(Re)Creating the Academic Library as Place for the 21st Century?

A Critical Analysis of Discourse

in Discussions of Academic Library Planning and Design

by

Catherine Closet-Crane

Emporia, Kansas

August 14. 2009

A dissertation

Presented to

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

The School of Library and Information Management

AN ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

FOR THE DEGREE DOCTOR IN PHILOSOPHY IN THE

SCHOOL OF LIBRARY AND INFORMATION MANAGEMENT

Catherine Closet-Crane

Presented on: August 14, 2009.

Title: (Re)Creating the Academic Library as Place for the 21st Century? A Critical Analysis of Discourses in Discussions of Academic Library Planning and Design

Abstract approved: Gwendolyn Alexander

Dr. Gwen Alexander, Chair

Taking a critical realist constructionist perspective and using Norman Fairclough's critical discourse analysis as a methodology, the aims of this study were to: 1) identify and describe interpretative repertoires activated in a corpus of selected texts from the LIS literature on academic libraries planning and design; 2) describe and interpret the order of discourse constituted in those texts; 3) critically analyze the effects of the discursive construction of the academic library as space and place for learning; and 4) provide a perspective on what is involved in planning and designing academic libraries as meaningful places in the life of the users. Eight texts were purposively selected to constitute a corpus for discourse analysis (Beagle, 1999, 2004, 2009; Bennett 2003, 2006, 2008; Halbert, 1999; and Tramdack, 1999). The intensive analysis of these texts led to the description of three essential interpretative repertoires: 1) Libraries as Information Commons (IC); 2) Libraries as Learning Commons (LC); and 3) Libraries Designed for Learning (LDL). Further examination of discursive activity and of the context around discourse construction showed that the activation of these interpretative repertoires contributes to the constitution of a higher order of discourse, that of the Academic Library as Learning Place (ALLP). Critical analysis focused on the examination of the effects this discourse may have on professional practices and the planning and design of academic libraries; three types of effects were found to be relevant to practitioners: 1) the production by the LIS community of discourse on academic libraries of a sizable body of literature on the information commons and on the learning commons; 2) the construction of new types of libraries on the commons model proposed by Beagle; and 3) the metaphorization of the library as business. Finally, it was found that from the perspective of architectural planning and design, the texts failed to discuss architectural space and place in a meaningful way. In conclusion, it is suggested that future discussions need to address the desirable physical, emotional, and environmental qualities of library spaces designed so that learning can happen.

Gwendolyn Alexander

Lynne Cooper Chase

Nancy Pickering Thomas

Gloria Leckie

Rebecca Miller

Gerrit Bleeker

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to give my deepest thanks to Dr. Nancy P. Thomas for her support, guidance, and mentoring during my academic journey and my dissertation process.

I also would like to thank Dr. Cecilia Salvatore for her guidance as doctoral program director during my studies at SLIM and for accepting to replace Dr. Thomas as chair of my committee from December 2008 to July 2009. I am also indebted to Dr. Lynne Cooper Chase who stepped in to join my committee in the spring of 2009, and to Dean Gwen Alexander for chairing my dissertation defense.

I want to express my gratitude to Dr. Gloria Leckie from the University of Western Ontario and Dr. Rebecca Miller from the University of Kentucky for manifesting their interest in my dissertation topic, for offering their encouragement and assistance when it first emerged, and for agreeing to be members on my committee. They have been very generous with their time; in sharing their knowledge, their support has been most helpful.

I want to acknowledge the role of my wonderful parents Jean-Claude and Françoise Closet for having nurtured in me the love of learning, for providing early on and always a propitious environment to satisfy my insatiable curiosity, and for their loving encouragement and pride at my achievements. I thank my siblings Anne, Valérie, and Jean-François for their support, especially Valérie who was at times my private documentaliste" and shared her expertise of the information world with me throughout my studies.

I am forever grateful to my beloved husband Louis Crane for accepting to live part of his sabbatical year abroad without me, and then arranging to spend spring months in Paris where I could write my dissertation near him and close to my family. I only wish I had finished writing my dissertation a day or two earlier to accompany him on his trip to a conference in the Azores. C'est la vie!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION CONTEXT AND STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM	1
Introduction	1
The Research Problem	4
Summary	8
2 BACKGROUND AND REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE	10
The Library as Space and Place: An Emergent Research Area in LIS	10
What Does the Expression "The Library as Place" Mean?	10
The Library as Space and Place in the LIS Literature	12
Recent Works Presented at the 2008 IFLA Conference	17
Academic Library Planning and Design 1998-2008	18
Monographs	18
Periodicals and Publicly Accessible Documents	21
Discourse Analysis Research in LIS	28
Introductions to the Uses of Discursive Perspectives in LIS	29
Socially-based Discourse Analysis and LIS Research	29

CHAPTER		Page
	Critical Discourse Analysis	31
	Summary	34
3	PHILOSOPHICAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS	36
	Social Constructionism as a Framework for LIS Research	38
	Social Constructionism as Ontology and Epistemology	38
	Critiques of Social Constructionism as Ontology	41
	Social Constructionism in LIS	43
	Critical Realism as Ontological Stance	45
	Bhaskar's Critical Realism	46
	Critical Realism, Semiosis, and Discourse	50
	Realism and Critical Realism in LIS: An Emerging Trend	52
	Discourse Analysis as Theoretical Framework for Methodology	57
	Discourse Analysis as Theory	57
	Critical Discourse Analysis	58
	Summary	61
4	METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY	63
	Critical Discourse Analysis as Methodology	63
	The Role of the Researcher	63
	Framework for Discourse Analysis as a Research Method	64
	Data	69

CHAPTER		Page
	Validity, Reliability, and Generalizability	70
	Validity	70
	Reliability	71
	Generalizability	71
	Research Design	72
	Pilot Studies	72
	Assumptions and Guiding Questions	75
	Approach to Corpus Selection	77
	Approach to Analysis	82
	Tools	84
	Believability, Verifiability, Fruitfulness and Transferability	85
5	DISCOURSE DESCRIPTION	88
	Context	89
	Origins of Texts	89
	Participants in the Discourse	90
	Themes	99
	Information Commons Theme	100
	Learning Commons Theme	103
	Library Designed for Learning Theme	104
	Traditional Library Theme	105
	Digital Age Environment Theme	106

CHAPTER | Page

Change Theme 108

Library Space Theme 109

Summary 110

6 DISCOURSE INTERPRETATION AND CRITICAL ANALYSIS 112

Discourse Interpretation 112

Configuration of Social Practices and Social Context around 112

Text Production

Social Context 115

Interpretative Repertoires 116

Constitution of an Order of Discourse 131

Critical Analysis 135

Effects of the "Academic Library as Learning Place" Discourse 135

Treatment of Space Design in the ALLP Discourse 145

Place-making and the ALLP Discourse 148

7 CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH 157

Conclusion 157

Summary 157

Conclusions of the Study 158

Limitations of the Study 159

Sample Size 159

Data Sources 160

Page

Data Selection 160

Ideology 161

Directions for Future Research 161

Place Making as the Design of Behavior Settings 161

A Proposed Research Program 162

REFERENCES 163

APPENDIX A Definitions of Key Terms 187

APPENDIX B Journals from which Articles Were Selected for the Literature Review 190

APPENDIX C Testing the Usability of NVivo 7 Software for Doing Discourse Analysis 191

APPENDIX D Texts Reviewed for Corpus Selection 194

APPENDIX E Example of Textual Analysis. 207

APPENDIX F Annotated Bibliography of Resources on Architectural Programming 230

COPYRIGHT NOTICE 236

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
Table 1	Themes Developed in "The Library as Place; History, Community, and Culture" (Bushman & Leckie, 2007)	14
Table 2	Periodical Articles and Essays; Summary of Genres	24
Table 3	Summary of Themes Developed in Periodical Articles and Essays	27
Table 4	Citation Analyses	80
Table 5	Summary of Relevant Controlled Vocabularies Describing Potential Texts	81
Table 6	Origins of Texts Summary	90
Table 7	Distribution of Themes	100
Table 8	Bibliographic descriptors used in Library Literature & Information Full Text Database	115
Table 9	Metaphor Distribution in Texts, Summary	117
Table 10	Design Goals for the Learning Library	151
Table 11	Spatial Needs for the Learning Library	152
Table 12	Concepts for a Learning Library	153

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
Figure 1	Research Questions	7
Figure 2	Distribution of Reviewed Articles across Journals	22
Figure 3	Fairclough's Methodological Process for Critical Discourse Analysis	68
Figure 4	Relationships Between Writers and Participants Called Upon	94
Figure 5	Participants in the Discourse Identified in the Texts	99
Figure 6	Social Practices Associated with the Production of Scholarly Writing	113
Figure 7	Network of Activities and Social Communities Surrounding Discursive Activity	116
Figure 8	Frequency Distribution of the Word *Commons* in Bennett-08	125
Figure 8	Constitution of the Academic Library as Learning Place Order of Discourse	134
Figure 10	*Problem Seeking* Programming Format	149
Figure 11	Statement of the Design Problem	154
Figure 12	Bubble Diagram of Space Needs Analysis	155

Chapter 1

Introduction, Context, and Statement of the Research Problem

Introduction

Since the last decades of the 20th century, there were naysayers who pronounced the brick and mortar library rendered obsolete by the digital revolution (e.g, Ross & Sennyey, 2008) and questioned the real value of the physical libraries (e.g, Miller, 2002). In fact, during that time library construction and renovation projects have been on the rise on American college and university campuses. An emerging discursive stream on the value of the "academic library as space and place" (e.g, Acker & Miller, 2005; Baker, 2000; Bennett, 2003, 2005, 2006; 2007a, 2007b, 2008; Boone, 2003, 2004; Shill & Tonner, 2003a, 2003b, 2004) was also counterbalancing the "deserted library" discourse that had been activated by Carlson (2001a and 2001b) and picked up by a number of library commentators (e.g, Ludwig & Starr, 2005; Stoeger Wilke, 2006; Waxman, Clemons, Banning, & McKelfresh, 2007). Thus, the academic library building, which has become a "hot" commodity in selling the university as a place for learning (see Cain & Reynolds' study, 2006), has also become a "hot" topic for academic librarianship as the profession considers this change.

A search of the available literature showed that toward the end of the 1990s there was an increase in the number of publications on the topic of academic library design that incorporated discussions of space and place. There were also more publications discussing the changes that were already underway or would have to take place for adapting the planning and design of academic libraries to the changing environment of the 21st century.

The importance of this change in perspective from bibliographic resource to library as educational essential was evident in the preoccupation with library planning, architecture, and design observed in journal articles, the texts of conference presentations, and the topics treated at professional seminars and workshops since the year 2000. In fact, in these discursive settings, new roles for the academic library facilities and their functions have been extensively discussed and new types of spaces and services have been described and prescribed.

Within the Library and Information Science (LIS) literature, themes were identified that together can be summarized as describing aspects of the library as space and place. These themes included accessibility to information resources and information and communication technologies (e.g, Beagle 1999, 2002), symbolism (e.g, Jackson & Hahn, 2008), academic community building (e.g, Davenport, 2006), learning place (e.g, Bennett, 2006, 2008), public place (e.g, Leckie & Hopkins, 2002), and third place (e.g, Fang, 2008). Within a discourse analytical perspective, these new ways of talking and writing about the library constitute interpretative repertoires and orders of discourse. In order to reach an understanding of the implications of these discursive activities for the future of library service and professional practice in academic libraries, it appeared to be necessary to investigate the phenomenon of re-construction of the academic library as space and place.

It was the purpose of this dissertation to begin studying the discourse on the academic library as space and place, its function, effects, and implications for professional practice and LIS research.

My principal motivation for studying the library as space and place stemmed from my multidisciplinary educational and professional background in LIS, in City Planning and Urbanism, in Architectural Practice, and in Architectural Education. From an architect's viewpoint, one area of building planning and design that poses problems in practice is the way clients construct discursively the building they have hired the architect to design for them. Therefore, I was drawn to examine the discursive construction of the library by members of the LIS profession. One of my long term goals is to uncover LIS discursive practices that can possibly affect the effective communication of design aims and expectations regarding academic library space planning and building design and in particular the goal of creating a sense of place.

In this context, the aim of this dissertation was to explore the constitution of discourse in on-going discussions of academic library planning and design through an analytical framework that paired a moderate social constructionist language-based research stance with a critical realist analytical philosophy. Using a qualitative discourse analytical approach inspired by Talja (1999) and grounded in Fairclough's theory of critical discourse analysis (in particular 2001, 2003), my dissertation research aimed to provide a starting point by identifying available interpretative repertoires and characterizing those at work in a sample of LIS texts. Talja (1999, p. 474) has asserted that, "the aim of discourse analysis is not only to identify interpretative repertoires, but to point out at the power and influence of particular narratives and to analyze their potential societal and institutional functions and effects." Hence, the purpose of my research was to draw attention to the creation of new themes and frameworks in the LIS literature which appear to have established a new paradigm for library planning and 21st century

academic library and to explain and critique discursive activity within a selected body of texts.

The Research Problem

The way we use language to describe and explain the world around us is not neutral. With the linguistic turn in the social sciences and the humanities, a series of qualitative research approaches called discourse analysis has been developed; they emphasize the role of language in the construction of social reality (Talja, 1999) and focus on the analysis of language in use.

For Jørgenson and Phillips (2002, p. 1), a common sense definition of discourse analysis is based on "the general idea that language is structured according to different patterns that people's utterances follow when they take part in different domains of social life. . . . 'Discourse analysis' is the analysis of these patterns." In his seminal work on the use of discourse analysis in LIS, Frohmann (1992, p. 136) borrows this description from Finlay: "discourse analysis studies *the way in which* objects or ideas are spoken about." The focus of my research was *the way in which* we speak about the academic library as facility and physical place.

Because there are different approaches to discourse analysis, there are also differing definitions of the term *discourse*. Social constructionist approaches to discourse analysis share the perspective that our ways of talking and writing play an active role in creating and changing our world, identities, and social relations (Jørgenson & Phillips, 2002, p. 1). In fact, Norman Fairclough, whose work has been particularly influential in the articulation of my research problem, views discourse to be language as a social practice (Fairclough, 1993, p. 138). In LIS, Talja (1999) describes discourse analysis as

the study of practices of producing knowledge and meaning in concrete contexts and institutions in a particular historical moment.

Different analysts use the term *discourse* to mean *language*, *interpretative repertoire*, or *order of discourse*. In the types of discourse studies that have influenced my work, instances of language use (e.g, articles, interviews, presentations) are analyzed as texts in order to identify discursive practices called *discourses* (Fairclough, 2003, p. 215) or *interpretative repertoires* (Fairclough, 1992b and 1993); in fact, for Talja (1999), these terms are synonyms. In my own work, I favor using the term *interpretative repertoire* as it has been introduced in the LIS scholarly discourse by Talja (1999, p. 474) and by Savolainen (2004). Borrowing from Potter and Wetherell, Savolainen describes interpretative repertoires as "available resources for making evaluations, constructing factual versions and performing particular actions" (2004; citing Potter & Wetherell, 1995).

The configurations of the discursive practices which are used within an institution or a social field constitute an *order of discourse* (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 67). Fairclough (2003, p. 220) describes an order of discourse as a way in which diverse genres, discourses (interpretative repertoires), and styles are networked together in a social domain. Orders of discourse are somewhat independent of individual actors and have "a relative stability and durability" (p. 220).

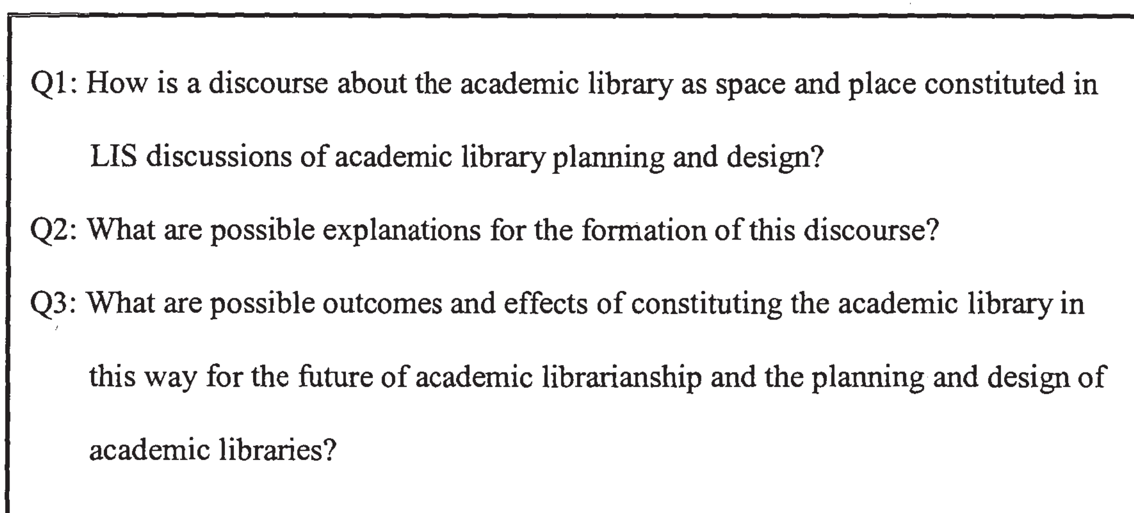
Definition of the Research Problem: Assumptions and Questions

In defining my research problem, I have assumed that, in their discussions of academic library planning and design, library workers, academic library administrators and managers, and scholars are communicating their views of what the space and place of

the academic library should be or become in the 21st century. Thus, these discussions are to be taken as communicative events taking place within a particular professional group. Those views, expressed in the context of professional conferences and workshops and in librarianship literature, are recorded in texts (articles and presentation essays). Applying critical discourse analysis as a methodology on a sample of texts called corpus, my dissertation explores the different ways discursive activity attempts to make sense of and give meaning to changes in planning and design perspectives for the academic library of the 21st century.

Discourse analysis research has been described in a deceptively simple manner by Philipps and Hardy (2002, pp. 29, and 63) as the process of: 1) selecting a substantive focus of research, 2) defining an "object of study in terms of an existing literature," 3) identifying a research problem, and 4) framing one or more research questions. However, most analysts agree that discourse analysis does not actually start with research questions as they are traditionally understood. The process begins, rather, with the simple question: What is going on here? In fact, a discourse analytical research project starts with the researcher noticing some "thing" happening in communicative events. That thing could be a concept, or a certain way of presenting ideas, facts, or phenomena, which is recurring across different texts in a body of literature; it could also be a theme going throughout one single text or a series of texts. From there, the researcher assumes that something worth analyzing and interpreting must be going on; then, if choosing to take a critical perspective, the researcher might be able to propose explanations, a critique, and perhaps suggestions for desirable change.

Accordingly, the process of defining an object of study for my dissertation research began with an intensive exploration of the LIS literature on academic libraries and the simple question: What is going on in professional discussions of library planning and design that attempt to (re)-define the academic library as space and place in the 21st century? This problem led me to pose three research questions that guided the development of my dissertation research (see Figure 1).


Q1: How is a discourse about the academic library as space and place constituted in LIS discussions of academic library planning and design?

Q2: What are possible explanations for the formation of this discourse?

Q3: What are possible outcomes and effects of constituting the academic library in this way for the future of academic librarianship and the planning and design of academic libraries?

Figure 1. Research Questions

Statement of Purpose

While there is a small body of recent research on the library as place within the LIS literature (see for example: Buschman & Leckie, 2007; CLIR, 2005; and Wiegand 2005a, 2005b), there has been little scholarly attention given to the emerging "academic-library as place" discursive phenomenon despite a growing volume of talk around that concept emanating from sources within and outside academia (university and academic library administrators, librarians and library staff on one hand;, and library consultants and library project architects on the other hand). My dissertation research was

exploratory in the sense that it relied on a descriptive, interpretive, analytical and critical study of discourses deployed in the LIS/librarianship community in on-going discussions of academic library planning and design rather than on the testing of a specific model. It was descriptive in that my goal was to highlight the strategies that different writers have been using in the course of discussing issues of academic library planning and design; this was achieved by examining the constitutive elements of discourse and the modes of production of discourse. It was interpretive and analytical because the purpose of my research was to dissect the interpretative repertoires that were activated and used in a purposive sample of articles and essays by members of the academic library community who re-envisioned and/or re-defined the role, mission, and physical design of academic libraries on 21st century college campuses. Finally, my work was critical because it aimed to bring to light some of the effects of academic-library-as-space-and-place discourses and the tensions and contradictions that may arise for library practitioners seeking to make sense of such discourses within the day to day framework of library practice.

Summary

My dissertation research was situated in the context of an emergent field of LIS scholarship investigating the concept of library-as-place. It was framed within the social-constructionist and discourse analytical LIS research traditions supplemented by the introduction of a critical realist philosophical stance. Discourse analytical theory constituted the general conceptual framework for my approach to research methodology; more precisely, critical discourse analysis was the theoretical and methodological framework that guided my research design.

With this dissertation, I sought to address two groups of readers: LIS scholars in the research areas of academic librarianship and library-as-space-and-place on the one hand, and, on the other hand, academic librarians, library administrators, and others who seek to engage with the articulation of concepts of space and place-making in support of their involvement in the planning of library design, construction, and renovation projects. In this dissertation, I review the existing literature which provided a background for my research in chapter 2; chapter 3 describes the philosophical and theoretical frameworks surrounding my research; chapter 4 addresses methodology and research design; chapter 5 describes the results of discourse analysis on a corpus of eight selected texts; chapter 6 interprets the results of discourse analysis and discusses discourse construction critically; and chapter 7 presents the conclusions of this research and offers directions for future enquiry.

Chapter 2

Background and Review of Relevant Literature

The Library as Space and Place: An Emergent Research Area in Library and Information Science

What Does the Expression "The Library as Place" Mean in the Library World?

To borrow from Janet Stoeger Wilke of the University of Nebraska at Kearney, the term *library as place* is "a phrase much in vogue in the library world" (2006, p. 1). This phrase has been liberally used in the last fifteen years as if its meaning were transparent; however, there is no consensus on a definition. The terminology *library as place* has sometimes been used simply to differentiate the physical, or brick-and-mortar, architectural and at times monumental embodiment of the library as opposed to the library as institutional entity (see for example, Bjarrum & Cranfield, 2004; Delambre, 2004; Dowlin, 2004; Foote, 2004; Wills, 2004). In the majority of cases, it has placed the physical library in opposition to the digital library and the digital world of the library (see for example, Bjarrum & Cranfield, 2004; Delambre, 2004; Dowlin, 2004; Templeton, 2008). However and interestingly, Pomerantz and Marchionini (2007) have made an argument for the digital library as place meant to fit in a "physical-conceptual continuum" occupied by both versions of the library (p. 506).

Sometimes the expression *library as space and place* has been used to refer to the ancillary functions of the library as archive and repository (Ross & Sennyey, 2008); at others, concerns for space planning, facilities management, and the other aspects of the physical plant were implicated (see for example, Beagle, 1999; Connoway, 2005; Martin, 2004; Kratz, 2003; Thélot & Mayeur, 2004; Thomas, 2000; Wills, 2004). The more

theoretical or conceptual writings have posited library as place with regard to the purpose the library fulfills or the function it performs for a community of users, and the place the library occupies in its community and in society (see for example, Alstad & Curry, 2003; Bennett, 2006; Bulpitt, 2004; Eigenbrodt, 2008; Fisher, Saxton, Edwards, & Mai, 2007; Gayton, 2008; Hershberger, Sua, & Murray, 2007; Leckie & Hopkins, 2002; Leckie, 2003; Noon, 2004; Owusu-Ansah, 2001; Templeton, 2008; Waxman, Clemons, Banning, & McKelfresh, 2007).

Finally, the term *library as place* has been used to denote the kind of environment the library offers in ways that evoke the concept of *sense of place* as it is used in the fields of cultural and human geography, architecture, environmental design, and planning. This sense of place is related to the experience of space and place as defined by Yi Fu Tuan (1977), the seminal author for this area of research. The concepts of space and place are associated with a phenomenological perspective that offers interesting possibilities for research into the "affective bond between people and place or setting" (Yi-Fu Tuan as cited in Buschman & Leckie, 2007, p. 7) which Tuan called "topophilia" (1974). Such an approach to research on the library as space and place has been extremely rare; a noteworthy exception was the pioneering work of Leckie and Hopkins (2002) and Given and Leckie (2003) on the public library central branches of Toronto and Vancouver in Canada. By the same token, in a recent conceptual article, Templeton (2008), a science librarian for NASA, suggested that the discourse of human geography is "homologous, instructive and confluent with respect to the LIS notion [of place]" (p. 198); he proposed taking a "phenomenological and constructivist approach" to study the library in the life of the users (and perhaps the user in the life of the library) in order to bring into focus the

boundaries of the library as place (p. 200). Enticing as it may be, Templeton's essay reads as a creative (re)construction based on theoretical concepts borrowed from an impressive list of philosophers and theorists from within and outside of LIS; it fails, however, to develop a coherent framework for on-the-ground investigation of the "human geography of the library" (p. 195).

The Library as Space and Place in the LIS Literature

Seminal works that introduce the concept of place in the scholarly discourse on libraries are the research and writings of Gloria Leckie from the University of Western Ontario. For example, Leckie and Hopkins's (2002) empirical study of the public's use of the Vancouver Public Library Central Branch and of the Toronto Reference Library explored the roles large central libraries play as public spaces. In particular, the study looked at the role of the central library as a type of public space within a changing urban context. Four different methods were employed in data collection: a content analysis of texts describing intent and aspirations of the library designers, an extensive patron survey, face-to-face interviews with library staff, and extended observation (pp. 333-334). The data yielded demographic information in regard to patrons' profiles, information about their library use, and information about patrons' perceptions of the libraries and their services. Analyzing and interpreting the data, Leckie and Hopkins concluded that libraries as public spaces have meanings and functions beyond the informational, that they were central to the life activities of their respondents, that they afforded the construction and experience of public culture, and that they provoked in users a deep sense of place and attachment, for instance, as extensions of their living rooms. In a complementary article, Given and Leckie (2003) described the spatial analysis techniques

borrowed from social geographer's research methods that they used to study patrons' activities in library spaces at the Toronto and Vancouver central libraries. Based on their observations, Given and Leckie pointed out the importance of the "library as interactive place" versus the "library as quiet space" (p. 382).

Further, Leckie (2004) proposed three perspectives or theoretical frameworks from which to consider the library as public space: the theoretical perspective on the development of the public sphere (p. 234); the perspective on the development and maintenance of civil society (p. 234); and the perspective of "the library in the life of the user," which considers the meaning of the library to its users (p. 235).

In 2005, the Council on Library and Information Resources (CLIR) published a report entitled *Library as Place: Rethinking Roles, Rethinking Spaces*. This work featured essays by six authors and was created to "stimulate thinking about the role of the library in the digital age" (CLIR, 2005, p. vii). The report was intended for librarians and others (library boards, university presidents, provosts, deans, and business officers) who invest in library planning and design (p. vii). These essays proposed perspectives on the future of libraries and describe ways for transforming "visions" in spatial design (p. vii).

Another more recent work on the library as space and place was a monograph edited by Buschman and Leckie: *The Library as Place; History, Community, and Culture* (2007). In this work, the fourteen essays were organized along four themes: the library's place in the past, libraries as places of community, research libraries as places of learning and scholarship, and, finally, library place and culture (for a summary of themes and corresponding references see Table 1 below).

Table 1

Themes Developed in "The Library as Place; History, Community, and Culture" (Bushman & Leckie, 2007)

Themes	***References***
The library's place in the past	Arenson, 2007; Curry, 2007; Tetreaut, 2007
Libraries as places of community	Fisher, Saxton, Edwards, & Mau, 2007; Hersberger, Sua, & Murray, 2007; McKenzie, Prigoda, Clement, & McKechnie, 2007; Rothbauer, 2007
Research libraries as places of learning and scholarship	Antell & Engel, 2007; Given, 2007; Mann, 2007
Library place and culture	Estill, 2007; Mak, 2007; Van Slyck, 2007

Of these essays only a few (Antell & Engel, 2007; Fisher et al., 2007; McKenzie et al, 2007; Given, 2007) were based on empirical studies oriented to users and their behavior or activities in, and interaction with the space and place of the library.

Antell and Engel (2007) looked at the meaning of the academic library as place in the life of scholars at the University of Oklahoma. Their study was based on interviews with faculty holding personal study spaces in the library. They found that faculty who seek out library spaces of their own were "passionate believers in the power of place" and its conduciveness to scholarship; those scholars appreciated the "browsability" of the physical library's resources as well as the convenience of electronic resources (pp. 174-175).

Fisher et al. (2007) looked at the role of the new Seattle Central Library in the daily lives of users and passers-by. Their study was descriptive and based on interviews;

it used free association to discover people's perceptions of the library as physical place, social place, and informational place. McKenzie et al. (2007) reported on a naturalistic participant observation based study of women's use of public space during two group activities (a knitters' group and a child/caregiver story-time). They found that the space of the program room, which was flexible, fairly generic, and publicly accessible, could be transformed to suit diverse activities by simply reorganizing furniture and equipment and bringing in necessary material resources from the library. They also found that participants in the activities created a realm in that space that was different from that of the library; in the context of their activities, participants established relationships that transformed the program room into a more intimate social space. Finally, they also observed a phenomenon they called "the learning library": the way that the story time in the program room allowed young children to "learn the library as a place" (p. 129) and the behaviors that were acceptable there. Lastly, McKenzie et al. commented on the importance for the women engaged in the two activities observed to be able to, simultaneously, enjoy leisurely time with other women and engage in "purposive activities" in line with family-based caring work (p. 130).

Given (2007) examined the perceptions of faculty members and librarians of undergraduate students' academic success, undergraduate life, information resources and facilities, and the design and availability of campus spaces. Her empirical study was based on in-depth qualitative interviews at a single Canadian university. Based on her findings, Given recommended that the physical space in an academic library in the 21st century must adapt to students' collaborative learning behaviors and allow the social and the academic to blend (for example, by introducing cafés and spaces for group study) in

order to enhance student learning (p. 185). The author concluded that this should be done at the same time as accommodating changes in educational theory and practice and in the ways students interact with information resources, their instructors, and their peers (p. 186).

Departing from the approaches discussed above, with her dissertation work grounded in a semiotic approach to enquiry, Lilia Pavlovsky (2003) likened the physical library to an information system to explore the role of values in library design. In a later research article, she presented her object of study, a public library, as an information retrieval system loosely defined as a place that had been intentionally created for a user population and also related to the values of the people who created it (2005, p. 157). To examine relationships between physical and intellectual space, the values of information providers, the perceptions of the users, and the use of the library-as-information-system, Pavlovsky focused on "classifying and understanding the language and the meaning of the artifacts in the public space of a library" and on analyzing "the institutional text that defines the role of information provision within an institutional context" (2005, p. 156).

In summary, while a number of researchers have studied the space and place of the public library (Fisher et al., 2007; Leckie & Hopkins, 2002; Given & Leckie, 2003; Mc Kenzie et al., 2007; Pavlovsky, 2003), the academic library, its spaces, environmental design, and architecture as context for information practices have seldom been the research object for LIS scholarship. However, considering the academic library construction "boom" of the last decades and the interest shown in the area of academic librarianship for client-centered design (Schmidt, 2007), and given the obsession with efficacy measurement and evaluation, such as the evaluation of facility improvement on

library usage (e.g, Shill & Tonner, 2003b, 2004), the development of a program of research on the academic library as space and place is overdue.

Recent Works Presented at the 2008 IFLA Conference in Québec

The available literature exhibits, with few exceptions (e.g, Leckie, 2004), a lack of recourse to theoretical frameworks grounding discussions and explorations of the library as space and place. For that reason, the International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) Library Theory & Research Section selected "Theoretical Approaches to Research on Libraries as Space and Place" as the topic for its call for presentations at the 2008 IFLA conference in Québec (IFLA, 2008a). Relevant presentations treated the following topics: the library as *socially controlled space* or *public sphere place* (Black, from personal conference notes); public libraries as places creating social capital (Vårheim, 2008); libraries as *societal places* examined from the perspective of Hanna Arendt's concept of the public sphere (Eigenbrodt, 2008); the academic library as *sacred space* and the implications of the psychology of religion for measurement and evaluation (Hahn & Jackson, 2008); the library as *essential third place* for students on China's campuses (Fang, 2008); and the use of concepts from the fields of architecture, sociology, marketing, and communication to describe the public spaces of libraries (de Miribel, 2008). All in all, contributions focused on the simile *library as public space* and on theories that allow the exploration of the public function of library spaces from a social science perspective.

Academic Library Planning and Design 1995-2008

In the last fifteen years there has been an effort among library practitioners and administrators to discuss the planning, design, and architecture of library buildings. This phenomenon is well documented in the professional literature where the academic library building has been discussed in terms of theoretical issues, conceptual issues, and programmatic issues. Publications by professional organizations –American Library Association (ALA), Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL), Council on Library and Information Resources, and International Federation of Library Associations (IFA)– as well as national and international conferences and seminars bring further evidence of the existence of a field of discourse around that topic.

In the previous sections, I have shown that a range of articulations of the concepts of libraries as spaces and as places were available in the literature. In this section, I review publications from the literature of the last thirteen years on the topic of academic library planning and design; they were selected with the aim of examining the discourses deployed in the profession's efforts to reposition the place, space, and image of the library in the institution "academia."

Monographs

A 1995 work that represents a point of departure for understanding the evolution of the discourse on academic libraries over the period 1995-2008 is *Academic Libraries: Their Rationale and Role in American Higher Education* (McCabe & Person, 1995). Three of the essays in McCabe and Person were particularly relevant for my research; two of them discussed the place and role of the library in the institution (Euster, 1995, pp. 1-13) and the future of academic libraries and librarians (Scepanski, 1995, pp. 165-175),

and the third one was an annotated bibliography (Karp, Rivera, & Engle, 1995, pp. 193-220).

In 2002, the Council on Library and Information Resources (CLIR) published a report discussing the roles that research and academic libraries can play in the digital age (Lougee, 2002). Sections of this report that were relevant to my research topic addressed: the evolution of the roles of the academic library and the development of paradigms and models for libraries (pp. 2-4), organizational models for the provision of services (pp. 13-19), and the library as place (pp. 19-20). The author of the report concluded that, in order for academic libraries to match institutional goals, they would need to evolve and acquire the following characteristics: integrated distributed technologies and distributed models for information access and management (pp. 2, 4), "open" paradigms and models like the Open Source movement (p. 3), and the means to produce and disseminate information and knowledge (p. 4). The author also emphasized the continued existence and important role of the library as a physical place for users and library staff to interact with the collections and to access sources of information (p. 19).

In 2003, the CLIR published another report titled *Libraries for Learning* (Bennett, 2003) that made a case for designing academic libraries as spaces and places that support learning. In a follow up essay in the previously mentioned report entitled *Library as Place: Rethinking Roles, Rethinking Spaces* (CLIR, 2005), Bennett (2005, pp. 10-24) discussed academic library planning and design. Bennett called for a paradigm shift from "a service to a learning culture" to guide planning and design of the academic library of the future (p. 11). Bennett presented a constructive critique of academic library directors' space planning methods and of the knowledge base guiding the development of planning

principles tilted toward library operations (p. 11). He proposed, instead, the development of planning principles incorporating the social dimension of learning, focusing on the nature of the desired educational experience and based on a systematic knowledge of how students learn rather than on library service operations (pp. 11-13). To illustrate his views Bennett reported on an exemplary case of library planning at Sewanee The University of the South where one in a set of subcommittees for the planning of the library's renovation led a systematic study of student learning behaviors on campus (pp. 13-21). In regard to developing planning principles for academic library design, one of the most interesting points of Bennett's analysis of that study was that a "powerful learning environment [is] achieved ... as a function of the building itself creating a community for learning" (p. 17). Bennett pointed to the importance of the emotional and psychological aspects of people-place relationships and suggested that library space design should aim to integrate elements of design emotionally connecting people with feelings of domesticity (p. 21).

In a recent book edited on behalf of IFLA, Latimer and Niegaard (2007) gathered a series of articles selected to serve as IFLA library building guidelines. The book was organized into two sections: 1) developments and reflections on the changes in the concept of libraries and on the physical library and its spaces; and 2) recommendations for planning that principally described aspects of the building process covering architect selection, the preparation of the library brief, the estimate of space needs, and site selection. Three particularly relevant articles discussed the qualities of "good library space" (McDonald, 2007, pp. 13-29), the reinvention of the physical library in the context of the digitally oriented information society (Niegaard, 2007, pp. 30-46), and library design from a marketing perspective (Schmidt, 2007, pp. 55-67).

Periodicals and Publicly Accessible Documents

The selection process of the body of literature examined in this section entailed various strategies. Various databases accessible from William Allen White Library including DialogWeb databases "file 438, INFOSCI" as well as "file 7, SOCIAL SCISEARCH" were first searched for relevant articles in LIS periodicals for the period 1995-2008. I also consulted the digital archives of documents and publications by the ALA, the ACRL, and the CLIR. I then enlarged my search by using citation chaining to follow discursive threads in the reference lists of all the articles and documents I had gathered and by searching the digital archives of relevant journals. It was from this body of literature that I selected texts to constitute the corpus that is the object of analysis in this dissertation.

The basis for the review presented in this section is my analysis of the characteristics of the discursive field the texts discussed constitute. This approach is consistent with the discourse analytical method used in my dissertation because it represents a preliminary analytical stage in the practice of critical discourse analysis.

Major sources of relevant literature. I collected in total over 80 journal articles, and selected 64 relevant articles to review. It is illuminating that most relevant articles were found in four sources that target a professional audience: *The Journal of Academic Librarianship* (20 articles), *New Library World* (5 articles), *Research Strategies* (7 articles, all in issue 17), and ACRL publications (7 articles). The other articles were selected from publications listed in Appendix A; among those articles three were published in non LIS journals. Figure 2 below summarizes the distribution of journal articles.

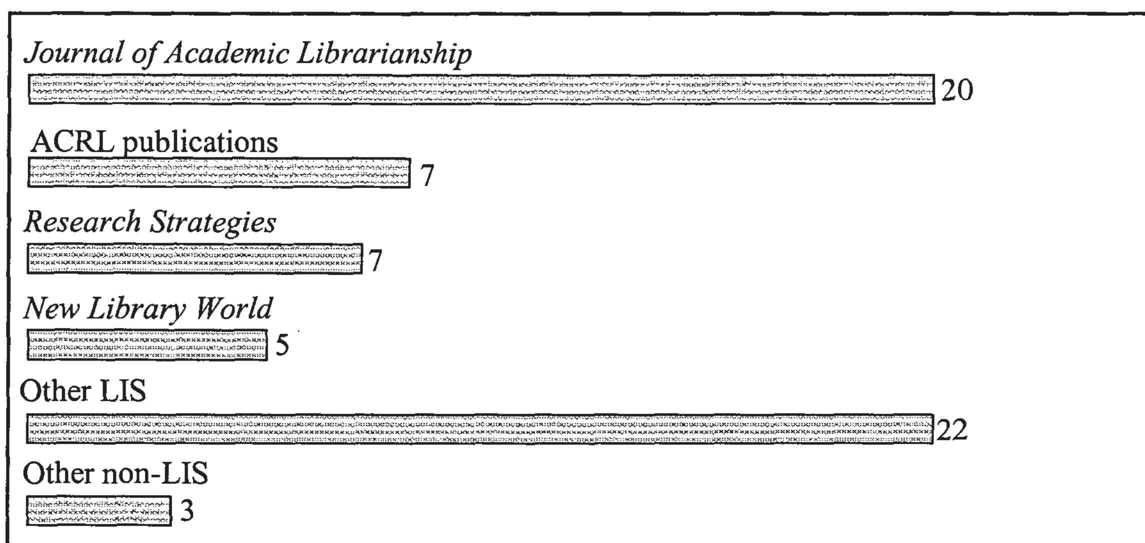


Figure 2. Distribution of Reviewed Articles across Journals

Dominant authorial figures. Donald Beagle, Director of Library Services at Belmont Abbey College since 2000, and Scott Bennett, a University Librarian Emeritus from Yale University, emerge as dominant authorial figures. Beagle is a dominant voice in a discursive thread on the information commons. He published the seminal article for the conceptualization of information commons (1999) which has been cited 19 times since its publication (citation analysis using Dialog Social Science Search, December 18, 2008; according to a Google Scholar search, it had been cited in 103 scholarly works between its publication and December 19, 2008). In this seminal work, Beagle proposed the framework for development of the information commons service model and associated space planning and design using concepts of strategic fit and functional integration from Strategic Alignment theory (1999, p. 82). In 2004, using the concept of *change dynamics*, Beagle presented a new framework to explain the evolution from the information to the learning commons (presentation at the Leavey Library Conference 2004, Los Angeles, CA; *From Information Commons to Learning Commons*). In 2006, he published *The Information Commons Handbook* (Beagle, with Bailey & Tierney, 2006), a

guide for librarians who seek to "[position their] library to take advantage of collaboration, technology, and educational movements" (de Jong, 2007). Most recently, Beagle (2009) discussed the historical evolution of the learning commons out of the information commons movement.

Bennett published four of all the articles I reviewed (2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2008); he is also the author of the CLIR report *Libraries Designed for Learning* (2003) and of the essay "Righting the Balance" in the CLIR report *Library as Place: Rethinking Roles, Rethinking Space* (2005). Bennett is one of the leading voices of a discursive thread on the library designed for learning. Other characteristics of the body of literature examined that describe the discursive field are a) the genre of articles considered, and b) the themes developed by the authors.

Genres. The articles studied belonged predominantly to the genre "position paper" or "conceptual paper." A few articles were strategy-oriented and written in a prescriptive style. Finally, the rest of the articles were of the genre "research paper" and report on empirical studies and library case studies; one article making prescriptive recommendations based on the results of surveys was of mixed genres research/position paper (Bennett, 2007b). Table 2 below provides a summary of the genre analysis of this literature.

Table 2

Periodical Articles and Essays: Summary of Genres

Article Genre	***References***
Position/conceptual	Bailey & Tierney (2002), Bailey-Hainer & Forsman (2005), Beagle (1999, 2009), Braverman (2000), Bennett (2006, 2007a, 2008), Bosseau (1998), Carlson (2001b), Connoway (2005), Davenport (2006), Gayton (2008), Hardesty (1999), Hartman (2000), Hernon (2002), Kohl (2006), Kratz (2003), Mann (2001), O'Connor & Bennett (2005), Riggs (2000, 2001, 2002), Ross & Sennyey (2008), Seadle (2002), Snavely (2000), Spencer (2006), and Van Pelt (2000).
Strategy oriented	Dodsworth (1998), Hiller (2004), and M.A. Thomas (2000).
Research Topics: library users' behavior, library usage patterns, users' perceptions of the academic library, and library space use.	Antell & Engle (2006), Bennett (2007b), Bolin (2005), Boone (2003), Freund & Seale (2007), Gust & Haka (2006), Franks (2008), Houlihan (2005), Lefebvre (2002), Ludwig & Starr (2005), Malenfant (2006), Meernik (2004), Pavlovsky (2005), Spencer (2007), Revill (1997), Suarez (2007), Potthof et al. (2000), Shill & Tonner (2003a, 2004), Simmons, Young, & Gibson (2000); Spencer (2007), Waxman et al. (2007), and Whitmire (2001).

With few exceptions, research papers included studies of library users' behavior, library usage patterns, users' perceptions of the academic library, and library space use. Bolin (2005) examined organizational patterns at land grant universities. Boone (2003) surveyed the paradigm shift "in our understanding of the form and functions of library facilities" reflected in the move away from the traditional "repository" conception of the

library to complex, enhanced, interactive, and multifunctional research environments (p. 358). Finally Shill and Tonner (2003a) reviewed the physical improvements to library buildings and facilities for the period 1995-2002; their article was followed by a presentation on facility improvements and library usage at the ACRL 11th National Conference (2003b) and a companion article reviewing usage patterns in new and remodeled libraries over the period 1995-2002 (Shill & Tonner, 2004). Together the two articles by Shill and Tonner (2003a and 2004) provided a background for changes in academic library planning, design, and uses over nearly half of the period covered in my dissertation research.

A notable characteristic of the research papers was the use by a few of the researchers of methodologies uncommon in LIS. Potthof, Weis, Montanelli, and Murbach (2000) used personal construct theory and chose the Role Repertory Grid Procedure (developed by Kelly, circa 1955, as a means of testing personal construct theory, as cited in Potthof et al., 2000, p. 192) to evaluate patrons' perceptions of library space with the goal to help solve a real library space problem. They found the method had potential but recommended further research to determine the validity and reliability of the procedure. Whitmire (2001) examined the use patterns of 1,046 undergraduate students during their first three years of college by analyzing statistically data that was collected for the National Study of Student Learning for the period 1992-1995. In the area of health sciences librarianship, Ludwig and Starr (2005) used the Delphi Group approach to study the library as place. The Delphi approach uses a technique similar to focus groups for gathering data and involves generating ideas among people who have a special knowledge to share. A panel of 30 experts that included librarians, architects, designers,

space planners, and administrators participated in Ludwig and Starr's study. Suarez (2007) examined "study behavior as example of educationally purposeful activities" (methodology section of the electronic journal article). In a case study that focused on study areas in an academic library, she used ethnographic methods of participant observation and semi-structured interviews. To examine the academic library as place, Waxman, Clemons, Banning, and McKelfresh (2007) used mixed methods –observation, interviews of library administrators, and the field notes and answers to a questionnaire of 44 students sent out in the "field" to document the location and physical characteristics of their *third place* spaces.

Themes. Two broad themes dominated the literature reviewed; they can be characterized by the similes: *library as learning space* and *library as information center for the digital age*. There were roughly similar numbers of articles that discussed the library as learning space as there were that discussed the library as information center for the digital age (see Table 3).

In, particular, Bennett (2008) summarized the planning and design choices for academic libraries that seek to create spaces congruent with their library's mission to be either an information commons or a learning commons while Beagle (2004, 2009) presented the evolution from information to learning commons where "an Information Commons is a stepping stone to a Learning Commons" (de Jong, 2007).

Thus it appeared that *information commons* had come to be used more and more to designate a service model, as well as a particular type of space within the library in which computer workstations are maintained by technical staff for the use of electronic resources for learning, research, and knowledge production (Cowgill, Beam, & Wess,

2001; Samson & Oelz, 2005). According to Crockett, McDaniel, and Remy (2002), the initial service model for the information commons was the Leavey Library, which opened in 1994 at the University of Southern California in Los Angeles and was heralded as a *gateway library* (p. 16). The term *learning commons* tended to be used in relation to discussions of physical library facilities that combined a variety of services focused on learning activities and knowledge creation inclusive of those of information commons. However, another discursive thread presented the academic library more simply as a space designed for learning (Albanese, 2006; Bennett, 2003, 2006, 2007a, 2007b; Forrest & Hinchliffe, 2005; Seaman 2006). Therefore, this preliminary analysis points to the further subdivision of the broad themes of library as learning space and library as information center for the digital age into three major discursive threads: the learning commons, the information commons, and the library designed for learning.

Table 3

Summary of Themes Developed in Periodical Articles and Essays

Article Theme	***References***
Library as learning space	Baker (2000), Bennett (2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2008), Forrest & Hinchliffe (2005), O'Connor & Bennett (2005), Owusu-Ansah (2001), Pelster (2000), Revill (1997), Seaman (2006), Simmons, Young, & Gibson (2000), Snavely (2000), Spencer (2007), and Van Pelt (2000).
Library as digital age information center	Bailey & Tierney (2002); Beagle (1999), Cowgill, Beam, & Wess (2000), Crockett, McDaniel, & Remy (2002), Dewey (2002), Forrest & Hinchliffe (2005), Halbert (1999), Kratz (2003), MacWhinnie (2003), Malenfant (2005), Samson & Oelz (2005), Spencer (2006), Tramdack (1999).

A few authors, who did not propose the commons as a concept for academic library planning and design in the 21st century, advocated the joint-use library by different types of patrons –public and academic– (Riggs, 2000, 2002), or the joint-use library building by two or more distinct service providers (Kratz, 2003). Bolin (2005) and Seaman (2006) described a joint-use library encompassing combinations of the library and the university computer center or a computer lab. Thomas (2000) and Connaway (2005) advocated the design of physical space inside the library adapted for the coexistence of virtual services and collections in the spirit of the information commons.

Discourse Analysis Research in LIS

One of my goals has been to position my work in regard to a body of LIS research relying on discourse analysis as theory and/or methodology; therefore, I will briefly review in this section the most relevant literature on that topic.

According to Budd (2006), two major approaches to discourse analysis (DA) offer possibilities for research on communication in LIS: linguistic-based analyses and culturally or socially based analyses. Both linguistic-based and socially-based approaches to DA have been used in LIS either explicitly or implicitly by a growing number of scholars since Frohmann introduced Foucauldian discourse analysis as theory and methodology in 1992. Because an exhaustive review of the literature on discourse analysis is beyond the scope of the present discussion, I will focus my review on those LIS scholars who are considered to be seminal in regard to socially-based and critically oriented DA and who have been influential on the development of my research project.

Introductions to the Uses of Discursive Perspectives in LIS Research

Budd (2006) provided a useful introduction to the possibilities afforded by linguistic-based analyses and culturally or socially based analyses for research on communication in LIS. He first reviewed useful concepts of Saussurean semiotics and structural linguistics to illuminate the links between language and discourse. He proposed that, in LIS, conversation analysis (a primarily message-oriented linguistics-based DA borrowing from the field of sociolinguistics) provides a useful methodological approach for understanding the discursive practices of the reference interview. Secondly, Budd presented approaches to the analysis of discourse as a social act, including critical discourse analysis (CDA), which have their origins in Michel Foucault's (1972) archeological approach to DA (Foucault's archeological DA focused on issues of power embedded in discursive strategies deployed in official documents and texts at a point in time). Budd completed his discussion with examples from the LIS literature that took both linguistic and socio-cultural approaches; they included works by Alstad & Curry (2003), M. Day (2002), R. Day (2000), Frohmann (1992b, 2001), Murphy (2005), Radford (2003), Ronan (2003), Ross (2003), and Stevenson (2001).

Socially-based Discourse Analysis and LIS Research

Frohmann (1992 a, 1992b, 1994a) is a seminal author for having advocated the use of discourse theory as a theoretical framework and discourse analysis as a research method in LIS. He began applying this method himself in 1992 to analyze the discourse of the cognitive viewpoint in LIS (1992a, 1992b*)* and the construction of new information technologies (1994b).

In 1996, Budd & Raber also called for the use of DA as a research method to study information and illustrated with an analysis of their own. At that time Budd & Raber considered Frohmann's DA work to be the most sophisticated in the field of LIS research, and consecrated his 1992 article, *The power of images: A discourse analysis of the cognitive viewpoint*, as the seminal article for LIS.

In 1997 a number of works were produced at the University of Tampere in Finland by three scholars, Talja, Tuominen, and Savolainen. They focused on the discursive construction of information and users as research objects (Talja, 1997), the critical analysis of the user-centered discourse (Tuominen, 1997), and the study of information use as discursive action (Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997). In a 1999 article, Talja discussed her method for analyzing interview data discursively to get at users' conceptions of a music library. This work is particularly useful for LIS researchers seeking methodological guidelines for data analysis; it provides an excellent discussion of the validity and reliability of the method used and of DA in general (Talja, 1999, pp. 471-473).

The most recent LIS research using DA looked at discourse and documentation (Frohmann, 2001, 2004), implications for LIS of instances of ideology in its discursive practice (Budd, 2001a), the influence of social discourse on students' information behavior (Given, 2002), the process of construction of terminology for a science of information (Marques Válio & Fulgêncio de Oliveira, 2003), information literacy (Tuominen, Savolainen, & Talja, 2005), and conceptions of information poverty (Haider & Bowden, 2006, 2007).

Critical Discourse Analysis

Some LIS scholars have used DA to perform critical analytical work. However, there are still few sources in LIS literature that explicitly discuss critical discourse analysis (CDA) as theory and methodology. Frohmann seems to have been the first to introduce a critical analytical perspective to DA. In one of his first DA papers (Frohmann, 1992a), he took a post-structuralist approach to critically analyze intellectual work done by the discursive strategies used in support of the cognitive viewpoint in LIS. His thesis was that the cognitive viewpoint discourse performs ideological labor that benefits corporate interests. Using a Foucauldian genealogical approach to DA, Frohmann analyzed a body of paradigmatic texts published in the 1970s and 1980s by Belkin, Belkin and Robertson, Brookes, and Dervin. The aim of Frohmann's discourse analysis was to define the boundaries of the cognitive viewpoint discourse and situate it within the natural-scientific discourse. Adopting a critical stance, Frohmann identified discursive features of the cognitive viewpoint that he considered to be strategically deployed to promote the commodification of information by a) constructing information users as helplessly disempowered and information scientists as experts, and b) by excluding the social construction of information processes from LIS theory and enabling a technology of information processing and knowledge acquisition.

In his seminal work, Frohmann (1992b) characterized LIS discourse as it was deployed in theoretical texts approached as narratives. He used CDA to elaborate on ideas presented in his *Knowledge and power in library and information science: Toward a discourse analysis of the cognitive viewpoint* (1992a). Drawing on the same corpus of texts, he delved deeper into critical analysis and developed a thesis to explain how the

commodification of information was achieved through the cognitive viewpoint's discursive features. Frohmann painstakingly brought to light the mechanisms through which discourse "does" intellectual labor. His focus was on the discursive construction of document production and use as the observable processes of production and manipulation of mental images. Through his argument, he revealed how the cognitive paradigm delimited what was considered legitimate enquiry in LIS and circumscribed the field of research.

In his most recent work, *Deflating Information: From Science Studies to Documentation*, Frohmann (2004) went back to the Foucauldian roots of discourse analysis to examine information, documents, and their connections in the context of scientific documentation and to deconstruct the term "information." Frohmann used Foucauldian archeological and genealogical approaches to analyze critically scientific discourse as well as processes and documentary practices associated with scientific research work. His explicit aim was to reorient studies of scientific information towards studies of scientific documentation. Frohmann's argument culminated with reflections on the role of the modern science library in the construction of "the fantasia of the objectivity and universality of scientific knowledge." (p. 22)

However, recently, Buschman (2007) collectively reviewed and critiqued the works of Frohmann and others who, like him, have embraced Foucauldian ideas of discourse to examine LIS discursive practices (Budd, 2001b; Budd & Raber, 1998; Radford & Radford, 2001; and G. Radford alone, 2003). Buschman challenged the adoption of Foucauldian ideas in the construction of a critical theory of LIS and librarianship. His critique focused on Foucauldian methodologies and their problems and

on the themes LIS scholars have explored through Foucauldian analysis. For Buschman, the major problems with the Foucauldian approach to DA in LIS were: a) the careful selection of texts chosen for analysis focusing on power/knowledge, b) the avoidance of economic factors driving the present *information economy*, c) the self-referential nature of LIS discourse analysis, and d) the lack of a research program. Buschman made the following point

> Foucauldian LIS picks and chooses its texts about libraries highly selectively. . . . In these texts and their LIS readings, libraries are laden with power, control, fear, and radical contradictions. . . . They represent only a partial skewed 'reading' of libraries. (pp. 37-38)

Buschman concluded that LIS discursive research is lacking in readings that consider historical developments, future possibilities, and the "vast unread part of librarianship" which points toward change (p. 39). Buschman saw Foucault's work as having been used for theoretical development in LIS that led to inactivity, the fragmentation of the field, and divorce between theory and practice of librarianship. However, Buschman suggested that Foucault's work could help librarianship if it could be used to open inquiry and enhance our sense of possibility (p. 41). I see in Buschman's critique the validation of my proposed research methodology which is based on Fairclough's critical approach to discourse analysis with its social theoretical emphasis and focus on change.

Finally, an important model for me in regard to the clear articulation of theory and methodology has been Thomas's (2001) critical analysis of the graphics of ALA posters produced to promote reading and library use. Her study was grounded in a constitutive view of communication. The analytical work was framed by Foucault's theory of discursive formation and the interpretation of the consequences of discursive practices at work in the poster's design and imagery were informed by Scheff's (1990) theory of the

social bond. Of utmost interest were Thomas's examination of the role of the researcher as interpreter and the way she articulated her analysis of the poster and her discussion. Thomas argued that the series of "READ" and "READ/SUCCEED" posters displayed in libraries she observed in the 1990s constructed library users and readers as subjects in a normative discourse that extended beyond the library into the larger social context of American urban culture and that stood in apparent contradiction to ALA's traditional support of equity issues and literacy initiatives. She brought up problematic issues in respect to the hegemonic messages conveyed about gender roles, the negative image of African-American youth in the American city, and the causes of ignorance, poverty, and violence in American society. This article is a very good example of the use of discourse analytic methods in support of critical self-reflectivity in LIS research and practice. It is particularly valuable in that it establishes relationships between discourse, librarianship practices, and the larger social context. It is a unique example in LIS of deep analysis of visual communication as discourse.

Summary

In this chapter, I have reviewed the LIS literature in which I have immersed myself and that has surrounded the development of my research design. I have focused my literature review on the topics of library as space and place, academic library planning and design, and discourse analysis research. I have discussed those articles that are the most relevant to the description of the background for my research. I specifically organized the description of the literature on academic library planning and design with the aim to initiate the reader to the first stages of discourse description and to prepare the

grounds for my analysis of a sample of that literature in chapters 5 and 6. The following chapter discusses the philosophical and theoretical frameworks for my study.

Chapter 3

Philosophical and Theoretical Frameworks

Discourse analysis is both a theoretical and methodological *domain* that encompasses a variety of philosophical, theoretical, and methodological *approaches* to the study of discourse formation. It is therefore necessary to delimit the boundaries of a metatheoretical framework that is hospitable to both the research problem I have chosen to tackle and to discourse analysis.

Talja, Tuominen, and Savolainen (2005) have described and compared what they consider to be the basic premises for three important metatheoretical perspectives for research in LIS: constructivism, collectivism, and constructionism. Their mapping of the major differences between these metatheories made it clear that within the social constructionist perspective social scientific knowledge is social in origin and produced from limited viewpoints as part of ongoing conversations; knowledge, meanings, and identities are effectively constituted in discourses that categorize the world and bring phenomena into view (p. 82, p. 89, p. 90). These authors described "knowledge formations, entities that provide an effective and limited perspective for producing knowledge about a topic" as being discourses (p. 89). For Talja et al., who have been writing from a constructionist perspective, the basic assumption of social constructionism is that knowledge is constructed in Foucauldian "systems of dispersion" (p. 90). The work of Michel Foucault, whose seminal role in developing a theory of discourse formation is universally accepted, has been influential in the development of discourse analysis as a theoretical and methodological field. Thus, by referencing Foucault, Talja et

al. (2005) have brought into focus the hospitality of a social constructionist perspective to a discourse analytic approach to research in LIS.

However, circumscribing the philosophical and conceptual frameworks for my research was not a trivial endeavor. Indeed, there are different philosophical positions about social construction on a continuum from weak to radical, and my position can best be described as a critical realist (weak) constructionist perspective (the term 'critical realist' constructionism has been advanced by Nightinghale & Cromby, 2002, p. 702). To put it simply, I believe that a mind-independent reality (natural and social) exists outside of us irrespective of our representations of it; this position is explicitly shared in LIS by Dobson (2002); Hjørland (2004, p. 489); Jashapara (2007, p. 754); Smith, M. L. (2006, p. 192); and Wikgren (2005, p. 18). I also believe that we make sense of that reality collectively as well as individually through the use of language and other sign systems (see Berger & Luckmann, 1980, on "Language and knowledge of everyday life," pp. 37-38; and on "Sedimentation," p. 66), which are adapted to the type of knowledge we are trying to build and communicate to others (p. 76-85). Finally, I believe that we are bound by external reality in such a way that "truth is not something we can construct at will" (Roos & Rotkirch, 2002) and that not all interpretations of reality are equally valid.

I have found substantiated arguments by many social scientists that support the compatibility of a realist perspective with social constructionism (Engler, 2004; Nightingale & Crombie, 2002; Roos & Rotkirch, 2002). In the last six years, there have also been a few pertinent calls for a realist approach to LIS research. For example, critical realism has been presented as a philosophy for LIS research on information systems by Dobson (2002) and on information behavior by Wikgren (2005), and arguments for

philosophical realism in LIS have been put forward by Hjørland (2004). The usefulness of critical realism as a framework for critical discourse analysis has also been heralded by Fairclough (2005c; see also Fairclough, Jessop, & Sayer, 2002) in the field of discourse analysis.

In the following sections, I will support my philosophical stance by examining: first, the social constructionist theory introduced by Berger and Luckmann as an approach to the sociology of knowledge (1980) and recent critiques of social constructionism; second, critical realism as a movement in philosophy and the human sciences emanating originally from the work of Bhaskar (as presented in Archer, Bhaskar, Collins, Lawson, & Norrie, 1998); and third, the discourse analytical approach introduced by Foucault (1969) and its further developments, particularly the critical discourse analytic approach emanating from the work of Fairclough (1992a, 1992b, 1993, 2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c, 2005d). I will pull together discussions of social constructionism, critical realism, and discourse analysis from without and within LIS to make a case for complementing social constructionism with critical realism as a philosophical framework hospitable to the use of a discourse analytic approach for research in LIS.

Social Constructionism as a Framework for LIS Research

Social Constructionism as Ontology and Epistemology for the Study of the Social World

Social constructionism was first developed as a sociological theory of knowledge elaborated by Berger and Luckmann in their 1966 influential work *The Social Construction of Reality: A Treatise in the Sociology of Knowledge.* As indicated in their title, the social constructionist ontological perspective (how we view the nature of what

we seek to know and study, that is to say, the nature of the existence of our research objects; see Littlejohn & Foss, 2005, p. 20) is that reality, which they define as "a quality appertaining to phenomena that we recognize as having a being independent of our own volition" (Berger & Luckmann, 1980, p. 1), is socially constructed. The reality Berger and Luckmann refer to is that of the external commonsense world of our everyday life, the world where we live our "non- or pre-theoretical lives" (p. 14).

Berger and Luckmann built their thesis upon Schutz's work (Schutz & Luckmann, 1973) on the foundations of knowledge in everyday life. For them, reality is apprehended through commonsense knowledge which contains pre- and quasi scientific interpretations about everyday reality that are taken for granted (Berger & Luckmann, 1980, p. 20). Everyday reality then appears to be constituted by phenomena that for the most part have already been explained and designated as objects (objectified) by previous generations. Consequently, it appears to us that these phenomena pre-exist our knowledge of them inasmuch as life has meaning because its objects have already been given names in a language we share with others (p. 21). It is then essential that we understand a language in order to make sense of the reality of everyday life as well as for communicating our knowledge of it (p. 35).

A "social stock of knowledge" also exists and is constituted and articulated in language practices transmitted through generations of humans (Berger & Luckmann, 1980, p. 39). This social stock of knowledge is available to all individuals and allows them to perform "major routines" in their everyday life (p. 41). Therefore, people produce together a human environment for themselves where both social and natural events and experiences of everyday life are typified, or routinized (pp. 41-48) and

explained or made sense of. In that environment, a social order is constructed that "cannot be derived from the laws of nature" but is the ongoing product of human activity (p. 49).

For Berger and Luckmann, language also allows us to construct "edifices of symbolic representations" which become symbol systems (1980, p. 38); they give the examples of philosophy, arts, and the sciences as symbol systems. We are able to develop, transmit, and maintain human knowledge about reality, whether that of the natural world or that of the social world, with the help of these symbol systems that have, themselves, become constituents of the reality of our everyday life. In academia, disciplinary discourses are thus constructed symbol systems that have become institutionalized and are used for the representation of scientific disciplinary knowledge (see Berger & Luckmann's discussion of institutionalization, 1980, pp. 45-85). This, then, leads to the consideration of the epistemological position (how we know what we claim to know; see Littlejohn & Foss, 2005, p. 18) of social constructionism, which is that knowledge about phenomena, which we are certain are real, is socially constructed.

In conclusion, in Berger and Luckmann's explanation of the social constructionist view, both reality and our knowledge of it are socially constructed; thus, ontology and epistemology coincide. While Berger and Luckmann are explicit in the application of their theory to the study of the sociology of knowledge, it is less clear what they mean by *reality* and the *commonsense world of our everyday life*. As I understand it, implicit in the use of the adjective *social* that qualifies the concept of constructionism is the constitution of boundaries for the domain of application of their theory to the domain of social reality. Berger and Luckmann do not deny existence of a physical world/reality; however, their

theory is concerned with the social world and the meanings that the world has for those who engage with and in it. I cannot help but agree with Wikgren that "reality exists independent of our construction of knowledge [of it] through language" (2005, p. 18), and also with Hjørland (2004) who writes that the basic realist claim that a mind-independent reality exists should be common sense (p. 488). As I understand their work, I believe that Berger & Luckmann would agree with Wikgren and Hjørland. However, a "Strong Programme" of constructionist sociology of knowledge that was initiated in the 1970s by social theorists from Edinburgh University supports the postmodernist argument that reality is only what we can know of it and describe through a process of discursive construction (Nanda, 1997). This argument, based on a radical interpretation of Berger and Luckmann, quite simply translates into the claim that what we cannot explain does not exist in the sense that it has no meaning for us. It is this radical version of constructionism that has been under attack for its antirealist ontological stance and relativist views of scientific enquiry.

Critiques of Social Constructionism as Ontology for Scientific Enquiry

Although social constructionism has been a productive theory supporting much of scholarly inquiry in the social sciences since the 1960s, the initial domain of application of constructionism has been extended by radical constructionist scholars of history, philosophy, and sociology of science to discussions about the nature of scientific enquiry. Their postmodernist appropriation of social constructionism has been the target of criticism from some researchers in the natural sciences and has led to charges of anti-rationalism, anti-realism, and anti-objectivism. In the 1990s intense intellectual debates between scholars from the humanities and social sciences, and scholars in the natural or

"hard" sciences degenerated in the so-called "Science Wars" after the title of a 1996 special issue of *Social Text* and the well known Alan Sokal hoax, which involved the publication of an essay by this physicist that was a parody of postmodern science studies discourse.

Sokal and other scientists (Gross &Lewitt, 1998) reacted with strong critiques against what they saw as attacks on the validity of science by postmodernist social science and humanities scholars (a prominent target was the French sociologist of science Bruno Latour) who, adopting a radical social constructionist philosophical framework, claimed that scientific theories were socially constructed narratives passing for the laws of nature (see *A House Built on Sand* a collection of essays scrutinizing "science studies" edited by Koertge, 1998; also Sokal & Bricmont, 1998; or a more politically oriented critique of "the academic left and its quarrels with science" by Gross & Lewitt, 1998). These authors by their own admission targeted "shoddy scholarship" (Koertge, 1998, p. 5), or "epistemic relativism" and "charlatanism" (Sokal & Bricmont, 1998, pp. X and 5), and a strong form of "cultural constructivism" (equated with social constructionism by Gross & Lewitt, 1998, p. 45); what they had in common were their criticism of a view of scientific knowledge as *only* discourse and social convention that is held by a fraction of "strong constructionist" social science scholars (for a discussion of social constructionism as ontology see Nightingale & Cromby, 2002).

Social Constructionism in Library and Information Sciences

Because LIS is concerned with issues related to knowledge and information production, diffusion, and dissemination, as well as seeking, accessing, retrieving, evaluating, and using information, social constructionism has grown into an influential

paradigm in LIS (Holland, 2006). Early on, Gergen's (1985) extension of the understanding of the concept of social reality to modern psychology has been particularly useful in the evolution of information studies and especially in the areas of information systems and human information behavior research that took off in the 1970s. The version of social constructionism articulated by Gergen views "discourse about the world not as a reflection or map of the world but as an artifact of communal interchange" (p. 266); it is "concerned with explicating the processes by which people come to describe, explain, or otherwise account for the world (including themselves) in which they live" (p. 266). This approach has constituted a powerful metatheoretical framework for the development of LIS theories and models of information seeking, sense making, and information practices (Savolainen 2007 describes the concept of "information practice" as an "umbrella concept" that is inspired by the ideas of social constructionism and stands as a critical alternative to the dominating umbrella concept of "information behavior" in LIS; see also Tuominen, 2005, and Savolainen, 2006). Gergen's definition of discourse "as an artifact of communal interchange" (p. 266) indicates the hospitality of a social constructionist metatheoretical framework for discourse analysis in the social sciences.

However, Gergen's view of social constructionism also involves "radical doubt in the taken-for-granted world" (1985, p. 267); his position is that "the sciences have been enchanted by the myth that the assiduous application of rigorous method will yield sound fact-as if empirical methodology were some form of meat grinder from which truth could be turned out like so many sausages" (p. 273). While such a radical constructionist perspective has been vigorously critiqued, Gergen' s view has been useful in LIS for the area of librarianship concerned with information literacy, the evaluation of the relevance

and reliability of information material and sources, and the truthfulness of informational content. Gergen's assumption that "the terms in which the world is understood are social artifacts, products of historically situated interchanges among people" (p. 267) has also been fruitful for the study of knowledge and information production within discourse communities that has been advocated by Tuominen, Talja, and Savolainen (2002, p. 278).

Tuominen, Talja, and Savolainen (2002) have made a convincing argument for a social constructionist metatheory with a "*knowledge formation* orientation" for LIS research that stresses "the dialogic and contextual nature of knowledge production ... of users, information needs, and relevance criteria (pp. 274, 277). Their version of constructionism is based on an understanding of discourse, cognition, and reality based on the premises that "we produce and organize *social reality* [emphasis added] together by using language" (p. 278). The basic assumptions of this constructionist perspective are: a) social practices, which are produced in interaction in cultural, economic, and material contexts of action, constitute reality (Table 1, p. 279); and b) "knowledge is always positioned: we do not know about reality, we know in reality" (Tuominen [2001] as cited by Tuominen et al., 2002, p. 278). As advocated by Tuominen and his collaborators, the adoption of constructionism as a metatheory then shifts the focus of LIS research on to discourse practices as talk, interaction, and language use in various contexts (Tuominen, 2005).

Work by the three scholars, working together or independently, constitutes an excellent example of research that aims at capturing the socially and culturally shaped ways of understanding knowledge production and information practices (Tuominen, 2005, p. 328). It explicitly draws on the social constructionist viewpoint to build theoretical

frameworks for their various studies (for example, Talja, 2004; Talja, Tuominen, & Savolainen, 2005; Tuominen, 1997, 2005; Tuominen & Savolainen, 1997; Tuominen, Savolainen, & Talja, 2005; Tuominen, Talja, & Savolainen, 2003).

The approach to research taken by Talja, Tuominen, and Savolainen is described by Suominen (2008) as belonging to the "discourse-analytical social constructionist view," which he considers to be "currently perhaps the most vital approach [or family of approaches] among the metatheoretical trends within LID [library, information, and documentation studies]" (p. 175). For Suominen, Frohmann's work (1992, 2004) is also inscribed in that same family of approaches.

The works of Frohmann, Savolainen, Talja, and Tuominen have been seminal in the development of the philosophical framework for my dissertation; research by Talja in particular was a powerful source of inspiration for the evolution of my dissertation research. However, from outside LIS, the work of discourse analyst Norman Fairclough has been of essential importance to the fuller elaboration of my philosophical framework and my decision to combine a critical realist ontological stance with a constructionist epistemology in order to conform better to my beliefs about the nature of the object of my research (my ontological stance) and of the available ways of knowing about it (my epistemological stance).

Critical Realism as Ontological Stance

The purpose of this section is to articulate the ontological stance I chose to take for my research. As mentioned above, it was the work of Fairclough that guided my selection of critical discourse analysis as a methodology for my dissertation research. The critical realist perspective he takes to analyze discourses is influenced by Roy Bhaskar's

articulation of critical realism, which represents an alternative to the positivist and postmodernist perspectives in the philosophy of science and social science (useful primary sources to follow the development of critical realism are Bhaskar, 1978, 1979, 1989, 1998a, 1998b; for an introduction to Bhaskar's philosophy see Collier, 1994; and for a compilation of essential readings on critical realism, see Archer, Bhaskar, Collins, Lawson, & Norrie, 1998). According to the critical realist view, social practices involve different mechanisms that operate simultaneously and are all mediated by the operations of others (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). Discourse is one aspect of social practice; Fairclough's approach puts the analysis of discourse in relationship to its social context by seeking explanations and effects of discourse in other social practices.

In the following sections, I will attempt to first present the essential elements of critical realism as it is associated with the work of Roy Bhaskar and his colleagues from the Centre for Critical Realism, I will report on the mutual implications of critical realism and semiosis as envisioned by Fairclough and his colleagues (Fairclough, Jessop, & Sayer, 2002), and finally I will review the usefulness of critical realism for LIS research with examples from the literature (Dobson, 2002; Jashapara, 2007; Mingers, 2004; Smith, 2006; and Wikgren, 2005).

Bhaskar's Critical Realism

In 1975, Bhaskar published *A Realist Theory of Science*, a critique against the positivist conception of science proposing what he called a "*transcendental realist* philosophy of science" (Bhaskar, 1998a, p. ix). Bhaskar's transcendental realist philosophy distinguished between the world and our experience of it. Bhaskar postulated that: a) there exists an objectively knowable mind-independent reality; b) for scientific

investigation to take place, it has to be possible to do experiments with the object of research; and c) experimentation produces observable outcomes. Bhaskar's theory dealt with the paradox that scientists, in their social activity, produce knowledge, a social product subject to change, which is a knowledge *of* things that are not the products of human activity and are in general invariant (Bhaskar, 1998b, pp. 16-17).

For Bhaskar, there are two distinct categories of objects of knowledge: *intransitive objects of knowledge* and *transitive objects of knowledge*. Bhaskar's intransitive objects of knowledge do not depend upon us for their existence; for example, the ways light and sound travel through space, or apples fall to the ground does not depend on whether human beings are there to observe apples fall or light and sound propagate through space. They are the real things, structures, mechanisms, processes, events, and possibilities that generate actual phenomena in the world (1998b, p.17). For Bhaskar, transitive objects of knowledge are the artificial objects of scientific knowledge; they include established facts, theories, paradigms, models, and methods and techniques of enquiry available to scientists in a particular field to explain the intransitive objects of knowledge (p. 16). They can only exist with scientific or pre-scientific antecedents; they cannot be spontaneously produced (p.18); what this means is that for scientific knowledge to grow, scientists have to rely on existing transitive objects of knowledge or develop new ones.

In 1979, Bhaskar introduced his critical naturalist philosophy of social science in *The Possibility of Naturalism;* it posited that society and human phenomena could be studied in the same way as nature within the framework of a "transcendental realist account of science ... grounded in the specificity and emergent properties of the social

realm" (1998a, p. xiv). The term "critical realism" was later adopted by Bhaskar to combine "transcendental realism" and "critical naturalism" into one ontological perspective for the natural and social sciences (1998a, p. ix).

With his critical realist philosophy, Bhaskar proposed a "stratified ontology that makes a distinction between the real, the actual, and the empirical" (Sayer, 2000, p. 12). In his description of the key features of critical realism in practice, Sayer (pp. 10-28) gave a useful summary of Bhaskar's definitions. The *real* is "whatever exists. . . . It is the realm of objects, their structures and powers" (p.11). In virtue of their structure and whether they are physical or social, real objects have capacities for behaving in certain ways (p. 11). For example, academic libraries can provide access to a wide array of specialized scientific information very efficiently at any time because of their structure, which involves among other things their specialization, organization of information, ability to access informational material it does not own, and so on. The *actual* is "what happens if and when" the powers of real objects are activated (p. 12). To continue with the example of the academic library, the actual refers to what happens when an architecture student requests the assistance of a librarian to locate and retrieve information on the design of library buildings. The *empirical* refers to the domain of experience of either the real or the actual. Here, experience does not rely only on a criterion of observability for making claims about what exists; it also accepts a causal criterion. This means that the existence of unobservable entities can be supported by observable effects that can only be explained as the products of those unobservable entities (p. 12); for example, we cannot directly observe gravity, but we can observe that

a book disturbed by the student browsing the stacks falls from the top shelf to the ground below under the effect of gravity.

In order to extend his critical realist approach to the study of societies, Bhaskar (1998c, pp. 218-219) and his collaborators outlined the following assumptions that differentiate social structures from natural structures (Outhwaite, 1998, p. 289): a) social structures, unlike natural structures, do not exist independently of the activities they govern (according to Mingers [2004, p. 96], which means that they exist only in their effects or occurrences); b) social structures, unlike natural structures, do not exist independently of the agents' conceptions of what they are doing in their activity; and c) social structures are not immutable but need to be sufficiently enduring for their examination to be feasible and worthwhile (according to Mingers [2004, p. 96], social structures are also localized in both space and time).

According to Bhaskar, "society pre-exists people .... [and is] an ensemble of structures, practices and conventions which individuals reproduce and transform, but ... [it] would not exist unless they did so" (Outhwaite, 1998, p. 216).

William Outhwaite (1998, pp. 282-296) proposed that in order for there to be a "realist programme" for social science there needs to be: a) intransitive objects of social science, susceptible of *real definition*; and b) the possibility of explaining the social in realist terms by generative mechanisms. An example of intransitive object of social science would be the space of the academic library. A "real definition" of the academic library (as an object of enquiry) would be produced by a social scientist's work of re-describing the library so as to explain how it is determined by multiple interacting tendencies in its internal and external environment (for example, educational methods,

use of information and communication technologies by library users, the mission of the academic library, the design recommendations of ACRL, etc.).

For Outhwaite (1998), a good explanation is attained if: a) the postulated mechanism is capable of explaining the phenomena under study; b) there are good reasons to believe in the mechanism's existence; and c) no equally good alternatives come to mind (p. 293). He suggests further that "the realist emphasis on the stratification of reality should make us aware of the need to fit particular explanations within a wider context" (p. 293). This means that social scientific explanations can be supported by, for example, social theories, or theories borrowed from political sciences or economics. To explain the concept of academic library as a place for "one-stop-shopping" where traditional library services coexist under the same roof with counseling services, food services, bookstore, and computer center, one could, for example, look at models from the world of merchandizing such as the retail mall.

In my view, the critical realist approach to social science research is a fitting approach for studying problems in LIS; a number of authors have made that argument convincingly (Dobson, 2002; Jashapara, 2007; Mingers, 2004; Smith, 2006; and Wikgren, 2005). Before reporting on their work, I will, however, try to cast some light on the mutual implications of critical realism and semiosis exposed by Fairclough, Jessop, and Sayer (2002).

Critical Realism, Semiosis, and Discourse

Semiosis is the production of meaning through the use of signs (writing and diagrams are examples of semiosis). Semiosis is performative in the sense that ist has real effects on social practice, social institutions, and social order (Fairclough, Jessop, &

Sayer, 2002). According to Fairclough, Jessop, and Sayer, critical discourse analysis is a form of critical semiotic analysis that incorporates a concern for context. For Fairclough and his collaborators, critical semiotic analysis is

> concerned with the relationship between semiosis and the material and social world; persons and their intentions, beliefs, desires, etc; and social relations. It is concerned with the description of texts, the interpretation of how people produce and interpret texts, judgments of texts in terms of truth, truthfulness and appropriateness, and explanation of the social causes and effects of texts. (p. 8)

A critical realist approach to the explanation of discourses analyzes them as combinations of structures and causal powers that together produce specific effects (Fairclough et al., 2002, p. 8). The effects of discourse are socially constructive. Discourses may become enacted both discursively and extra-discursively (p.8); for example, extra-discursive enactments of the "library as learning commons" discourse are the incorporation of teaching spaces and spaces for group-study into academic library planning and design or the provision of additional services to library users. Discourses may also become inculcated as new ways of being and new identities for social agents (p.8); for example, the library as learning commons discourse can be inculcated in the construction of the identity of the academic librarian as teacher or as facilitator to learning. Discourses may also become materialized in organizational practices, in new buildings or in new technologies (p. 8); for example, the "library as learning commons" discourse can be materialized in the reorganization of library work, in the redefinition of relationships with other campus units, or in the design and construction of a new library building.

Critical realists argue that "the world is characterized by emergence"; this means that the world is characterized by situations where the combination of two or more of its

features gives rise to new phenomena whose properties are not reducible to those of their constituents (Sayer, 2000, p. 12). An example of emergence is that of the variety of responses by academic library administrators to the challenge of facing the pressures due to combined reduced funding, the need to upgrade facilities in order to support the use of new technologies, and the need to adapt to new types of learning and teaching. From a critical realist perspective, discourse is seen as an instance of emergence. To continue with my example, the discourses that accompany the transformation of academic libraries into learning commons or information commons are instances of emergence in the larger domain of discourse on academic libraries.

In the context of my dissertation, I am interested in exploring the effects on the practice of academic librarianship of the emergent "library as space and place" order of discourse in discussions of academic library planning and design. The critical realist approach to analyzing discourse provides the necessary framework for studying how various library as space and place discourses, or interpretative repertoires, are articulated in relationship to practice and to one another. In the next section I will discuss calls for the introduction of a realist perspective in LIS by Hjørland (2004), and for the use of critical realism as a philosophical framework for LIS research by Dobson (2002), Jashapara (2007), Mingers (2004), Smith (2006), and Wikgren (2005).

Realism and Critical Realism in LIS: An Emerging Trend

In the last six years, a trend has been emerging led by a few scholars who have called for the use of realist or critical realist perspectives in LIS research. Among them are Hjørland (2004) arguing for philosophical realism and Wikgren (2005) who defends the use of critical realist social theory for interdisciplinary research in information

seeking and user studies. Others in information science fields are Dobson (2002), Mingers (2004), and Smith (2006) who advocate the use of critical realism as a philosophical framework for information systems research; and Jashapara (2007) who, in the context of knowledge management research, uses a critical realist perspective to develop a three-level hierarchical model of organizational knowledge. What these authors have in common is that they all have struggled with the contradiction between the relativism inherent in the combination of a constructionist ontology with a constructionist epistemology that dominates a large proportion of LIS research, and the practice of research activities, which, de facto, rely on a realist ontological view of research objects (for a coherent argumentation see M. L. Smith, 2006).

In one of his most recent papers focusing on theory, Hjørland (2004) has called for reintroducing a realist perspective in LIS. In that paper, he outlines "a realist conception of relevance, information seeking, information retrieval, and knowledge organization" (p. 488), and offers his domain analysis as an outcome of the view which he terms "pragmatic realism" (p. 489). According to Hjørland, antirealism is widespread in LIS; he sees it as an "underlying tendency in most research" (especially research on relevance and on knowledge organization), in particular in the assumptions underlying research in information-seeking behavior (p. 497). For Hjørland, antirealist approaches to research tend to ignore objective factors such as the potentialities of information systems and resources at the disposal of users for information seeking, the objective relevance and reliability of certain information sources over others, or the objective organization of information based on knowledge contained in documents (pp. 497-499). What Hjørland criticizes then is that much of the LIS research he refers to ignores real and actual

dimensions (in the critical realist sense) of the information world; in contrast, his domain analysis approach, which takes into account existing structures, systems, and networks of information sources, takes a realist approach by accounting for historical, cultural, organizational, and material dimensions of the information world. What Hjørland argues for is the reintroduction of realism, which claims the existence of a mind-independent reality, as a philosophical framework in LIS research. Hjørland uses the term philosophical realism as an umbrella term that covers "scholastic realism, transcendental realism, scientific realism, critical realism, and naïve realism" (pp. 488-489); he, however, fails to develop an argument for a particular form of realism. Wikgren (2005), on the other hand, has suggested critical realism as a fruitful philosophical stance for research in LIS.

A research officer at the Swedish Research Council, Wikgren (2005) builds a strong case for the fruitfulness of critical realism as philosophy and social theory for interdisciplinary LIS research in information seeking and user studies. Her major arguments for adopting a critical realist stance are that critical realism recognizes the reality of the natural world as well as the events and discourses of the social world and that it involves an emancipatory dimension reached through explanatory critique of generative mechanisms like social structures, social action, or agency, which give rise to certain events and institutions (p. 14). She considers the central features of a critical realist social theory for LIS to be: a) the stratification of social reality that permits us to distinguish among individual, social, and cultural levels of information seeking and use; b) the importance of contextualization that is consistent with research on information seeking in context; and c) the relation between structure and agency that allows LIS

researchers to explain the mechanisms that influence information seeking by revealing possible underlying causes and relations between user, discourse community, pre-existent systems of information sources and search opportunities, and actions (pp. 15-19).

Dobson (2002), Mingers (2004), and Smith, M. L. (2006) advocate adopting Bhaskar's critical realism as an underlying philosophy for information systems (IS). According to Dobson, a professor at Edith Cowan University in Australia, the role of philosophy is neglected in information systems (IS) research that focuses on practical applications (2002). He believes that critical realism offers a useful philosophical perspective to address the social and organizational issues involved in IS studies, particularly research that is oriented towards the application of information systems in business practice. In keeping with a critical realist perspective on research, he asserts that the nature of what is to be investigated is of primary concern and that ontology and methodology should be closely linked. However, Dobson's discussion remains on an abstract theoretical level, and he neglects to establish a strong connection between the fruitfulness of adopting a critical realist perspective and the particular questions and problems that are investigated in IS research.

Mingers, a professor and researcher at the University of Kent (U.K.), proposes critical realism as an underpinning philosophy that has the potential to overcome the problems posed by positivism and interpretivism as philosophies of science underlying a great deal of IS research (2004). Mingers's article provides a concise introduction to critical realism and, very usefully, represents visually the stratification of the natural, actual, and empirical domains as nested into one another like Russian dolls with the empirical as the innermost domain of the real and the natural as the outermost. He

characterizes the realist method of science as one of *retroduction*, which takes unexplained phenomena and proposes "hypothetical mechanisms that, *if they existed,* would generate or cause that which is to be explained" (pp. 94-95). Mingers also exposes clearly the difference between social phenomena and natural phenomena and outlines limits on the practice of a critical realist social science. Finally, he illustrates his theoretical arguments with critiques of empiricist statistical modeling and interpretivist soft systems methodology, and emphasizes that critical realism helps to explain why things are as they are, and to make hypotheses regarding the structures and mechanisms that shape observable events (p. 100).

Smith, a graduate of the Department of Information Systems at the London School of Economics and Political Science in London, also calls for a reconsideration of the underlying ontological premises of IS research and practice and discusses the theory-practice inconsistencies that emerge with the use of these premises (2006, pp. 193-199). Arguing that "most research *already* implicitly assumes an ontology compatible with the critical realist natural and social realism" (p. 192), Smith proposes that Bhaskar's critical realist ontology can supply IS research with a conceptual framework that grounds causal explanations in a way that more closely matches research to practice (p. 203).

Finally, in the context of knowledge management research, Jashapara, a scholar at the University of London (U.K.), takes a critical realist theoretical perspective to develop a convincing framework that explains organizational knowledge as a three-level hierarchy (2007). Jashapara's model consists of: a) knowledge structures, where organizational memory is the primary knowledge structure that affects everyday experience; b) knowledge processes conceived as consciousness (both individual and

collective) constituted in everyday experience and shaped by memory; and c) knowledge behaviors conceived as the manifestations of tacit and explicit *knowledges* (p. 762).

In summary, the work of these authors demonstrates ways of supplementing the social constructionist metatheoretical framework for research in LIS with a critical realist ontological stance. Coupled with a suitably linked methodology fitting the object of investigation, such an approach to LIS research promises to enrich analytical explanations of phenomena from a social perspective.

Discourse Analysis as a Theoretical Framework for Methodology and Research Design

Among approaches to social science research that are compatible with a critical realist ontological stand and a moderate social-constructionist epistemology, critical discourse analysis offers a set of theoretical orientations supporting a methodology that can best allow me to explore and critique the discursive construction of the "academic library as space and place" in contemporary talk about library design and planning. In this section, I will briefly introduce discourse analysis as theory, and then I will support my choice by discussing its uses in LIS research.

Discourse Analysis as Theory

Discourse analysis (DA) is an approach to social science and humanities research that focuses on the study of language in action, that is, speech in its oral form fixed as writing (Ricoeur, 1979), or textual forms of speech. In a more general way, discourse analysis has come to be seen as an approach to look at language use and the use of other forms of semiosis (such as visual images) as elements of social processes (Fairclough, 2001a). Fairclough explains (2001a) that social life is an interconnected network of different types of social practices. Critical discourse analysts most often describe social

practices as "stabilized forms" of social activity or social action (Fairclough & Chouliaraki, 1999), that is, certain habitual ways of doing things or acting together that are tied to particular times and places, and to specialized domains of the economy, politics, culture, and everyday life (1999, p. 21). Fairclough explains:

> Social practices can be thought of as ways of controlling the selection of certain structural possibilities and the exclusion of others, and the retention of these selections over time, in particular areas of social life. Social practices are networked together in particular and shifting ways. (2003, pp. 23-24)

Networks of social practices constitute social fields, institutions, and organizations (Fairclough, 2005d). For Fairclough, "an order of discourse is a network of social practices in its language aspect" (2003, p. 24).

There is no unified and universally recognized theory of discourse analysis; one can distinguish theories of discourse as well as analytical research methods that differ in perspective when they are used in different fields of the social sciences (for example, psychology, sociology, history, or political science) or humanities (linguistic, literary studies) and also vary according to the geographical areas in which they are used (for example, Continental versus Anglo-American DA). As a result, one could say that they are middle range theories of discourse that shape and inform analysis in different fields. In my work, I will draw on DA in the social sciences.

Critical Discourse Analysis

Norman Fairclough's (2001b and 2005d) critical analyses of discursive aspects of contemporary social change are influenced by the Foucauldian approach to discourse analysis. In his seminal work, *Discourse and Social Change* (1992a), Fairclough

identifies the major insights he drew from Foucault's work in order to develop a textually oriented approach to discourse analysis (which he named TODA). He summarizes these insights as follows: the constitutive nature of discourse, the primacy of interdiscursivity and intertextuality, the discursive nature of power, the political nature of discourse, and the discursive nature of social change (pp. 55-56).

In 1999, Fairclough explicated together with Lilie Chouliaraki his version of discourse analysis, the aim of which is to contribute to critical social science and to "an awareness of what is, how it has come to be, and what it might become" (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 4). Chouliaraki and Fairclough describe discursive interaction as "an active, reflexive, interpretative, and collaborative process of representing the world while simultaneously negotiating social relations with others and one's own identity… [that is] one *moment* in a social practice [emphasis added]" (p. 46). Their approach to DA combines a dialectical theory of language informed by the work of Bakhtin and a focus on interdiscursivity and systemic-functional linguistic theory which conceptualizes language as the simultaneous construction of reality, the enactment and negotiation of social relations and identities, and the construction of text (pp. 46-50). For Chouliaraki and Fairclough, the semiotic and linguistic features of a communicative interaction are connected to what is going on socially; however, what goes on socially is also, to some extent, expressed and visible semiotically or linguistically (p. 113).

To describe what is involved in the practice of critical discourse analysis, Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999) have developed a five stage methodological framework. To summarize, critical discourse analysts, after first perceiving or selecting a discourse-related problem, describe the characteristics of discourse present in a text; they

then carry on with an interpretative process that aims to reach some understanding of the text; they must also reflexively analyze this emergent understanding; and finally they attempt to provide explanations by selecting a theoretical framework that helps them locate the text in social practice (the interested reader can refer to Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 59-68).

In summary, Fairclough's (1993, 2001b, 2001c, 2003, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c, and 2005d) approach to critical discourse analysis (CDA) is textually oriented discourse analysis based on a critical realist ontology that is derived from Foucauldian analysis and focuses on the social character of texts. It goes beyond the description of linguistic mechanisms and puts the analysis of discourse in relationship to its social context where it seeks explanations and real effects. Both discourse and its vehicles (texts) are considered social events with real effects. *Analysing Discourse: Textual analysis for social research* (Fairclough, 2003) explicates Fairclough's theoretical framework for CDA and its associated methodology; it is a seminal text which has been crucial to the articulation of my methodology and the development of my research design.

Discourse Analytical Theory and LIS

In LIS some of the advantages of using DA have been explored by, among others, Budd (2006, 2001), Frohmann (1992, 1994a, 1994b, 2001), and Talja (1997, 1999, 2001, 2004). Its major potential is to analyze critically LIS discourse to encourage the LIS community to evaluate the paradigms, models, definitions, and other abstract entities with which it operates on theoretical and practical levels. DA provides us with a theoretical framework to evaluate how the way we construct our research objects may have unintended, undesirable effects (Frohmann, 1992a, 1992b, 1994a, 1994b; Haider &

Bawden, 2007; Talja, 1997; Tuominen, 1997). DA can also allow LIS to evaluate critically how its body of theory is being discursively constructed, the impact of theory on pedagogy, and its practical effects on ways of teaching and learning and on what is being taught (Frohmann, 2001). In short, DA offers LIS scholars and practitioners a powerful theory and methodology that can be used in LIS studies as discipline and in LIS practice to examine the social effects of our discursive practices.

Summary

My philosophical orientation towards the nature of social science research can best be described as a moderate social constructionist view of social reality tempered by a critical realist approach to ontology (approaching perhaps what Nightingale and Cromby call "critical realist constructionism," 2002, p. 702). That is, I accept the constructed nature of everyday life knowledge which I see as being constituted through interpretive and descriptive linguistic processes. I also accept the constructed nature of scientific knowledge developed through the privileged discourse of scientists/researchers, but I reject the idea that this collective construction is "an illusion, kept alive by our common agreement" (Roos & Rotkirch, 2002). I believe that the nature of scientific knowledge is contingent, shifting, and partial (Fairclough, 2003, p. 14). I have chosen critical discourse analysis in the tradition developed by Fairclough as the theoretical framework for the design of my dissertation research because of its compatibility with my philosophical orientation.

In taking a critical discourse analytic perspective, my goal is to follow the leadership of Bernd Frohmann who appealed for the introduction of critical self-reflectivity in LIS (1994). I intend to provide critical insight to library professionals'

discussions about the place of the academic library and its role. My hope is also to expand knowledge and understanding of the suitability and uses of critical discourse analysis as theory and methodology for LIS research and to promote discourse analysis as a research method for studying the social construction of librarianship as a disciplinary field and as a profession.

In conclusion, the development of my philosophical and theoretical stances and my methodological framework for this dissertation research owe a debt to the intellectual influences of LIS scholars Frohmann (1992a, 1992b, 1994a, 1994b), Budd (2006, 1996), Talja (1997, 1999), Tuominen (1997a, 1997b, 2005), and Thomas (2003), and of critical discourse analyst Fairclough (especially 2001, 2002a, 2003). In chapter 4, I will discuss the methodology and design that I have chosen for this study.

Chapter 4

Methodology and Design of the Study

Critical Discourse Analysis as Methodology

Many discourse analysts explicitly state that standardized methods are not appropriate for discourse analysis (Phillips & Hardy, 2002) and that there is no universal set of procedures for analyzing discourse (Antaki et al., 2003, as cited in MacMillan, 2005; Fairclough, 1992a, p. 225; Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 76, Wood & Kroger, 2000, p. 96). In any case, a study of DA literature confirms that there are rather varied approaches to analyzing discourse quantitatively and qualitatively (corpus linguistics, content analysis, critical linguistics, critical analysis, etc.) and that the approach taken depends on the nature of each project as well as the researcher's own views of discourse (Fairclough, 1992a, p. 225). For the design of my study I have taken a qualitative approach inscribed within a framework inspired by Fairclough's methodological framework for CDA (developed in 2001c, 2003).

The Role of the Researcher

In all discourse analytical approaches, the role of the researcher is to expose processes of discourse production. Foucault proposed that, when adopting a critical perspective, the DA researcher should first establish the ways in which texts convey specific messages at a particular moment in time and then should show the relationships between discourse and social practices; his approach emphasized understanding how power works by focusing on social context. Still, power relationships do not need to be the sole focus of DA. In his own approach to CDA, Fairclough proposed that the

researcher's role is not only to map relationships between discourse and social practices, but to critique these relationships and to suggest directions for action and for initiating change in the real-world if desirable. In my dissertation, taking into account Buschman's criticism of DA approaches to LIS research (2007, p. 41), I have chosen to let the data talk to me without the filter of an ideological lens. Hence, in order to heighten a sense of possibilities, I have consciously avoided taking a Marxist approach to CDA with its a priori focus on power relationships. Rather, in the words of Talja (1999, p. 474), it is the power and influence of narratives that I have chosen to explore.

Framework for Discourse Analysis as a Research Method

Fairclough first provided a "blueprint" for doing discourse analysis in his seminal work *Discourse and Social Change* (1992a, Ch. 8, pp. 225-240). Later, Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999, p. 60) introduced a schematic five-stage framework for CDA. From this framework, Fairclough (2001b, pp. 236-239; and 2003, pp. 209-210) outlined a five stage methodological approach for practicing CDA that has guided my analytical work.

Fairclough's Stage 1: perceiving and identifying. Identifying a research problem of interest that has a discursive aspect is more in line with the critical intent of CDA than formulating a more conventional research question. Thus, CDA begins with the researcher articulating a research problem. After that, the researcher must identify a sample of texts that embody the object of analysis; however, the literature provides neither guidelines for standard sampling procedures nor recommendations as to a standard sample size. The role of the researcher is to "try to capture 'important' texts, for example, those ... that are associated with changes in practices, or that were produced in relation to a particular event," and those that can be easily compared or contrasted

(Phillips & Hardy, 2002, pp. 73-74). Which texts best constitute data depends on what the researcher is studying, and the difficulty resides in identifying "a manageable, relatively limited corpus of texts that is helpful in exploring the construction of the object of analysis" (2002, p. 72).

Fairclough's stage 2: discourse analysis and description. This stage of CDA consists in analytical work on the texts. Fairclough distinguishes between three levels of analysis: discursive practice, text, and social practice (Fairclough, 1992a, pp. 231-238; for an overview with examples see Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, pp. 81-88). As Taylor unequivocally states it, "describing analysis in the abstract is necessarily inadequate" (2001a, p. 38); however, it must be attempted in this section. First of all, it should be remembered that, although levels of analysis are described here linearly, there is no prescribed order for doing analysis because it is a creative, intuitive and inductive activity that is iterative in nature.

Fairclough suggests beginning at the level of the social. The researcher needs to specify the configuration of the network of social practices within which the discourse deployed in the text under consideration is located (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 60). The analyst must ask: "What social practices is this discourse a part of?" (Fairclough, 1992a, p. 231). Then the relationships of discourse to other elements within this network of practices must be examined.

Texts must then be analyzed with the aim to understand how the "problem" researched arises and how it is rooted in the way social life (or an area of social life) is organized. This analysis at the levels of text and discursive practices is oriented along three lines: structure, textual interaction, and *texturing* work (Fairclough, 2003, pp. 209-

210). Structural analysis focuses on the identification of a network of *interpretative repertoires* or of *orders of discourse*; textual analysis examines what goes on *in* the text, what goes on *between* texts, and how discourses and genres are worked together or articulated (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 63); and the analysis of texturing consists in examining how the text does valuing, representing, relating, and identifying work (Fairclough, 2003, pp 209-210).

In order to examine what goes on in the text and between texts, Chouliaraki and Fairclough (1999, p. 139) have derived a method for textual analysis from Systemic Functional Linguistics (or SFL). SFL is a term used to describe a linguistic theory and an analytical method that are associated with Michael Halliday (1978, 1994). The analysis of texturing focuses on discursive practices; its aim is to examine what the text "does" and how it does it. During this stage the researcher must examine intertextuality and interdiscursivity (Fairclough, 1992a, p. 231; Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, pp. 81-83), that is, the possible relationships that exist between the text under study and other texts and how the author relies on external discourses to support discursive construction.

Fairclough's stage 3: explanation and critique. During this stage of CDA, the analyst must develop an explanatory critique. To do this, the researcher examines the "function" the discourse under study may have in the social practice (what purposes it serves) and also needs to consider what the possible real effects of discourse could be (Fairclough, 2003, pp. 209-210). Fairclough suggests that the analyst should consider existing social, economic, or political theories, models, and concepts that can support and strengthen explanations. The adoption of appropriate explanatory theories, models, or

concepts is naturally contingent to the relationships between discourse and social life that the analyst uncovered in stage 2.

Fairclough's Stage 4: more critique. This last stage of the analysis of discourse complements stage 2. The analyst's role is to look for unrealized possibilities for change in the way social life is currently organized (Fairclough, 2003, pp. 209-210). The kinds of questions that should be asked are: "What alternative discourses are being suppressed by the discourse under study? What possibilities for social actions are being ignored as a result of the discourse? Are there possibilities for change?" The role of the analyst is to examine the effects of discourse and to hypothesize as to the effects of its alternatives. Based on her or his social positioning, the researcher then can point to ways of changing the situation; during this stage of the analysis, self awareness of the researcher is important.

Fairclough's stage 5: self-analysis. This last stage of the CDA process focuses on reflexivity. The researcher needs to reflect critically on stages 1-4 of the analysis and must be able to explain how she or he is socially positioned (Fairclough, 2003, pp. 209-210). Stage 5 involves a self-reflective process that aims to answer axiological concerns regarding the positioning of the analyst towards the research object. This kind of reflexivity is deemed essential to qualitative research in general (Watt, 2007, p. 82), to social constructionism (Jørgensen & Phillips, p. 116) and, therefore, to a social constructionist epistemology of discourse analysis (Phillips & Hardy, pp. 2, 10), and to critical discourse analysis in particular (Fairclough, 1992a, as cited in Locke, 2004, p. 12). I believe that reflexive analysis needs to be ever present throughout the analytical process and that during each of the four other stages, the researcher should remain aware of

her/his social perspective and biases; in my dissertation research I have strived to do just that.

Although the description of this whole process seems to imply a linear progression through stages 1-4, the process is fundamentally recursive. In fact, the analyst usually works at the same time, or back and forth, and in a recurrent way on different stages of the analysis and on different texts. Figure 3 below summarizes the CDA analytical process.

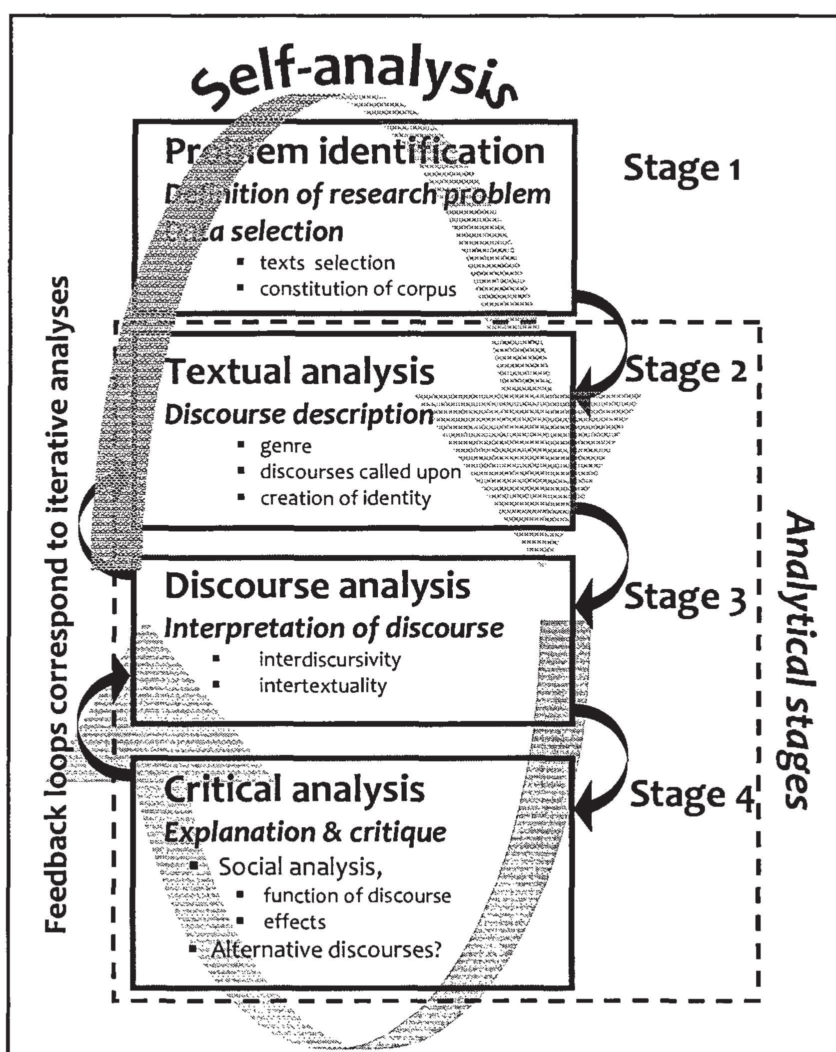


Figure 3: Fairclough's Methodological Process for Critical Discourse Analysis

Data

The primary objects under study for CDA are texts; they constitute the data that is qualitatively analyzed to provide a critical interpretation. The texts used as data can be produced by a single author, a group of authors, or an institutional entity; alternatively, they can be works by a variety of authors. Texts in a corpus can also be collected from one single source (one journal for example) or from a variety of sources (journals, websites, institutional reports, or media).

The success of discourse analytical studies does not depend on sample size (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 120; MacMillan, 2005, paragraph 36; Potter & Wetherell, 1987, p. 161). Doing discourse analysis is labor intensive and time consuming because, in addition to the time spent on the analytical and critical process, a great deal of time and effort go into reading and re-reading texts at every stage of the entire CDA process. Therefore, the size of analyzed texts samples is in general relatively small. In fact, some discourse analysts have focused their studies on as little as one single text (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 120; Potter & Wetherell, 1987, p. 161) or corpuses of only a few texts.

> Because one is interested in language use rather than the people generating the language and because a large number of linguistic patterns are likely to emerge from a few people, small samples or a few interviews are generally quite adequate for investigating an interesting and practically important range of phenomena. For discourse analysts the success of a study is *not* the least dependent on sample size. It is not the case that a larger sample necessarily indicates a more painstaking or worthwhile piece of research. Indeed, more interviews can often simply add to the labour involved without adding anything to the analysis.
> The crucial determinant of sample size, however, must be, here as elsewhere, the specific research question. A number of classic studies have concentrated on a single text, with the goal of showing how a certain effect can be achieved (e.g, Eglin, 1979; Gusfield, 1976; Potter et al., 1984; Smith, 1978; Wolgar, 1980). In these cases the value or generalizability of results depends on the reader assessing the importance and interest of the effect described and deciding whether it has vital consequences for the area of social life in which it emerges and possibly for other areas. (Potter & Wetherell, 1987, p. 161)

The texts used as data in CDA are generally selected for study because they are socially, politically, organizationally, or institutionally significant. Fairclough (1992 a, p. 230) recommends the use of a "small number of discourse samples" for detailed analysis and Jørgensen and Phillips (2002, p. 120) suggest using a sample of just under ten texts.

Validity, Reliability, and Generalizability of Critical Discourse Analytic Work

Questions of validity, reliability, and generalizability have plagued the domain of qualitative research, and as an interpretive method DA has been particularly vulnerable to critics' attacks. However, the domain of discourse analysis research has evolved into a field in its own right, and DA scholars have developed accepted definitions of validity, reliability, and generalizability that are consistent with "the nature of the beast." In this regard Talja's (1999) article "Analyzing qualitative interview data: The discourse analytic method" is a particularly useful reference work for LIS researchers.

Validity

In CDA practice, the validity of a study can be evaluated on the sole strength of the interpretative argument –its believability, and its coherence with the data and its context. Wood and Kroger (2000, pp. 163-175) propose that validity criteria can be met by achieving the alternative criteria of soundness (by means of orderliness and demonstration), coherence, and plausibility. "Demonstrating" is showing rather than telling; presenting the steps involved in analysis, rather than telling about the argument, and pointing to excerpts for illustration (p. 170). Coherence is achieved by formulating claims clearly and unambiguously, accounting for exceptions and alternatives (p. 173). Besides, claims should be located within an adequate explanatory scope. Plausibility answers to the questions: Are the claims acceptable? Are explanations persuasive? Do

they make sense in relation to other knowledge? (p. 174). The researcher can use intertextual analysis (p. 175) to establish linkages to other discourses, or the interanalytic criterion which involves the comparison of the researcher's claims and other works (pp. 174-175).

Reliability

Reliability depends on the verifiability of the researcher's interpretations, which must be based solely on the research data. Wood and Kroger (2000) suggest that alternative criteria of trustworthiness apply to discourse analytic work rather than reliability criteria; they propose that orderliness and documentation support trustworthiness (p. 169). Orderliness refers to the ways in which all aspects of research are conducted, recorded, and reported (p. 169). Documentation entails describing clearly all the facets of research, including how the researcher goes about doing discourse analysis. This documentation of procedures along with the display of arguments should contribute to the reader's trust in the analysis. Together with providing data excerpts, documenting ensures the researcher answers to the requirement of accountability (p. 169). One way to document the research process is to constitute an "audit trail" by journaling and taking notes. The audit trail can allow an external auditor to examine processes of data collection, analysis and interpretation (p. 169). By including documentation of the process into the report, the researcher can leave the dependability audit to the readers (p. 170).

Generalizability

In qualitative research and particularly in DA, transferability (Heracleous, 2006) and fruitfulness (Wood & Kroger, 2000) are considered substitutes for generalizability.

Heracleous describes transferability as a type of generalization that he calls "moderatum generalization," where the aspects of a situation are exemplars of broader sets of features. Conclusions and interpretations should be transferable and should demonstrate fruitfulness, that is, their potential for making sense of new discourses and generating fresh explanations (Wood & Kroger, p. 175). To ensure the reliability and transferability of a discursive analysis, researchers can carefully constitute their source sample and combine different types of research material.

In summary, concerns with validity, reliability, and generalizability that are generally applied to quantitative studies are replaced in this dissertation by the concerns with believability, verifiability, fruitfulness, and transferability.

Research Design

Pilot studies

According to Krathwohl (1998, p. 673), pilot studies are essential, particularly for novice researchers, in that they help define the dimensions of the problem being studied, the kind of data that will be used, and the ways in which a sample will be selected. For this reason, I completed a total of four pilot studies as I was creating my dissertation proposal. These helped me define my research problem and convinced me that the choice of critical discourse analysis as a methodological framework is appropriate for the investigation of the problems that interest me. An explanation and summaries of the pilot studies follow.

Pilot study 1. In the spring of 2007, I performed a first pilot study; my aim was to begin analytical work on a comparison of the discursive construction of library architecture by architects and architecture scholars and by library professionals and LIS

scholars in order to clarify the delineation of my dissertation topic. My pilot study focused on the exploration of the discursive construction of library architecture by architects and architecture theorists and scholars. A resource for the selection of primary textual data was identified in the *Journal of Architectural Education*, a peer-reviewed scholarly publication read mostly by architects who teach in architecture schools and may also practice architecture. Volume 47, issue 3 (1994) was selected as a data source because it was a special issue on library designs submitted as entries to real-life design competitions. Four articles from that issue were selected as a small sample to constitute a corpus of texts for analytical purposes. One of these articles was the introductory article to the special issue; the three others reported on three different design proposals for the same library building. I performed textual analyses of all four texts and wrote a preliminary analytical report for one of the texts. The outcome of this pilot study highlighted the need for me to learn more about critical discourse analytical methodology; in particular, I wanted to learn how to transition from description to interpretation and critique.

Pilot study 2. In the fall of 2007, I began a second pilot study. My intent was to select a sample of about 16 texts by evaluating their potential utility for discourse analytical research. My goal was to explore the feasibility of constituting a corpus of texts that discussed the library as place and were drawn in balanced numbers from the LIS and architecture literatures. Initially, I had thought it might be useful to compare discourses from the domain of architecture and discourses from the domain of librarianship as part of my dissertation research. The pilot study convinced me to abandon this idea due to the availability of very few potential data sources from the

architecture literature that could be used for comparative discourse analysis. The texts from the professional architecture literature are of the genre case studies; they tend to rely heavily on illustrations and to be short and descriptive. Articles in the professional literature are in general written by architecture critics, rather than by the designers themselves, for an audience of architects and designers; they tend to focus on design concepts and image with a focus on the exceptional. This type of articles was hardly suitable for a fruitful exploration of my chosen topic of enquiry.

Pilot study 3. My third piloting effort consisted in attending two conferences (*Library Services Transforming Library Spaces,* Wichita KS, May 9, 2008; and *World Library and Information Congress in Quebec City, 74th IFLA General Conference and Council*, August 10-14, 2008) at which presentations, roundtables, and discussion groups on the topic of library as space and place had been organized. My aim was to explore the possibilities such venues could offer for recording spoken instances of discourse and for gathering documents that could be analyzed discursively. While it was possible to gather presentation documents made available by speakers, and relatively easy to take handwritten notes, it proved impossible faithfully to record presentations or discussions at round tables. This piloting experience convinced me to focus on written texts that are publicly available digitally or in print as journal articles, essays, books, reports, or presentation handouts.

Pilot study 4. My last piloting effort, performed from early September to mid October 2008, consisted in analyzing critically one of the texts that I planned to include in the corpus for my dissertation research: Introduction and Part 1 of Bennett's 2003 *Libraries Designed for Learning* (pp. 1-44). In order to analyze Bennett's text I followed

Fairclough's stages of CDA described above. I proceeded by reading the whole text several times highlighting and taking notes in the margins of a hardcopy of the whole report and writing up a commentary of my analysis. The structure of this commentary served as a model for each text of the corpus studied.

In the course of this last pilot study, I also explored the usability of the NVivo 7 software (by QSR International) available at ESU for doing discourse analysis. My aim was to test the feasibility of annotating and "coding" large amounts of existing text, and the experiment convinced me to continue analyzing texts manually by showing the inadequacy of NVivo 7 software to deal with fine-grained semiotic analysis that requires using text in its original formatting. For interested readers, the narrative of my experience with using NVivo is appended to this dissertation (see Appendix C).

Summary. From my pilot studies, I became aware of some of the particular challenges of using discourse analysis as a qualitative research method. I learned about the difficulty of locating appropriate sources of data and of selecting texts to build a coherent and manageable research corpus. In particular, I found that preliminary content analysis was crucial to the selection of texts constituting appropriately rich data for critical discourse analysis. I also became aware of the complexity of the analytical process and of the total inadequacy of the software traditionally used to support qualitative data analysis. As a result of my pilot studies I was better prepared to design my dissertation research.

Assumptions and Guiding Questions for the Design of the Research Program

From the very beginning, three assumptions guided the articulation of my dissertation research design: 1) academic librarianship is an area of social life associated

with a network of social practices that "articulate discourse together with non discoursal social elements": action and interaction, social relations, and the material world (Fairclough, 2003, p. 25); 2) there exists a discourse or field of discourse in academic librarianship; 3) within this field of discourse, there exists an order of discourse about the academic library as space and place.

Based on those assumptions, the overarching research question was:

Q: What is going on in professional discussions of library planning and design that attempt to (re)-define the academic library as space and place in the 21st century?

From there I asked a series of relatively simple questions that gave direction to my research.

Q1: How is a discourse about the academic library as space and place constituted in LIS discussions of academic library planning and design?

Q 1.1: How is the discourse about the academic library as space and place constituted in a corpus (sample) of LIS texts from 1995-2008?

Q1.2: Who constructs the discourse?

Q1.3: To whom is this discourse directed? Who is the targeted audience?

Q1.4: How is the discourse disseminated?

Q1.5: What is constructed through the discourse?

Q1.6: What is left unsaid or suppressed in and through the discourse?

Q2: What are possible explanations for the formation of this discourse?

Q3: What are possible outcomes and effects of constituting the academic lirary in this way for the future of academic librarianship and the planning and design of academic libraries?

Approach to Corpus Selection

The primary data for discourse analytical research are texts; however, the constitution of a sample of texts or corpus is value laden. Taylor warns that "discourse analysis is not a neutral, technical form of processing but always involves … decision making" (2001a, p. 24); he recommends that the analyst must justify, right from the start, the decisions made for including a text as data (p. 28). Accordingly, in this section of my dissertation, I provide as justification a description of my decision process and explanations for the selection of the texts that constitute the corpus used as data for my research.

In keeping with the theoretical principles of critical discourse analysis, the primary criteria established for the consideration of a text to be included in the corpus is that it should have "an obvious social or institutional significance" (Taylor, 2001b, p. 316) and that it should present interesting discursive features and mechanisms that can be analyzed using Fairclough's approach to CDA. I realize that this appears to be rather vague criteria but for each text considered, I determined that I must answer in the affirmative the following questions: "Is this text significant in regard to the discourse on academic librarianship?"; "Is this text significant in regard to planning and designing the academic library as space and place?"; and "Is there something interesting and worth examining going on here?"

Selecting important texts. The body of LIS literature in the English language gathered and read in the course of my literature review provided an ample source of texts published in academic and professional journals, or culled from documents made publicly available in conjunction with professional conferences, seminars and workshops, or texts

included in research reports produced by professional associations. My first step was to select "*important texts* [emphasis added] ... associated with changes in practices, or that were produced in relation to a particular event," and that could be easily compared or contrasted (Phillips & Hardy, 2002, pp. 73-74). As part of my literature review, I performed preliminary analytical work (as explained in chapter 2) and found three dominant discursive threads in discussions of academic library planning and design since 1995: the information commons, the learning commons, and the library designed for learning. Therefore, I chose to focus my research on the exploration of discourse developed in texts on those topics.

I performed additional searches of the *Library Literature & Information Full Text* database for texts from 1995 to 2008 using as subject headings and keywords the terms *College & University Libraries*, *Architecture and Building*, *Learning Commons*, and *Information Commons*. I arrived at a body of 90 documents from the LIS literature published between 1995 and 2008; from them I needed to extract potentially interesting texts for corpus selection. This body of documents included: nine book-length monographs and reports, 61 LIS journal articles, and 15 essays from collected works, or conference presentations made available by their authors as papers (see Appendix D for a list of all the texts reviewed).

From the body of 90 documents from the LIS literature, I weeded out those that did not discuss planning and design of the library as learning space, and those that reported on a particular library building project that I classified as case studies. I thus arrived at a reduced sample that included 31 documents, still an unmanageable number of documents for exploratory discourse analytical research. My task was then to reduce

further the number of documents for my study and select a smaller sample of texts presenting relevance from the viewpoint of academic librarianship and the discourse on academic library as place.

Positioning myself both as a discourse analyst seeking to describe and explicate discourse formation about the "academic library as place," and as an architect seeking to understand the nature of the academic library as a particular type of place from an environmental design perspective, I aimed to select the most important of those texts to constitute a small corpus for CDA. Focusing on texts that discussed the information commons, the learning commons, or the library designed for learning, I extracted 12 texts for potential study: Bailey and Tierney (2002), Beagle (1999, 2004), Bennett (2003, 2005, 2006, 2007a, 2008), Boone (2003), Halbert (1999), Spencer (2006), and Tramdack (1999). Texts by Beagle and Bennett were automatically included because I had previously established the dominance of these writers as authorial figures (see literature review, pp. 20-21). The texts by Halbert and Tramdack were included because Bailey and Tierney judge that "in 1999, Donald Beagle, together with commentators Martin Halbert and Philip Tramdack, presented substantive theoretical and applied roadmaps for an integrated Information Commons in an academic environment." Moreover, the three texts (Beagle 1999; Halbert, 1999; and Tramdack, 1999) constitute a series of interrelated articles in one issue of the *JAL*. The other texts were selected based on a preliminary analysis of their content and for potential intertextual and interdiscursive relationships with the other texts. In order to assess the importance of these 12 texts, I also performed citation analyses using Social Science Search and Google Scholar for comparison (results of citations analyses are presented in Table 4 below). Finally one more text was added for

analysis late in the process when it was brought to my attention by its author (Beagle, 2009); it discusses the evolution of the academic library as learning commons.

Table 4

Citation analyses

Text	**Times Cited**	
	Soc. Sci. Search	**Google Scholar**
Bailey & Tierney, 2002	8	56*
Beagle 1999	19	103
Beagle 2004	no data	11
Bennett, 2003	12	26
Bennett, 2005	2	10
Bennett, 2006	2	6
Bennett, 2007a	1	2
Bennett, 2008	no data	1
Boone, 2003	no data	10
Halbert, 1999	6	19
Spencer, 2006	no data	9
Tramdack, 1999	3	5

**Note: Interestingly, the links to 27 of the works citing Bailey & Tierney are in the Chinese language.*

For each of the texts, I studied the controlled vocabularies used to describe them in the "Library Literature & Information Full Text" database, when such data was available. It was found that the relevant *subjects* used in this database accessed through WilsonWeb were identical to the *descriptors* used in the same database accessed through DialogWeb. Table 3 below summarizes the results of this analysis.

Table 5

Summary of Relevant Controlled Vocabularies Describing Potential Texts

Text	**Descriptor** *College & University Lib*	**Descriptor** *Architecture & Building*	**Descriptor** *Learning Commons*	**KeywordPlus** *Information commons*
Bailey & Tierney, 2002	X		X	X
Beagle, 1999	X	X	X	X
Beagle, 2004 *				
Beagle, 2009 *				
Bennett, 2003 *				
Bennett, 2005 *				
Bennett, 2006	X	X		X
Bennett, 2007a	X	X		
Bennett, 2008	X		X	X
Halbert, 1999	X	X	X	X
Spencer, 2006	X		X	X
Tramdack, 1999	X	X		X

* *Note: There was no data for those texts*

Explanations and justifications for the selection of a manageable CDA corpus. Beagle (1999) and Bennett (2003) were selected because of their seminal character and because they appeared to represent points of departure for discussions of the information commons and of the library designed for learning (refer to the literature review, chapter 2). The other texts by Beagle (2004, 2009) and Bennett (2006, 2008) were selected for their relevance to understanding the development of the discourse under study because in them their authors elaborate on the discourse of the commons. Halbert (1999) and Tramdack (1999) were published in the same issue as Beagle's "Conceptualizing an

Information Commons" (1999) and as answers to it; therefore, together the three texts (Beagle, 1999; Halbert, 1999; and Tramdack, 1999) represent a unit worthy of analysis.

Boone (2003) was eliminated because, although it discusses a paradigm shift in the design and development of academic library buildings, it focuses on a concept of service which Boone names the "cybrary" (p. 358). The article by Bailey and Tierney (2002) was eliminated because it discusses information commons concepts and their "administrative and functional integration" in an academic library rather than issues of planning and design. Finally, Spencer (2006) was eliminated because it takes a historical perspective to present the development of the information commons model through a review of the literature and does not discuss academic library planning and design.

Approach to Analysis

The approach I used for data analysis was framed by theories of discourse and Fairclough's approach to CDA described in previous chapters. I used Fairclough's guidelines for completing stage 2 of his model as discussed in the methodology section of this chapter. Works by other discourse analysts were pulled in to construct an analytical toolbox (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002; Locke, 2002; van Leeuwen, 2008; Wood & Krogers, 2000).

Textual analysis. The purpose is to examine and describe the text analyzed, by identifying its origins, the participants in discursive activity, the discourses it draws upon (*interdiscursive analysis*), its *style*, and how these characteristics are worked or mixed together. Interdiscursive analysis is the process of first, identifying and describing discursive themes and the perspective, angle, or point of view from which these are represented (Fairclough, 2003, p. 129) and, second, describing how these themes are

interwoven into interpretative repertoires. Styles are the discursive aspects of ways of being; the analysis of style relies on the study of the uses of vocabulary and metaphor because those are linked to identification and identity creation (Fairclough, 2003, p. 160). Textual analysis was performed for each of the texts in the corpus (see Appendix E for an example of notes from textual analysis).

Critical analysis. It is supported by the secondary data created through textual analysis and involves a critical interpretation of discourse. I combined approaches to analyzing texts and lines of questioning from Jørgensen and Phillips, (2002), Locke (2004), Phillips and Hardy (2002), Van Leeuwen (2008), and Wood and Kroger (2000). My critical analytical and interpretive work was also inspired by the approach of leading discourse analysis researchers from LIS. Critical analysis was performed for each text and across the corpus.

Self-reflective analysis. As I mentioned earlier in the methodology section, self-reflection takes place all along during the research process. In fact, in the planning stages of my dissertation, I had to position myself in order to define and describe the philosophical and theoretical frameworks for my dissertation research. I continued questioning my position towards my research object throughout my analysis of texts and critical explanatory work because axiological concerns are related to establishing the believability, verifiability, and transferability of discourse analytical research, issues that will be discussed last in this chapter.

Presentation of findings. The findings of discourse analysis are generally presented in two parts which reflect CDA stages Fairclough calls discourse identification and discourse characterization. The first step in analyzing discourse is to "identify the

main parts of the world (including areas of social life) which are represented discursively – the main themes" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 129). This was done for each individual text and across the corpus. Findings from this analysis are presented in the form of a description. Discourse description will be the topic of chapter 5. The second step of discourse analysis is interpretative in nature; its goal is to "identify the particular perspective or angle or point view from which … [the main themes] are represented" (2003, p. 129) and how discourse is constituted. This was done for all the texts in the corpus. Chapter 6 will provide an interpretation of discursive activity and will aim to clarify how objects of discourse are constituted and how interpretative repertoires corresponding to different ways of viewing the academic library are woven together into an order of discourse which constructs the academic library as space and place.

Tools

Throughout my research process, I used the Microsoft Office^{xp} Professional word processing program for keeping and transcribing notes, emails, and texts from accessed websites. I initially planned to transcribe printed texts and use Microsoft Word as an unsophisticated text analysis tool to locate words and expressions in text and to use NVivo as data and document management tool; I abandoned these plans in favor of using printed documents. From the beginning of my research process, I kept annotated print copies of the texts I gathered and read as part of my literature review; I used my annotations during the discourse analytical process. I also printed copies of the originals of the texts included in the corpus for annotating and highlighting. I then typed summaries of textual analyses and printed them to use for iterative analyses across texts. I also used handwritten notebooks to sustain all of my working and thinking processes and

document the progress of my scholarly work. In my notes, I tended to use color coding to differentiate between interpretative and critical comments; because of my skills in visual communication, as an architect, I often made use of diagramming to record analytical thinking.

Ensuring Believability, Verifiability, Fruitfulness and Transferability

Texts, in DA, are analyzed as linguistic forms that support the constitution of discourses. In the next chapters, I will examine in texts not only their linguistic characteristics and their content and its meaning, but also their effects and implications, and their potential for constructing a certain social reality or, as Talja has said (1999, p. 474), the production of meanings about the library. My aim is "to make it possible for the reader to weigh the practical consequences of different discourses and to show the problems and possibilities created by their existence" (Potter & Wetherell as cited in Talja, p. 474).

In my research process, I have given a great deal of attention to the selection of texts to include in the corpus, and I have documented this process carefully in notes as well as in tables that summarize bibliographic analyses of the articles considered for inclusion. I have also written notes, memos, and kept a journal throughout my research process; these constitute the documentation necessary for an audit.

As a researcher, my role is also to present my analysis in a narrative form and my responsibilities are to write clearly, to avoid ambiguity, and to build a coherent analytical argument supported by examples extracted from the data. In the following chapters, I will justify my identification of discursive patterns in texts by providing grounds for my

claims and I will include relevant text extracts as supporting evidence for my analysis and interpretation.

My narrative has been subjected to critique by my dissertation committee members in order to evaluate whether I have achieved the following goals: 1) Have I built a coherent argument?; 2) Have I explicitly accounted for the procedures I used to produce knowledge? (Flyvbjerg, 2001, p. 34); 3) Does my analysis expose the existence of describable discourses about the academic library as space and place in the 21st century?; 4) Does my analysis expose the problems and possibilities that the discourses described could create for the practice of academic librarianship especially in regard to library planning and design?; 5) Are the arguments supporting my analysis persuasive? and 6) Is my analysis fruitful? Does it produce fresh and insightful explanations?

Additional criteria that I think are extremely important for discourse analytic research evaluation are moral or ethical criteria. This is because "as discourse, research accounts have effects beyond the mere communication of research findings" (Wood & Kroger, 2001, p. 177). Wood and Kroger borrow three criteria to connect moral and scientific considerations (p. 177; p. 213): 1) helpful problem framing, especially in regard to the problems of practice; 2) discourse analysis should capture how practitioners cope with problems and suggest how the problems might be transformed; 3) the research should offer formulations of "situated ideals" that incorporate participant's solutions (p.177). Wood and Kroger state further that individual studies do not need to address all three criteria but that they should meet at least one of them. I have aimed to meet criteria 1 and 2; because my research does not include participants, criterion 3 is not relevant.

Finally, I believe that I had a moral responsibility to practice self-reflection in order to make my stance explicit at every stage of the research process.

Chapter 5

Discourse Description

The results of discourse analysis are generally presented in two parts which reflect CDA stages Fairclough calls discourse identification and discourse characterization. The first step in analyzing discourse is to "identify the main parts of the world (including areas of social life) which are represented discursively – the main themes" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 129). This was done for each individual text and across the corpus. Findings from this analysis should be presented in the form of a description; discourse description will be the topic of this chapter. The second step of discourse analysis is interpretative in nature; its goal is to "identify the particular perspective or angle or point view from which … [the main themes] are represented" (2003, p. 129) and how discourse is constituted; this will be treated in chapter 6.

Discourse analysis was performed on a corpus of eight texts with the aim to answer my first research question (Q1): How is an order of discourse about the library as place constituted in discussions of academic library planning and design? The eight texts analyzed were: Beagle's "Conceptualizing an Information Commons" (1999), "From Information to Learning Commons" (2004), and "The Learning Commons in Historical Context" (2009); Bennett's Part I of *Libraries Designed for Learning* (2003, pp. 3-44), "The choice for learning" (2006), and "The Information or Learning Commons: Which Will We Have?" (2008); Halbert's "Lessons from the Information Commons Frontier" (1999); and Tramdack's "Reaction to Beagle" (1999). To simplify reference to individual texts, I will from now on refer to them as Beagle-99, Beagle-04, Beagle-09, Bennett-03, Bennett-06, Bennett-08, Halbert-99, and Tramdack-99.

Context

Origins of Texts

The majority of texts in the research corpus were published in peer-reviewed journals; only two texts in the corpus were produced in the course of other scholarly activities and made available for free on the World Wide Web. The context surrounding the production of those texts and of the discourse they construct fits into the institutionalized structure of scholarly knowledge production, which encompasses writing journal articles, presenting at conferences, and producing research reports.

Five texts were published in *The Journal of Academic Librarianship* (*JAL*); they were authored by Beagle (1999), Bennett (2006 and 2008), Halbert (1999), and Tramdack (1999). The *JAL*, which is published bimonthly by Elsevier Science, is one of the two journals that dominate the field of academic librarianship, the other being *C&RL* (Crawford, 1999, p. 225). Research by Crawford (1999, p. 227) showed that opinion articles represented 20 percent of the articles published in the *JAL* in the late 1990s. The *JAL* is described on its publisher's website as

> an international and refereed journal, [which] publishes articles that focus on problems and issues germane to college and university libraries. *JAL* provides a forum for authors to present research findings and, where applicable, their practical applications and significance; analyze policies, practices, issues, and trends; speculate about the future of academic librarianship; present analytical bibliographic essays and philosophical treatises. (Elsevier, 2009)

One text was written by Beagle (2004) for presentation at the Leavey Library Conference 2004 in Los Angeles and is freely available online; this text was also used in a revised form in Beagle's *Information Commons Handbook* (2006, pp. 50-51; information obtained in a personal communication, March 12, 2009). Another text also written by Beagle (2009) was published, in English, in the *Annals of Nagoya University*,

Library Studies; it re-uses extensively and elaborates upon content from Beagle-04. Described on WorldCat (2009) as a "National government publication," the *Annals of Nagoya University, Library Studies* publishes scholarly research articles in both the Japanese and English languages. Finally, one text written by Bennett (2003) was commissioned by the Council for Library and Information Resources (CLIR); it is also freely available online. Table 6 below summarizes the origins of the texts studied.

Table 6

Origins of Texts Summary

Text	**Articles**		**Others**	
	The Journal of Academic Librarianship	*Annals of Nagoya University*	Conference presentation	Report *CLIR*
Beagle-99	X			
Beagle-04			X	
Beagle-09		X		
Bennett-03				X
Bennett-06	X			
Bennett-08	X			
Halbert-99	X			
Tramdack-99	X			

Participants in the Discourse

There are three types of social actors that are participants in the discourse studied: those who produce texts, the writers; those who interpret the texts, the audience (or readers); and finally participants called upon, who are persons explicitly named in the texts or whose speech is reported directly or indirectly.

Writers. Four men are the authors of the eight texts studied. The articles that were published in the *JAL* provide us information that contributes to their social identities. All four men are identified as high ranked professionals in the field of academic librarianship.

This bit of information is given visual pre-eminence in the *JAL;* it is set apart in an insert in italic letters below the text of the article. We learn from the text in the inserts that Beagle and Bennett were also engaged in library planning consulting activities. Beagle was Associate Director of Library Services and Head of the Information Commons at the University of North Carolina (Beagle, 1999); an explicit mention of Beagle's activity as planning and design consultant for academic libraries reveals this other facet of his social positioning in Beagle-09 (p. 19). Bennett was Yale University Librarian Emeritus (Bennett, 2006, p. 3 and 2008, p. 183) and a Senior Advisor to the Council of Independent Colleges (2008, p. 183); one can also find the website address for Bennett's library space planning consulting business in the 2006 article (p. 3) and his email address for this business in the 2008 article (p. 183). Halbert was Director for Library Systems at Emory University (Halbert, 1999, p. 90). Finally, Tramdack was Associate Dean of Roscoe L. West Library at the College of New Jersey (Tramdack, 1999, p. 92).

Audience. The audience for the discourse developed in the texts studied would appear to include primarily library professionals. However, others involved in academic library planning and design represent a potential audience for this discourse, for example, library architects and university administrators and facilities managers. Solely based on the analysis of the texts' contents, however, it is only feasible to identify the audience targeted by the writers.

It is quite evident that the targeted audiences for the *JAL*, the *Annals of Nagoya University*, the Leavey Library Conference, and CLIR report belong to the same general professional group as the writers, library professionals. However, the *JAL* targets academic librarians in particular. A relationship of solidarity between writer and audience

(Fairclough, 2001c, p. 106) is established by repeated use of the first person plural pronouns *we*, *us*, and *our* by both Beagle (1999) and Bennett (2006 and 2008) in the texts of their *JAL* articles. In this manner, the writers include their audience within the same group of social actors who have similar professional experiences.

In Beagle-99, for example, Beagle asks his readers a rhetorical question and includes them as active participants in his answers.

> Beagle's question: "How do *we adapt* an institution that has grown up around the print tradition to manage service delivery in the highly complex and fluid digital environment?" (1999, p. 82. Emphasis added)
>
> Beagle's answer: "What *we are moving* towards is shown by . . . a University Information Commons now aligned with digital services and resources while still preserving within itself the vital tradition of print scholarship and bibliography." (1999, p. 84. Emphasis added)

In this way the readers become involved with Beagle in the task of adapting the library and moving towards the adoption of the information commons model in which "*our* ... service units, instead of being highly distinctive, now share contiguous service boundaries" (p. 84. Emphasis added). It should be acknowledged, that Beagle's use of the pronouns *we* and *our* could be interpreted as the more formal academic use of the "royal we"; however, this practice is rather uncommon in LIS scholarship and literature.

Bennett's strategy is to speak to and for the group (in 2006 and 2008). He tells a story of necessary change in perspectives on academic librarianship and the academic library building. He describes alternative directions for change and also asks questions that hand responsibility over to his audience for the future of academic libraries. For Bennett, *we* are collectively responsible for the present and future of academic library design. In Bennett's narratives, *we* have to choose between the delivery of electronic information or designing library space for learning (2006, p. 3) and between the

information and the learning commons (2008). The following excerpts illustrate Bennett's discursive strategy (italics have been added for emphasis).

"*We* have been building conventional library spaces ...." (Bennett, 2006, p. 3)

"One has to ask why *we* might continue to build libraries with bricks and mortar." (p. 3)

"*We* invest every year nearly a half billion dollars annually [sic] in new and renovated library space." (p. 3)

"*We* are increasingly designing shelving space using the idiom not of churches but of the warehouse." (p. 4)

"*We* cling with sometimes little planning effort to physical library space as an instrument for shaping the reader's environment. In this way, *we* continue to insist that libraries should provide immersion learning for the communities they serve." (p. 5)

"The information or the learning commons, which will *we* have?" (Bennett, 2008, p. 183)

"What have *we* actually been building?"(p. 183)

"*We* have a long way to go if *we* mean to build learning commons, as Beagle defines them – if *we* mean to get beyond the support of learning that defines the information commons. How will *we* know *we* have succeeded in building learning commons?" (p. 184)

Participants called upon. This category of social actors regroups participants who are named in the text and those who are called upon by means of reported speech (a reference to speech that is quoted directly or indirectly) and whose names may appear outside the main body of the texts. A great many participants' names appear in the notes and references. Not all of them are necessarily relevant to understanding the constitution of discourse; therefore, I will focus on the participants who are named or quoted in the body of the texts and have a preeminent role as social actors in the context of the discursive activity studied in the corpus. Those participants are: Beagle, Bennett, Bruffee, Henderson and Venkatraman, Hurt, Foote, and Seely Brown.

Figure 4 below diagrams the patterns of most significant relationships between writers and the references they name, that is, the category of discourse participants called upon.

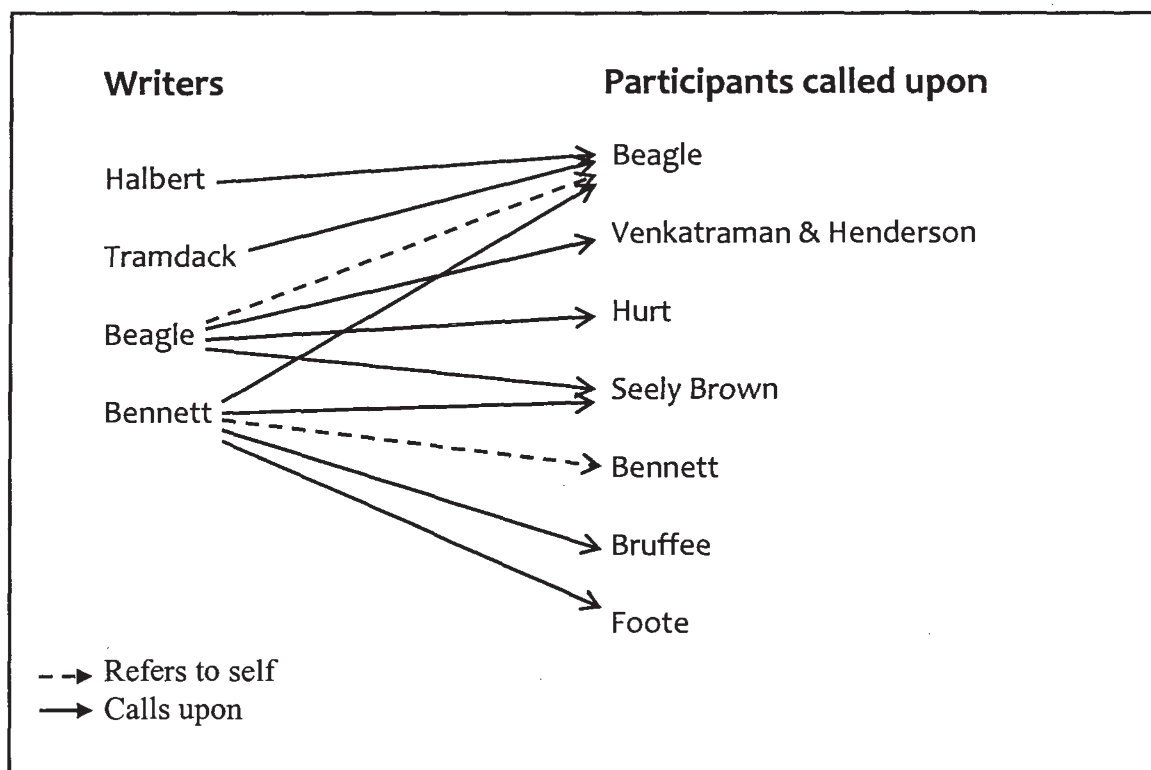


Figure 4. Relationships Between Writers and Participants Called Upon.

First of all, among the participants called upon, one has to single out two of the writers: Beagle and Bennett. Both authors reference themselves in the texts studied and are also conspicuously present in the text when they write in the first person singular. Bennett expresses his opinion directly and without ambiguity when he writes:

> This call to a largely virtual future is powerful, not least because it is right about so much of what will happen to information use and is well suited for graduate professional education. But *I* regard it as a siren's call when applied to the broader learning environment of undergraduate, liberal arts education. (Bennett, 2006, p. 8. Emphasis added)

Beagle refers to himself in reference to a particular time in his life; he does so as a way that locates in space-time the opinion he shared with a group of like-minded library managers around 1997.

> By the time *I* became Head of the Information Commons at UNC-Charlotte in 1997, it had become clear to *me and a number of library managers* that the physical Information Commons facilities were offering a continuum of service that dynamically paralleled the ETS components of information literacy. (Beagle, 2009, p. 17. Emphasis added)

In these two previous excerpts, the use of the first person pronoun makes the presence of the writers felt in the texts.

Beagle is also repeatedly and directly called upon by Bennett, Halbert, and Tramdack. Halbert and Tramdack both name Beagle in the body of their 1999 articles. For Tramdack, "*Donald Beagle* provides a thought provoking conceptual structure for implementing both the virtual and physical manifestations of the 'Information Commons' (IC)" (1999, p. 92. Emphasis added); also "as noted by *Donald Beagle*, in the IC … [the reference interview] transaction will change" (p. 93. Emphasis added).

Halbert uses a contracted form of Beagle's first name that points to the possible existence of a more personal relationship between the two men: "the Emory CLAIR and Information Commons … largely incorporate the design concepts which *Don Beagle* articulates in his article …" (1999, p. 90. Emphasis added); and "to conclude, the Infocommons has both empowered and challenged the staff at Emory University in many ways, very much as *Don Beagle* suggests the model may" (p. 91. Emphasis added).Bennett calls upon Beagle by way of a reference to his 1999 article (2006, p 12, in Notes and References) as well by way of reported speech (2008, pp. 183-184) when he cites from *The Information Commons Handbook* (Beagle, Bailey, & Tierney, 2006):

> *Donald Beagle* provides a helpful way of distinguishing between the information and the learning commons. . . . *Beagle* defines the learning commons as what happens when the resources of the information commons are "organized in collaboration with learning initiatives sponsored by other academic units, or aligned with learning outcomes defined through a cooperative process. (Bennett, 2008, p. 183. Emphasis added)

> Collaboration among faculty, librarians, and other academic support staff has long been understood to be a key factor in successful information literacy programs and is a distinguishing factor in *Beagle's* definition of the learning commons. (Bennett, 2008, p. 184. Emphasis added)

Other participants mentioned at the beginning of this section are scholars and professionals from within and outside LIS called upon by Beagle (1999) and Bennett (2003 and 2006). From LIS, Beagle calls on Charlene Hurt (1999, p. 85) to support his description of the need for new types of varied study and work spaces in the academic library to accommodate changes toward more collaborative teaching and learning. In 1999, Hurt was University Librarian at Georgia State University. That same year she was active presenting at conferences including a presentation entitled "New Designs for Libraries" and meetings and was elected as a delegate to the OCLC Users Council (Hurt, 1999). Beagle quotes extensively from a *C&RL News* article by Hurt (1997):

> Teaching and learning are becoming more collaborative. Such library users need group study rooms and tables, individual and group carrels, and a mix of seating comfortable for various styles of working together. They also need access to media and technology in shared environments. ...
> We have to accommodate a variety of learning styles, including classroom instruction, small group coaching, individual appointments, and drop-in assistance. The library must include a networked flexible instruction room, workstations carrels for small groups, a reference and/or information desk for drop-ins, and nearby offices for sustained consultation. (Beagle, 1999, p. 85)

In Beagle-99, the writer's explanation of the need for developing a new model for library services rests upon the theory of strategic alignment developed by Henderson and Venkatraman in the 1980s (Beagle, 1999, p. 82). Beagle calls upon these scholars by

naming them in the body of the article. In the conclusion of that same article, Beagle argues that the traditional academic reference desk does not satisfy the needs of a "highly demanding user community" (p. 88). To explain why, he quotes extensively from Seely Brown and Duguid (1996) who were at the Xerox Palo Alto Research Center at the time:

> The delivery view of education assumes than knowledge comprises discrete preformed units, which learners ingest in smaller or greater amounts until graduation or indigestion takes over. . . . But knowledge is not a static, preformed substance. It is constantly changing. Learning involves active engagement in the process of that change. . . . It is not the explicit statements but the implicit practices that count. (Beagle, 1999, p. 88)

In Bennett-03, because the text reports the results of survey research, an unknown number of anonymous participants are referred to through either the direct quote of their answers given in survey interviews, or in the summaries of survey data. These participants in the discourse constitute a particular category which is that of informants. However, a number of named participants are also called upon in Bennett's texts; most relevant to this discourse analysis are Bruffee, Seely Brown, and Foote. In order to build his argument for effecting a change from "teacher-centered learning in higher education" (Bennett, 2006, p. 7) to a "learner-centered paradigm" (p. 8) aligned with a non-foundational view of knowledge (2003, p. 3), Bennett calls upon Bruffee (in Bennett, 2003, p. 3 and 2006, pp. 8 and 12). Bruffee is a scholar from the academic field of English; he has published a book on collaborative learning (Bruffee, 1999) and has directed the Institute in Peer Tutoring and Collaborative Learning (cf. Bruffee's online biography, 2000). Bennett (2006) also calls on Seely Brown from outside LIS to advocate for the transformation of academic library space into "an on-campus social learning environment" (p. 8). Last but not least, Bennett calls on an architect, Steven Foote, in two texts (2003 and 2006). Foote is "an architect with extensive experience with libraries and

president of Perry Dean Rogers" (2003, p. 10, note 12), an architecture and design firm specialized in higher education and cultural institutional work (cf. Perry Dean Rogers, *Overview* online, n.d.); thus Foote's reported words would carry some weight for an audience of academic librarians involved in a library planning and design process. In Bennett-03, the writer reports indirectly the words of the architect in a footnote under the text that supports Bennett's assertion that "traditional library needs were very strong motivators for the construction and renovation of American academic libraries in the 1990s" (2003, p. 10). In Bennett-06, the writer quotes Foote's words directly in order to introduce the idea of spaces designed to accommodate and support collaborative learning:

> From an Architect's perspective, the sleeping giant [among the trends driving academic library design is that] . . . relating to the rapidly growing requirements for collaborative learning space. As we trace the history of how to accommodate the readers in libraries, we are struck by the new paradigms that apply. . . . It is apparent that changes are upon us and that the old programmatic models are no longer adequate. (Bennett, 2006, p. 13)

This quotation also echoes the need for paradigm change in academic library design –a secondary theme in Bennett-06. Later in the text, Bennett invokes Foote again, indirectly, to identify design practices that will foster collaborative learning (p. 14).

Summary. Three groups of participants have been identified through the analysis of texts' contents; Figure 5 below summarizes findings regarding who participates in the discourse studied in the research corpus and in what capacity.

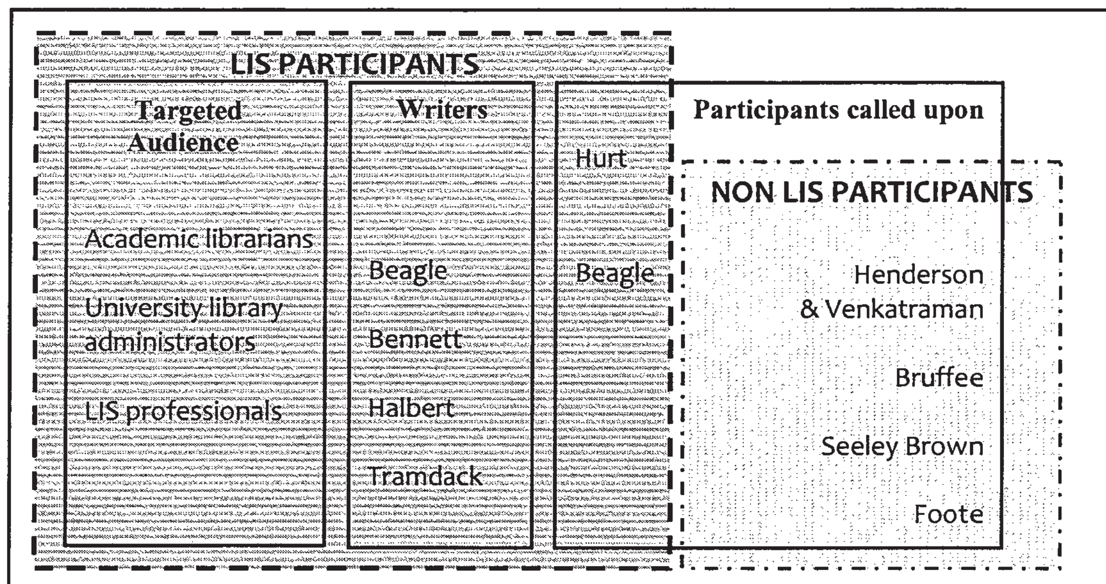


Figure 5. Participants in the Discourse Identified in the Texts.

Themes

Identifying themes consists of noticing that topics of discussion tend to re-occur, that words and their synonyms are repeated, and also that general concepts (e.g, the general concept of change which covers the narrower concepts of evolutionary change, institutional change, or paradigm shift) are frequently called-upon in the development of arguments. Preliminary analysis showed that three discursive threads –the information commons, the learning commons, and the library designed for learning– dominate discussions of academic library planning and design since 1995; indeed, the texts in the corpus were chosen as research data because they took up one or more of these dominant topics. In fact, the terms *information commons*, *learning commons*, and *library(ies) designed for learning* are used in titles, abstracts, or text insets.

However, a number of other themes are activated within the readings selected as corpus texts. The most relevant of the themes found were *the traditional library*, *the digital-age environment*, *change*, and *library space.* As such, they constitute secondary

themes that have ancillary functions in the process of building arguments and explanations. Table 7 below summarizes the distribution of themes discussed in this section.

Table 7

Distribution of Themes

Text	Primary Themes			Secondary Themes			
	Information Commons	*Learning Commons*	*Lib.designed for learning*	*Traditional library*	*Digital-age environment*	*Change*	*Library space*
Beagle-99	**X**			**X**	**X**	**X**	
Beagle-04	**X**	**X**				**X**	
Beagle-09	**X**	**X**				**X**	**X**
Bennett-03			**X**			**X**	
Bennett-06			**X**		**X**	**X**	**X**
Bennett-08	**X**	**X**					**X**
Halbert-99	**X**				**X**		
Tramdack-99	**X**				**X**		

Information Commons (IC) Theme

A sure indicator of the existence of a discursive theme on the IC is that the term *information commons* appears in the titles of five texts (Beagle, 1999 and 2004; Bennett 2008; Halbert, 1999; and Tramdack, 1999). The activation of this theme fulfills different discursive functions or purposes. In Beagle-99, Halbert-99, and Tramdack-99, the IC theme is the central theme in the presentation of a new library service model and a new type of library facility that respond primarily to challenges brought on by the increasingly digital character of the information environment. In Beagle-04 and Beagle-09 the theme is activated to support an explanation of the evolution of the information commons model into the learning commons model (Beagle, 2004); it is also activated in Beagle's presentation of a history of the learning commons (2009). In Bennett-08, the IC theme is

activated in a comparison between the information commons, as defined by Beagle, and other library service and facility types. In all cases the texts provide descriptions of the information commons in terms of both service and physical characteristics. In the excerpts that follow, I have emphasized in italics elements of the IC descriptions by Beagle and Bennett that give a picture of the IC from each authors' perspective .

> The term "Information Commons" has been invoked since the mid 1980's to describe *the potential aggregation of information and sharing of knowledge across physical, technological, and cultural boundaries*. (Beagle, 2009, p. 15) The past decade has seen the emergence of *a new model for service delivery in the academic library*, a model most often referred to as the Information Commons. . . . [It is] *a new type of physical facility specifically designed to organize workspace and service delivery around the integrated digital environment*. (Beagle, 1999, p. 82)
>
> Librarians began to realize that they could assemble arrays of ... multifunctional workstations in a physical 'commons', adjacent to a single service desk (or cluster of desks) where reference librarians could work alongside (and in collaboration with) media specialists, data manipulation experts, and IT support staff. By 1995, a handful of universities, colleges, and community colleges . . . had created such space, and their pioneering efforts led numerous other colleges and university libraries to seriously consider this new physical model known as the 'Information Commons (IC).' (Beagle, 2009, p. 16)
>
> [The IC as adjustment is] described as *a computer lab on the first floor of the library with a suite of productivity software . . . combined with access to electronic resources*. IC as isolated change [is] described as the same lab but with media authoring tools also included, and with coordinated in-library staff support designed to carry the user through a continuum of service from resource identification and retrieval on through data processing and format conversion to the desired end state of presentation, packaging, or publication. (Beagle, 2004)
>
> On a number of campuses, *new IC facilities were designed with information literacy instructional possibilities and group learning activities very much in mind*. This, in turn, broadened the scope of the physical commons to include a new focus on student learning, rather than only on the manipulation of information. (Beagle, 1999, p. 17)
>
> The IC model was similarly being extended beyond the information literacy rubric to include collaboration with, or even collocation with, other campus units supporting learning. (Beagle, 1999, p. 18)

> The *physical space of the Information Commons* may vary from campus to campus, but certain *key features* tend to emerge. One feature is the new importance of *a general information and referral desk*, which functions as first point of contact and general help center. . . . Another key feature of the Information Commons is the coordinated and extended set of *study and workspaces offering an array of options ranging from traditional individual study to collaborative conference areas*. . . . A final key feature of the IC as a physical space lies in its *adjacency with other campus units or projects where critical partnerships are envisioned.* (Beagle, 1999, p. 85)

> The challenge of the Information Commons is to devise *a continuum of service that provides the user with skilled staff consultation and an array of technological options for the identification, retrieval, and presentation of information in a variety of formats*. (Beagle, 1999, p. 86)

> [This involves] aligning the information commons with the interests and needs of the larger institutional and technological environment. (Beagle, 1999. p. 87)

> The Information Commons creates a synergy between the user support skills of computer staff, the information skills of reference staff, and production skills of media staff. Physically, it offers the *flexible work space all staff need* to apply their combined expertise adaptively to the rapidly changing needs of a highly demanding user community. . . . [It also] creates *collaborative workspaces* where group process can shape knowledge in ways that parallel the large-scale evolution of knowledge in the culture around us. (Beagle, 1999, p. 88)

> [The IC is] '*a cluster of network access points and associated IT tools* situated in the context of a physical, digital, human, and social resources organized in support of learning' [citing Beagle]. The purpose of the information commons is *to support learning – a service mission*. (Bennett, 2008, p. 183)

To summarize, for Beagle, the answer to better library service is the Information Commons, which he describes as an educational environment where librarians "who truly want to engage students actively" in the learning process "will be better served by an integrative, dynamic model that contextualizes information and that creates collaborative workspaces where group process can shape knowledge in ways that parallel the large-scale evolution of knowledge in the culture around us" (1999, p. 88). The picture that emerges of the IC is that of a new service model combining traditional reference services and information literacy instruction with the provision of access to electronic resources

and ITC equipment located inside the library in a dedicated computer-lab-like space. Key features of the IC as space are: a general help and information center combined with the referral desk area and study and workspaces designed to accommodate individual and collaborative activities in a networked digital environment. Moreover, the adjacency of the IC with partnering campus units is desired.

Learning Commons (LC) Theme

The term "learning commons" is used in the titles of three articles (Beagle-04, Beagle-09 and Bennett-08), thus informing the reader outright of the discussion topic and major theme elaborated upon. In these texts the characterization of the learning commons relies on comparison and contrast with the information commons; however, Beagle and Bennett adopt different discursive strategies that correspond to their individual perspectives on the IC and the LC. For Beagle, the evolution of the learning commons is the result of a process of "strategic alignment" (2004) fitting in "the historical context of academic change initiatives" (2009, p. 18). Beagle's perspective is made visible in the following excerpts.

> [The] LC as far reaching change [is] described as the … [information commons as isolated change] plus coordination with other unit(s) such as faculty development center or center for teaching and learning, as well as the frequent inclusion of a campus wide course management system meaningfully linked to and integrated with library electronic resources and virtual reference services. (Beagle, 2004)
> The library commons [as far reaching change] exerts a significant presence across campus, but that influence remains primarily associative, rather than truly collaborative. . . . [With the learning commons as transformation] we continue to see functional integration across a horizontal plane, but we begin to see vertical differentiation as the former service delivery profile projected towards students becomes enhanced with another (or multiple) service delivery profile(s) projected at the needs of faculty as course authors, knowledge creators, learning coaches, and scholarly communicators. (Beagle, 2009, p. 19)

In turn, Bennett's perspective on the learning commons rests on his evaluation of Beagle's definition of it. It is made clear in the excerpts from Bennett-08 below.

> Beagle defines the learning commons as what happens when the resources of the information commons are 'organized in collaboration with learning initiatives sponsored by other academic units, or aligned with learning outcomes defined through a cooperative process.' The learning commons, so defined, depends for its success not only on joint action by support/service units (such as the library and academic computing) but also on the involvement of academic units that establish learning goals for the institution. . . . *The fundamental difference between the information and the learning commons is that the former supports institutional mission while the latter enacts it.* (Bennett, 2008, p. 183. Emphasis added)
>
> Data suggests that we have a long way to go if we mean to build learning commons, as Beagle defines them – if we mean to get beyond the support of learning that defines the information commons. . . . *The difference between an information commons and a learning commons is one of aspiration.* (Bennett, 2008, p. 184. Emphasis added)

In summary, the LC theme describes the development of a new library service model and facility type primarily articulated by Beagle. As depicted, the LC is a both a service model and facility type which incorporates the technological updates of the IC and reflects the participation of the academic library to the university's educational mission. The difference between the IC and the LC is not so much a difference in terms of physical features as it is an evolution of the library's mission.

Library Designed for Learning Theme

This theme is primarily developed by Bennett. Libraries Designed for Learning (2003) is the title for his CLIR report and obviously it is its main object of discourse; it is also the focus in one of Bennett's JAL articles (2006). In Bennett-03, the writer describes the library designed for learning as a flexible environment that offers "a social space for students" (2003, p. 19), recognizes "the importance of the social dimension of learning and knowledge" (p. 19), and accommodates students' learning behaviors in the design of

new spaces such as those for group study (p. 17). Bennett-06 gives a vision of libraries designed for learning as buildings that cause "the perception that entering the setting will lead to increased learning, interaction, or interest" (2006, p. 4); as "environments in which we might immerse ourselves for learning and communal action" (p. 5); as "libraries … [that] provide immersion learning for the communities they serve" (p. 5); as libraries that are 'a home for learning communities" (p. 9); and as libraries and their buildings aligned "with the basic educational mission of the university" (p. 12).

In summary, the theme of the library designed for learning focuses primarily on the physical/environmental qualities of the library.

Traditional Library Theme

The traditional library theme is visited in Beagle-99 and used in an ancillary function in Bennett-06 to buttress the argument for designing libraries for learning. For Beagle, "[the traditional library] has grown up around the print tradition" (1999, p. 82). Bennett's perspective provides a much richer and multifaceted vision of the traditional library. On the one hand, the traditional library is understood as conventional and not adapting to the digital environment (Bennett, 2006, p. 3); on the other hand, it is described in superlative terms, and its monumental architectural features are illustrated in two figures inserted in the text (2006, figs. 1 and 2, p. 4). Bennett's representation of the traditional library is highlighted in the excerpts below.

> We continue to build largely conventional libraries not fully engaged in the paradigm shift that our digital environment requires. (2006, p. 3)
>
> Traditional library design … [makes] immensely powerful monumental statements …. While there are many ways to express this design, the association of learning with religion has been a particularly powerful way to create a safe environment for learning. For instance, when … Yale University built its first library building, it designed it as a church. And when … it was necessary to move

to a larger building, Yale again chose to build its magnificent Sterling Memorial library in the idiom of a church. (2006, p. 4)

Digital Age Environment Theme

This theme is present in four of the texts (Beagle, 1999; Bennett, 2006; Halbert, 1999; and Tramdack, 1999). Each writer activates the theme in a different way. Tramdack sees libraries as being "among the earliest adopters of information technology and multimedia" (1999, p. 92). Beagle (1999) and Halbert (1999) tend to discuss the changes brought into the library by the development of information and communication technologies (ICTs), of the World Wide Web, and of digital information sources in an exclusively online, highly complex, fluid, and rapidly evolving digital age environment (Beagle, 1999, pp. 82-83). In Bennett's view the digital age environment is dominated by the virtual. The presence of a digital age environment theme in Bennett-06 is characterized by what Fairclough calls overwording or "an unusually high degree of wording, often involving words which are near synonyms" (2001c, p. 96); here overwording is manifest in the repetition of the term virtual.

Characteristics of the digital age environment as viewed by Beagle (1999) are found in the following text excerpts.

> [The term Information Commons] has been used to denote an *exclusive online environment* in which the widest possible variety of digital services can be accessed via a single graphical user interface ... and potentially searched in parallel via a single search engine from any networked station. (1999, p. 82. Emphasis added)

> How do we adapt an institution that has grown up around the print tradition to manage service delivery in the *highly complex and fluid digital environment?* (p. 82. Emphasis added)
>
> Successful implementation of an Information Commons involves functional integration of technology and service delivery to realign the library with the *rapidly evolving digital environment.* (p. 83. Emphasis added)
> The *digital environment* permits and sometimes encourages the user to undertake equivalent tasks [to those performed by users of print] while seated at the retrieval workstation within the service environment of the library. (1999, p. 84. Emphasis added)

From Halbert (1999), one gets a ground level vision of the library in a digital age environment and a characterization of its users as technologically nimble. For him, in a digital age environment, the IC is a "new building featuring a variety of *high technology areas*" and "coordinated facilities providing comprehensive *access to information technology* . . . with a variety of centers for facilitating faculty hypermedia and full-texts projects" (p. 90. Emphasis added). One category of the IC's users, "the Nintendo generation adapts to virtually any and all *new dazzling technologies* ... [and to] new gleaming computerized spaces" (pp. 90-91. Emphasis added). However, "as the library profession confronts the challenges of new information media and technologies" (p. 91), Halbert asks: "does the virtual environment work better with uniformity or differentiation?" (p. 91).

Bennett's perspective on the digital environment focuses on a contrast between the physical and the virtual aspects of the world we live in and where "libraries [have] demonstrated an impressive ability to remain current in a rapidly changing telecommunication infrastructure" (2006, p. 6). His point of view is illustrated in the excerpts below.

> Readers can now do library work in virtually any environment that is convenient for them. The automation of library services and the delivery of digital

> information resources acknowledge in ways never before possible the value of the reader's time. (Bennett, 2006, pp. 4-5)

> A third challenge to traditional library space design lies in the way we use digital technology to create *virtual environments* as compelling alternatives to the physical environment. . . .[There is] rivalry between *virtual* and real *spaces* . . . the power we have to create *virtual environments* is especially manifest in computer games. . . . Few of us wish so thoroughly to abandon the physical world for the *virtual one*, but we regularly demand the ability to create *virtual communities* in listservs and games and to live out our daily lives in blogs. Still more commonly, we insist on the ability to work with colleagues in *virtual space*, without reference to their actual physical locations. . . . What we see in all these behaviors, in one degree or another, is the desire to build a *virtual environment* robust enough to substitute for a physical environment. (p. 5. Emphasis added)

Change Theme

The change theme is woven through most of the texts in the corpus. Bennett and Beagle in particular have developed this theme to different levels and interpret change in various ways.

For Bennett, change is effectively a revolutionary process that accompanies fundamental revisions in ways of thinking about learning and teaching (2003, 2006) as well as about planning and designing library services and facilities (2006). In fact, in Bennett-06 *revolution* is present 3 times within one paragraph; it appears as a noun in "[a] *revolution* in our thinking about library design" (p. 6. Emphasis added) and as an adjective modifying the noun "change" as in "*revolutionary change* in information technology" and "*revolutionary changes*" (p. 6. Emphasis added). For Bennett, the aim of change is to cause a "*revolution* in our thinking about library design (2006, p. 6. Emphasis added) and a "*paradigm shift* in library space design" (2006, p. 8. Emphasis added). An important amount of overwording in Bennett-06 is a sign of his preoccupation with the concept of change as "paradigm shift" (2006). The word *paradigm* appears

repeatedly not only in the term *paradigm shift* (used 9 times; 2006, pp. 3 and 6-8) but also collocated with action-oriented verbs that imply constructive change or movement as demonstrated in the following instances of collocation where I have italicized action verbs: "*creating* a new paradigm" (twice in p. 7), "*developing* a new paradigm" (p. 7), "*building* a new paradigm (p. 7), "*move to* a new … paradigm" (p. 7), "*launch* a paradigm shift" (p. 7), "*driving* paradigm change" (p. 8).

For Beagle, on the other hand, change is seen in management terms as an organizational evolutionary process (Beagle, 1999, 2004, and 2009) of "change dynamics" (2004) spurred by "academic change initiatives" (2009) and resulting in "institutional alignment" and "strategic fit" (1999 and 2004).

Library Space Theme

A large amount of overwording in Bennett-06 indicates that library space is a dominant theme of this text. The activation of the theme is evident in the frequent collocation of the words *space* and *library* (occurring 35 times in Bennett, 2006; including 14 times where it collocates with the word *design*). Bennett's preoccupation with space is also rendered visible by the collocation of the word *space* and qualifying terms that describe a type of library space, for example, "library space for learning" (2006 p. 3), the "library as learning space" (p. 6), "shelving space" (p. 4), "services spaces" (p. 6), "study space" and "group study space" (p. 6), "staff spaces" (p. 7), "librarian's workspace" (p. 10), and "reader's workspace"(p. 11). Tramdack also writes about "the physical space of the IC" and its "working spaces" (1999, p. 92).

In the texts analyzed, the library space theme is predominantly activated in verbal descriptions of the academic library environment in regard to its spatial qualities as in Bennett-06:

> these buildings … manifest two … cognitive values that draw people to space, *complexity*, or the perceived capacity of the space to occupy interest and stimulate activity, and *mystery*, or the perception that entering the setting will lead to increased learning, interaction, or interest. (2006, p. 4)

For Bennett, such qualities are conducive to creating "environments in which we might immerse ourselves for learning and communal action" (p. 5).

In two texts, visual representations of library spaces complete verbal descriptions. For example, in Bennett-06, there are six photographs and one diagram for furniture arrangement (2006, figures 1-7); and in Beagle-09 four complete floor plans illustrate the reorganization of the spaces in an academic library evolving into a learning commons (2009, figures 6-9). The photographs used as illustrations by Bennett are particularly effective at depicting the environmental qualities of libraries described by the writer; the atmosphere of the spaces photographed is made so palpable as to convince the reader of the superiority of the traditional monumental library design for inspiring a yearning for learning over functional library designs dictated by service and storage functions.

Summary

In this chapter I have described the context surrounding the discourse developed in the research corpus. Four of the texts analyzed originated as articles in the *Journal of Academic Librarianship* (Beagle 1999; Bennett, 2006; Halbert, 1999; and Tramdack, 1999), one text was published in a Japanese journal (Beagle, 2009), one text was published by the Council for Library and Information Resources (Bennett, 2003), and finally one text originated as a conference presentation (Beagle, 2004). Context

description includes a discussion of the participants in the discourse including the writers, the audience and participants called upon (see Figure 5 for a summary).

The second part of discourse description discussed the themes that were identified in the content of the texts. There are three dominant themes: the information commons, the learning commons, and the library designed for learning. Four ancillary themes support the articulation of the major themes: the traditional library, the digital-age environment, change, and library space. In chapter 6, I will provide a possible interpretation and critical analysis of the discursive activity supported by the texts in the corpus. My interpretation and analysis of the discourse developed in the texts studied combines my perspectives as a LIS scholar and an architect.

Chapter 6

Discourse Interpretation and Critical Analysis

Discourse Interpretation

The interpretation of discourse consists in providing explanations that incorporate a consideration of the context around text production and the configuration of social practices that surround discursive activity. The goal of interpretation is to explain the constitution of discourse by making sense of the interaction between social practices and text production and of the connections existing between social context, language, and text content. Interpretation also aims at explaining the constitution of objects of discourse and interpretative repertoires.

Configuration of Social Practices and Social Context around Text Production

Social practices are relatively stabilized forms of social activities (e.g, classroom teaching, the reference interview). A social practice is the articulation of diverse social elements associated with particular areas of social life (Fairclough, 2001a, paragraph 1; 2003, p. 25; and 2005a, "Theoretical issues," paragraph 3). The production of the texts included in the corpus is associated with the practice of academic librarianship in general but more specifically with the scholarly activities that are expected from librarians employed in academic libraries: doing research, producing new knowledge, writing, presenting at conferences, and publishing.

Writing as social practice. Academia is an area of social life with varied stabilized forms of social activity. Scholarly writing is such a stabilized form of activity situated in a network of practices which contribute to the creation, dissemination, and

diffusion of knowledge. As an academic social practice, scholarly writing is part of the lived experience of Beagle, Bennett, Halbert, and Tramdack in the social context of the academic librarianship community of practice and, to some degree, in the physical context of an academic library. The aim of this type of writing is to communicate new knowledge produced by academic librarians as part of research activities. Writing takes place after data collection analysis and interpretation. Creating a text for a paper, essay, report, or presentation comes first in a series of discursive activities linked to the dissemination and diffusion of research results which will eventually lead to the creation of new knowledge (see Figure 6 below).

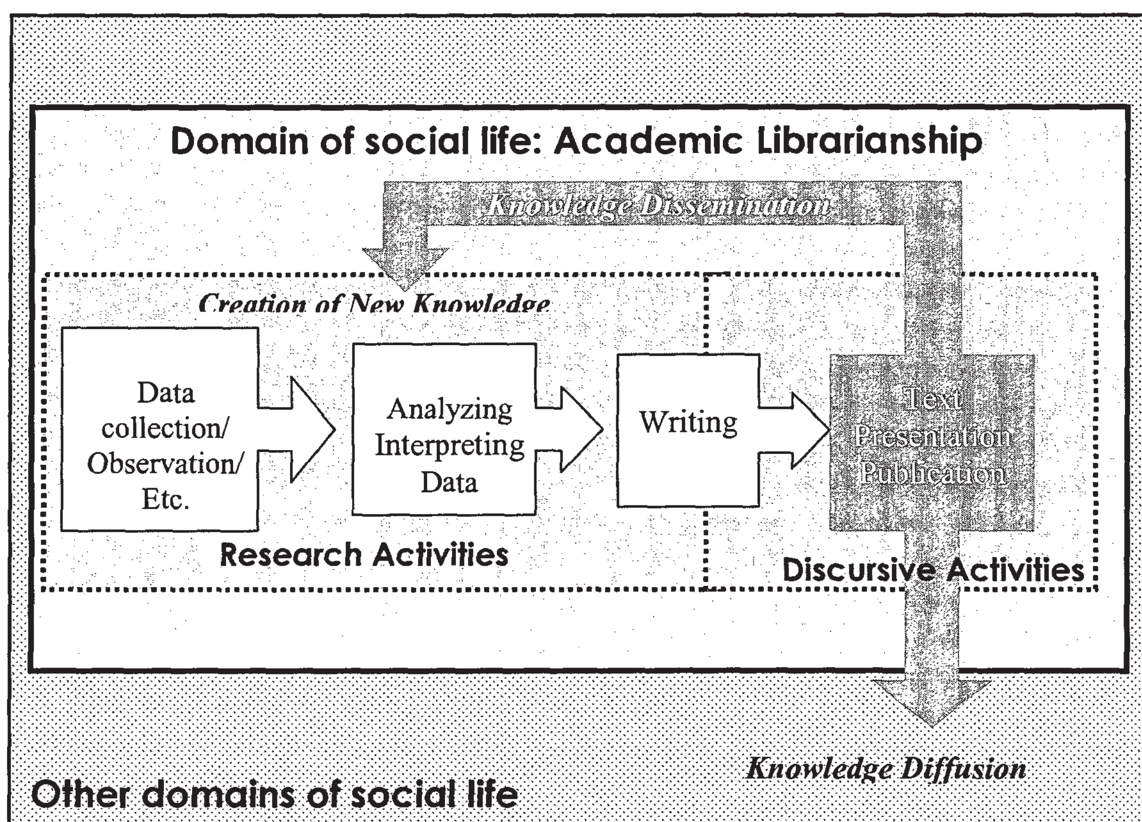


Figure 6. Social Practices Associated with the Production of Scholarly Writing.

For Beagle, Bennett, Halbert, and Tramdack, writing is informed by observation of the academic library environment and its network of social practices and/or by interpretation

of data collected as part of their research activities. In the texts studied, references to the writers' professional life experiences in the academic library can be found in Beagle (1999 pp. 82, 83, 85; 2009, p. 17), Bennett (2003, pp. 7-44), and Halbert (1999, p. 90). However, in Bennett-03, the writer makes it clear that he has also been engaged in the interpretation of data collected as part of research activities and that the findings from his research support the discourse developed in the report.

The controlled vocabulary used in the "Library Literature & Information Full Text" database (WilsonWeb accessed through William Allen White online database searching services) provides bibliographic descriptions of the texts. From the study of the controlled vocabulary associated with the texts in the corpus, it is possible to infer that Beagle-99, Bennett-06, Bennett-08, Halbert-99, and Tramdack-99 could be retrieved by readers interested in academic library architectural planning and design, and, even more precisely, in the planning and design of information or learning commons (see Table 8 below). Therefore, one can also infer that discursive activity supported by these texts could potentially affect future decision making and action in regard to academic library planning and design taken by library administrators, facilities managers, and architects and designers.

Table 8

Bibliographic descriptors used in Library Literature & Information Full Text database.

Text	**Descriptors**			
	Subject *College & University Lib*	Subject *Architecture & Building*	Subject *Learning Commons*	Keyword *Information commons*
Beagle-99	X	X	X	X
Beagle-04 *				
Beagle-09 *				
Bennett-03 *				
Bennett-06	X	X		
Bennett-08	X		X	X
Halbert-99	X	X	X	X
Tramdack-99	X	X		X

* *Note: no data available.*

Social Context

The social context surrounding the production of the discourse under study is represented by the intersection of two communities of practice: one is academic librarianship and the other is LIS research. However, there is a wider social context that surrounds the community of interpretation of this discourse that is the audience (readership). The LIS audience includes academic librarians, academic library administrators, LIS researchers, and other library professionals; other potentially interested readers could be architects and library design consultants, as well as campus and university facility planning administrators.

Figure 7 below summarizes the networks of activities and social communities surrounding the conditions of production and of interpretation for the texts studied.

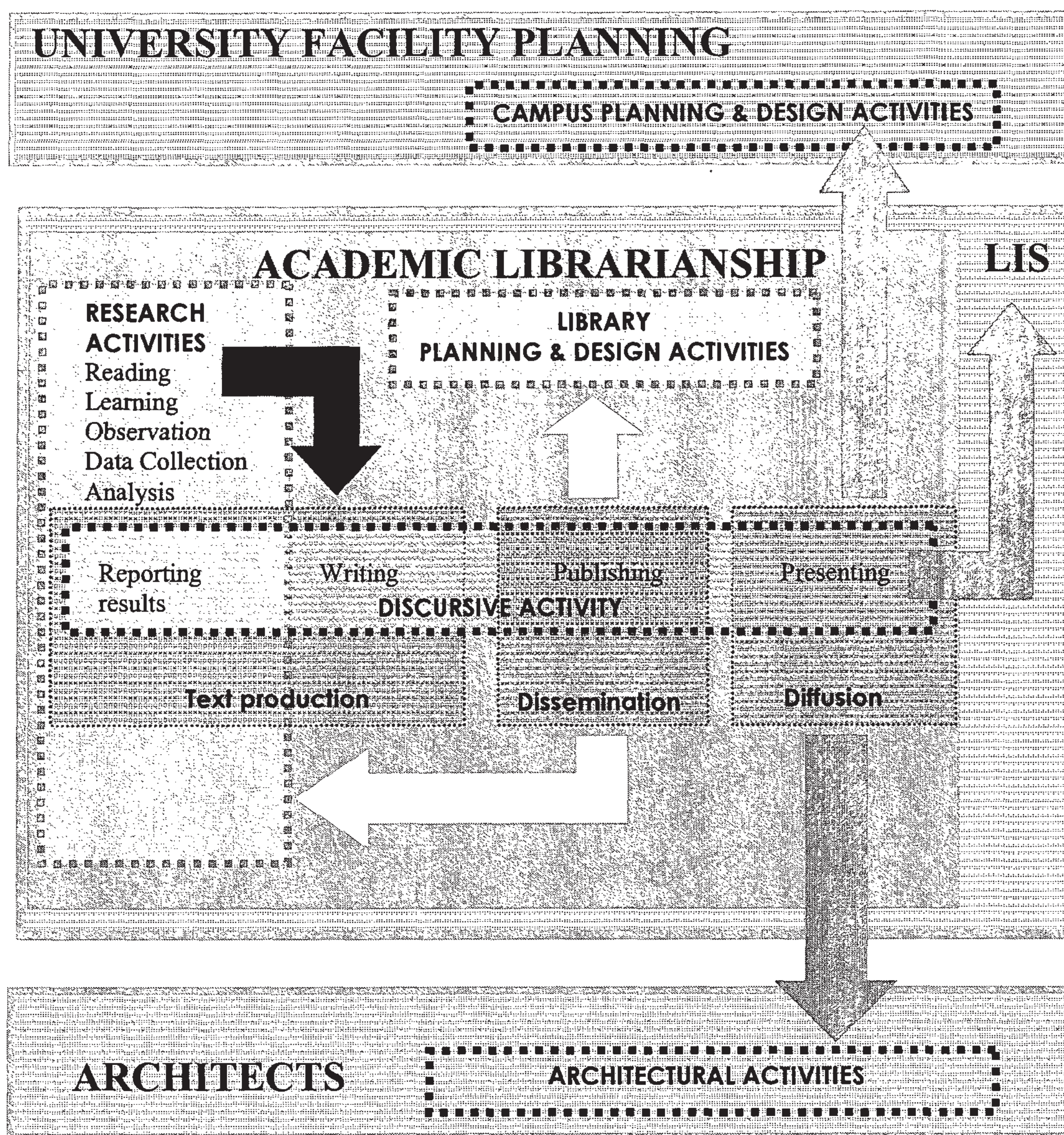


Figure 7. Network of Activities and Social Communities Surrounding Discursive Activity.

Interpretative Repertoires

I have previously discussed the three themes that dominate the content of the texts under study; they are the information commons (IC), the learning commons (LC), and the library designed for learning (LDL) themes. They point to the existence of corresponding interpretative repertoires that construct visions of the academic library as place from

complementary perspectives. These repertoires can be understood as discursive assemblages that are constituted around the following metaphors: a) "the academic library as information commons," b) "the academic library as learning commons," and c) "the academic library as space designed for learning." This process of metaphorical constitution is called *metaphorization* (Fairclough, 1992a, p. 195, referring to the work of Lakoff & Johnson [1980]). From now on, I will use these metaphors as repertoire categories to explain the constitution of discourse.

Table 9 below summarizes the distribution of metaphors throughout the corpus.

Table 9

Metaphor Distribution in Texts, Summary

Text	**Metaphors**		
	Library as Information Commons	*Library as Learning Commons*	*Library as Space Designed for Learning*
Beagle-99	**X**		
Beagle-04	**X**	**X**	
Beagle-09	**X**	**X**	
Bennett-03		**X**	**X**
Bennett-06			**X**
Bennett-08		**X**	
Halbert-99	**X**		
Tramdack-99	**X**		

Academic library as information commons interpretative repertoire. The academic library as information commons interpretative repertoire (thereafter IC repertoire) is elaborated primarily in a group of five texts by Beagle, (1999, 2004, and 2009), Halbert (1999), and Tramdack (1999); I will refer to this group of texts as the IC corpus. However, this interpretative repertoire is also called upon by Bennett (2008) as

demonstrated in the following text excerpts that exemplify his view of the information commons.

> [The IC is] '*a cluster of network access points and associated IT tools* situated in the context of physical, digital, human, and social resources organized in support of learning' [citing Beagle]. The purpose of the information commons is *to support learning – a service mission*. (Bennett, 2008, p. 183)

Beagle-99, Halbert-99, and Tramdack-99 constitute one unit of analysis because not only were they published together in the JAL, but they also engage in a dialogical relationship. In effect, Halbert-99 and Tramdack-99 were texts produced as responses to Beagle-99. As a unit, the three texts form a collective point of departure for the constitution of the IC repertoire with Beagle-99 being the most often cited in the LIS literature on information commons and emerging as a seminal reference (see Table 4 of this dissertation, p. 80). The two other texts in the IC corpus, that were also written by Beagle (2004 and 2009), represent later steps in the chronological evolution of the IC repertoire.

The texts by Beagle (1999, 2004, and 2009) are those that most actively construct the information commons as an object of discourse. In them, the term "Information Commons" is capitalized; this discursive practice not only gives the term an expressive value but it also does discursive work. By giving a name to the concept elaborated by the writer and by constructing a category of what I would like to call a library-thing designated *Information Commons*, capitalization does naming and categorization work. Halbert (1999) and Tramdack (1999) adopt Beagle's capitalization of the term, but Bennett (2003, 2008) does not. What is the difference, then, between an *Information Commons* and an *information commons*? As constructed by Beagle (1999 and 2009), the

Information Commons is a physical manifestation of a concept of service, whereas *information commons* is a form of rewording (Fairclough, 1992, p. 194) used by Bennett to restructure the IC into a glorified computer lab or "a cluster of network access points and associated IT tools" (Bennett 2008, p. 183). In another instance of discursive rewording, Beagle (2004) characterizes the "computer lab on the first floor of the library" as an embryonic form of the Information Commons. Therefore the term "information commons" can be interpreted as representing either a conceptual entity (concept of service) or a physical space or place, or both when it is Beagle's Information Commons.

The two texts by Bennett (2003 and 2008) that refer to the information commons introduce in the IC interpretative repertoire a voice with a different perspective. The texts, however, fail to contribute to the further development of the IC model. In effect, in Bennett-03, the writer compares implicitly and negatively the information commons model to the library designed as space for learning and to the learning commons models. "Librarians were attempting to design not an information commons, but something called a *learning commons*" (2003, p. 5, paragraph 3, lines 7-8). In this sentence the terms *information commons* and *learning commons* are not capitalized like they are in texts by Beagle. Instead, the relative ideological significance of these terms is expressed by the writer's choice to italicize the term *learning commons*. Bennett's critical perspective on the information commons is subtle and it can be better understood in the wider context of the sub-group of Bennett's texts in the corpus. Effectively, Bennett calls on the IC repertoire to take an evaluative stance toward Beagle's ideas; representing the physical information commons as a lower order library type than the learning commons, and

perhaps a model that is already "passé," Bennett buttresses his own argument in favor of designing the academic library for learning (2003 and mostly 2008).

Intertextuality is "the presence within [a text] of elements of other texts" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 218); it is also called *dialogism* by other authors to reflect the dialogue that is established between texts. Intertextuality between Beagle-99, Halbert-99, and Tramdack-99 plays an important role in terms of identity building and validation. This is discursively done by means of naming and evaluation (Fairclough, 2003, pp. 109); naming is calling upon a social actor by name, and evaluation refers to the subjective nature of statements. For example, "Don Beagle has *correctly identified* the key features of this multifaceted concept [of the IC]" (Halbert, 1999, p. 90. Emphasis added); or "Donald Beagle provides *a thought-provoking* conceptual structure for implementing both the virtual and physical manifestations of the Information Commons" (Tramdack, 1999, p. 92. Emphasis added). In discourse analytical terms, these utterances have "expressive value … a trace or cue of the producer's evaluation … of the bit of reality … [a feature] relates to" (Fairclough, 2001, p. 93). In the above examples, choice of vocabulary expresses the writer's approval of and adherence to Beagle's construction of the IC conceptual model. Naming Beagle constitutes his identity as a participant in the IC repertoire and establishes the authority of Beagle's voice by giving credence or truth value to his argument.

Beagle-04 and Beagle-09 are discursively inter-connected with Beagle-99. Together the three texts constitute an interesting unit of analysis in that they bring to light the maturation of Beagle's explanation for the simultaneous development of the information commons as a conceptual model for library service and as a new vision of

library space. Beagle's three texts (1999, 2004, and 2009) share a common vocabulary and discursive style; they also elaborate on the same argument in stages. Moreover, parts of Beagle-04 describing *IC as adjustment*, *IC as isolated change*, *LC as far reaching change*, and *LC as transformational change* are re-inserted word for word in the descriptions of *adjustment, isolated change, far reaching change,* and *transformation* in Beagle-09 (pp. 18-19); the following excerpt is one such example.

> Described as a computer lab on the first floor of the library with a suite of productivity software (MSOffice) combined with access to electronic resources. Focus broadens from print to integration and coordination of information and technology resources for students. (2004, paragraph 4, and 2008, p. 18)

This practice of reusing parts of a previous text, which is quite characteristic of scholarly writing, contributes to the discursive continuity of the IC repertoire over time.

Beagle-04 and Beagle-09 also form a discursive continuum that constitutes a narrative explaining the transformation of the traditional academic library first into the Information Commons, then into the Learning Commons by a process Beagle calls "phased evolution" (2009, p. 18). Thus, the introduction of the *academic library as learning commons* interpretative repertoire is made possible by Beagle's activation of an ancillary change-themed discursive thread. This change theme is woven into the fabric of the IC repertoire where, discursively, it performs explanatory work.

Interdiscursivity is the presence within a text of a mix of elements of other discourses (Fairclough, 2003, p. 218). The use of terms such as *change dynamics* and *change initiatives* (Beagle, 2004), or *adaptive change* (Beagle, 2009, p. 19) points to the activation of a change theme within the IC interpretative repertoire that helps explain: 1) the emergence in professional practice of the IC as "a new service delivery model in academic libraries" (Beagle, 1999, p. 82, Abstract), and 2) the evolution of the

information commons model into the learning commons model (Beagle, 2004 and 2009, p.18). The writer's activation of the change theme depends on borrowing terms from the management theory area of discourse. Such terms as *strategic alignment* (Beagle, 1999, pp.82 and 87; 2004, paragraph 2), *strategic fit* (1999, p.82; 2004, paragraph 2), *functional integration* (1999, p. 83; 2004, paragraphs 2 & 7), and *change dynamics* (2004, paragraph 2) are lexical immigrants in the LIS vocabulary. Along with them, Beagle (1999) uses more familiar terms from the LIS discourse on the management of information organization such as: *organizational planning* (p. 82), "organizational scope" (p. 82), "organizational domains" (p.83), and "corporate learning organizations" (p. 88).

In the elaboration of the change theme, the concept of "alignment" stands out; first introduced in the composite term "Strategic Alignment" (Beagle, 1999, p. 82), it re-occurs as a verb in combination with the adverb "better" in Beagle-04 (twice in paragraph 5) and Beagle-09 (twice on pp. 18-19)). In Beagle-99 both the adjective "strategic" and the noun "alignment" are capitalized in reference to the origin of the term in a theory developed by Henderson and Venkatraman whom Beagle calls upon to situate his argument in a larger social context: "this article will ... [view] the Information Commons through the lens of a management theory called Strategic Alignment, first developed by John Henderson and N. Venkatraman in the 1980s" (Beagle, 1999, p. 82). By so doing, Beagle includes Henderson and Venkatraman as distant named social actors who have a passive role in the constitution of the IC repertoire. This indirect reporting from a discourse outside that of academic librarianship and outside LIS in general serves to give credibility to Beagle's explanation for the development of the IC model as strategic organizational change. It also has the effect of locating the IC repertoire within an

existing order of discourse on library administration and management in LIS. This has the effect of redirecting the text's message more specifically to social actors within the audience who occupy managerial positions in the academic librarianship hierarchy.

Academic library as learning commons interpretative repertoire. The academic library as learning commons interpretative repertoire (thereafter LC repertoire) is elaborated on in three texts of the research corpus. Two texts were written by Beagle (2004 and 2009); the other text was written by Bennett (2008). They all also activate the IC theme in the development of an argument for evolutionary change from the library as IC to the library as LC therefore issues of intertextuality and interdiscursivity discussed in the preceding section will not need to be extensively revisited here; instead, new relationships will be highlighted.

The construction of the learning commons as an object of discourse is effected primarily in Beagle-04 and Beagle-09, and elaborated upon in Bennett-08. In Beagle's texts (2004, 2009), the learning commons (LC) model represents a higher order information commons that is conceptualized as an organizational unit of greater institutional mission than the traditional academic library. The LC is constituted as an institutional unit that combines the services of the academic library, of the IC, and those of other academic support-units as well. Beagle's version of the physical LC is seen as a facility housing all those units under one roof. In Bennett's text (2008), the LC model is presented as a desirable evolution of an outdated *service-focused* IC model to a *learning-focused* LC model said to respond to current learner-centered trends in higher education as well as to the evolving needs of library users.

From a genealogical perspective, Beagle-04 emerges as the point of departure for the development of the LC repertoire that is taken up again and elaborated further in Beagle-09. In Beagle's texts, the term "Library Commons" is capitalized and contracted into the acronym LC in a manner that parallels Beagle's introduction of the "Information Commons" concept. This way, the same importance is ascribed to the concept of learning commons as to the concept of information commons. The Learning Commons is thus constructed as an object of discourse in the same fashion as the Information Commons.

This time, Beagle (2004 and 2009) explains the IC/ LC evolution with a model of change borrowed from the American Council of Education. Viewed in the "historical context of academic change initiatives" (2009, p. 18), the LC model is presented as the result of far-reaching organizational change (2004, 2009) that occurs when the academic library "aligns itself with changing campus-wide priorities" (2004). Making use of a strategy called *rewording,* where new wordings are "set up as alternatives to … existing ones" (Fairclough, 1992, p. 194), the management-based "Strategic Alignment" (Beagle, 1999) perspective is substituted for the "change dynamics" (2004) perspective, and ultimately the "academic change initiatives" (2009) as an explanatory model for the progressive adaptation of the academic library to a changing social, educational, and technological context. However, this discursive move still positions the texts in relationship to the LIS order of discourse on library administration and management.

Bennett (2008) constitutes the role of the learning commons in opposition to that of the information commons. In Bennett's view the LC is "enacting [an] institutional mission" and moving "from the support of learning [which is the IC's mission] to learning itself" (p. 183). Bennett's text presents some interesting semantic characteristics:

in particular, extensive overwording and repetition express Bennett's preference for Beagle's learning commons concept. For example, the term commons is repeatedly used alone or combined as in the terms *information commons* and l*earning commons* (see Figure 8).

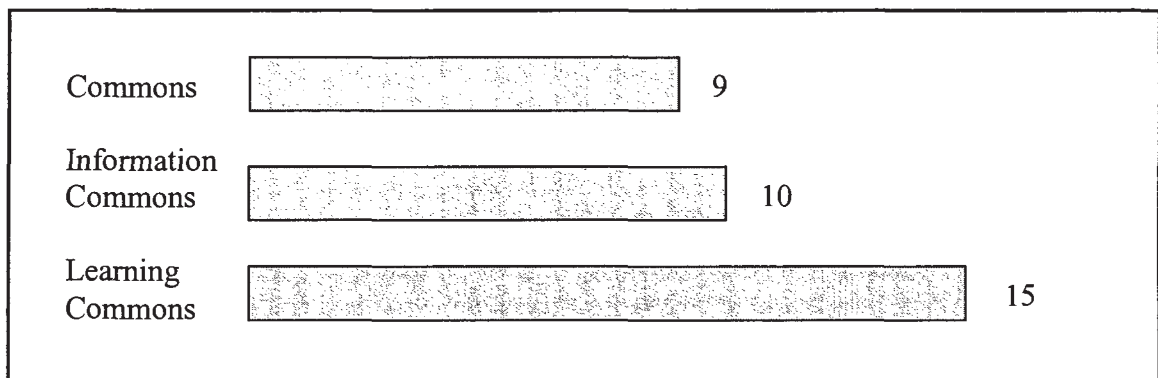


Figure 8. Frequency Distribution of the word "Commons" in Bennett-08.

The use of the verbs *support* and *enact* to describe the respective roles of the IC and the LC in regard to an institutional mission is a meaningful semantic choice as well. In both cases the library as IC or LC is anthropomorphized. The verb *support* is associated with the IC and implies that the *library as information commons* has a passive role in the university, that of a buttress of sorts. On the other hand, the verb *enact*, associated with the LC, is action oriented and portrays the *library as learning commons* as a pro-active institutional unit participating in the university's educational mission. Hence, the emphasis is put on student-learning as a desirable outcome of the design and construction of learning commons and connects Bennett-08 to Bennett's research and publications on the topic of academic libraries designed for learning (2007b).

Intertextuality between Beagle-99, Beagle-04 and Beagle-09 has already been discussed (cf. pp. 118-119). I will examine here other intertextual relationships between texts by Bennett and related work on the IC by Beagle. As already mentioned, Bennett-08

is intertextually connected to another of his texts, which does not belong to the research corpus (Bennett, 2007b). Intertextuality between these texts is achieved by way of reported speech and self-reference. Bennett also establishes strong intertextual relationships with Beagle's *The Information Commons Handbook* (2006). As a matter of fact, Bennett's argument rests entirely on using Beagle's definitions of the information and learning commons taken from the *Handbook* and important sections of directly reported speech attributed to Beagle are sprinkled throughout Bennett's text.

In Bennett-08, in the process of developing his argument in favor of conceiving the learning commons as a library space designed for learning, the writer calls on the IC interpretative repertoire as it is developed in Beagle's *Handbook* (2006). In this instance interdiscursivity and intertextuality are tightly intertwined.

Academic library as space designed for learning interpretative repertoire. As described in chapter 5, the theme of the library designed for learning is activated in three texts by Bennett (2003, 2006, and 2008) in which one can follow the unfolding of the academic library as space designed for learning interpretative repertoire (LDL repertoire thereafter). Textual analysis demonstrates the versatility of the writer in constructing persuasive texts of different genres that reach different audiences and contribute to the diffusion of the repertoire in different ways. Bennett-03 is part of a report that presents research results based on field work and the analysis of collected data; it is written following the rules of scholarly writing. Because Bennett's report (2003) is freely downloadable on-line, the reach of the LDL repertoire is therefore extended to a wider audience than that of the two other articles published in a professional journal. In addition, this text carries added weight by virtue of having been published by a prominent

independent non profit organization (CLIR) that has for mission "to expand access to information, however recorded and preserved, as a public good .... CLIR helps create services that expand the concept of 'library' and supports the providers and preservers of information" (CLIR, 2009).

The three texts have in common the development of the LDL repertoire as ideology. *Libraries designed for learning* (title of Bennett's CLIR report), "Planning library space to advance learning and teaching" (the title of the first section of Bennett-03 part 1) and "The choice for learning" (title of Bennett-06) are titles that indicate clearly the writer's orientation on library planning and design issues. Moreover, the texts' content and writing style convey a sense that the writer is someone who has surveyed and analyzed the landscape of academic library planning, design, and construction since the 1990's (see Bennett, 2003, p. 5) and who can provide directions for implementation of the library designed for learning.

In his texts from 2006 and 2008, in particular, the discursive style is ideological and calls to mind political discourse and its propaganda. The titles of the essays could be those of manifestoes: "The choice for learning' (2006) and "The information or the learning commons: which will we have?" (2008). They have the flavor of advertisements used in political campaigning to outline a choice that must be made for a certain future or change to take place as in, for example, "Daschle the choice for Health and human Services" (Henry, E., 2008). In Bennett-06 one could almost see a banner floating behind a speaker and one could almost hear an exclamation point in "The choice for learning!" However, the tone is conversational and the use of the first and second person singular pronouns, as in "*I* ask *you* to bring a picture to mind..." (2006, p. 3. Emphasis added)

help create an intimate mood. In Bennett-06 and Bennett-08, the use of the pronoun "we" has the effect of bringing all discourse participants together in a spirit of solidarity. A community of common experience and purpose is thus constituted which is given the power to choose what kind of library the academic library of the future will be.

In the texts studied (2003, 2006, 2008), by making a commitment to truth, the writer identifies himself as expert. In fact, Bennett's professional website advertises his services as a consultant on library space planning whose

> consulting practice is rooted in a research, publication, and public speaking program he has conducted since retiring from Yale University in 2001, where he was University Librarian. He is the author of *Libraries Designed for Learning* (2003) and an ongoing series of highly regarded essays on library space planning published since 2005. (Bennett, 2005b)

In Bennett-03, the library designed for learning is constituted at once as the object of discourse in the title of the report which is also the title of its first chapter. The writer's vision of the library as "space to advance learning and teaching" (2003, p. 3) is constructed by way of categorization, comparison, and contrast of "two conceptions of the library as a place" (p. 4). The library as a space "where learning is the primary activity and where the focus is on social exchanges through which information is transformed into the knowledge of some person or group of persons" is constituted as a library category contrasted against "libraries as service places" (p. 4). In turn, the discursive construction of the "library as service place" rests on the description of another library category: the "traditional library," a place "where we shelve material, circulate things to readers, assist readers with questions about information resources, create instruments such as the catalog for navigating information, and teach readers how to master the complexities of both printed and networked information" (p. 5).

Intertextuality between Bennett-06 and Beagle's *Handbook* (2006) has already been discussed. Here, I will focus on intertextual relationships between Bennett's texts and other works authored by him; relevant relationships are those that demonstrate discursive continuity in the development of Bennett's argument for designing libraries for learning and help us understand the evolution of the LDL repertoire.

Bennett-06 and Bennett-03 are explicitly interconnected in a particular instance of reported speech by indirect self-quotation documented in the "Notes and references" section of Bennett-06 (2006, p. 12). For example, in Bennett-06 one reads: "in the United States alone and among only colleges and universities, we invest every year nearly a half billion dollars … in new and renovated library spaces" (p. 3). The self-reference is to: "taken together these projects cost an annual average of $ 449 million" (2003, p. 6) which is supported by quantitative data summarized in a matrix (p. 7, Fig. 1). In another example of self-reference, Bennett (2006) substantiates his claim that "the knowledge base that guides library space planning is poorly balanced, tilted heavily toward library operations and away from systematic knowledge of how students learn" (p. 7) by calling on his essay "Righting the balance" (CLIR, 2005, pp. 10-24). Finally, without acknowledging it, Bennett (2008) establishes an implicit (hidden to the casual reader) relationship with another of his articles entitled "First questions for designing higher education learning spaces" (2007a): *"The right first questions* focus instead on student learning" (2008, p. 183. Emphasis added); "the key … is to replace *our typical first question* about what should be in a space with the less typical question, what should happen in the space" (2008, p. 183. Emphasis added).

In the process of constituting the LDL repertoire, Bennett pulls in an education-based interpretative repertoire in order to justify the need for a paradigm shift in academic library planning and design (2003, pp. 3-4, and 2006, pp. 7-8).

In both Bennett-03 and Bennett-06, the writer assumes that his readers already know about the latest learner-oriented educational theories. He uses this assumption to make the claim that "quietly but powerfully, American higher education acknowledged and began to engage with the social dimensions of learning and of knowledge" (2003, p. 3). Bennett adds truth value to his claim by calling on Bruffee as an external discourse participant in a footnote below the text. Bruffee, who is a professor of English at the Brooklyn College, CUNY, has written on collaborative learning (Bruffee, 2000).

> Knowledge is a community project [and] people construct knowledge working together in groups, interdependently. . . . [K]nowledge is a consensus; it is something people construct interdependently by talking together. . . . In that sense, [it] is intrinsically the common property of a group. (Bennett, 2003, pp.3-4; quoting from Bruffee, 1999)

Another example is Bennett's value-laden description of the foundational view of knowledge used to explain away the "obstacles to developing a new paradigm shift for library space" (2006, p. 7). For Bennett, the main obstacle is

> the deep-seated bias favoring teacher-centered learning in higher education and [that we need to] substitute for ... a learner-centered paradigm. The higher education community in the United States has made a beginning toward this paradigm change, but we have a long way to go. This is so because the change challenges our fundamental allegiance to what is called a foundational view of knowledge . . . . that celebrate[s] the accomplishments of the individual scholar ... [and] ratif[ies] the authority over knowledge of the teacher. (2006, pp. 7-8)

This description of the foundational view of knowledge works at constructing discursively a call for a "paradigm change" in higher education and academic librarianship toward "adopting non-foundational views of knowledge [that] hold ... that

knowledge is constructed by people acting within communities" (Bennett, 2006, p. 8). Then, in order to substantiate this claim, Bennett quotes directly from Bruffee (1999) again: "People construct knowledge working together in groups interdependently. All knowledge is therefore the 'property' not of an individual but of some community or other, the community that constructed it in the language spoken by the members of that community" (Bennett, 2006, p.8). This direct quote is an instance of reported speech that serves to buttress Bennett's argument for choosing to support collaborative learning in the library over choosing to remain an "information organization primarily supporting information use-information consumption" (p.8).

In summary, the ideological quality of the LDL repertoire constructs Bennett's identity as guru; that is "a specific form of the character of Expert" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 166). The use of terms imported from the education discourse point to an interdiscursive relationship that aims to validate Bennett's argument for the design of learning-centered library facilities. Bruffee is called in as a named participant in the LDL interpretative repertoire to give credibility to Bennett's claims by bringing into the LIS discourse on library academic planning and design the voice of an outside specialist on learner-centered education.

Constitution of an Order of Discourse

According to Fairclough, "an order of discourse is a particular combination or configuration of genres, discourses and styles which constitute the discoursal aspect of a network of social practices. As such, orders of discourse have a relative stability and durability- though they do of course change" (2003, p. 220).

I have shown in the previous interpretation section how explanations and recommendations for the transformation of academic library services and spaces are articulated in three interpretative repertoires developed principally in the texts by Beagle and Bennett. Explanations are provided by Beagle (1999, 2004, and 2009) and Bennett (2003); recommendations are made predominantly by Bennett, (2006, 2008). What I will explain now is how the combination and interaction of the IC, LC, and LDL interpretative repertoires constitutes an order of discourse that builds representations of how things have been, how they are, and how they could or should be in terms of the planning and design of academic library services and facilities. I call this order of discourse *the academic library as learning place order of discourse* (ALLP order of discourse).

Over time, along with the elaboration the IC, LC, and LDL interpretative repertoires, a process of rhetorical deployment (Fairclough, 2003, p. 2008) positions Beagle and Bennett within the ALLP order of discourse. On the one hand, Beagle takes ownership of the IC and LC repertoires which he locates in a more global discourse on the commons (Beagle, 2009, p.17); on the other hand, Bennett takes ownership of the LDL repertoire. Hence, a dialogical process is enacted that leads to the constitution of the ALLP order of discourse by constituting a continuum of explanations of how and why the planning and designing of library services and library spaces has been a response and must continue to be a response: a) to the new conditions of the digital age (Beagle, 1999, 2004, and 2009; and Bennett, 2006); b) to the "unique management challenges and demands of information technology" (Beagle, 1999, p. 82) ; c) to the focus on information literacy in the practice of academic librarianship (Beagle, 2009, p. 17; and

Bennett, 2008, p. 184); and d) to changing trends in teaching and learning approaches in higher education that focus on learner-centeredness (Beagle, 2009, p. 17; and Bennett, 2006, pp. 8-9).

The IC and LC models are at first purposefully elaborated by Beagle (1999 and 2004) as a progressive adjustment of the institution to the social, material, and everyday-academic-life contexts of the Digital Age. From a discourse analytical perspective, the process of constituting the LC repertoire out of the IC repertoire rests on Beagle taking an evolutionary perspective to changes in the academic library in terms of services, equipments, and physical settings. Beagle's most recent narrative (Beagle, 2009, p. 17) constructs these changes as the desirable outcome of adaptive responses to both the changing technological context surrounding teaching and learning and the evolution of educational perspectives on information literacy. Beagle's texts are constructed as didactic explanations of how and why change occurs. Through these explanations change appears as inevitable to the reader.

In Bennett's texts (2003, 2006, and 2008), the aim of discursive activity is to effect a "paradigm shift" from the traditional model of the academic library to a new type of academic library designed for learning. The "traditional library" is constructed as an undesirable and outdated model with a bibliocentric service ethos that serves primarily as a document warehouse or a sacralized book repository. In the LDL repertoire, the library designed for learning is ideologically constructed as the library of the 21st century. Bennett writes authoritatively and persuasively to convince the library community that this new paradigm should supersede all models for library planning and design.

However, over time the respective visions and "imaginaries" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 207) of Beagle and Bennett converge to construct the overarching concept of the academic library as space and place for learning. This concept is enacted in a model of the academic library as a digital age commons appointed with high tech facilities and services for information access, information management, and information use that contribute to information and knowledge production (Beagle, 2009). The purpose of the library as commons is to cater to new types of users and to provide a learning place aligned with the trend in higher-education toward learner-centered practices (Beagle, 2009; and Bennett, 2008).

Figure 9 below illustrates the constitution of the "academic library as learning place" (ALLP) order of discourse.

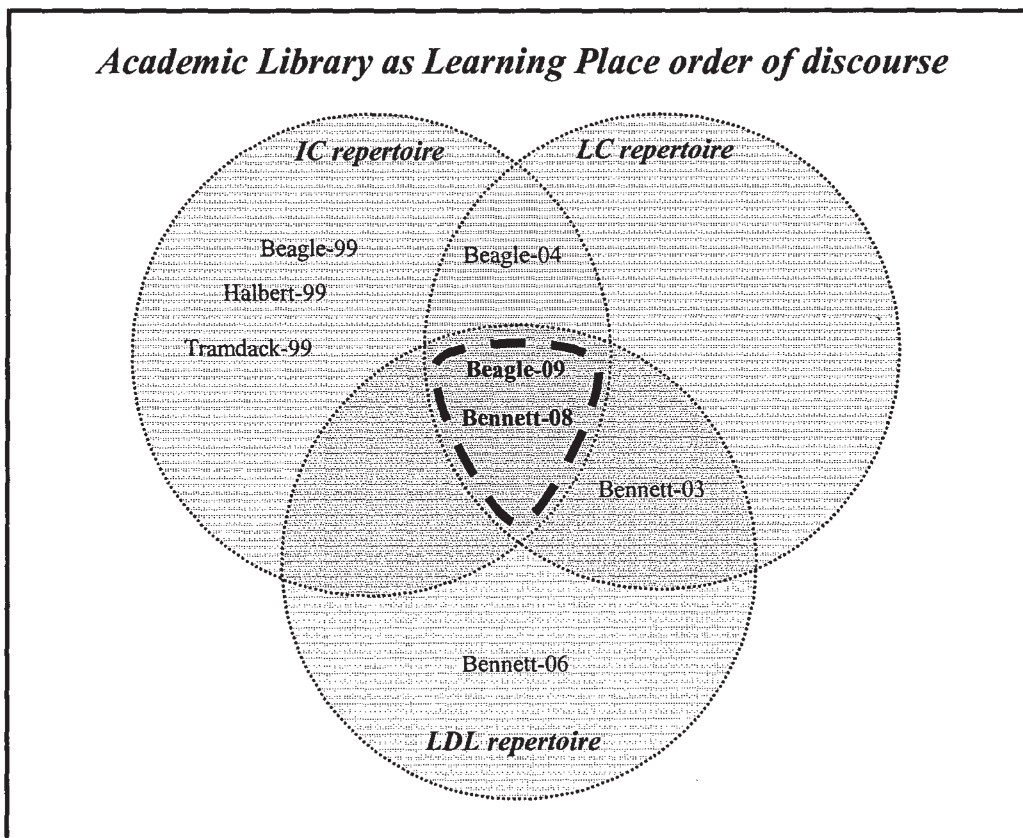


Figure 9. Constitution of the Academic Library as Learning Place Order of Discourse.

This order of discourse, which is reflected in the LIS literature on academic libraries that was reviewed in chapter 2, could be classified according to the above repertoire categories. However, one could say that in the case-studies literature there are two main discursive movements: on one hand, the IC movement focusing discursive activity on discussions of the seamless integration of information and communication technology into library planning and design and, on the other hand, the LC movement focusing discursive activity on discussing the combination of the IC with an ambitious program of educational objectives in library facilities that facilitate learning.

Critical Analysis

For Talja (1999 p. 474), "the aim of discourse analysis is not only to identify interpretative repertoires, but to point out the power and influence of particular narratives and to analyze their potential societal and institutional functions and effects." In this section, my goal is to propose a critical analysis of the "academic library as learning place" (ALLP) order of discourse and its constitutive interpretative repertoires, and to bring to light some of the influence and effects of this discourse in the world of practice. For this analysis, I have relied on both my library education and my professional training and experience as an architect to examine, the tensions and contradictions that may arise in the context of academic library practice from the discursive construction of the library as space and place for learning.

Effects of the "Academic Library as Learning Place" (ALLP) Discourse

To understand the effects of discourse on social practices related to academic libraries, it is of importance to recognize the agency of Beagle and Bennett in the translation of the IC, LC, and LDL interpretative repertoires into the implementation of

the IC and LC conceptual models in the planning and design of library services and facilities, the construction of information and learning commons on many North American campuses, and the re-conceptualization of the academic library as a learning place. Beagle proposes that strategic alignment is both the cause for change and the explanation for how the academic library, "an institution that has grown up around the print tradition . . . [needs to adapt in order] to manage service delivery in the highly complex and fluid digital environment" (1999, p. 182). The alignment of the library is meant to fit in the framework of academic change initiatives developed by the American Council of Education on the 1990s (Beagle, 2004; 2009, p.18); it should lead the library to evolve from traditional "storehouse of the printed record of humanity' (2009, p. 17), to information commons, and ultimately to learning commons (2009). The intended effect of this discourse is to prompt library managers into overhauling traditional academic libraries. The narrative unfolding in Beagle's three texts (1999, 2004, 2009), but also in other articles (2002), promotes "the emergence of a new model for service delivery in the academic library" (1999, p. 82); it is oriented towards producing action with real effects in the everyday-life world of practice in academic libraries. Recommended action consists in: adding new digitally-oriented library services into traditional academic librarianship (pp. 82 and 83); integrating technology in the design of a networked instructional and learning environment (pp. 82, 83, 84, and 85); reorganizing the physical library space to make room for varied study and work spaces inclusive of environments planned and designed to accommodate information literacy instruction (2009, p. 17) collaboration (1999, p. 85; 2009, p.17), and a new focus on student learning (2009, p.17); and, finally, changing the library's organizational structure to align the

information/learning commons with "the interests and needs of the larger institutional and technological environment" (p. 87).

Delivered in installments, Beagle's descriptions of the IC and LC models (1999, 2004, and 2009) constitute a continuous narrative that culminates in the construction of the learning commons as the ultimate transformation of the academic library. This discourse is inserted in a process of diffusion of innovation in the area of academic library planning and design where the model of the commons is the innovation. In Beagle's narrative, change is necessary because the academic library needs to embrace information technologies and enter the digital age. In Beagle 2009, the verbs "revitalize," "reinvigorate," and "reposition" (p. 18) are used in the perfect tense (past participle) to describe the types of transformations embracing the Learning Commons model can produce on traditional libraries. As an institution, the academic library is thus implicitly constructed as a sickly physical entity that can be submitted to some kind of regenerative treatment in order to be "fixed." In Beagle's texts, discursive activity serves to disseminate a roadmap for achieving the regeneration of the academic library and transform it into "a more active agent of collaboration in support of learning outcomes" (2009, p. 18).

For Bennett, the traditional library has been rendered obsolete by the digital revolution and needs rejuvenating as well (2006). While the IC and LC repertoires developed by Beagle construct change as *evolutionary*, the LDL repertoire (in particular as activated in Bennett, 2006) constructs change as essentially *revolutionary*. Bennett's solution to obsolescence is to produce a paradigm shift that will result in aligning academic library services and practices with learner-centered educational trends. In

Bennett's texts, discourse is oriented towards strategic action. In fact, Bennett-06 and Bennett-08 read as doctrinal manifestoes where the repetitive collocation of the words "library," "space," and "learning" creates the effect of a mantra-like incantation from which emerges the seductive expression "library designed for learning" which performs as a "brand mantra." Brand mantras often consist of "three to five word phrases that capture the irrefutable essence or spirit of the brand positioning" (Keller, 1999, p. 45). Brand positioning is about creating the *optimal location* for the organization's identity in the minds of customers and of the organization's employees so that they think of the brand in the "right way" (p. 44). From this marketing perspective, the LDL repertoire provides academic library administrators with a palatable and institutionally acceptable argument that could enable them to influence "the willingness of academic administrators to invest in library facility improvements" (Shill & Tonner, 2003a) and to "sell" the library within the academic community. I will discuss further the metaphorization of the library as business in a later section of this chapter (p. 140).

The effects of the discourse that incorporates Beagle and Bennett's narratives can be seen in different areas of social practice in the domain of academic libraries. At the discursive level, a community of discourse has emerged where practitioners acting as writers have contributed to the growth of the literature on information commons, learning commons, and library spaces designed for learning. From the perspective of facilities planning and design as practice, the effect of discourse has been the diffusion of new models for thinking about the academic library that have translated into the construction of new and remodeled library facilities predominantly called information or learning commons. From a market-oriented perspective, another effect of discourse has been the

construction of the IC and LC brands with the "library designed for learning" functioning as a brand mantra. I will discuss these three effects of discourse in the following sections.

The ALLP discourse and the LIS discourse on academic libraries. To quote Albanese (2006): "the concept of an information commons or learning commons has been the buzz for the last five years in talking about the new wave of academic libraries" (p. 7). A survey of the literature on academic libraries published over the last ten years shows that a number of practitioners have been contributing to the development of a body of texts, which discuss the new types of libraries built on the concepts and models advocated by Beagle, Bennett, Halbert, and Tramdack (e.g, Albanese, 2006; Bailey & Tierney 2002; Boone, 2003 and 2004; Church, 2005; Crockett et al., 2002; Cowgill et al., 2001, Haas and Robertson, 2004; Houlihan, 2005; Lefebvre, 2002; Lippincott, 2004; Malenfant, 2006; MacWhinnie, 2002; Nikkel, 2003; Schmidt & Kaufman, 2007; and Spencer, 2006 and 2007). These practitioner-writers are social actors who constitute a discourse community; they have also contributed to the diffusion of the IC and LC models and have participated in the evolution of the discourse on libraries as learning places. The texts they have produced describe different aspects of the planning, design, organization, and operation of existing information and learning commons; they constitute a rich source of information for academic librarians and administrators who are in the planning stages of a library design/redesign project. Adding to this body of literature, a handbook by Beagle (2006) has contributed extensive guidelines for the implementation of information and learning commons and new books on the information commons that have appeared recently present case studies (Bailey & Tierney, 2008) and discuss more examples from the field (Forrest & Halbert, 2009). As proof that this

discourse has an international audience, there are more and more articles reporting on case studies outside the geographic boundaries of Northern America, for example, Watson (2007) from England, King (1998) from Australia, and Mountifield (2003) from New Zealand.

Physical enactment of the ALLP discourse. Internet browsing of the sites of North American academic libraries brings up dazzling presentations of improved and new facilities that generally include photographs; such documents provide observable evidence of the physical effects the ALLP discourse has had on the transformation of library spaces. In this section, I argue that there is a dialogic relationship between the constitution of a discourse on the academic library as learning place deployed in a sizable body of literature and the remodeling of existing libraries as well as the construction of new libraries designed as information or learning commons.

Case studies articles published between 1999 and 2009 and the web sites of academic libraries provide ample documentation of the transformations, remodeling, or construction of many library buildings called information or learning commons. Whether this phenomenon can be directly attributed to the texts by Beagle (1999, 2004), Halbert (1999), and Tramdack (1999) included in the corpus might be difficult to ascertain. However, Bailey and Tierney (2002) believe that together Beagle, Halbert, and Tramdack presented "*substantive theoretical and applied roadmaps* for an integrated Information Commons in an academic library environment" in their 1999 articles (Bailey & Tierney, 2002, p. 277. Emphasis added). Moreover, Bailey and Tierney (2002) report that the Information Commons at the University of North Carolina in Charlotte developed within

Beagle's conceptual framework (1999); this shows unambiguously the legacy of Beagle's 1999 article.

Branding. Branding is a marketing tool which aims at constructing an identity for a product to capture the minds of customers with what makes it special and unique (Dempsey, 2004). I have already explained how the capitalization of the two terms *Information Commons* and *Learning Commons* (Beagle, 1999, 2004, 2009; Halbert, 1999; and Tramdack, 1999) establishes them as lexical items which contribute to the discursive construction of the information and learning commons concepts in the LIS community of discourse. I suggest that the further reduction of these terms into the acronyms IC and LC contributes as well to the constitution of library brands. The diffusion of these two brands has been effective as the labels *information commons* and *learning commons* have been used by many institutions in the name of their libraries.

> The phenomenon of the information commons is remarkable not simply for its novelty and its widespread adoption, but also *for the cachet of the term* itself. *The appeal of this label, and the decision by so many institutions to adopt the title* for their collaborative workspaces, implies shared beliefs about the role of libraries and informational resources in building knowledge.
> (Milewicz 2009, p. 5. Emphasis added)

The concept of branding the library was originally imported into librarianship during the 1990s. A flurry of recent articles in the LIS literature (e.g, Dempsey, 2004; Rowley, 1997; Storey, 2006, Stimson, 2007), postings on library blogs (e.g, Dempsey, 2005), and an entry on *Library Success: A best practice wiki* (2008) demonstrates the currency of the topic for library practice. According to Stimson (2007), "a library brand has been defined as 'all the things that come to mind, all the expectations they have, when they hear the word library,' and how you wish people to perceive your library." Through Beagle's narrative, the Information Commons and the Learning Commons are

constructed as brands of libraries for which Bennett's felicitous coining of the expression "library designed for learning" (2003) functions perfectly as a "brand mantra" (Keller, 1999) or "tagline" (Stimson, 2007). Altogether, the effect of the discourse developed in the corpus is the construction of a new corporate identity of the academic library for the 21st century.

The ALLP discourse and the silent metaphorization of the library as business. Prima facie, Beagle's "Conceptualizing an Information Commons" (1999) provides general guidelines for change. However, I argue that the undeveloped theme of the library as business is introduced implicitly in Beagle's discourse. This is made possible by the interdiscursive relationship with the discourse of management unequivocally established by Beagle (1999, p. 82) calling upon Henderson and Venkatraman to introduce the concept of Strategic Alignment. Yet, while adopting and adapting Henderson and Venkatraman's theory to justify the evolution of academic libraries, Beagle leaves out of his argument the fundamental assumptions at the origin of the Strategic Alignment model as it was described by its creators:

> [Assumption] one, economic performance is directly related to the ability of management to create a *strategic fit* between the position of an organization in the competitive product-market arena and the design of an appropriate administrative structure to support its execution. . . . [Assumption] two, we contend that this strategic fit is inherently dynamic. . . . Thus, strategic alignment is not an event but a process of continuous adaptation and change. (Henderson & Venkatraman, 1999, pp. 472-473)

For Henderson and Venkatraman (1999), strategic fit is a *business goal* which exists in response to the pressures of the market economy.

> [It] recognizes the need for any strategy to address both the external and internal domains. *The external domain is the business arena in which the firm competes and is concerned with decisions such as product-market offering and the*

> *distinctive strategy that differentiate the firm from its competitors.* (p. 474. Emphasis added)

They argue that "the inability to realize value from I/T [information technology] investments is, in part due to the lack of alignment between the business and I/T strategies of organizations" (Henderson and Venkatraman (1999, p. 472). They propose that for an organization or firm to remain competitive, strategic fit should be extended from the business domain to include the information technology domain.

> Within the *business domain*, the fit between external positioning and internal arrangement has been argued to be critical for *maximizing economic performance*. We adopt this logic to argue that the fit between external positioning and internal arrangement is equally relevant within the I/T domain. More specifically, we contend that *I/T strategy should be articulated in terms of an external domain – how the firm is positioned in the I/T marketplace–* and an internal domain –how the I/S (information systems) infrastructure should be configured and managed. (p. 474. Emphasis added)

In light of this, what does it mean then, that in Beagle's argument, (1999) concepts of business domain, market/marketplace, and competition are made to disappear while remain only mentions of "customer service" delivery and of the maximization of "fiscal resources" (p. 83)?

It is likely that, as in many instances in which a theory is imported from one domain into another, Beagle selected out elements that did not fit with his vision of the academic library as organization nor, for that matter, with the traditional vision of the library as an altruistic non-profit service organization. However, this omission has the effect of suppressing the possible metaphorization of the library as business, a theme that a more complete description of Henderson and Venkatraman's work would have introduced in Beagle-99 and in the IC and LC interpretative repertoires. In fact, in Beagle-99, the interdiscursive relationship established between the construction of the IC

model and Henderson and Venkatraman's construction of the strategic alignment model is based on an intertextual relationship with an essay by Henderson, Venkatraman, and Oldach (1996) cited in the footnotes (Beagle, 1999, p. 88). Published in an edited volume entitled *Competing in the Information Age: Strategic Alignment in Practice* (Luftman, 1996), their essay addresses an audience of business and information technology managers. It presents aligning business and information technology as a means to secure a "competitive advantage" (Henderson, Venkatraman, & Oldach, 1996, p. 21).

Interpretation of Beagle's text contents suggests that the library's business domain is located within that of "the larger institution" (Beagle, 1999, p.82), that is, education related. The description of the Information Commons as "instructional space" (p. 82) suggests that the library as information commons is in the business of teaching. However, in texts written at a later date (Beagle, 2004 and 2009; Bennett, 2008), there is a refocusing of discourse to orient the library towards learning in response to new educational trends. This discursive activity fits in with universities' marketing strategies promoting student-centered education; it ensures the alignment of the academic library's corporate image and taglines with those of the institution.

In the discourse activated in Beagle's texts, the metaphorization "library = business," which parallels the marketization of higher education, is suppressed but implicitly understood. The marketization of universities is a widely studied, explained, and critiqued phenomenon (for an overview of recent treatments of this topic, see Levy, 2006). As a business, one of the university's goals is to secure a competitive edge over the competition (i.e. other universities and colleges); in that context, I suggest an alternative reading of Beagle's (1999, p. 87) statement: "issues of strategic alignment

involve aligning the Information Commons with the interests and needs of the larger institutional and technological environment."

A 2006 study supported by the Center for Facilities Research of the Higher Education Facilities Officers, reviewing the impact of facilities on recruitment of students, showed that the brick-and-mortar academic library placed second as a facility that is "extremely or very important" in students' university selection decision process (Cain & Reynolds, 2006, fig. 2). From a market perspective, this implies that the library has to keep a competitive advantage in terms of the services it offers not only to its community but to prospective students and faculty that the university may want to attract. In this context, strategic alignment becomes more than the information technology management issue described by Beagle (1999); it becomes a marketing issue and the buildings designed or redesigned to accommodate new facilities and services come to perform as marketing tools for the institution.

> Prominent library changes, such as a building renovation, provide the perfect opportunity to re-examine the library 'brand'. . . . and try to position the library relative to the competition (other information resources and services) favorably in users' minds. In the case of a building renovation, the branding process can also influence decision-making regarding new building spaces, library services and collections. (Stimson, 2007)

Treatment of Space Design in the ALLP Discourse

When Beagle and Bennett set off to discuss space, place, and design of learning-centered academic libraries they produce examples of space diagrams with furniture arrangement sketches, floor plans, and photographs from successful library spaces (e.g, Bennett, 2006, figs. 4-7; Beagle, 2009, figs. 6-9). Of course, this can be useful to generate ideas; in fact, the importance of case studies in the practice of architecture can be traced back to the education of architects at the École des Beaux Arts (Shih, 2004, p. 218).

However, case studies do not provide sufficient and adequate information to the architect for developing a design concept. As I have learned from my teaching experience with architecture students, it is actually frequent that case studies provide primarily a catalog of forms, styles, and architectural details to copy when the student does not have a design concept for the building project; the same would be true for an architect working on a library design project. Designing a good library building consists in much more than producing a pleasing "wrapping" that dresses and contains spaces organized into a functional space diagram drawn by a library design team. "Design is about the creation of form that integrates aesthetic intention, functional performance and material durability into a spatial entity" (Shih, 2004, p. 217). This definition integrates the qualities of architecture that were first defined by Vitruvius as "firmitas, utilitas, venustas" and have been drilled into the minds of generations of architects as the mantra: firmness, commodity, and delight. However, the interpretation of the texts analyzed projects an image of architectural design as being an elementary matter of form simply following function. The academic library as learning place discourse fails to provide a discussion of design goals in terms of building design concepts, aesthetic intentions (delight), and environmental qualities (comfort).

Notwithstanding the use of the descriptors "architecture and building" in the bibliographic descriptions for Beagle-99, Bennett-06, Halbert-99, and Tramdack-99, in these texts the writers discuss the design of new library services more extensively than the building design attributes of the versions of the academic library they propose. The writers' treatment of library design issues focuses on the types of library spaces that are needed to accommodate activities, operational needs, and the objects and equipments that

populate those spaces. Interestingly enough, Bennett deplores that "the knowledge base that guides library space planning is ... poorly balanced, tilted heavily towards library operations" (2006, p. 7); yet, in his own writings he also focuses on library space planning. This approach is characteristic of a vision of design as space planning which dwells on the specifics of a space program where the building is a behavior setting reduced to its non-psychological components.

A behavior setting is defined as "a bounded space that is constructed and defined through two sets of components, *psychological* and *non-psychological*" (Holloway & Hubbard, 2001, p. 56. Emphasis added). Psychological components relate to the specific forms of behavior and action taking place in the setting, while non-psychological components are the physical objects with which behavior and action are carried out (pp. 56-57). These definitions were developed by environmental psychologist Roger G. Barker (1968) whose research has suggested that "there is a significant relationship between [classroom] design characteristics and educational performance" (Holloway & Hubbard, 2001, p. 57).

Bennett (2006, p. 4) makes a step in the right direction when he identifies the cognitive values present in traditional library buildings designed in the idiom of churches (e.g, the Yale Sterling Memorial Library). According to him, the cognitive values that draw people to space are coherence, legibility, complexity, and mystery; however, he does not show how those values might relate to the design of learning places, Beagle, Halbert, and Tramdack fail to consider psychological factors in their discourse on the information and learning commons. In my opinion, the integration into the ALLP discourse of a perspective on environmental design incorporating behavioral and

cognitive elements could help provide a useful conceptual framework to understand the planning and design of library spaces as place-making. In addition, it would be particularly useful to discuss the architectural and environmental qualities library space might have that foster learning.

Place-making and the ALLP Discourse

The ALLP discourse tends to address what is known through the mind about a library – its role and location on campus and the functions of spaces and their contents – all the physical objects that are housed therein, but it fails to address what is known about the library as place through the senses. From the perspective of an architect, it is frustrating that this discourse does not address issues of place-making.

According to Yi-Fu Tuan (1975, pp. 151-152), "place is a center of meaning constructed by experience," where "experience is a cover-all term for the various modes through which a person knows his world." One of the goals of architecture is to create a physical/material place; for Tuan, architecture also creates a place in the imagination (p. 161). The ALLP discourse seems to indicate that in the imagination of library managers and librarians the library designed for learning ought to be a place that embodies a culture of learning and that the brick-and-mortar library should be designed in such a way that its users experience learning in the course of taking place. The task of architects is to solve this riddle and take into account their client's goals and needs to generate design concepts that will materialize into architectural solutions uniquely suited to particular institutions.

Architectural programming and place-making. In architecture, the first part of the design process is called *architectural programming*. Architectural programming takes place at the beginning of the planning phase for the design of a building; it is about

defining the problem to be solved by architectural design and calls for avoiding preconceptions (Duerk, 1993, pp. 8-10; Cherry, 1999, p. 3-14). My former architecture professor and mentor Edie Cherry writes:

> The architectural programming process provides the designer with a clear definition of the scope of a project and the criteria for a successful solution. . . . We look at human factors and functions as well as such form-givers as site and climate. We listen to and understand *the client's ideals and aspirations*. (Cherry, 1999, p. 3. Emphasis added)

Different programming formats exist that are in use in architectural practice. According to Cherry (1999, pp. 42-43), one of the first programming formats was *Problem Seeking* by Peña & Focke (1969). This format consists of five steps each influenced by four characteristics diagrammed in the matrix below (Figure 10); it is the format I was taught to use. The interested reader can turn to Appendix F for an annotated bibliography of relevant programming texts.

Steps / Characteristics	Goals	Facts	Concepts	Needs	Problem statement
Function					
Form					
Economy					
Time					

Figure 10. Problem Seeking Programming Format. (After Peña & Parshall, 2001).

The steps of programming are not locked into a particular sequence (Peña & Parshall, 2001, p. 26); in architectural practice, I was trained to collect and examine goals, needs, and conceptual information prior to stating the design problem. In this study, relying on my experience as an architect and using the information contained in the texts analyzed, I went through the steps of programming that consist in establishing goals and determining needs for the design of an academic library as learning place, uncovering concepts, and stating the problem. I first extracted from the texts in the corpus the descriptions of what I consider to be design goals for the learning library (see Table 10). Then, I compiled descriptions of the physical spaces to be found in the learning library (see Table 11); this constitutes a minimal space program that does not address quantitative requirements (square footage areas needed, equipment size, etc.). After analyzing the design goals and the minimal space program established from the texts' contents, I extracted from the text important concepts (see Table 12). Finally, I drafted a possible project statement (the design problem, see Figure 11).

My aim for going through this exercise was to provide a demonstration of the weaknesses of the discourse elaborated in the corpus in terms of helping to conceive of the "library as learning place" in terms of place. Even though the texts do not describe goals and needs for the design of a particular academic library on a specific site and in a specific environment, what is missing is a discussion addressing concepts associated with spatial qualities and the sense of place in terms of the environmental qualities and mood or ambiance that would foster learning.

Table 10

Design Goals for a Learning Library

Goal	Reference
Exerts a significant presence on campus	Beagle, 2009, p. 19
Most powerful community builder on campus	Bennett, 2006, p. 11
Serves as a hub or locus of all sorts of activities	Tramdack, 1999, p. 92
Align the library building with the basic educational mission of the university.	Bennett, 2006, p. 12
Design a space that is deeply responsive to the institutional mission	Bennett, 2008, p. 184
Intellectual environment where curiosity, creativity, and lifelong learning are sparked and nurtured	Tramdack, 1999, p. 92
Design space with a focus on student learning	Beagle, 2009, p. 17
Considers the importance of the social dimensions of learning	Bennett, 2003, p. 19
Acknowledge the role of food in social dimension of learning	Bennett, 2006, p. 6
Incorporate working spaces that facilitate integrated IC activities, including collaborative learning	Tramdack, 1999, p. 92
Design with information literacy instructional possibilities in mind	Beagle, 2009, p. 17
Organize work spaces and service delivery around the integrated digital environment	Beagle, 1999, p. 82
Design networked collaborative learning environments that parallel the new corporate environments students will be competing within and where group process can shape knowledge	Beagle, 1999, p.85
Design to accommodate changes in or the growth of library instruction programs	Bennett, 2003, p. 10
Design to accommodate non-library-operations	Bennett, 2003, p. 10
Design for as much flexibility in future uses of space a possible	Bennett, 2003, p. 14

Table 11

Spatial Needs for a Learning Library

Space Type	Description	Reference
General information and referral desk	functions as first point of contact and general help center	Beagle, 1999, p. 85
Computer lab	on the first floor of the library	Beagle, 2004
	near the reference department	Beagle, 2009, p. 16
Instruction rooms/ electronic classrooms	Networked and flexible	Beagle, 1999, p. 85 Bennett, 2006, p. 6
Support space(s) for library staff's activities	For instructional activities in information literacy and staff development	Bennett, 2003, p. 13
Group study spaces/rooms	networked collaborative learning	Beagle, 1999, pp. 85-88
	environments where group process can shape knowledge	Bennett, 2006, p. 6
Individual study spaces	individual carrels	Beagle, 1999, p. 85
Social spaces	Comfortable seating spaces	Beagle, 1999, p. 85
	Role of food in social dim. of learning	Bennett, 2006, p. 6

Table 12

Concepts for a Learning Library

Concept type	Description	Reference
Form and Image Meaning	The library building will "exert a significant presence across campus"	Beagle, 2009, p. 19
Image Symbolism	Building design will reflect the library's role as a "powerful community builder on campus" and "express the unity of knowledge that that underlies the idea of the university."	Bennett, 2006, p. 11
Image Purpose	The library building will provide an environment deeply responsive to the educational mission of the institution	Tramdack, 1999, p. 92
Psychological factors	The library building will provide an environment "where curiosity, creativity, and lifelong learning are sparked and nurtured."	Tramdack, 1999, p. 92
Image	The library environment will aim to provide a parallel to "the new corporate environments students will be competing within" after leaving the university.	Beagle, 1999, p. 85

Architectural Problem Statement

The library building will have a significant presence on campus and reflect the library's role as a powerful community builder. The building design will provide an environment deeply responsive to the educational mission of the institution where curiosity creativity and lifelong learning are sparked and nurtured. The library environment will aim to provide a parallel to the new corporate environments students will be competing within after leaving the university. Space design will reflect a focus on student learning that shows an understanding of the social dimension of learning and acknowledges the role of food in social interactions. Provision of adequate learning environments will reflect the need to comfortably accommodate individual and collaborative learning practices supported by a variety of networked spaces organized for work, study, service delivery, and information literacy instruction. Space design will incorporate the flexibility needed to accommodate changes in the future uses of spaces.

Figure 11. Statement of the Design Problem.

Finally, to conclude this programming exercise, based on the list of space needs extracted from the texts (refer to Table 11 above), I propose a very minimal bubble diagram that reflects the types of spaces needed and loose relationships between them in terms of desirable proximity (see Figure 12 below).

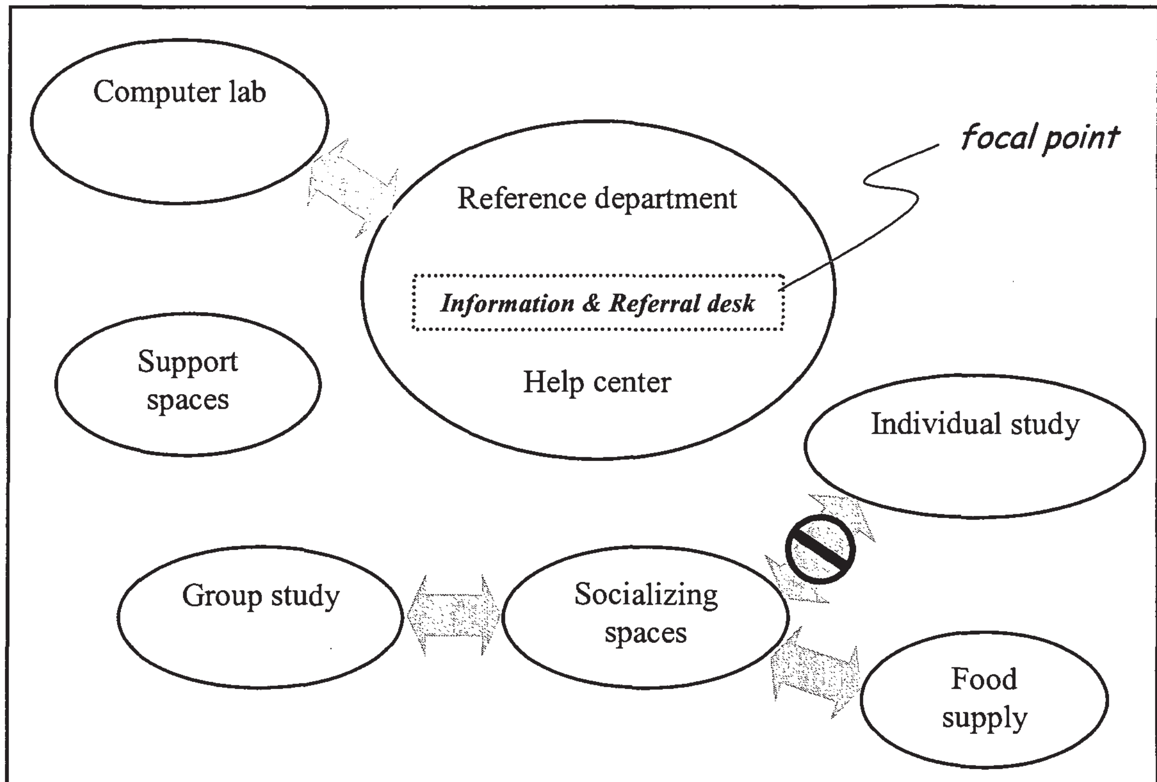


Figure 12. Bubble Diagram of Space Needs Analysis. This diagram indicates the types of spaces needed in the library as learning place; relationships of desirable or undesirable proximity between spaces are indicated with arrows. The information and referral desk constitutes a desirable focal point.

What is missing from the ALLP discourse? If the ALLP discourse is meant to provide a conceptual roadmap, it is still too sketchy because it fails to help think about the "library as learning place" in experiential terms. The results of my analysis for programming only allowed me to extract a few conceptual requirements that propose (see Table 12). Unfortunately, in regard to student learning, besides "teaching" the architect that learning is a collaborative process, the writers have nothing more useful to say than that to learn, students needs to study, and to study they require spaces for quiet individual

study and collaborative/group study. It would have been more useful if the texts had discussed what the library world means in abstract ways by *learning*. In fact, in order to design academic libraries as places for learning, architects need to know whether for librarians learning, in the space of the library, is accompanied by a mental state, is a behavior, or is a desirable outcome of some other activity. I believe that academic librarians need to define what they mean by *learning* in order to establish criteria of success for the design of library buildings and library services. For my part, I propose that we approach library design as place-making and that we think about academic library planning as architectural programming for the design of *behavior settings*. I will discuss this further in chapter 7, which concludes this dissertation with an examination of the limitations and implications of my study.

Chapter 7

Conclusion, Limitations, and Implications for Future Research

Conclusion

Summary

The purpose of my study was to explore the ways in which the academic library as a physical place is spoken about in discussions of library planning and design. This was achieved using critical discourse analysis as a qualitative research method for studying a corpus of eight texts on the topic of academic library planning and design. These texts were carefully selected for their potential to reveal interpretative repertoires through which the academic library is constituted as an object of discourse.

My analytical work was presented in three steps. First, in order to make visible the strategies on the basis of which meanings were produced I identified and described the themes developed in the corpus. There are three main themes that are activated in the texts: *the information commons* (IC), *the learning commons* (LC), and *the library designed for learning* (LDL). Ancillary themes that are intertwined with the main themes contribute to discourse development; those are *the traditional library*, *the digital-age environment*, *change*, and *library space*. Second, I interpreted the ways in which the academic library is represented throughout the corpus and I explained how these representations could be understood as three interpretative repertoires corresponding to the IC, LC, and LDL themes. I showed how, from a discourse analysis perspective, the convergence of these three repertoires constitutes an order of discourse on the "academic library as learning place" (the ALLP order of discourse). Finally, I analyzed critically the

possible effects and influences of the ALLP order of discourse and its constitutive interpretative repertoires in the world of practice.

Conclusions of the Study

The information commons and the learning commons are constructed as necessary evolutionary stages in the re-alignment of the library with the educational mission and changing needs of universities and colleges that are re-focusing their approach to higher education on student-centered teaching and learning. As a primary stage in the evolution of academic libraries, the information commons model is constructed as an adaptation to the changing technological context of the Digital Age. The learning commons is constructed as a higher level of the academic library's evolutionary development; to be designed as space and place for learning, it becomes an institutional player in the overall educational mission of the university.

After critically analyzing the IC, LC, and LDL interpretative repertoires and the ALLP order of discourse I concluded that, in the texts studied, the discourse on the academic library as learning place functions as a marketing tool. Its explicit purpose is to promote the planning and design of new facilities and services that respond to student-centered educational trends and to the needs of students and educators in a changing digital environment. Yet, implicitly this discourse offers a new corporate identity for academic libraries by proposing to the library community the adoption of one of two brands –the information or the learning commons. In this discourse, Bennett's ideological discursive activity effectively constructs the "library designed for learning" as a brand mantra. However, important discussions of architectural design and place-making are omitted from this discourse.

Incidentally, my study of the vocabulary used to describe texts in bibliographic terms also showed that there were discrepancies between what these texts were said to be talking about, and what they actually talk about. The terms *Architecture* and *Buildings* were used in databases as descriptors for four of the articles that were analyzed (there was no available descriptive data for the other texts in the databases used) but it was found that none of these texts discussed architecture or building design. As a result, these texts would have little use for architects, designers, and those immediately concerned with academic library architecture and building design since the terms used in their bibliographic description are misguiding indicators of the articles' contents.

Limitations of the Study

This study was exploratory and relied on a descriptive, interpretive, analytical and critical study of discourses deployed in a small number of publicly available texts that were purposefully selected. Limitations arise from using critical discourse analysis as a research method; this will be discussed below.

Sample Size

Doing discourse analysis is labor intensive and time consuming; this constitutes a limitation in that it restricts the amount of data that it is manageable to analyze. Respected discourse analysts Potter and Wetherell (1987, p. 161), however, consider that "it is not the case that a larger sample necessarily indicates a more painstaking or worthwhile piece of research." The validity of this study, and of all critical analyses of discourse, needs to be evaluated on the strength of the interpretative argument, its believability, and its coherence with the data and its context.

Data Sources

The second limitation resides in the types of texts chosen as data. In the methodological framework of discourse analysis, there is no prescription on what counts as acceptable source of data as long as the texts are socially, politically, organizationally, or institutionally significant to the problem the analyst wants to study. For my study, I decided to use texts that were written in the course of the social practices of the academic library professional community and that were publicly available. Numerous articles were collected, carefully reviewed, and discarded after evaluation of their potential for analysis; it would have been an unwieldy task to analyze them all in the same way I analyzed the texts selected for my study (a list of all the texts reviewed and discarded can be found in Appendix D).

I opted to select a corpus from journal articles, essays in published reports, and texts of conference presentations. Other types of texts could have been used such as transcripts of interviews or focus groups with librarians and library directors/managers, or internal documents produced during an academic library design project.

Data Selection

The constitution of a corpus for analysis is value laden. Which texts are included depends on the research problem of interest and the types of questions the analyst wants to be able to answer; those questions are in turn dependent on the researcher's perspectives on the world, social life, and discourse analysis. In my study, my knowledge of libraries and librarianship together with my theoretical and experience-based knowledge of architecture have probably influenced at cognitive and emotional levels how I have selected the texts in the corpus.

Ideology

Ideology can limit the kind of interpretations and critique that CDA yields. Because my research was exploratory, I chose to avoid the traditional approach to CDA that focuses on relationships of power. My goal was to let the data talk to me without the filter of an ideological lens; however, it is unavoidable for my discourse interpretation and critical analysis not to have been influenced by my professional training, my work experience as an architect and a professor of architecture in a large land-grant university, personal values, and my views on academia, libraries, and architecture.

Directions for Future Research

It is my hope that this dissertation has shown that critical analysis of the professional discourse in the academic librarianship community is a useful mean to raise self consciousness among members of the profession in regard to the way the academic library is being discursively constructed as a learning place. Based on my discourse interpretation and critical analysis I would like to point to directions for future research.

Place Making as the Design of Behavior Settings

If place and place-making were to be approached from the perspective of human geography, the library community could begin to think of library spaces as "*behavior settings*." The concept of "behavior setting" is derived from ecological psychology and was introduced by Barker in the late 1960s (Holloway & Hubbard, 2001, pp. 56-57). Behavior settings are clearly defined spaces constructed and defined through specific forms of behavior and action and physical objects with which behavior is carried out (pp. 56-57). Barker's research on classroom settings led to the development of post occupancy

evaluation techniques whose results suggested that there is a "significant relationship between [classroom] design characteristics and educational performance" (p. 57).

It might be useful to incorporate such techniques into library evaluation practices and study existing library spaces with the aim of developing a body of data that could lead to the practice of evidence-based library planning and design in the future. It would also be invaluable to study the impact of environmental factors for designing the types of library spaces that would be conducive to desirable behavior and a deterrent to undesirable behaviors and activities. Ideally, such studies should be made by interdisciplinary teams of architects, psychologists, and librarians.

A Proposed Research Program

This study represents an important first step; it has opened perspectives for developing a rich program of research. I plan to use discourse analysis again to investigate whether the ALLP order of discourse is emergent or established in the literature on academic libraries. I think there is also a need to design a study that would use text samples taken from the transcripts of interviews and focus groups with members of the academic library community; the purpose would be to investigate how they discuss library planning and design, and the academic library as place. I also recognize that other qualitative research methods such as case studies and ethnography will need to be used to investigate what takes place in practice.

In addition to projecting myself in a program of future research, I see a role for others in LIS to contribute their own analyses and interpretations of the academic library as place discourse by studying it from different perspectives using various ideological frameworks.

References

Acker, S. R. and Miller, M. D. (2005). Campus learning spaces: Investing in how students learn. *ECAR (Educause Center for Applied Research) Research Bulletin, 2005*(8).

Alstad, C. and Curry, A. (2003). Public space, public discourse, and public libraries. *LIBRES, 13*(1). Retrieved Aug. 27 from http://libres.curtin.edu.au/libres13n1/pub_space.htm

Antaki, C., Billig, M.L, Edwards, D., and Potter, J. (2003). Discourse Analysis Means Doing Analysis: A Critique of Six Analytic Shortcomings. *Discourse Analysis Online, 1*. Accessible from http://www.shu.ac.uk/daol/articles/v1/n1/a1/antaki2002002-paper.html. [Last accessed October 10, 2008]

Antell, K. and Engel, D. (2006). Conduciveness to scholarship: The essence of academic library as place. *College & Research Libraries, 67*(6), 536-560.

Antell, K. and Engel, D. (2007). Stimulating space, serendipitous space: Library as place in the life of the scholar. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as Place: History, Community and Culture* (pp. 163-176). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Arenson, A. (2007). Libraries in public before the age of public libraries; Interpreting the furnishings and design of Athenaeums and other "Social Libraries." In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 41-60). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Atkinson, R. (2001). Contingency and contradiction: The place(s) of the library at the dawn of the new millennium. *Journal of American Society for Information Science and Technology, 52(*1), 3-11.

Augustin, S. (2009). *Place Advantage: Applied Psychology for Interior Architecture..* Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Bailey, A. (2008). *Wow! Toronto Branch Libraries Transformed.* Retrieved Aug. 24, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/Programme2008.htm#12August

Bailey, R. and Tierney, B. (2002). Information commons redux: Concept, evolution, and transcending the tragedy of the commons. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 28*(5), 277-286.

Bailey, R., and Tierney, B. (2008). *Transforming library service through information commons: case studies for the digital age.* Chicago: American Library Association.

Bailey-Hainer, B. & Forsman, R. B. (2005). Redefining the future of academic libraries: When the definition of 'public good' changes. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 31*(6), 503-505.

Baker, B. (2000). Values for the learning library. *Research Strategies, 17*, 85-91.

Barker R. G. (1968). *Ecological Psychology; Concepts and Methods for Studying the Environment of Human Behavior.* Stanford, A; Stanford University Press.

Beagle, D. (1999). Conceptualizing an information commons. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 25*(2) 82-89. Retrieved June 25, 2008 from WilsonWeb.

Beagle, D. (2002). Extending the information commons: From instructional testbed to Internet 2. *The Journal of Academic librarianship, 28*(5), 287-296.

Beagle, D. (2004). From information commons to learning commons. *Leavey Library 2004 Conference. Information Commons: Learning Space beyond the classroom, Los Angeles, CA.* Retrieved November 23, 2008 from http://www.usc.edu/isd/libraries/locations/leavey/news/conference/presentations/presentations_9-16/Beagle_Information_Commons_to_Learning.pdf

Beagle, D. (2006). *The information commons handbook.* New York, NY: Neal Schumann Publishers.

Beagle, D. (2009). The learning commons in historical context. *Annals of Nagoya University, Library Studies,7*, 15-24. Retrieved April 2, 09 from http://libst.nul.nagoya-u.ac.jp/pdf/annals_07_03.pdf

Bennett, S. (2003). *Libraries designed for learning* (CLIR, Report, Pub. 122). Washington DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

Bennett, S. (2005). Righting the balance. In *Library as place: Rethinking roles, rethinking space* (CLIR Report, Pub. 129). Washington DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

Bennett, S. (2005, b). *Library Space Planning*. Business website. Accessed June 23, 2009 from http://www.libraryspaceplanning.com/services.htm

Bennett, S. (2006). The choice for learning. *The Journal of Academic librarianship, 32*(1), 3-13.

Bennett, S. (2007a). First questions for designing higher education learning spaces. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 33*(1), 14-26.

Bennett, S. (2007b). Designing for uncertainty: Three approaches. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 33*(2), 165-179.

Bennett, S. (2008). The information or the learning commons: Which will we have? *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 34*(3), 183-185.

Berger, P. R. and Luckmann, T. (1980). *The social construction of reality: A treatise in the sociology of knowledge* (reprint). New York: Irvington. (Original work published 1966).

Bhaskar, R. (1975). *A realist theory of science*. Hassocks, UK: Harvester Press; Atlantic Highlands, NJ: Humanities Press.

Bhaskar, R. (1979) *The possibility of naturalism: A philosophical critique of the contemporary human sciences* (3rd edition, 1998). London; New York: Routledge.

Bhaskar, R. (1989). *Reclaiming reality: A critical introduction to contemporary philosophy*, London; New York: Verso.

Bhaskar, R. (1998a). General introduction. In M. Archer, R. Bhaskar, A. Collier, T. Lawson, & A. Norrie (Eds.), *Critical realism; Essential readings* (pp. ix-xxiv). New York: Routledge.

Bhaskar, R. (1998b). Philosophy and scientific realism. In M. Archer, R. Bhaskar, A. Collier, T. Lawson, & A. Norrie (Eds.), *Critical Realism; Essential Readings* (pp. 16-47). New York: Routledge.

Bhaskar, R. (1998c). Societies. In M. Archer, R. Bhaskar, A. Collier, T. Lawson, & A. Norrie (Eds.), *Critical realism; Essential readings* (pp. 206-257). New York: Routledge.

Bisbrouck, M. F. (Ed.). (2001). *Library buildings in a changing environment. Proceedings of the 11th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section- Shanghai, China, 1999.* München: Saur Verlag.

Bisbrouck, M. F., Desjardins, J., Ménil, C. Poncé, F., and Rouyer-Gayette, F. (Eds.). (2004). *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003*. München: Saur Verlag.

Bjarrum, C. and Cranfield, A. (2004). The future is now – library re-engineering in the 21st century. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings*

of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003 (pp. 39-63). München: Saur Verlag.

Bolin, M. K. (2005). The library and the computer center: Organizational patterns at land grant universities. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 31*(1), 3-11.

Boone, M. D. (2003). Monastery to marketplace: A paradigm shift. *Library Hi Tech, 21*(3), 358-366.

Boone, M. D. (2004). The way ahead: Learning cafés in the academic market place. *Library Hi Tech, 22*(3), 323-327.

Braverman, B. (2000). Libraries and theme parks: Strange bedfellows. *Research Strategies, 17*, 99-105.

Bruffee, K. A. (1999). *Collaborative learning: Higher education, interdependence, and the authority of knowledge.* 2nd Ed. Baltimore, MD: John Hopkins University Press.

Bruffee, K. A. (2000). *Kenneth Bruffee: Brief biography.* Retrieved June 6, 2009, from http://academic.brooklyn.cuny.edu/english/bruffee/bruffee_cv.html

Budd, J. (2001a). Instances of ideology in discursive practice: implications for library and information science. *Library Quarterly, 71*(4), 498-517.

Budd, J. (2001b). *Knowledge and knowing in library and information science: A philosophical approach.* Lanham, MD: Scarecrow.

Budd, J. (2006). Discourse analysis and the study of communication in LIS. *Library Trends, 55*(1), 65-82.

Budd, J. and Raber, D. (1996). Discourse analysis: Method and application in the study of information. *Information Processing and Management, 32*(2), 217-226.

Budd, J. and Raber, D. (1998). The cultural state of the fin de Millénaire library. *Library Quarterly, 68* (11), 55-79.

Bulpitt, G. (2004). Inspiring and teaching: The new integrated Learning Center at Sheffield Hallam University. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003* (pp. 65-72). München: Saur Verlag.

Buschman, J. (2007). Transgression or stasis? Challenging Foucault in LIS theory. *The Library Quarterly, 77*(1), 21–44

Buschman, J. and Leckie, G. J. (Eds.). (2007). *Library as place: History, community and culture.* Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Cain, D. and Reynolds, G. (2006). The impact of facilities on recruitment and retention of students. *Facilities Manager*, March/April, 54-60. Retrieved June 11, 2008 from http://appa.org/FacilitiesManager/article.cfm?ItemNumber=2567&parentid=2542

Carabine, J. (2001). Unmarried motherhood 1830-1990; A genealogical analysis. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, and S. J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse as data: A guide to analysis* (pp. 267-310). London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Carlson, S. (2001a). Are college libraries too empty? *The Chronicle of Higher Education; Colloquy Live.* Transcript of an online chat, November 15, 2001. Retrieved Nov. 23, 2008 from http://chronicle.com/colloquylive/2001/11/empty/

Carlson, S. (2001b). The deserted library. *The Chronicle of Higher Education, 48*(12), 35-38. Retrieved July 8, 2008 from http://chronicle.com/free/v48/i12/12a03501.htm

Cherry, E. (1999). *Programming for Design: From Theory to Practice.* New-York: Wiley.

Chouliaraki, L. and Fairclough, N. (1999). *Discourse in late modernity; Rethinking critical discourse analysis.* Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.

CLIR (2002). *Diffuse libraries: Emergent roles for the research library in the digital age* (CLIR Report, Pub. 108). Washington DC: Council on Libraries and Information Resources.

CLIR (2003). *Libraries designed for learning* (CLIR, Report, Pub. 122). Washington DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

CLIR (2005). *Library as place: Rethinking roles, rethinking space* (CLIR Report, Pub. 129). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

CLIR (2008). *No brief candle: Reconceiving research libraries for the 21st century* (CLIR Report, Pub. 142). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

CLIR (2009). *A forum for change.* Last accessed April 28, 2009 from http://www.clir.org/about/about.html).

Collier, A. (1994). *Critical realism: An introduction to Roy Bhaskar's philosophy.* London; New York: Verso.

Connaway, L. S. (2005). Physical space for virtual services and collections. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy, 5*(1), 127-131. Accessible from http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/portal_libraries_and_the_academy/toc/pla5.1.html

Courant (2008). The future of the library in the research university. In *No brief candle: Reconceiving research libraries for the 21st century* (CLIR Report, Pub. 142). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

Cowgill, A., Beam, J., and Wess, L. (2001). Implementing an information commons in a university library. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 27*(6), 432-439.

Collins, B. (1999). *Building a scholarly communications center: modeling the Rutgers experience* (Frontiers of access to library materials, No. 5). Chicago: American Library Association.

Crockett, C., McDaniel, S., and Remy, M. (2002). Integrating services in the information commons; Towards a holistic library and computing environment. *Library Administration & Management, 16*(4), 181-186.

Curry, A. (2007). A grand old sandstone lady: Vancouver's Carnegie library. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 61-76). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Davenport, N. (2006, January/February). Place as library? *Educause Review.*

Day, M. T. (2002). Discourse fashions in library administration and information management: A critical history and bibliometric analysis. *Advances in Librarianship, 26*, 231-298.

Day, R. F. (2000). Tropes, history, and ethics; Professional discourse and information science. *Journal of the Society for Information Science, 5*(5), 469-475.

De Jong, C. J. (2007). Book review: The information commons handbook. *Partnership: The Canadian Journal of Library and Information Practice and Research, 2*(1). Retrieved Nov. 30, 2008 from http://gir.uoguelph.ca/index.php/perj/article/view/268/368

Delambre, R. (2004). The library is the message. *French Cultural Studies, 15*(2), 190-205.

Dempsey, B. (2004). Target your brand: Build an identity that works in the age of the superstore. *Library Journal, 129*(13), 32-35.

Dempsey, L. (2005, August 13). Standing and branding. Lorcan Dempsey's Weblog. Retrieved July 2, 2009 from http://orweblog.oclc.org/archives/000760.html

Dewey, B. I. (2002). Social, intellectual, and cultural spaces: Creating compelling library environments for the digital age. *Journal of Library Administration, 48*(1), 85-94.

Dobson, P. J. (2002). Critical realism and information systems research: why bother with philosophy? *Information Research, 7*(2). Retrieved August 2, 2008 from http://informationr.net/ir/7-2/paper124.html

Dodsworth, E. (1998). Marketing the academic library: A necessary plan. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 24*(4), 320-322.

Dowlin, K. (2004). The library as place: Challenges in the digital age. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003* (pp. 11-37). München: Saur Verlag.

Duerk, D. P. 91993). *Architectural Programming: Information Management for Design.* New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Educause Review (2005). Learning space design. *EDUCAUSE Review 40*(4).

Eigenbrodt, O. (2008). *The constitution of library space through activity.* Retrieved Aug. 24, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/Programme2008.htm#11August

Elsevier (2009). *The Journal of Academic Librarianship.* Retrieved April 15, 2009 from http://www.elsevier.com/wps/find/journaldescription.cws_home/620207/description#description

Engel, D. and Antell, K. (2004). The life of the mind: a study of faculty spaces in academic libraries. *College & Research Libraries, 65*(1), 8-19.

Engler, S. (2004). Constructionism versus what? *Religion, 34*, 291-313.

Estill, A. (2007). Going to hell: Placing the library in Buffy the vampire slayer. In J. Buschman & G. J. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 235-250). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Fairclough, N. (1992a). *Discourse and Social Change.* Cambridge, UK; Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Fairclough, N. (1992b). Discourse and text: linguistic and intertextual analysis within discourse analysis. *Discourse & Society, 3*(2), 193-217.

Fairclough, N. (1993). Critical discourse analysis and the marketization of public discourse: the universities. *Discourse & Society, 4*(2), 133-168.

Fairclough, N. (2001a). The dialectics of Discourse. *Textus, 14*(2), 231-242. Retrieved July 10, 2008 from www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/staff/norman/2001a.doc

Fairclough, N. (2001b). The discourse of New Labour; Critical discourse: Textual analysis. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, and S. J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse as data: A guide to analysis* (pp. 229-266). London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Fairclough, N. (2001c). *Language and Power.* (2nd ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analysing discourse: Textual analysis for social research.* London; New York: Routledge.

Fairclough, N. (2005a). Critical discourse analysis. *Marges Linguistiques 9*, 76-94. Accessed April 04, 2007 from http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/staff/norman/norman.htm

Fairclough, N. (2005b). Critical discourse analysis in transdiciplinary research. In R. Wodack & B. Chilton (Eds.). *A new agenda in (critical) discourse analysis: Theory, methodology, and interdisciplinarity.* Amsterdam; J. Benjamins. Accessed April 04, 2007 from http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/staff/norman/norman.htm

Fairclough, N. (2005c). Peripheral vision; Discourse analysis in organizational studies: the case for critical realism. *Organization Studies, 26*(6), 915-939. Retrieved July 14, 2008 from http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/profiles/263/

Fairclough, N. (2005d). *Discourse in processes of social change: 'Transition' in Central and Eastern Europe.* Retrieved July 14, 2008 from http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/staff/norman/paper1.doc. Published as 'Transition' in Central and Eastern Europe. *British and American Studies*, 11/2005, 9-34. Timisoara, Romania: University of Timisoara.

Fairclough, N., Jessop, B., and Sayer, A. (2002). *Critical realism and semiosis.* Lancaster, UK: Department of Sociology, Lancaster University. Available from http://www.lancs.ac.uk Retrieved August 3, 2008.

Fang, C. (2008). *University Library: The Third place for Students.* Retrieved Aug. 24, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/Programme2008.htm#11August

Fisher, K. E., Saxto, M. L., Edwards, P. M., and Mai, J. E. (2007). Seattle public library as place: Reconceptualizing space, community, and information at the Central Library. In J. Buschman & G. J. Leckie, (Eds.), *Library as Place: History, Community and Culture* (pp. 135-160). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2001). *Making social science matter.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Foote, S. M. (2004). Changes in library design: An architect's perspective. *portal: Libraries and the Academy, 4*(1), 41-59. Accessible from Project Muse, http://muse.jhu.edu

Forrest, C. and Halbert, M. (Eds.). (2009). *A field guide to the information commons.* Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press

Forrest, C. and Hinchliffe, L. J. (2005). Beyond classroom construction and design - Formulating a vision for learning spaces in libraries. *Reference & User Services Quarterly, 44*(4), 296-300.

Foucault, M. (1969). *L'archéologie du savoir* (reprint 2005) [The Archeology of knowledge]. Paris: Bibliothèque des Sciences Humaines, Gallimard.

Foucault, M. (1971). *L'ordre du discours* [The Order of Discourse]. Paris: Gallimard.

Foucault, M. (1972). *The archeology of knowledge.* New York: Pantheon Books. (Original work published 1969).

Foucault M. (1979). *The history of sexuality. Volume one: Introduction.* New York: Vintage. (Original work published 1976).

Foucault, M. (1995). *Discipline and punish: The birth of the prison.* (A. Sheridan, Trans.). New York: Vintage. (Original work published 1975).

Freund, L. and Seale, C. (2007, Fall). Transforming Library West at the University of Florida: A fairy tale makeover. *Florida Libraries.*

Frohmann, B. (1992a). Knowledge and power in library and information science: toward a discourse analysis of the cognitive viewpoint. In P. Vakkari and B. Cronin (Eds.) *Conceptions of library and information science: Historical, empirical, and theoretical Perspectives.* (pp. 135-148). London, U.K.; Los Angeles: Taylor Graham.

Frohmann, B. (1992b). The power of images: a discourse analysis of the cognitive viewpoint. *Journal of Documentation 48*(4), 365-386.

Frohmann, B. (1994a). Discourse analysis as a research method in library and information science. *Library and Information Science Research, 16*, 119-138.

Frohmann, B. (1994b). The Social and Discursive Construction of New Information Technologies. In W. Rauch, F. Strohmeier, H. Hiller, and C. Schlögl (Eds.), *Mehrwerk von Information-Professionalisierung de Informationsarbeit. Preceedings des 4. Internationalen Symposiums für Informationswissenschaft (ISI '94).* Konstanz: Konstanz Universitätsverlag. Accessible from http://www.fims.uwo.ca/people/faculty/frohmann/selected%20papers.htm

Frohmann, B. (2001). Discourse and documentation: Some implications for pedagogy and research. *Journal of Library and Information Science Education, 42*, 12-26.

Frohmann, B. (2004). *Deflating Information: From science studies to documentation.* Toronto: University of Toronto Press.

Gayton, J. T. (2008). Academic libraries: "Social" or "Communal?" The nature and future of academic libraries. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 34*(1), 60-66.

Gergen, K. J. (1985). The social constructionist movement in Modern Psychology. *American Psychologist, 40*(3), 266-275.

Given, L. M. (2007). Setting the stage for undergraduate' information behaviors: Faculty and librarians' perspectives on academic space. In J. Buschman & G. J. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 177-189). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Given, L. and Leckie, G. J. (2003). "Sweeping" the library; Mapping the social activity space of the public library. *Library & Information Science Research, 25*, 365-385.

Given, L. (2002). Discursive constructions in the university context: social positioning theory & mature undergraduates' information behaviours. *The New Review of Information Behaviour Research: Studies of Information Seeking in Context 3*, 127-141.

Gross, M. (1999). Imposed versus self-generated questions: Implications for reference practice. *Reference & User Service Quarterly, 39*, 53-61.

Gross, P.R. and Levitt, N. (1998). *Higher superstition: The academic left and its quarrels with science* (paperback ed.). Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Gust, K. J. and Haka, C. H. (2006). Bringing users back to the library: a case history. *New Library World, 107*(1222/1223), 141-148.

Haas, L. and Robertson, J. (2004). *The Information Commons*. Association of Research Libraries, Washington.

Haider, J. and Bawden, D. (2006). Pairing information with poverty: traces of the development discourse in LIS. *New Library World, 107*(1228/1229), 371-385.

Haider, J. and Bawden, D. (2007). Conceptions of "information poverty" in LIS: a discourse analysis. *Journal of Documentation, 63*(4), 534-557.

Halbert, M. (1999). Lessons from the information commons frontier. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 25*(2), 90-91.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). The sociosemantic nature of discourse, in M. A. K. Halliday, *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning.* Baltimore, MD: University Park Press.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: E. Arnold

Harris, M. and Itoga, M. (1991). Becoming critical: For a theory of purpose and necessity in American Librarianship. In C.R. McClure & P. Hernon (Eds.), *Library and Information Science Research: Perspectives and Strategies for Improvement* (pp. 347-357). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Hartman, C. W. (2000). Memory palace, place of refuge, Coney Island of the mind; The evolving roles of the library in the late 20th century. *Research Strategies, 17*, 107-121.

Hasty, D. (2004). Applying Fourth Generation Management to access services; Reinventing customer service and process management. *Journal of Access Services 2*(3), 21-42.

Henderson, J. C., and Venkatraman, N. (1999). Strategic alignment: Leveraging information technology for transforming organizations. *IBM Systems Journal, 38*(2 & 3), 472-484. First published in 1993, *IBM Systems Journal, 32*(1).

Henry, E. (November 19, 2008). *Daschle the choice for Health and Human Services*. Politicalticker, CNN Politics.com. Accessed January 31, 2009 from http://politicalticker.blogs.cnn.com/2008/11/19/daschle-the-choice-for-health-and-human-services/

Heracleous, L. (2006). *Discourse, interpretation, organization.* Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Hersberger, J.A., Sua, L., and Murray, A. L. (2007). The fruit and root of the community: The Greensboro Carnegie Negro Library, 1904-1964. In J. Buschman & G. J. Leckie, (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 79-99). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Hernon, P. (2002). Editorial: First, embracing customer service and, second, moving beyond it: A client relationship. *The Journal of Academic librarianship 28*(4), 189-190.

Hiller, S. (2004). Measure by measure: assessing the viability of the physical library. *The Bottom Line: Managing Library Finances, 17*(4), 161-131.

Hjørland, B. (2004). Arguments for philosophical realism in library and information science. *Library Trends, 52*(3), 488-506.

Holland, G. A. (2006). Associating social constructionism and extended cognition in information studies. *Journal of Documentation, 62*(1), 91-100.

Holloway, L. and Hubbard, P. (2001). *People and place: The extraordinary geographies of everyday life.* Harlow, England: Pearson Education Limited.

Houlihan, R. (2005). The academic library as congenial space: more on the Saint Mary's experience. *New Library World, 106*(1208/1209), 7-15.

Hurt, C. (1997). Building libraries in the virtual age. *College & Research Libraries News, 58*(2), pp. 75-76.

Hurt, C. (1999). *Georgia State University 1999 – 2000. External annual report of the William Russell Pullen Library.* Retrieved June 21, 2009 from http://131.96.12.107/files/research/68/ar1999-2000-ext.pdf

IFLA. (2007). Conference announcement, general Information. *Library Buildings and Equipment Section Conference. Building for the future: National and academic Libraries from around the globe.* Koninklijke Bibliotheek (Royal Library), The Hague, Netherlands, 3-5 October 2007. Retrieved June 11, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/VII/s20/conf/2007Building-prg.htm

IFLA. (2008a). Theoretical Approaches to Research on Libraries as Space and Place (Call for Papers, Library Theory and Research Section). *Libraries without borders: Navigating towards global understanding. 10-14 August 2008, Québec, Canada.* Accessible from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/call-theor-en.htm

IFLA. (2008b). Renovating and renewing libraries: the wow factor (Call for Papers, Library Buildings and Equipment Section, with the Metropolitan Libraries Section). *Libraries without borders: Navigating towards global understanding. 10-14 August 2008, Québec, Canada.* Accessible from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/call-buil-en.htm

Jackson, H. and Hahn, T. B. (2008). *The library as sacred place: Applying the psychology of religion to the academic library as a sanctified space and implications for measurement and evaluation.* Retrieved Aug. 24, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/Programme2008.htm#11August

Jashapara, A. (2007). Moving beyond tacit and explicit distinctions: A realist theory of organizational knowledge. *Journal of Information Science, 33*(6), 752-766.

Jørgensen, M. and Phillips, L. (2002). *Discourse analysis as theory and method.* London; Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Keller, K. L. (1999). Brand mantras: Rationale, criteria and examples. *Journal of Marketing and Management, 15*, 43-51.

Kelly, G. A. (c. 1955). *The psychology of personal constructs: A theory of personality.* New York: Norton.

Koertge, N. (Ed.). (1998). *A house built on sand; Exposing postmodernists' myths about science.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Kohl, D. (2006). Where's the library? *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 32*(2), 117-118.

Krathwohl, D. R. (1998). Writing a research proposal. In *Methods of educational and social research,* Appendix (pp. 649-677). New York: Longman.

Kratz, C. (2003). New realities, new relationships. Transforming the delivery of service: The joint-use library and information commons. *C&RL News, 64*(2). Retrieved May 22, 2008 from http://www.ala.org/ala/acrl/acrlpubs/crlnews/collegeresearch.cfm

Kress, G. (2001). From Saussure to critical sociolinguistics: The turn towards a social view of language. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, and S. Yates (Eds.) *Discourse theory and practice: A reader* (pp. 29-38). London; Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lakoff, G. and Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Latimer, K. and Niegaard, H. (Eds.). (2007). *IFLA library building guidelines: Developments & reflections.* München: Saur Verlag.

Leckie, G. J. (2004). Three perspectives on the library as public space. *Feliciter, 50*(6), 233-236.

Leckie, G. J., and Hopkins, J. (2002, July). The Public place of central libraries: findings from Toronto and Vancouver. *Library Quarterly*, *72*(3), 326-72.

Lefebvre, M. E. (2002). The library as congenial space: the Saint Mary's experience. *New Library World, 103*(1172/1173), 21-29.

Leighton, P. D. and Weber, D. C. (1999). *Planning academic and research library buildings* (3rd ed.). Chicago: American Library Association.

Lennartsson, C. (2005). Discourse and institution in LIS and policy analysis. *Svensk Biblioteksforkning /Swedish Library Research, 15*(1), 17-31. Retrieved from http://66.102.1.104/scholar?hl=en&lr=&q=cache:UVPMnbbq3o0J:www.hb.se/bhs/publikationer/svbf/arkiv/svbf_15105.pdf%23page%3D17+Discourse+and+institution+in+LIS+and+policy+analysis.+Lennartsson

Levy, D. C. (2006). Market university? *Comparative Education Review, 50*(1), 113-124.

Library as place: Rethinking roles, rethinking space. (2005). CLIR Report, Pub. 129. Washington DC: Council on Libraries and Information Resources.

Library success: A best practices wiki. (2008). Branding. Retrieved July2, 2009 from http://www.libsuccess.org/index.php?title=Branding

Lippincott, J. K. (2004). New library facilities: Opportunities for collaboration. *Resource Sharing & Information Networks, 17*(1-2), 147-157.

Littlejohn, S. W. and Foss, K. A. (2005). *Theories of human communication,* (Eighth Ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Locke, T. (2004). *Critical Discourse Analysis.* London; New York: Continuum.

Lougee, W. P. (2002). *Diffuse libraries: Emergent roles for the research library in the digital age* (CLIR Report, Pub. 108). Washington DC: Council on Libraries and Information Resources.

Ludwig, L. and Starr, S. (2005). Library as place: results of a Delphi study. *Journal of the Medical Library Association, 93*(3), 315-326.

Mountifield, H. (2003). Learning ...... with a latte. The Kate Edger Information Commons- providing student-centered learning support. EDUCAUSE in Australasia. Retrieved June 30, 2009 from http://www.information-commons.auckland.ac.nz/content_files/publications/educause_article.pdf

Nikkel, T. (2003). Implementing the Dalhousie Learning Commons. *Feliciter, 49* (4), 2212-14.

MacMillan, K. (2005). More than just coding? Evaluating CAQDAS in a discourse analysis of news texts. *Forum Qualitative Socialforschung / Forum; Qualitavie Social Research, 6*(3), Art. 25. Retrieved October 9, 2008 from http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/viewArticle/28/59

MacWhinnie, L. A. (2003). The information commons: The academic library of the future. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy, 3*(2), 241-257.

Mak, B. (2007). On the myths of libraries. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 209-220). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Malenfant, C. (2006). The information commons as a collaborative space. *Reference Services Review, 31*(2), 279-286.

Malone, C.K. & Elichirigoity, F. (2003). Information as commodity and economic sector: Its emergence in the discourse of industrial classification. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology (JASIST), 54*(6), 512-520. Retrieved from ABI/INFORM Global.

Mann, T. (2007). The research library as place; On the essential importance of collections of books shelved in subject-classified arrangements. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 191-206). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Marques Válio, E. B., and Fulgêncio de Oliveira, V. F. (2003). Terminologia da ciência da informação: Abordagem da análise do discurso. *Perspectivas em Ciência da Informação, 8*(2), 114-133.

Masters, D. (1994). Café Gelman: An innovative use of library space. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 19*(6), 388-390.

Martin, D. (2004). Supporting independent learning: the pioneering new design at the University of Hertfordshire. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003* (pp. 73-88). München: Saur Verlag.

McCabe, G.B. and Person, R.J. (Eds.). (1995). *Academic libraries; Their rationale and role in American higher education: Contribution in librarianship and information science, No 84.* Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

McDonald, A. (2007). The top ten qualities of good library space. In K. Latimer & H. Niegaard (Eds.), *IFLA library building guidelines: Developments & reflections*, pp.13-29.München: Saur Verlag.

McHoul, A. and Grace, W. (1997). *A Foucault primer.* New York: New York University press.

McKenzie, P. J., Prigoda, E. M., Clement, K., and McKechnie, L. (2007). Behind the program-room door: The creation of parochial and private women realm in a Canadian public library. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 117-134). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Meernik, M. (2004). *Library as place: Library users speak up.* LibQUAL + Survey Findings. Ypsilanti, MI: Eastern Michigan University, Bruce T. Halle Library. Retrieved February, 17, 2008 from http://www.emich.edu/halle/libqual_articles_library_as_place.html

Milewicz, E. J. (2009). Origin and development of the information commons in academic libraries. In C. Forrest & M. Halbert (Eds.), *A field guide to the information commons*, pp. 3-17. Lanham, Md.: Scarecrow Press

Miller, W. 92001). The library as place: tradition and evolution. *Library Issues, 22*(3).

De Miribel, M. (2008). *Some reflections on Space in Libraries.* Retrieved Aug. 24, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/Programme2008.htm#11August

Morgan, G. and Smircich, L. (1980). The case for qualitative research. *The Academy of Management Review, 5*(4), 491-500. Retrieved June 27, 2008 from JSTOR.

Murphy, S. A. (2005). The reference narrative. *Reference & User Service Quarterly, 44*(3), 247-252.

Nanda, M. (1997). Against social destruction of science: cautionary tales from the third world. *Monthly Review,* (March). Retrieved August 3, 2008 from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m1132/is_n10_v48/ai_19344899?tag=artBody;col1

Niegaard, H. (2007). Reinventing the physical library: libraries in a new context. In K. Latimer & H. Niegaard (Eds.), *IFLA library building guidelines: Developments & reflections*, pp. 30-46. München: Saur Verlag.

Nightingale, D. J. and Cromby, J. (2002). Social constructionism as ontology: Exposition and example. *Theory & Psychology, 12*(5), 701-713.

O'Connor, R.A. & Bennett, S. (2005). The power of place in learning. *Planning for Higher Education, 33*, 28-30.

Oldenburg, R. (1999). *The great good place: Cafes, coffee shops, bookstores, bars, hair Salons, and other hangouts at the heart of a community.* New York: Marlowe & Company.

Oldenburg, R. (2000). *Celebrating the third place: Inspiring stories about the "great good places" at the heart of our communities.* New York: Marlowe & Company.

Olson, H. (ca. 1995). *Quantitative "versus" qualitative research: The wrong question.* Retrieved June 27, 2008 from http://www.ualberta.ca/dept/slis/cais/olson.htm

Outhwaite, W. (1998). Realism and Social Science. In Archer, M., Bhaskar, R., Collier, A., Lawson, T. & Norrie, A. (Eds.), *Critical realism; Essential readings* (pp. 282-296). New York: Routledge.

Owusu-Ansah, E. (2001). The academic library in the enterprise of colleges and universities: toward a new paradigm. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 27*(4), 282-294.

Pavlovsky, L. (2003). *Values in library design*. Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey.

Pavlovsky, L. (2005). Understanding the role of values in library design. *Advances in Library Administration and Organization, 22*, 157-274.

Pelster, N. (2000). Editorial. *Research Strategies, 17*, 77. Introductory note to an issue on the theme learning library.

Peña, W. M. and Focke, J. (1969). *Problem Seeking.* Houston: Caudill Rowlett Scott.

Peña, W. M. and Parshall, S. A. (2001). *Problem Seeking: An Architectural Programming Primer, 4th Edition.* New York: Wiley.

Perry Dean Rogers. (n.d.). *Overview.* Retrieved June 6, 2009, from http://www.perrydean.com/

Phillips, N. and Hardy, C. (2002). *Discourse analysis; Investigating processes of social construction.* Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Pomerantz, J. and Marchionini, G. (2007). The digital library as place. *Journal of Documentation, 63*(4), 505-533.

Potter, J. and Wetherell, M. (1987). *Discourse and Social Psychology: Beyond Attitudes and Behaviour.* London: Sage.

Potthoff, J. K., Weis, D. L., Montanelli, D. S., and Murbach, M. M. (2000). An evaluation of patron perceptions of library space using the role repertory grid procedure. *College & Research Libraries, 61*(3), 191-202.

Powell, M. (2002). Designing library space to facilitate learning: A review of the UK higher education sector. *Libri, 52*, 110-120.

Radford, M. L. and Radford, G. P. (2001). Libraries, librarians, and the discourse of fear. *Library Quarterly, 71*(3), 299-329.

Radford, G. P. (2003). Trapped in our own discursive formations: Towards an archeology of library and information science. *Library Quarterly, 73*(1), 1-18.

Revill, D. (1997). The Avril Robarts Learning Resource Centre: Liverpool John Moores University. *New Library World, 98*(1138), 258-266.

Riggs, D. E. (2000). Joint use libraries: Thinking out of the box. *College & Research Libraries, 61*(2). Retrieved May, 22, 2008, from

http://www.ala.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/acrlpubs/crljournal/backissues2000b/march00/candrlmarch2000editorial.cfm

Riggs, D. E. (2002). New Libraries remain an excellent investment. *College & Research Libraries, 63*(2). Retrieved May, 22, 2008, from http://www.acrl.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/publications/crljournal/2002/march02/candrlmarch2002editorial.cfm

Ronan, J. (2003). The reference interview on-line. *Reference & User Service Quarterly, 43*(1), 43-47.

Roos, J. P. & Rotkirch, A. (2002). *Habitus, evolution, and the end of social constructionism.* Paper presented at Nordic Sociology Conference, Reykjavik, 15-17 August 2002. Retrieved July 24, 2008 from http://www.valt.helsinki.fi/staff/jproos/Reykjavik.htm

Ross, C. S. (2003). The reference interview: Why it needs to be used in every (well, almost every) reference transaction. *Reference & User Service Quarterly, 43*(1), 38-43.

Ross, L. and Sennyey, P. (2008). The library is dead: Long live the library! The practice of academic librarianship and the digital revolution. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 34*(2), 145-152.

Rothbauer, P. (2007). Locating the library as place among lesbian, gay, bisexual, and queer patrons. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 101-115). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Rowley, J. (1997). Managing branding and corporate image for library and information services. *Library Review, 46*(4), 244-250.

Sadler, E. B. and Given, L. (2007). Affordance theory: a framework for graduate students' information behavior. *Journal of Documentation, 63*(1), 115-141.

Samson, S. and Oelz, E. (2005). The academic library as full-service information center. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 31*(4), 347-351.

Sanders, M. (2005). Paperbacks and a percolator: Fostering a sense of community in the academic library. *Mississippi Libraries, 69*(1), 5-6.

Savolainen, R. (2006). *The construction of everyday information practices*. Presentation. Retrieved August 17, 2008 from http://www.slis.tsukuba.ac.jp/rp0506/savolainen.ppt

Savolainen, R. (2007). Information behavior and information practice: Reviewing the "umbrella concepts" of information-seeking studies. *The Library Quarterly, 77*(2), 109–132.

Sayers, A. (2000). *Realism and social science.* Los Angeles: Sage.

Schmidt, J. (2007). Unlocking the library: Library design from a marketing perspective. In K. Latimer & H. Niegaard (Eds.), *IFLA library building guidelines: Developments & reflections*, pp. 55-67. München: Saur Verlag.

Schutz, A. and Luckmann, T. (1973). *The structures of the life-world.* Vols. 1 and 2. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.

Seadle, M. (2002). Editorial: The physical dimension of information space. *Library Hi Tech, 20*(1), 6-7.

Seaman, S. (2006). The library as learning environment: Space planning in an academic library. *Colorado Libraries, 32*(1), 5-7.

Searing, S. and Stover Lucht, K. (2006). The Library as Place: The changing nature and enduring appeal of library buildings and spaces. *UI Current LIS Clips.* Retrieved April 9, 2007 from http://clips.lis.uiuc.edu/2006_09P2_print.html

Seely Brown, J. (n.d.). *About John Seely Brown.* Retrieved June 2009, from http://www.johnseelybrown.com/bio.html

Seely Brown, J. and Duguid, P. (1996). Universities in the digital age. *Change: The Magazine of Higher learning, 28*, p. 17. The text of this article is also available from http://www2.parc.com/ops/members/brown/papers/university.html

Shi, C. (2004). Between concept and form: Learning from case studies. *Journal of Asian Architecture and Building Engineering, 3*(1),217-221.

Shill, H. B. and Tonner, S. (2003a). Creating a better place: physical improvements in academic libraries, 1995-2002. *College and Research Libraries, 64*(6), 431-466.

Shill, H. B. and Tonner, S. (2003b). *Does the building really matter? Facility improvement and library usage.* Presentation at the ACRL 11th National Conference, Charlotte, NC., April 12, 2003. Retrieved September 15, 2008 from http://www.ala.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/events/pdf/shill.PDF

Shill H. B. and Tonner, S. (2004). Does the building still matter? Usage patterns in new, expanded, and renovated libraries, 1995-2002. *College and Research Libraries, 65*(2), 123-150.

Simons, K., Young J., and Gibson, C. (2000). The learning library in context: Community, integration, and influence. *Research Strategies, 17*, 123-132.

Smith, A. (2008). The research libraries in the 21st century: Collecting, preserving, and making accessible resources for scholarship. In *No brief candle: Reconceiving research libraries for the 21st century* (CLIR Report, Pub. 142). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

Smith, M. L. (2006). Overcoming theory-practice inconsistencies: Critical realism and information systems research. *Information & Organization, 16*(3), 191-211.

Smith, P. and Bell, A. (2007). Unraveling the web of discourse analysis. In E. Devereux (Ed.), *Media studies: Key issues and debates* (pp. 78-100). London: Sage Publications.

Snavely, L (2000) Learning library. *Research Strategies, 17*, 79-84.

Sokal, A. and Bricmont, J. (1998). *Fashionable nonsense; Postmodern intellectuals' abuse of science.* New York: Picador.

Spencer, M. E. (2006). Evolving a New Model: The Information Commons. *Reference Services Review 34*(2), 242-247

Spencer, M. E. (2007). The state-of-the-art: NCSU Libraries Learning Commons. *Reference Services Review, 35*(2), 310-321.

Stephan, E. (2005). The academic library as place. *Mississippi Libraries, 69*(1), 3-4.

Stevenson, M. (2001). The rise and decline of state-funded community information centers: A textually oriented discourse analysis. *Canadian Journal of Information & Library Science, 26*(2/3), 51-75.

Stimson, N. F. (2007). Library change as a branding opportunity: Connect, reflect, research, discover. *College & Research Libraries News, 68*(11), 694-698.

Stoeger Wilke, J. (2006). The "library as place." *In Brief, 24* (2), 1. A publication of the Calvin T. Ryan Library, University of Nebraska at Kearney (Fall 2006). Retrieved May 14, 2008 from http://www.unk.edu/acad/library/inbrief/index.php?id=3052

Suominen, V. (2008). Social constructionism, hermeneutics, conceiving of the user and use, and the issue of the Cartesian subject. In M. L. Huotari and E. Davenport (Eds.), *From information provision to knowledge production. Proceedings of the International Conference for the Celebration of the 20th Anniversary of Information Studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Oulu, Finland, June 23-25, 2008* (pp. 175-192). Oulu, Finland: University of Oulu. Retrieved August 3, 2008 from http://herkules.oulu.fi/isbn9789514288432/isbn9789514288432.pdf.

Talja, S. (1997). Constituting "information" and 'user" as research objects: A theory of knowledge formations as an alternative to the information man-theory." In P.

Vakkari, R. Savolainen, & B. Dervin (Eds.), *Information seeking in context* (pp. 67-80). London: Taylor Graham.

Talja, S. (1999). Analyzing qualitative interview data: The discourse analytic method. *Library & Information Science Research, 21*(4), 459-477.

Talja, S. (2001). *Music, culture, and the library: An analysis of discourses.* Lanham, Md.; London: Scarecrow.

Talja, S. (2004). The social and discursive construction of computing skills. *JASIST, 56*(1), 13-22.

Talja, S., Tuominen, K., and Savolainen, R. (2005). "Isms" in information science: Constructivism, Collectivism, and Constructionism. *Journal of Documentation, 61*(1), 79-101.

Talja, S. and McKenzie, P. (2007). Introduction. In S. Talja & McKenzie (Eds.), Discursive approaches to information seeking in context [Special issue]. *Library Quarterly, 77*(2), 97–108.

Taylor, S. (2001a). Locating and conducting discourse analytic research. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, & S.J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse as data: A guide for analysis,* (pp. 5-48). London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Taylor, S. (2001b). Evaluating and applying discourse analytic research. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, & S.J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse as data: A guide for analysis,* (pp. 311-330). London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Templeton, T. C. (2008). Placing the library: An argument for the phenomenological and constructivist approach to the human geography of the library. *Library Quarterly, 78*(2), 195-209.

Tetreault, R. (2007). Beneficial spaces: The rise of military libraries in the British Empire. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 29-39). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Thélot, D. & Mayeur, N. (2004). Les mesures de sécurité et leur impact sur la construction des bibliothèques: l'exemple de la bibliothèque de l'Université Denis Diderot-ParisVII dans le bâtiment des Grands Moulins de Paris [Security measures and heir impact on the construction of libraries: the example of the library of Denis Diderot-ParisVII in the building Grands Moulins de Paris]. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003* (pp. 117-122). München: Saur Verlag.

Thomas, M. A. (2000). Redefining library space: Managing the coexistence of books, computers, and readers. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 26*(6), 408-415.

Thomas, N. P. (1996). *Reading libraries: an interpretive study of discursive practices in library architecture and the interactional construction of personal identity.* Doctoral dissertation, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey.

Thomas, N. P. (2001). Unpacking library posters: A theoretical approach. *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science, 42*(1), 42-56.

Tramdack, P. (1999). Reaction to Beagle. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 25*(2), 92-93.

Tuan, Y. F. (1974). Topophilia*: A study of environmental perception, attitudes, and values.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Tuan, Y. F. (1975). *Space and place: the perspective of experience.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Tuominen, K. (1997). User-Centered Discourse: An analysis of the subject positions of the user and the librarian. *The Library Quarterly, 67*(4), 350-371.

Tuominen, K. (2005). The social constructionist viewpoint on information practices. In K. E. Fisher, S. Erdelez, and L. McKechnie (Eds.), *Theories of information behavior* (pp. 328-331). Medford, NJ: Information Today.

Tuominen, K. and Savolainen, R. (1997). Social constructionist approach to the study of information use as discursive action. In P. Vakkari, R. Savolainen, & B. Dervin (Eds.), *Information seeking in context (ISIC): Proceedings of an International Conference on Research in Information Needs, Seeking, and Use in Different Contexts, Tampere Finland, 14-16 August 1996* (pp. 81-96). London: Taylor Graham.

Tuominen, K., Talja, S., and Savolainen, R. (2002). Discourse, cognition, and reality: towards a social constructionist metatheory for library and information science. In H. Bruce, R. Fidel, P. Ingwersen, & P. Vakkari (Eds.), *Emerging frameworks and methods COLIS 4: Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Conceptions of Library and Information Science*, Seattle, WA, July 21-25. Greenwood Village, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Tuominen, K., Talja, S., and Savolainen, R. (2003). Multiperspective digital libraries: The implications of constructionism for the development of digital libraries. *JASIST, 54*(6), 561-569.

Tuominen, K., Talja, S., and Savolainen, R. (2005). Information literacy as a sociotechnical practice. *Library Quarterly, 75*(3), 329-345.

Våren, A. (2008). Theoretical approaches on public libraries as places creating social capital. Retrieved Aug. 24, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/Programme2008.htm#11August

Van Dijk, T. (1993). Principles of critical discourse analysis. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, & S. Yates (Eds.) *Discourse theory and practice: A reader* (pp. 300-317). London; Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Originally published (1993) in *Discourse and Society, 4*, 249-283.

Van Leeuwen, T. (2008). *Discourse and Practice.* Oxford University Press.

Van Pelt, P. (2000). Putting talent to work in the creation of the learning library. *Research Strategies, 17*, 93-98.

Van Slyck, A. (2007). Managing pleasure: Library architecture and the erotics of reading. In J. Buschman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 221-234). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

Watson, L. (2007). Building the Future of Learning. *European Journal of Education, 42*(2), 255-263.

Watt, D. (2007). On becoming a qualitative researcher: The value of reflexivity. *The Qualitative Report, 12*(1), 82-101.

Waxman, L., Clemons, S., Banning, J. and McKelfresh, D. (2007). The library as place; Providing students with opportunities for socialization, relaxation, and restoration. *New Library World, 108*(9/10), 424-434.

Wetherell, M. (2001a). Themes in discourse research: The case of Diana. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, & S.J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse theory and practice: A reader* (pp. 14-28). London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Wetherell, M. (2001b). Debates in discourse research. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor, & S.J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse theory and practice: A reader* (pp. 380-399). London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Wetherell, M., Taylor, S., and Yates S. J. (Eds.) (2001a). *Discourse theory and practice: A reader.* London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Wetherell, M., Taylor, S., and Yates S. J. (Eds.). (2001b). *Discourse as data: A guide to analysis.* London; Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Whitmire, E. (2004). The campus racial climate and undergraduates' perceptions of the academic library. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy, 4*(3), 363-378

Wikgren, M. (2005). Critical realism as a philosophy and social theory in information science? *Journal of Documentation, 61*(1), 11-22.

Wiegand, W.A. (2005a). Critiquing the curriculum. *American Libraries, 36*(1), 58-61.

Wiegand, W.A. (2005b). Library as place. *North Carolina Libraries,* Fall/Winter, 76-81.

Wiegand, W.A. and Bertot, J.C. (2007). Foreword. In J.E. Buschman & G.J. Leckie (Eds.) *The library as place; History, community, and culture* (pp. vii-viii). Westport, CT; London: Libraries Unlimited.

Wills, H. (2004). An innovative approach to the non-learning public: the new Idea Stores in London. In M.F Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003* (pp. 103-116). München: Saur Verlag.

Wood, L. and Kroger, R. O. (2000). *Doing discourse analysis; Methods for studying action in talk and text.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

WorlCat (2009). *Annals of Nagoya University, Library Studies*. Last accessed April 15, 2009 from http://www.worldcat.org/wcpa/ow/82142162

Zia, L. L. (2008). Leveraging digital technologies in service to culture and society: The role of libraries as collaborators. In *No brief candle: Reconceiving research libraries for the 21st century* (CLIR Report, Pub. 142). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

APPENDIX A

Definitions of Key Terms

Term	Definition
Discourse	1. "Language use as social practice." (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 66) "Language as an element of social life ... dialectically related to other elements." (Fairclough, 2003, 214-215). Always used in the singular. 2. "The kind of language used within a specific field." (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 67) 3. Used as a count noun, it refers to "a way of speaking which gives meaning to experiences from a particular perspective." (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, pp. 66-67) Synonym for *interpretative repertoire*.
Genre	"A particular use of language which participates in, and constitutes, part of a particular social practice." (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 67) "A way of acting in its discourse aspect." (Fairclough, 2003, p. 216)

Definitions of Key Terms (continued).

Term	Definition
Interpretative repertoires	"Available [discursive] resources for making evaluations, constructing factual versions and performing particular actions." (Savolainen, 2004) This concept "emphasises that discourses are drawn on in social interaction as flexible resources . . . . [This term is preferred by analysts who] distance themselves from both postructuralist discourse analysis and conversation analysis in their unadulterated forms." (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 105)
Order of discourse	"The configuration of the discourse types which are used within an institution or a social field. Discourse types consist of discourses and genres." (Jørgensen & Phillips, 2002, p. 67) "A particular combination or configuration of *genres*, *discourses* and *styles* which constitute the discoursal aspect of a network of social practices. As such, orders of discourse have a relative stability and durability- though they do of course change." (Fairclough 2003, p. 220)
Intertextuality	"The presence within [a text] of elements of other texts" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 218). It is also called *dialogism* to reflect the fact that a dialogue is established between texts.
Interdiscursivity	The presence within a text of a mix of elements of other discourses (Fairclough, 2003, p. 218).

Definitions of Key Terms (continued).

Term	Definition
Style	Styles are “ways of being or identities in their language . . . aspect.” (Fairclough, 2003, p. 223)

APPENDIX B

Journals from which Articles Were Selected for the Literature Review

LIS Journals	Number of articles
Advances in Library Administration and Organization	1
Colorado Libraries	1
Electronic Journal of Academic and Special Librarianship	1
Journal of Library Administration	1
Journal of the Medical Library Association	1
Florida Libraries	1
Library Administration and Management	1
Library Hi Tech	2
Library Issues	1
Mississippi Libraries	2
portal: Libraries and the Academy	3
Reference Services Review	2
The Bottom Line: Managing Library Finances	1
Annals of Nagoya University, Library Studies	1
Non LIS Journals	
Educause Review	1
Planning for Higher Education	1
The Chronicle of Higher Education	1

APPENDIX C

Testing the Usability of NVivo 7 Software for Doing Discourse Analysis

My aim was to test the feasibility of annotating and "coding" large amounts of existing text. The discourse analysis literature is generally silent on the topic of coding with the exception of a short paragraph in Fairclough's *Discourse and Social Change* (1992a, p. 230). In that regard, discourse analysts are not different from other researchers using qualitative methods: coding appears to be a somewhat mysterious part of the art of doing research which is nevertheless treated in the literature as if it were unproblematic.

The first major technical hurdle I encountered was dealing with the conversion of formatted texts originally stored as PDF files into a format compatible with NVivo (".txt" or "Word" text formats for example). I had previously familiarized myself with the various NVivo functions and categories of documents that it could manage, and I had ascertained that I could use texts formatted in MSWord by doing preliminary discourse analytical work on a text that I am considering for inclusion into the corpus (Waxman et al., 2007). For that relatively short text I had coded interpretative repertoires, included notes and linked memos and other documents. To convert the text by Waxman et al. from its PDF format into a Word format, I looked for a converter, tested converting software called deskUNPDF Professional (by Docudesk), and bought it because it worked well on that document and was easy to use. However, I discovered that when text is originally formatted with titles, text boxes, and tables, as was the case with Bennett's (2003) CLIR report I was doing my pilot study with, the conversion is not straightforward. A lot of time needs to be spent reconciling the converted version of the text with the original. This involves de-formatting whenever possible, reformatting, or deleting corrupted text and

retyping entire blocks of text. I did not attempt to reconstruct tables, and it still took me about eight hours of work to transform a less than 50 pages long converted text into a text that could be imported into NVivo 7.

Next, I encountered a methodology-related problem; I struggled with devising strategies and categories for coding text. In discourse analysis, the object of study is text as such. The only categories that I could manage to identify were topics and themes that I could relate to the study of orders of discourse and interpretative repertoires. However, with such a long text sample (45 pages), trying to code orders of discourse and interpretative repertoires and establish links between them turned out to be a task infinitely more complex and difficult than it was to highlight text on a paper copy, jot handwritten comments in the margin using a personally devised color system, and consign reading notes and analytical commentary in a notebook.

First, I tried to re-enter into NVivo the analytic work I had done manually in the course of my first readings of Bennett's (2003) text. In the process, I tried to figure out how to keep the richness of analytical content added as annotations on the physical annotated document. This proved extremely difficult and the result was unsatisfactory; it lacked the immediacy of the visual representation of connections between textual analytical elements, and the depth of detail of my handwritten notes. The whole was broken down into disjointed parts that could not be readily brought together with the software's functions.

After that, I re-read text on screen to perform a close reading and textual analysis of the introduction and first chapter of Bennett's text (2003, pp. 1-6) and to attempt inserting the social back into my analysis. Progress was painfully slow and the whole

endeavor seemed counterproductive to CDA. Wondering whether the use of qualitative data analysis software was even appropriate for discourse analytical work, I stopped my piloting of NVivo and turned to the literature in search of guidance.

An article by MacMillan (2005) published in the online *Forum for Qualitative Research* provided me with explanations for the problems I had encountered and the answer to the question of software-use appropriateness in CDA. In brief, MacMillan tested NVivo and concluded that its only usefulness is to provide a document management tool by holding texts. It could be somewhat useful for searching texts for quantitative linguistic analysis and for assisting in rudimentary coding; yet, it is not suitable to organize material for "in-depth, in-context analysis" (paragraph 55) at the level required for CDA. The reason for NVivo's inadequacy is that, like other computer aided qualitative data analysis software, it has been designed for aiding in the production of grounded theory (paragraph 45). However, the main reason for steering away from using NVivo as an aid to analysis is that "in DA, the researcher should be in charge of the analysis from the moment the first document is read"; using computer aided qualitative data analysis software with DA can steer the analyst away from the task of analysis (paragraph 57).

To conclude, this fourth pilot activity was extremely helpful to me in designing my dissertation research. Moreover, MacMillan (2005) has provided me the rationale for abandoning the use of NVivo as a research tool.

APPENDIX D

Texts Reviewed for Corpus Selection

Journal articles, LIS

1. Antell, K. and Engel, D. (2006). Conduciveness to scholarship: The essence of academic library as place. *College & Research Libraries, 67*(6), 536-560.
2. Atkinson, R. (2001). Contingency and contradiction: The place(s) of the library at the dawn of the new millennium. *Journal of American Society for Information Science and Technology, 52(*1), 3-11.
3. Bailey, R. and Tierney, B. (2002). Information commons redux: Concept, evolution, and transcending the tragedy of the commons. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 28*(5), 277-286.
4. Bailey-Hainer, B. & Forsman, R. B. (2005). Redefining the future of academic libraries: When the definition of 'public good' changes. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 31*(6), 503-505.
5. Baker, B. (2000). Values for the learning library. *Research Strategies, 17*, 85-91.
6. Beagle, D. (1999). Conceptualizing an information commons. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 25*(2), 82-89.
7. Beagle, D. (2009). The learning commons in historical context. *Annals of Nagoya University, Library Studies,7*, 15-24. Retrieved April 2, 09 from http://libst.nul.nagoya-u.ac.jp/pdf/annals_07_03.pdf
8. Bennett, S. (2006). The choice for learning. *The Journal of Academic librarianship, 32*(1), 3-13.

9. Bennett, S. (2007a). First questions for designing higher education learning spaces. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 33*(1), 14-26.

10. Bennett, S. (2007b). Designing for uncertainty: Three approaches. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 33*(2), 165-179.

11. Bennett, S. (2008). The information or the learning commons: Which will we have? *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 34*(2), 183-185.

12. Bolin, M. K. (2005). The library and the computer center: Organizational patterns at land grant universities. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 31*(1), 3-11.

13. Boone, M. D. (2003). Monastery to marketplace: A paradigm shift. *Library Hi Tech, 21*(3), 358-366.

14. Boone, M.D. (2004). The way ahead: Learning cafés in the academic market place. *Library Hi Tech, 22*(3), 323-327.

15. Braverman, B. (2000). Libraries and theme parks: Strange bedfellows. *Research Strategies, 17*, 99-105.

16. Church, J. (2005). The evolving Information Commons. *Library Hi Tech, 23*(1), 75-81.

17. Connaway, L. S. (2005). Physical space for virtual services and collections. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy, 5*(1), 127-131. Accessible from http://muse.jhu.edu/journals/portal_libraries_and_the_academy/toc/pla5.1.html

18. Cowgill, A., Beam, J., and Wess, .L. (2001). Implementing an information commons in a university library. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 27*(6), 432-439.

19. Crockett, C., McDaniel, S., and Remy, M. (2002). Integrating services in the information commons; Towards a holistic library and computing environment. *Library Administration & Management, 16*(4), 181-186.

20. Dewey, B. I. (2002). Social, intellectual, and cultural spaces: Creating compelling library environments for the digital age. *Journal of Library Administration, 48*(1), 85-94.

21. Dodsworth, E. (1998). Marketing the academic library: A necessary plan. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 24*(4), 320-322.

22. Engel, D. and Antell, K. (2004). The life of the mind: a study of faculty spaces in academic libraries. *College & Research Libraries, 65*(1), 8-19.

23. Foote, S. M. (2004). Changes in library design: An architect's perspective. P*ortal: Libraries and the Academy, 4*(1), 41-59. Accessible from Project Muse, http://muse.jhu.edu

24. Forrest, C. and Hinchliffe, L. J. (2005). Beyond classroom construction and design - Formulating a vision for learning spaces in libraries. *Reference & User Services Quarterly, 44*(4), 296-300.

25. Freund, L. and Seale, C. (2007, Fall). Transforming Library West at the University of Florida: A fairy tale makeover. *Florida Libraries.*

26. Gayton, J. T. (2008). Academic libraries: "Social" or "Communal?" The nature and future of academic libraries. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 34*(1), 60-66.

27. Gust, K. J. and Haka, C. H. (2006). Bringing users back to the library: a case history. *New Library World, 107*(1222/1223), 141-148.

28. Halbert, M. (1999). Lessons from the information commons frontier. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 25*(2), 90-91.

29. Hartman, C. W. (2000). Memory palace, place of refuge, Coney Island of the mind; The evolving roles of the library in the late 20th century. *Research Strategies, 17*, 107-121.

30. Hernon, P. (2002). Editorial: First, embracing customer service and, second, moving beyond it: A client relationship. *The Journal of Academic librarianship 28*(4), 189-190.

31. Hiller, S. (2004). Measure by measure: assessing the viability of the physical library. *The Bottom Line: Managing Library Finances, 17*(4), 161-131.

32. Houlihan, R. (2005). The academic library as congenial space: more on the Saint Mary's experience. *New Library World, 106*(1208/1209), 7-15.

33. King, M. (1998). Academic library buildings for the next century: insights from the United States, *Library Automated Systems Information Exchange (LASIE), 29*(1), 21-31.

34. Kohl, D. (2006). Where's the library? *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 32*(2), 117-118.

35. Kratz, C. (2003). New realities, new relationships. Transforming the delivery of service: The joint-use library and information commons. *C & RL News, 64*(2). Retrieved May 22, 2008 from http://www.ala.org/ala/acrl/acrlpubs/crlnews/collegeresearch.cfm

36. Lefebvre, M. (2002). The library as congenial space: the Saint Mary's experience. *New Library World, 103*(1172/1173), 21-29.

37. Ludwig, L. and Starr, S. (2005). Library as place: results of a Delphi study. *Journal of the Medical Library Association, 93*(3), 315-326.

38. Malenfant, C. (2006). The information commons as a collaborative space. *Reference Services Review, 31*(2), 279-286.

39. MacWhinnie, L. A. (2002). The information commons: The academic library of the future. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy, 3*(2), 241-257.

40. Masters, D. (1994). Café Gelman: An innovative use of library space. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 19*(6), 388-390.

41. Nikkel, T. (2003). Implementing the Dalhousie Learning Commons. *Feliciter, 49* (4), 2212-14.

42. Owusu-Ansah, E. (2001). The academic library in the enterprise of colleges and universities: toward a new paradigm. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 27*(4), 282-294.

43. Pelster, N. (2000). Editorial. *Research Strategies, 17*, 77. Introductory note to an issue on the theme of the learning library.

44. Pomerantz, J. & Marchionini, G. (2007). The digital library as place. *Journal of Documentation, 63*(4), 505-533.

45. Revill, D. (1997). The Avril Robarts Learning Resource Centre: Liverpool John Moores University. *New Library World, 98*(1138), 258-266.

46. Riggs, D. E. (2002). New libraries remain an excellent investment. *College & Research Libraries, 63*(2). Retrieved May, 22, 2008, from http://www.acrl.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/publications/crljournal/2002/march02/candrlmarch2002editorial.cfm

47. Ross, L. and Sennyey, P. (2008). The library is dead: Long live the library! The practice of academic librarianship and the digital revolution. *Journal of Academic Librarianship, 34*(2), 145-152.

48. Samson, S. and Oelz, E. (2005). The academic library as full-service information center. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 31*(4), 347-351.

49. Seaman, S. (2006). The library as learning environment: Space planning in an academic library. *Colorado Libraries, 32*(1), 5-7.

50. Shill, H. B. and Tonner, S. (2003a). Creating a better place: physical improvements in academic libraries, 1995-2002. *College and Research Libraries, 64*(6), 431-466.

51. Shill H. B. and Tonner, S. (2004). Does the building still matter? Usage patterns in new, expanded, and renovated libraries, 1995-2002. *College and Research Libraries, 65*(2), 123-150.

52. Simons, K., Young J., and Gibson, C. (2000). The learning library in context: Community, integration, and influence. *Research Strategies, 17*, 123-132.

53. Snavely, L. (2000) Learning library. *Research Strategies, 17*, 79-84.

54. Spencer, M. E. (2006). Evolving a New Model: The Information Commons. *Reference Services Review 34*(2), 242-247

55. Spencer, M. E. (2007). The state-of-the-art: NCSU Libraries Learning Commons. *Reference Services Review, 35*(2), 310-321.

56. Stephan, E. (2005). The academic library as place. *Mississippi Libraries, 69*(1), 3-4.

57. Stimson, N. (2007). Library change as a branding opportunity: Connect, Reflect, Research, Discover. *C & RL News 68*(11), 694-698.

58. Thomas, M.A. (2000). Redefining library space: Managing the coexistence of books, computers, and readers. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 26*(6), 408-415.

59. Tramdack, P. (1999). Reaction to Beagle. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 25*(2), 92-93.

60. Van Pelt, P. (2000). Putting talent to work in the creation of the learning library. *Research Strategies, 17*, 93-98.

61. Waxman, L., Clemons, S., Banning, J., and McKelfresh, D. (2007). The library as place; Providing students with opportunities for socialization, relaxation, and restoration. *New Library World, 108*(9/10), 424-434.

Journal articles, non LIS

62. Acker, S. R. and Miller, M. D. (2005). Campus learning spaces: Investing in how students learn. *ECAR (Educause Center for Applied Research) Research Bulletin, 2005*(8).

63. Davenport, N. (2006, January/February). Place as library? *Educause Review.*

64. O'Connor, R.A. & Bennett, S. (2005). The power of place in learning. *Planning for Higher Education, 33*, 28-30.

Articles and essays not in journals

65. Antell, K. and Engel, D. (2007). Stimulating space, serendipitous space: Library as place in the life of the scholar. In J. Bushman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as Place: History, Community and Culture* (pp. 163-176). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

66. Beagle, D. (2004). From information commons to learning commons. *Leavey Library 2004 Conference. Information Commons: Learning Space beyond the classroom, Los Angeles, CA.* Retrieved November 23, 2008 from http://www.usc.edu/isd/libraries/locations/leavey/news/conference/presentations/presentations_9-16/Beagle_Information_Commons_to_Learning.pdf.

67. Bennett, S. (2003). Libraries designed for learning. In S. Bennett. *Libraries designed for learning* (CLIR, Report, Pub. 122). Washington DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

68. Bennett, S. (2005). Righting the balance. In *Library as place: Rethinking roles, rethinking space* (CLIR Report, Pub. 129, pp. 10-24). Washington DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

69. Bjarrum, C. and Cranfield, A. (2004). The future is now – library re-engineering in the 21st century. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library*

Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003 (pp. 39-63). München: Saur Verlag.

70. Courant (2008). The future of the library in the research university. In *No brief candle: Reconceiving research libraries for the 21st century* (CLIR Report, Pub. 142). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

71. Dowlin, K. (2004). The library as place: Challenges in the digital age. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003* (pp. 11-37). München: Saur Verlag.

72. Given, L. M. (2007). Setting the stage for undergraduate' information behaviors: Faculty and librarians' perspectives on academic space. In J. Bushman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 177-189). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

73. Jackson, H. and Hahn, T. B. (2008). *The library as sacred place: Applying the psychology of religion to the academic library as a sanctified space and implications for measurement and evaluation*. Presentation at the IFLA 2008 Conference. Retrieved Aug. 24, 2008 from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla74/Programme2008.htm#11August

74. Mann, T. (2007). The research library as place; On the essential importance of collections of books shelved in subject-classified arrangements. In J.

Bushman & G. Leckie (Eds.), *Library as place: History, community and culture* (pp. 191-206). Westport, Conn.: Libraries Unlimited.

75. Martin, D. (2004). Supporting independent learning: the pioneering new design at the University of Hertforshire. In M.F. Bisbrouck, J. Desjardins, C. Ménil, F. Poncé, & F. Rouyer-Gayette, (Eds.), *Libraries as places: Buildings for the 21st century. Proceedings of the 13th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section co-organised with IFLA's Public Libraries Section-Paris, France, 2003* (pp. 73-88). München: Saur Verlag.
76. McDonald, A. (2007). The top ten qualities of good library space. In K. Latimer & H. Niegaard (Eds.), *IFLA library building guidelines: Developments & reflections*, pp.13-29.München: Saur Verlag.
77. Meernik, M. (2004). *Library as place: Library users speak up*. LibQUAL + Survey Findings. Ypsilanti, MI: Eastern Michigan University, Bruce T. Halle Library. Retrieved February, 17, 2008 from http://www.emich.edu/halle/libqual_articles_library_as_place.html
78. Mountifield, H. (2003). Learning …… with a latte. The Kate Edger Information Commons- providing student-centered learning support. *EDUCAUSE in Australasia*. Retrieved June 30, 2009 from http://www.information-commons.auckland.ac.nz/content_files/publications/educause_article.pdf
79. Searing, S. and Stover Lucht, K. (2006). The Library as Place: The changing nature and enduring appeal of library buildings and spaces. *UI Current LIS*

Clips. Retrieved April 9, 2007 from http://clips.lis.uiuc.edu/2006_09P2_print.html

80. Schmidt, J. (2007). Unlocking the library: Library design from a marketing perspective. In K. Latimer & H. Niegaard (Eds.), *IFLA library building guidelines: Developments & reflections*, pp. 55-67. München: Saur Verlag.
81. Shill, H. B. and Tonner, S. (2003b). *Does the building really matter? Facility improvement and library usage.* Presentation at the ACRL 11th National Conference, Charlotte, NC., April 12, 2003. Retrieved September 15, 2008 from http://www.ala.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/events/pdf/shill.PDF
82. Smith, A. (2008). The research libraries in the 21st century: Collecting, preserving, and making accessible resources for scholarship. In *No brief candle: Reconceiving research libraries for the 21st century* (CLIR Report, Pub. 142). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.
83. Stoeger Wilke, J. (2006). The "library as place". *In Brief, 24* (2), 1. A publication of the Calvin T. Ryan Library, University of Nebraska at Kearney (Fall 2006). Retrieved May 14, 2008 from http://www.unk.edu/acad/library/inbrief/index.php?id=3052
84. Wegner, G. and Zemsky, R. (2006). *Changing roles of the academic and research libraries.* Essay derived from Roundtable on Technology and Change in Academic Libraries, convened by the Association of College and Research Libraries (ACRL) on November 2-3, 2006 in

Chicago. Retrieved May 3, 2008, from http://www.ala.org/ala/mgrps/divs/acrl/issues/future/changingroles.cfm

Monographs and collected works.

85. Bailey, R., and Tierney, B. (2008). *Transforming library service through information commons: case studies for the digital age.* Chicago: American Library Association.

86. Beagle, D. (2006). The information commons handbook. New York, NY: Neal-Schuman Publishers.

87. Bisbrouck, M.F. (Ed.). (2001). *Library buildings in a changing environment. Proceedings of the 11th Seminar of IFLA's Library Buildings and Equipment Section- Shanghai, China, 1999.* München: Saur Verlag.

88. CLIR (2002). *Diffuse libraries: Emergent roles for the research library in the digital age* (CLIR Report, Pub. 108). Washington DC: Council on Libraries and Information Resources.

89. CLIR (2003). *Libraries designed for learning* (CLIR, Report, Pub. 122). Washington DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

90. CLIR (2005). *Library as place: Rethinking roles, rethinking space* (CLIR Report, Pub. 129). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

91. CLIR (2008). *No brief candle: Reconceiving research libraries for the 21st century* (CLIR Report, Pub. 142). Washington, DC: Council on Library and Information Resources.

92. Leighton, P. D. and Weber, D. C. (1999). *Planning academic and research library buildings* (3rd ed.). Chicago: American Library Association.

93. McCabe, G.B. and Person, R.J. (Eds.). (1995). *Academic libraries; Their rationale and role in American higher education: Contribution in librarianship and information science, No 84*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.

APPENDIX E

Example of Textual Analysis.

Data/Text: Beagle, D. (1999). Conceptualizing an information commons. *Journal of Academic Librarianship, 25*(2), 82-89.

The version of this text I was first able to access was a text only html file, it did not reproduce the layout of the original article. I was then able to access a PDF version though our library database.

SOCIAL LEVEL OF ANALYSIS

How Does this Text Figure Within and Contribute to Social Action and Interaction?

Participants/Agency

Writer. Beagle was at the time Associate Director of library services & Head of the Information Commons, at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte.

This information about the writer is given at the bottom of left column, as an insert set in italics below the text of the abstract.

Audience. Readers targeted belong to the same professional group as the author (i.e., library professionals in the area of academic librarianship, academic library administrators and managers). This is made clear by the repeated use of the pronoun "we" by the author, which brings him and his audience together in the same community of discourse.

In effect, controlled vocabulary used in the *Library Literature and Information Full Text* database as subject descriptors for this article employs the terms: College and University Libraries and Architecture & Building

Other participants called upon. Persons explicitly named in text:

Gertrude Himmelfarb – **reported speech/writing, directly reported**

INTERTEXTUALITY

John Henderson and N. Venkatraman – they are both Boston University School of Management scholars and have published extensively on strategic alignment between business and technology, and on information technology and knowledge management. Henderson is at present Richard C. Shipley Professor at Boston University's School of Management. He is also the Director, Institute for Global Work, Information Systems Department (from current faculty profile webpage accessed Feb. 13, 2009 at http://smgnet.bu.edu/mgmt_new/profiles/HendersonJohn.html); Venkatraman is at present David J. McGrath, Jr. Professor in Management, Strategy and Innovation (http://smgnet.bu.edu/mgmt_new/profiles/VenkatramanN.html). **The profession and academic credentials of these called-upon participants gives authority to Beagle's words. Moreover both participants are recognized voices in the discourse on information technology and systems management, and their belonging to a prestigious school of Management gives truth value to the theory of Strategic Alignment they developed and which Beagle calls upon to explain the reorganization of the academic library to include information commons.**

Another participant called upon in the body of the text is ***Charlene Hurt*** whose words are quoted (Section titled "The Physical Space", paragraph 3. p. 85, col. 3, l. 21).

Hurt was university librarian at Georgia State University at the time of publication of the article/text/speech referred to. **Referred speech. Direct reporting.**

INTERTEXTUALITY

Other participants called upon are ***John Seely Brown and Paul Duguid*** (1996) authors of the now famous "The social life of information" (2000). **Referred speech.**

Seeley Brown is "Chief Scientist of Xerox Corporation and the Director of its Palo Alto Research Center (PARC) . . . . [and] a co-founder of the Institute for Research on Learning, a non-profit institute for addressing the problems of lifelong learning. He is a member of the National Academy of Education and a Fellow of the American Association for Artificial Intelligence. He also serves on numerous advisory boards and boards of directors." (From his vita on line, accessed Feb. 13, 09 from http://www2.parc.com/ops/members/brown/cv.html)

Paul Duguid is "Research Associate in Social and Cultural Studies at the University of California, Berkeley and consultant at Xerox Palo Alto Research Center." (From his vita on line, accessed Feb. 14, 09 from http://www2.parc.com/ops/members/brown/pduguid.html)

Text referred to "Universities in the digital age" (PDF on file). **→→"truth value"**

Other named participants are authors named only in "Notes and References"; they include ***Adams J. A. & Bonk, S. C.*** (1995); ***Fasick, A. M.*** (1995); ***Holmes-Wong, D. et al.*** (1997); and ***Meyer, R. W.*** (1997).

Purpose of calling upon references is to establish authority by giving "truth value" to statements ←CLAIM TO TRUTH (Fairclough, 2003, p. ?).

Unnamed participants are called upon when the writer quotes from non published planning documents from the University of Toronto (p. 85, col. 1 & 2) and planning documents from the University of Arizona available online (p. 85, col. 3 & p. 86, col. 1). However for the U. of Toronto doc. A reference is given at the end of the paper naming B. Biderman.... *Note: in both cases the elaboration of these documents is the result of the activities of a group of unnamed participants.*

Writer's actions

Writing. Writing (of the text under study) follows the writer's lived experience in the professional life-world of academia and the physical and professional context of the academic library at UNC Charlotte (named in text, p. 83, col. 3, l. 7). It is partially based on observation of the academic library environment and its social practices (i.e. work of participants in the academic lib community of practice), analytic reflection, synthesis and critique of existing practices.

Interpreting. The writer interprets elements of the empirical [strata of the] reality of the life-worlds of academic librarianship and academic library administration.

Reference to real life examples at the University of Southern California (USC, p. 82)) UNC Charlotte (pp.82, 83), at the University of Michigan (p. 82), at George Mason

university (p. 82), at SUNY (p. 85), and at the University of Arizona (p. 85). **Related to experiential values?**

Knowledge production. Writing aims to produce knowledge. That knowledge could be used for future decision making and action in the context of academic library architectural planning and design (see controlled vocabulary: "architecture and building" as descriptor in Library Lit & InfoSci) and more precisely the planning and design of information or learning commons to be incorporated in academic libraries (as per descriptor "learning common" and key word "information commons").

Exercising power/ Convincing **???** By borrowing theory from the world of management the writer adds truth value to his claims; it allows him to state what is needed with more authority (and to make predictions).

Action in empirical strata of reality involving other agents

Potentially changing action of specific agents. The text figures as a call for action that needs to come from within the realms of academic librarianship and academic life. It has the potential to contribute to the actions of library administrators and library planning and design committees. **There is no mention of architects here!**

Desired action to be taken by academic library managers is "an organizational realignment from print to digital environment" that is necessary for the planning, design, and implementation of Information Commons "as conceptual, physical, and instructional space[s]" (p. 82, Abstract inset).

Modification of the traditional library service model for a new service model (the IC) that prepares students to the "new paradigm of knowledge management" (p. 88, col. 3, l. 33-36).

"Empower[ing] library professionals to redefine the roles that they play in this rapidly changing and sometimes bewildering world." (p. 88, col. 3, l. 43-45)

CRITICAL INTERPRETATION: This is a clearly expressed attempt at convincing library professionals of the power they have to redefine themselves and to redefine the library to construct new identities n order to avoid obsolescence, disappearing, or extinction. IDENTITY REDEFINITION is a pervasive aim of the text. The theme alluded to is the theme "if we don't adapt we disappear" which is a **theme in the discourse of modernity and the digitalization of the information society.**

Knowledge production/Transferring information/Communicating. The text is an article published in the *Journal of Academic Librarianship*. The journal is published by Elsevier and described on the publisher's website in the following manner

> *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, an international and refereed journal, publishes articles that focus on problems and issues germane to college and university libraries. *JAL* provides a forum for authors to present research findings and, where applicable, their practical applications and significance; analyze policies, practices, issues, and trends; speculate about the future of academic librarianship; present analytical bibliographic essays and philosophical treatises. *JAL* also brings to the attention of its readers information about hundreds of new

and recently published books in library and information science, management, scholarly communication, and higher education. *JAL*, in addition, covers management and discipline-based software and information policy developments. http://www.elsevier.com/wps/find/journaldescription.cws_home/620207/description#description

The text is an element of knowledge production and information transfer practices associated with professional and scholarly activities of academic librarians [information creation, diffusion, dissemination, and use of scientific knowledge]. Therefore the text is part of communication/information transfer activities between a LIS scholar and other scholars. This **text is also networked** in the same journal issue with two texts on the topic of information commons by two other scholars: Halbert and Tramdack. The three texts are engaged in a "dialogue". **INTERTEXTUALITY.** The text is **part of a chain/network of texts and events, i.e. writing events whose products are collocated in the same issue of a professional journal. The texts in the chain were selected by the editors to be published together.**

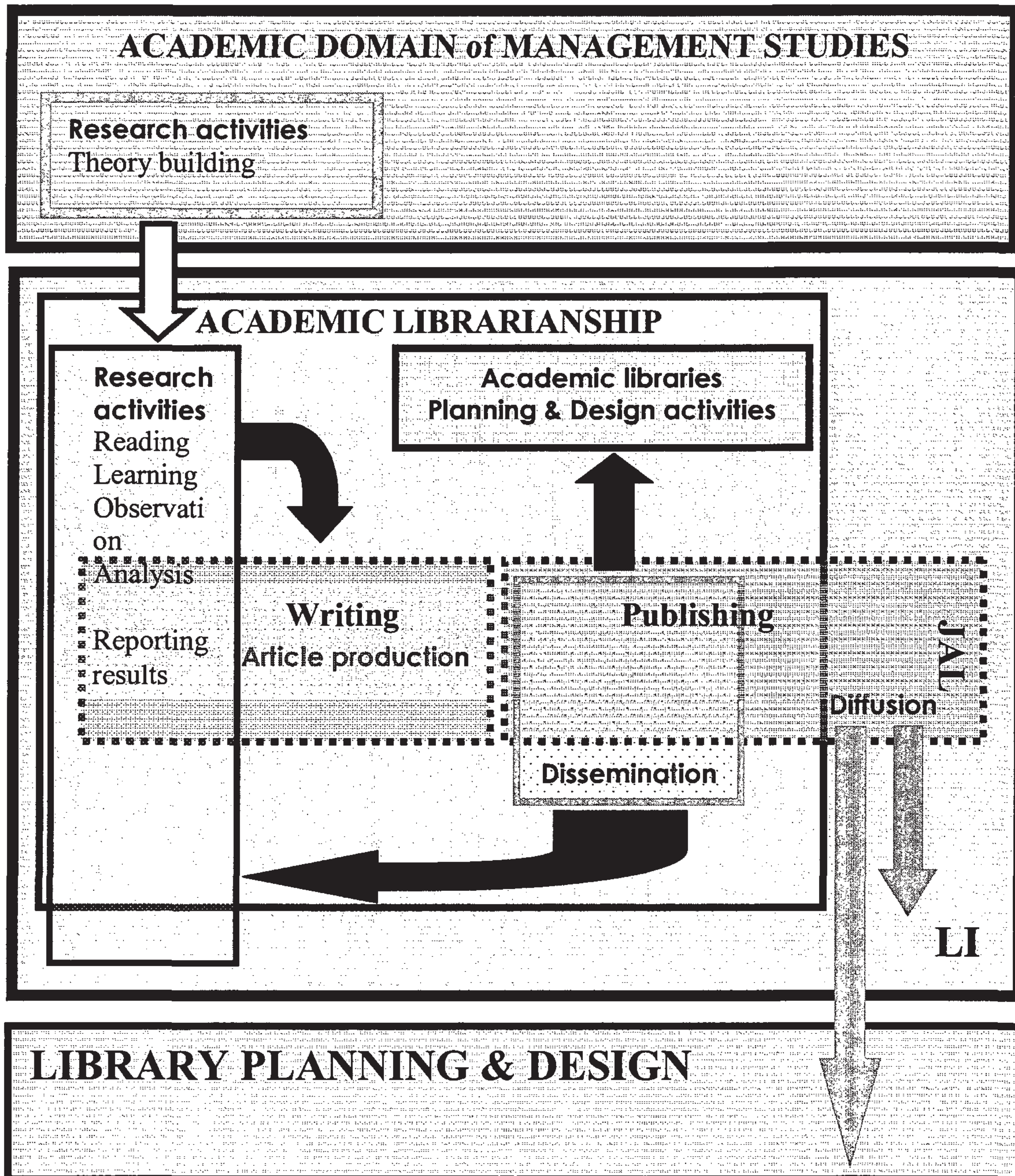
The text is as well part of communication/information transfer activities within one community of discourse in LIS, that of academic librarianship. It is a vehicle for communication/information transfer and intellectual interaction, between a practitioner (he is librarian emeritus) and practitioners about a particular aspect of the life-world (Lebenswelt) of academic librarianship that involves activities (planning, designing, and building academic libraries, theorizing about the value of the physical library, theorizing about needed change) , artifacts (library buildings), and concepts (of library service, library's role and function).

CRITICAL INTERPRETATION Because it is written by a prominent voice of the academic library discourse community, this text can have a powerful effect of persuasion

The text is also **endowed with authority** because of its diffusion and dissemination by a major publisher, ELSEVIER, which also covers 13 other LIS journal titles.

Network of Activities and Social Communities Surrounding Text

From the perspective of its processes of production and consumption (in terms of reach, audience, and audience activities related to text topic)



TEXTUAL LEVEL OF ANALYSIS

Genres and Action

Discoursal aspect of ways of acting and interacting

Pre-genres: Narrative, Argument

Disembedded genres: Position paper/scholarly essay

Situated genres: LIS scholarly journal article

The text is an essay written in the ***rhetorical style of a position paper*** that presents an argument; it also incorporates elements of less formal narrative and descriptive styles in the presentation of illustrative examples.

Writing follows the rules of ***scholarly writing*** by referencing works by other authors: a) from inside the LIS discourse community including other articles reporting on previous studies by the writer that were based on empirical data **INTERTEXTUALITY**; b) From outside the LIS discourse community reference to works by authors in the management community of practice (knowledge management and IT systems management, as well as organization management) and in the area of education and IT use. **INTERDISCURSIVITY & INTERTEXTUALITY.**

Visual illustrations: 5 figures representing abstract models that support the text but require reading the text simultaneously in order to be understood. **Figures are highly abstract, not self explanatory…**

This text is **not interconnected with other texts by Beagle.**

Narrative genre

The text presents the point of view of the author. Based on analysis of real world situation and existing discourses. **Experiential value of content.**

The tone is formal: scholarly essay and theory/model building activity. **The text is dominated by knowledge exchange (Fairclough, 2003, p. 110) from writer to reader. Knower-initiated knowledge exchange, consisting mostly of statements. Statements are pervasively evaluative; the text implicitly evaluates the desirability of integrating/building information commons in academic libraries in the future.**

But the text also represents the information commons as organizational concept and as physical space; it advocates the information commons as the kind of space that needs to be build to support the mission of the library (i.e. serve referral needs and services specifically related to access to and use of digital information) while providing technology support; and finally it anticipates to some extent the organizational changes necessary for the success o information commons planning, design, and operation.

The grammatical mood is predominantly declarative with the exception of 1 true question that serves to introduce the argument of the text, and construct the discourse.

Question is: "How do we adapt an institution that has grown up around the print tradition to manage service delivery in the highly complex and fluid digital environment?" (p. 82, col. 2, l. 45-47, col. 3, l. 1)

The text answers the question as the writer puts it clearly: "this article will explore that question by viewing the Information Commons through the lens of a management theory called Strategic Alignment" (p. 82, col. 3, l. 2-5).

The text provides "a conceptual map of…[the] process of integration and realignment." (p. 83, col. 2, l. 28-30) **STRATEGIC ACTION** (Fairclough, 2006, pp. 66, 110)

The text is part of a chain of events with a hoped for outcome (the adoption of the writer's ideas and real life action following his recommendations). (Fairclough, 2006, p. 110) **STRATEGIC ACTION**

Argument genre

(Fairclough, 2003, p. 81): generic structure of an argument: Grounds, Warrants, Backing, Claims.

The text's argument here can be summarized as follows:

- we have been building information commons and a model is emerging (Grounds);
- we need to build understand how to plan, design, build and operate information commons in the future/from now on (Warrant);
- strategic alignment theory can help (Backing)

- changes should be made in the way library planning and design projects are conceived of : realignment must happen (Claims)

Meaning relations

There is a **RELATION OF DIFFERENCE** established between the traditional library and the information commons.

- the traditional library (p. 83, col.3, l. 1-2 and fig. 1; p. 85, col.1, l. 26) that "has grown up around the print tradition" (p. 82, col. 2, l. 46), is aligned with traditions of print scholarship and bibliography (p. 83, col. 3, l. 1-4), with its 'high profile desks devoted to reference and circulation" (p. 85, col. 1, l. 28-29),
  - **subtext**: is outmoded, old fashioned, its time has gone, it needs to be modernized
  - **assertion**: it needs to be realigned with modern information technology uses and services to better serve the needs of students and faculty
  - **subtext**: and to serve the needs of librarians who must show adaptation to new conditions in order to survive
- the information commons which manages "service delivery in the highly complex and fluid digital environment" (p. 82, col. 2, l. 47) with its "core of digital information services and resources (p. 83, col. 3, l. 26-27), and its "general information and referral desk. . . [functioning as a] first point of contact and general help center" (p. 85, col. 3, l. 23-25)

- **subtext**: is the modern and trendy thing to do to modernize the library. Serve better the users, and serve better the librarians ←←self serving motivation is more or less explicit: "The same Information Commons … can also empower library professionals to redefine the roles that they play in this rapidly changing and bewildering world." (p. 88, col. 3, l. 42-45)

CLASSIFICATION. It corresponds to a process of classification (Fairclough, 2006, p. 100) old vs. new; traditional vs. unconventional/forward looking; past/future...

EVALUATION. But there is also a process of moral evaluation: the information commons is better than the traditional library which cannot cope with "the highly complex and fluid digital environment" (p. 82, col. 3, l. 1) or with the "rapidly changing and bewildering world" (p.88, col.3, l. 44-45)

IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION. Constructs audience of librarians as bewildered

Discoursal aspect of ways of being/Identification/Constitutive effect of discourse

RELATIONAL VALUES OF WORDS

We, our = SOLIDARITY

The writer/author is present in the text as part of a group. He brings himself and the audience together in the same group as reflected by the use of the pronouns *we*, when he asks the question that serves as an introduction to the topic of the paper. The question asked can be simply put as: How do we adapt the traditional library institution of yesterday to the digital environment of today? (p. 82, col. 2, l. 45).

Implication, "this is something we will do together." It assumes 1) change/adaptation is needed, and 2) the audience wants to adapt that's why they are reading.

Except for this instance, the writer does not otherwise engage the reader(s) in a dialogue. The author/writer lectures/pontificates???

The writer is **the knower/knowing**, he is **the teacher** and the audience is lectured/taught it is and audience of **learners.**

He presents statements as truths. When using we in "what we are moving towards is shown by the large external circle in Figure 4" the writer implies again a kind of association with the community of librarians/the audience but he positions himself has the one who knows the way… **the leader**. He makes a prediction too: **the seer**

AUTHORITY.

However the use of *we* in the text also expresses the author's self-attribution/appropriation of the **power to speak for the group**; that is the writer (or text?) is making an **implicit authority claim** (Fairclough, 2001, p. 103).

Interpretative work

The writer reports speech in the form text written by Biderman (p. 85, col. 1, l. 33-35; col. 2, l. 1-15) , cited in reference list, and from Hurt (p. 85, col. 2, l. 22-29; col. 3, l. 1-10).

Call for authority backing. **Authority claim, RELATIONAL MODALITY**

Expressive value exhibited in the use of "the new importance" (p. 85, col. 1, l. 23 & l. 29-30, and p. 85, col. 3, l. 11) and "another key feature" (p. 85, col. 2, l. 16) → the author shows what should be seen by the readers: the new importance of the information desk (p. 85, col. 1, l. 23 & 29-30) and of "the networked collaborative study room" (p. 85, col. 3, l. 11), and that key spaces of information commons are "coordinated and extended set[s] of study and workspaces" (p. 85, col. 2, l. 17-18). **Positions himself as 'in the know", as teacher? Positions the reader as not knowing: IDENTITY BUILDING**

SOCIAL IDENTITY: Writer as teacher ← writer's social identity. This implies that the reader is constructed as not knowing and needing teaching/guidance

<u>EXPRESSIVE VALUE OF WORDS</u>

In the text **expressive value** (value judgments) **in regard to information technology (IT) and digital environment** is exhibited in the use of superlatives and a set of qualifying adjectives

"highly complex and fluid digital environment" (p 82, col. 2. l. 47, and col. 3, l. 1);

"unique management challenges and demands of information technology" (p. 82, col. 3, l. 8-9)

"the rapidly evolving digital environment" (p. 83, col. 2, l. 28)

"users of digital services have a more extensive and more rapidly changing set of service needs than do users of print." (p. 84, col. 1, l. 11-13). In addition here there is a differentiation between two types of users and an implied valuing of new digital media v. traditional print media…

"The rapidly changing needs of a highly demanding user community" (p. 88, col. 2, l. 37-38). The implication is that the users needs change rapidly because of IT adoption.

"this rapidly changing and sometimes bewildering world" (p. 88, col. 3, l. 44-45). It is implicitly understood that the word is *bewildering* for library professionals because of the rapid changes in user needs, because of rapid changes in technology.

In regard to traditional library values and services:

"In traditional academic libraries…high profile desks devoted to reference and circulation" (p. 85, col. 1, l. 28-29)

"The vital tradition of print scholarship and bibliography" (p. 84, col. 2, l. 12-14) here there is an effort to include in the discussion/to not alienate traditional librarians.

Critical. Text gives an opinion; it is positioned

The writer's position is that the Information Commons is a correct response to much needed strategic realignment of the academic library institution if it wants to survive in an academic environment that is driven by a marketized approach to management.

Strategic action. *Argumentative/ Ideological?*

(Fairclough, 2003, p. 110: Part II Genres and action. Ch. 6, Exchange speech, function and mood.)

The text/writer makes an argument. The modality is a claim to truth and knowledge.

1. It asks a question and then answers it. The question is rhetorical and seems to initiate a dialogue/interaction with the reader/audience.

Descriptive/expository?

The text describes/explains strategic alignment, strategic fit, and then the conceptualization of information commons as a response to a necessary strategic re-alignment of academic libraries with ITs and the new digital environment.

MY CRITIQUE

Prescriptive

Writer prescribes strategic realignment as a design and planning approach for information commons.

RELATIONAL VALUE: Ordering,

Writer also makes recommendations for the physical space to incorporate the following key features

"a general information and referral desk" (p. 85, col. 1, l. 23-24)

"[a]set of study and workspaces offering an array of options ranging from traditional individual study to collaborative conference areas." (p. 85, col. 2, l. 17-21).

EPISTEMIC MODALITY (knowledge exchange) → **position of power of the author: he knows what needs to be done.**

Interpretative work

The writer/author commits himself to truth claims (Fairclough, 2006, p. 167). He constructs his identity as that of expert (Fairclough, 2006, p. 166).

The text functions as a series of **statements and the question** is part of **engaging in a knowledge exchange**, it is are not a real question but rather a rhetorical question used to make assertions.

Reported speech serves to establish the **reliability** of the claims/statements (backing up).

Quoting Hurt →gives **legitimacy** to the recommendation for varied types of study and workspaces in Information Commons (p. 85, col.2, l. 22-29).

Quoting Seely Brown and Duguid →gives **legitimacy** to the view that traditional academic reference desk was adapted to an old fashioned/dated delivery view of education (p. 88, col. 2, l. 48-55, col.3, l. 1-11)

In addition there is an implicit evaluation of judgment of the value of Hurt's assessment of library users' spatial/environmental needs (p. 85) and Seely Brown & Duguid's constructionist view of education and knowledge (p. 88). The **modality is deontic/affects mental process**. (Fairclough, 2006, p. 175) i.e. Beagle finds what Hurt and Seely Brown & Duguid say helpful.

Themes

Information commons

Strategic Alignment

Organization management

Action

Action is ***strategic*** (Fairclough, 2003, Ch. 4-6).

- The text aims at convincing a primary audience of academic librarians and academic library managers, that the traditional roles of academic libraries should be evaluated and that new roles and services should be incorporated and as a result of strategic alignment that information commons should be planned, and designed in response to IT development and the new digital environment.

MY CRITIQUE

Structural Analysis

Interactional Analysis

Ways of Acting throughout the Text?

What is being done discursively? Textual interaction & Textural work

- Setting up the stage for discourse construction via the title of the essay
- Writer's identification/Author's positioning: university library administrator, ← Left column p. 82, bottom of the page inset: author's title positions him as an administrator website address locates the author in space time. IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIAL ACTOR
- Audience identification: ← use of "We", the author positions himself among an audience of peers: other university library administrators. Aim/goal: the author addresses the audience as peers, colleagues, sense of fraternity, of belonging to a community of practice and of like-minded people… "comrades" IDENTIFICATION OF SOCIAL ACTORS
- Topic identification and general outline of the argument: We must adapt to a bewildering world where the library need to evolve in complex and fluid digital environment.

EXPLANATORY CRITIQUE/INTERPRETATION

INTERPRETATION/EXPLANATION.

The LIS discourse of the user-oriented paper-based library service paradigm is reconstructed as outdated and inadequate to "prepare students for the new world of corporate learning organizations" (p. 88, col. 3, l. 57-59).

What is constructed are two types of library spaces: one as out-dated summoning images of the "high profile reference desk" (p. 85, col. 1,l. 28), "traditional academic reference desk excell[ing] at delivering discrete facts and chunks of information I response to specific requests" (p. 88, col. 2, l. 39-42); and one as a vision of the desirable future, where information is contextualized and where information is shaped through group processes into knowledge, which is itself managed, all within the confines of the information commons.

Two images of education are also constructed: one traditional and outmoded is instruction based, and the other focusing on the dynamic process of learning.

The main activity of the text is the construction of the library as a new learning place preparing students to the learning organizations of the corporate world (p. 88).

MY CRITIQUE. From the viewpoint of an architect in this text the discussion of the physical space is not helpful because the text focuses on the functions of spaces and environmental elements (the information cum reference desk) rather than on their qualitative environmental characteristics.

Critique

The most important effect of the "information commons" discourse as it is developed in this essay is that it constitutes desirable/necessary change as a change of approach to organizational planning and management and not a change of approach to architecture and design. Despite the indication given by the controlled vocabulary used to describe the subject of this article.

ANALYTICAL QUESTIONS

Do we have a text which we can see as being primarily oriented to activity exchange but which is written as if it were oriented to knowledge exchange? (Fairclough, 2006, p. 111)

Yes, I think we can say that. Beagle presents a conceptual model of an information commons; however, the aim of the text is to convince readers (unnamed participants) other librarians or library managers to adopt a planning approach borrowed from theory developed in the field of management.

APPENDIX F

Annotated Bibliography of Programming Texts

The following annotated bibliography is intended to provide LIS readers with an overview of a limited set of standard texts on architectural programming. The texts presented here were selected based on the author's educational and professional experience in programming and consultation with Professor Carolyn Thompson (private conversations, July 28-29, 2009) verified that those texts discuss an array of programming approaches that partially overlap and constitute complementary sources. Thompson, who has been teaching programming in the College of Architecture, Planning, and Design at Kansas State University, favors the Problem Seeking programming method introduced by Peña in the late 1960s (Peña & Focke, 1969; Peña & Parshall, 2001); it is the approach that she used in her professional practice. To teach architectural programming she relied principally on Cherry (1999), Hershberger (1999), and Peña and Parshall (2001), and used Duerk (1993) as a reference; however, she found Duerk (1993) lacking in clarity and being too difficult a text for undergraduate students novice at programming. Thompson recommends Hershberger (1999) as an introductory text to explain the programming process to students and clients alike.

Bibliography

Cherry, E. (1999). *Programming for Design: From Theory to Practice.* New York: Wiley.

A professor of architecture at the University of New Mexico and a principal in the firm Cherry/See Architects, Edith Cherry had been teaching architectural programming for 25 years when she wrote this introductory book for upper-level

architecture students and architects and planners seeking to update their skills. Cherry's approach to programming was influenced by Peña & Focke's *Problem Seeking* (1969). The model she proposes has six steps:

1) Researching the background ,

2) Identifying goals and objectives,

3) Gathering and Analyzing information,

4) Identifying programmatic strategies,

5) Establishing quantitative requirements,

6) Synthesizing the design problem statements.

The book provides a theoretical base (Part I); then, illustrating programmatic steps and programming techniques with examples from case studies, it takes the reader through a step by step programming exercise (Part II). Numerous illustrations make the text accessible to those with little experience with the design process; marginal and end notes help introduce finer points of detail and provide further references for those who want to learn more.

Duerk, D. P. (1993). ***Architectural Programming. Information Management for Design.*** **New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.**

Donna Duerk has been a professor in the College of Architecture and Environmental Design at California Polytechnic Institute in San Luis Obispo since 1981. Her book is a how-to text book written for advanced architecture students already familiar with the design process. It describes a step-by-step process for gathering and organizing programmatic information and presenting it.

Duerk's approach to programming shows the influence of Peña's Problem Seeking model. Her organizing framework articulates Facts, Values, Goals, Performance Requirements and Concepts according to basic units of analysis she calls Design Issues (privacy, security, territoriality, image, maintenance, physical comfort, audibility, visibility, clients dreams, etc.). First, the text introduces definitions, principles, and how-to descriptions of programming stages (Part I). Then it discusses theory, methods and techniques of programming, and case studies (Part II). Numerous illustrations are incorporated in the text; however, they sometimes provoke a sense of visual overload and are not always illuminating.

Hershberger, R. (1999). ***Architectural Programming and Predesign Manager.*** **New York: McGraw-Hill.**

Robert Hershberger, is an architect and planner who was a professor at the University of Arizona in Tucson when he wrote this book. Architecture students and practitioners wishing to learn the philosophical basis and methodology for architectural programming constitute the primary audience for this book. Various programming approaches are described. For Hershberger, the identification of values (of the client, user, architect, and society) represents an important first step prior to starting the programming process. He sets up the relationships between values and an array of design issues to be considered. Having established the context for the preparation of the architectural program, the author discusses fundamental programming methods, techniques, and tools used in practice, as

well as how to prepare the program document. Hershberger also proposes methods for the evaluation of the programming process.

This book provides a comprehensive overview of architectural programming in theory and practice; the numerous illustrations are a useful complement to the text. The exercises included at the end of each chapter are most useful; they help the reader apply and test newly acquired knowledge.

Moleski, W. H. (1978). Environmental programming for human needs. In W. F. E. Preiser (Ed.) *Facility Programming Methods and Applications*, pp. 107-126. Stroudsburg, PA: Dowden, Hutchinson & Ross.

Walter Moleski is an architect, facilities programmer, and the founder of the Environmental Research Group; he has made important contributions to the field of facility programming through the incorporation of environmental psychology and the consideration of users' values. The author also teaches at Drexel University. Moleski views the designed environment as a series of behavior settings designed to fulfill physiological, behavioral, and mental functions This essay introduces elements of environmental psychology and a model that puts into relationship environmental needs, functions of the environment, and behavior.

The author's approach to programming consists of three phases:

1) problem statement (awareness of the problem's context and background),

2) data collection, organization, and analysis (diagnosis),

3) evaluation of needs and development of criteria for spatial, physical, and symbolic, and spatial organization (strategy).

The author emphasizes the need for collaboration between architects, clients, users and other stakeholders during the programming stage of a design project and recommends incorporating design evaluations to a feedback stage useful for future programming in the life cycle of a building. This text lacks examples or a case studies to illustrate the translation of theory into practice.

Peña, W. M. and Parshall, S. A. (2001). ***Problem Seeking: An Architectural Programming Primer, 4th Edition.*** **New York: Wiley.**

William Peña is a retired partner of the architectural firm Caudill Rowlett Scott (CRS). He is considered to be the father of architectural programming and wrote the first edition of *Problem Seeking* in 1969 which became a standard text on programming. Steven Parshall is Senior Vice President of the firm Hellmuth, Obata + Kassabaum (HOK) and has been an architectural programmer for major international design projects. Their book is written for architects, students, and clients; it explains the programming method developed by Peña and refined over 50 years.

Peña approach to programming consists of five steps:

1) establish goals,

2) collect and analyze facts,

3) uncover and test concepts,

4) determine needs,

5) state the problem.

A comprehensive appendix (Part II) discusses terms and examples, programming procedures and the application of the fundamental process, and useful programming techniques. This book was made readable for novices and provides an excellent introduction to programming that can enhance building clients and future users' participation.

COPYRIGHT NOTICE

I, Catherine Closet-Crane, hereby submit this dissertation to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for a doctoral degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available for use in accordance with its regulations concerning materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching), and research purposes of a non-profit nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain will be allowed without written permission of the author.

Catherine Closet-Crane

Catherine Closet-Crane

December 4, 2009

Date

(Re-)creating the Academic Library as Place for the 21st Century? A Critical Analysis of Discourses in Discussions of Academic Library Planning and Design

Title

Signature of Graduate Office Staff Member

12-7-09

Date Received