recommendation of Williams (2007) is that librarians discard outdated medical books and only carry current literature because research findings and medical practices in the field of HIV/AIDS are rapidly changing. She also identifies the intersection of MSM and African Americans with title recommendations about the "down low" phenomenon and about gay African Americans. About the book, *On the Down Low: A Journey into the Lives of "Straight" Black Men Who Sleep with Men*, Williams (2007) urges "public library patrons will want this controversial title" ("For Individuals"), reiterating the demand of HIV/AIDS information described by Self et al. (1989) and the controversy of HIV/AIDS resources detailed by Perry (2001).

The HIV/AIDS Resource Library of the Columbus AIDS Task Force (CATF) in Columbus, Ohio is one library aligned with user-based collection development models and promoted in both Perry (2001) and Williams (2007). The HIV/AIDS Resource Library not only boasts a collection of interdisciplinary materials in diverse formats, it also "includes HIV resources of special interest to African-American, GLBT, Hispanic, Native American, deaf, adolescent, and over-50 communities" (Deevey & Behring, 2005, p. 30), therefore acknowledging that the HIV/AIDS epidemic affects different communities in different ways. This library reflects NLM's efforts to establish HIV/AIDS information resource collections for diverse populations, (Deevey & Behring, 2005).

In considering how libraries can organize HIV/AIDS collections, Deevey and Behring (2005) reviewed the ten domains concept described in Huber and Gillaspy's 1996 work, *HIV/AIDS and HIV/AIDS-Related Terminology*, and concluded it does not adequately correspond with reference questions typically asked by library users. In fact, Deevey and Behring (2005) identified the

cataloging of HIV/AIDS collections as an issue that must continue to evolve, stating, "libraries may need to consider organizing HIV materials by cultural groups in order to improve information services to specific populations" (p. 35), an approach that could help disseminate HIV/AIDS information to higher risk groups such as African Americans and MSM.

A New Approach to Collection Development

Fortunately during the past decade, researchers of HIV/AIDS-related collection development have focused on higher risk groups and on innovative strategies to address specific collection voids. Ondrusek (2002) describes an outstanding array of potential collection management methods for public and academic libraries whereby HIV/AIDS resources can be used for non-specialist research, emphasizing a development plan based on a chronological timeline of HIV/AIDS discoveries and publications. Ondrusek (2002) argues for the use of her timeline approach for three reasons: HIV/AIDS information has an interdisciplinary influence; HIV/AIDS events change quickly; and readers need accurate materials. Applying the Ondrusek (2002) timeline librarians can determine which materials to discard

Ondrusek's (2002) recommendations are rigorous: she advocates an annual evaluation of HIV/AIDS materials as well as incorporating HIV/AIDS reference replacements in the annual acquisitions budget due to the rapid changes in HIV/AIDS research and health care. She does, however, point out the value of retaining materials with retrospective information, which could be moved to a special collection or a closed reference section (Ondrusek, 2002). Additionally, Ondrusek staunchly supports supplementing or replacing library print collections with electronic versions and online resources because online materials can be revised quickly to reflect the most up-to-date information. LIS researchers Robinson and Graham (2010) caution that "even in higher income countries, such as the United States, nearly half the population has limited health literacy skills" (p. 295); therefore, LIS professionals need to act prudently about highly technical electronic resources and guide users in fully understanding the information. They suggest LIS professionals offer information literacy classes to low-income HIV-positive patrons so this group can learn "what Internet health resources exist, where to find them on the Internet, how to evaluate what they find, and how to incorporate the new information into their existing knowledge base" (Robinson and Graham, 2010, p. 301).

Ondrusek's (2002) research of HIV/AIDS-related materials is primarily focused on global audiences as she contends "heterosexual sex was (and is) the main route of HIV transmission throughout Africa" (p. 50). Sub-Saharan Africans are a higher risk group than Americans to contract HIV, and of an "estimated 34.3

million adults and children living with HIV, worldwide, about 22.5 million are Africans scattered throughout sub-Saharan countries—many untreated and many more still undiagnosed" (Ondrusek, 2002, p. 64). While Ondrusek's research is not specific to higher risk groups such as MSM and African Americans, LIS professionals can still consider how its intersections and global discourse can help improve HIV/AIDS information resource collections in American libraries.

Conclusion

Since the late 1980s under the auspice of the ALA, LIS professionals have recognized the importance of ensuring equal access of information resources to their users affected by the HIV/AIDS epidemic; however, those who pioneered the development of HIV/AIDS information resource collections gravitated toward policies for broad audiences and not higher-risk groups including MSM and African Americans. Fortunately, Hofacket (1993) diverged from this 1990s trend, and LIS professionals subsequently researching HIV/AIDS-related collection development during the past decade have echoed her recommendations for both diverse formats and coverage to multiple user groups. Among the recommendations of Perry (2001) and Williams (2007) are an emphasis on establishing electronic resource collections, refining cataloging practices, and improving users' information literacy skills to make online resources more accessible and understood.

Although current research into HIV/AIDS-related collection development is oriented more toward Africa and developing countries, LIS professionals must not overlook the reality that HIV/AIDS remains an incurable epidemic in the United States. Americans, specifically MSM and African Americans, still desperately need access to current, understandable materials about HIV/AIDS, whether it's to answer specific medical questions and concerns, to prevent HIV infection, or to remain healthy as possible living with HIV/AIDS. MSM and African American have been most vulnerable to the disease, and their HIV/AIDS rates of infection are unfortunately not dropping. Rather than overlook MSM and African Americans, LIS professionals should advance these groups' information needs and promote collections and services that contribute significant, beneficial information resources that may help reverse the disproportionate risks of contracting HIV/AIDS among the MSM and African American communities.

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